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EMPIRE OPPORTUNITIES

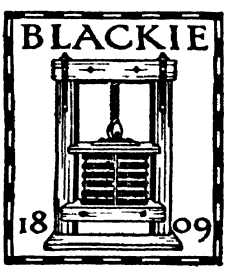
EMPIRE OPPORTUNITIES

The Problems of Emigration and Empire Settlement	By T. C. Macnaghten, C.M.G., C.B.E.
Canada	By J. E. Ray.
The Union of South Africa	By Eric A. Nobbs, Ph.D., B.Sc.
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East Africa	By Major W. J. Cawthorn.
Opportunities for Women	By Commissioner David C. Lamb, C.M.G., LL.D.

EMPIRE OPPORTUNITIES

A Survey of the Possibilities of Overseas Settlement

CONTRIBUTED BY
DOMINIONS AND OTHER EXPERTS



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I. THE PROBLEMS OF EMIGRATION AND EMPIRE SETTLEMENT

By

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Late Assistant-Secretary, Dominions Office, and Vice-Chairman, Oversea Settlement Committee

INTRODUCTION

The Problems of Emigration and Empire Settlement

There are certain subjects—fiscal policy is one, foreign exchanges another, and emigration a third—which are so ramified and complex that no one seems capable of seeing them whole and understanding all their aspects. Unlike the other two subjects which I have mentioned, emigration has *prima facie* a specious appearance of simplicity. We all know that the British oversea Dominions are large and sparsely populated, that this country is small and densely populated; and the thought jumps to the mind, why not transfer part of the population from this country to the Dominions with equal advantage to both?

In this introduction I propose, following the usual practice in the past, to use the words " emigrate ", " emigrant ", " immigrate " and " immigrant " (the e's for the outgoers and im's for the ingoers) to describe the simple migration movement from one country to another, and to use the terms " colonization " or " settlement overseas " to describe not only the movement of emigrants from one country to another, but also their permanent settlement on the land or otherwise in the new country to which they go. For the most part I shall be referring to the movements of emigrants and settlers from this country to other parts of the British Empire.

Colonization after Waterloo.

The modern history of British emigration and colonization dates from the decade after Waterloo. During the past 120 years, the subject has been discussed literally hundreds of times in Parliament; its literature has been gigantic. The history of this

period is summarized shortly in the Report[1] of the Oversea Settlement Committee for 1928, and an account of attempted colonization schemes (not one of them financially successful) will be found in the Appendix to the Report[2] to the House of Commons Select Committee on Colonization, 1891, and in the Report[3] of the Departmental Committee on Agricultural Settlements in British Colonies, published in 1906.

Like the Great War of 1914–18 the Napoleonic wars were followed in this country some years after fighting ended by a period of acute distress. For about 50 years from 1820 onwards, state assistance was given to emigrants and schemes of settlement overseas encouraged. The population of this country was still largely agricultural, especially at the beginning of this period, and good land was available overseas, either free or at a cost of a few shillings an acre. During the nineteenth century, state-aided emigration was given a full and prolonged trial.

From about 1850, opinion began to veer round to the view that Government supervision and state-aided emigration were unnecessary. The Manchester school of thought argued that the home Government need take no further interest in those who left these shores, and for a time that view prevailed.

Soon after state-aided emigration had been abandoned, and a wholly *laissez-faire*—or, rather, *laissez-aller*—policy adopted, opinion began once again to veer round. At least, it was felt, there should be full information as to the prospects awaiting emigrants and settlers overseas, and consequently in 1886 the Emigrants Information Office was started, with a subsidy from the Government. This Office was, as its name suggests, an Office which gave information, though it gave no financial help, to those who thought of emigration to other parts of the Empire or to foreign countries.

Doubts and questionings as to whether state aid should not be resuscitated on a larger scale led to the appointment of the Select Committee on Colonization already referred to. It is worth noting that that Committee enunciated the view that an emigration scheme is successful if the great majority of the emigrants are doing de-

[1] Cmd. 3308. [2] B. 152. [3] Cmd. 2978.

cidedly better than they were at home; and that there are three elements in the success of a colonization scheme, viz.:

(1) that the colonists should do decidedly better than they did at home;
(2) that they should remain upon and cultivate the land upon which they settled; and
(3) that the money advanced to them should in due course be repaid.

Recruiting Emigrants.

Up to the outbreak of war in 1914, the encouragement of emigration and the recruiting of emigrants was largely in the hands of passage brokers whose interests lay mainly in the sale of passage tickets. Official encouragement, financial and otherwise, was, during these years, given not by the home Government but by oversea Governments, which, conscious of the smallness of their populations, carried on an active recruiting campaign in this country and gave some measure of state assistance. Canada paid a bonus of from £1 up to as much as £5 to passage brokers and recruiting agents for every domestic servant booked by them to Canada. Queensland gave free passages to farm labourers and their families and guaranteed to provide work, whilst the other Australian States gave assisted passages at a cost of about £6 to £8, i.e. at about half rates, to skilled agriculturists and domestic servants. New Zealand gave slightly reduced rates. Small capitalists, domestic servants and dependants of British subjects, established in South Africa, could also get reduced passage rates to that country.

It is significant as evidence that the desire to stimulate emigration was stronger overseas than in this country during the years before the War, that at the Colonial Conference of 1907 and the Imperial Conference of 1911, the Australian Ministers brought forward resolutions asking the Imperial Government to co-operate financially with any Colony (Dominion) which wanted immigrants from this country. On both occasions, the proposal was turned down on the grounds, as Mr. John Burns explained in 1907, that " the settled policy of Parliament has been not to vote State money for emigration ".

I quote a few sentences from Mr. Burns's speech. "The Dominions," he said, "now want the farmer, they want the good skilled labourer, they want the skilled handy-man, they want the domestic servant, and in many cases they want the platelayers, and the heavy lifter, and the man whose physique is adapted to the opening pioneer work of constructing public and private works on a big scale in new countries." It was no doubt largely owing to Mr. Burns's suggestion that the Emigrants Information Office was fully supplied with particulars of industrial opportunities overseas.

The Dominions Royal Commission, appointed in pursuance of a resolution of the Imperial Conference of 1911, investigated the emigration problem in relation to each Dominion. They criticized the system under which the recruiting of emigrants was largely in the hands of passage brokers, and in their final Report published in 1917, whilst not recommending "state-aided emigration on a large scale", urged that the development of the Dominions ought to be pushed on with the help of emigrants and settlers from this country. They also suggested the setting up of a central emigration authority—i.e. an enlarged Emigrants Information Office, ranking as a Government Department, with powers to control passage brokers, emigration societies, &c., but without authority to interfere with the emigration authorities of the various Dominions.

The Oversea Settlement Committee.

As the War drew to an end, it was felt that emigration was likely to assume importance in connexion with the settlement in civil life of large numbers of ex-service men and women. Consequently after the Armistice the Emigrants Information Office was superseded by the Oversea Settlement Committee appointed "to enable His Majesty's Government to deal effectively with the problems which are likely to arise during the period of reconstruction after the War". The Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies was *ex-officio* the Chairman of the Committee, and I, who had since 1911 been Chairman of the Committee of the Emigrants Information Office, was appointed Vice-Chairman of the new Committee. I held this post, a whole-time job, until 1929.

In an early memorandum the Committee advised that emigra-

tion from the United Kingdom to other parts of the Empire was likely to benefit the Empire as a whole. They advocated state aid by the Imperial Government for women and juvenile emigrants and, as a reward for war services, the grant of free passages to ex-service men who wished to go to other parts of the Empire, either as land settlers or to some definite job. This last proposal was accepted by the Government, and about 85,000 ex-service men and women and their dependants took advantage of it.

By the end of 1920 the fillip which the advent of peace gave to industry had vanished, and the Government came to the conclusion that one of the best ways of dealing with the situation which faced this country and the Empire was the adoption of an active emigration policy, in effect to try by a more rapid distribution of population to speed-up the development of the resources of the Empire. With this object, they invited the Governments of Canada, Australia and New Zealand to a Conference which took place early in 1921.

Lord Milner presided, and laid it down at the outset that the problem which faced the Empire was how to distribute its white population in the way best calculated to develop and strengthen the whole Empire. Such distribution could not, he emphatically said, directly relieve abnormal unemployment, but might minimize future risks of unemployment by increasing production overseas and industry here at home.

The Conference recommended that the Governments of the Empire should co-operate in a long-term policy of Empire settlement and Empire directed migration, the Dominions and the Mother Country co-operating on a pound for pound basis.

These views were approved by the Conference of Prime Ministers in 1921 which urged the Imperial Government to embody the new policy in an Act, thus giving it permanency. Hence the Empire Settlement Act of 1922, which enabled His Majesty's Government to go halves with the Oversea Governments, or public or private bodies, in development or land-settlement schemes in other parts of the Empire; or in providing passages and other initial allowances to emigrants. The financial contribution of the Imperial Government was limited to £3,000,000 a year for 15 years.

The new policy was a complete reversal of the settled policy of His Majesty's Government for the previous 50 years; yet it met with little opposition either in Parliament or in the country. Why was this? The reasons were, I think, a genuine belief that Britain was becoming overpopulated while the Dominions urgently needed more population, a genuine belief that the Empire's industry, trade and material prosperity required a more even distribution of the white population as between the United Kingdom and the Dominions, and a genuine belief that the smallness of the white population overseas, most of all in Australia and New Zealand, made it likely that land-hungry nations in Europe and Asia would demand freer access to those territories.

Emigration and Unemployment.

No one with any official responsibility for the new Act ever imagined that it could help to relieve immediate unemployment in this country. Yet I suspect that one of the chief reasons for the general support which the new policy received, was the misguided belief that here, ready to hand, in a state-aided emigration policy, lay a remedy for the unemployment which was at that time beginning to show itself in this country.

The experts of the nineteenth century held that the vacuums caused by emigration are quickly filled up, and Mr. C. P. Lucas,[1] the first Chairman of the Emigrants Information Office and one of the most careful students of emigration (see his evidence before the Select Committee of 1891), took the view that emigration was no remedy for over-population, because if the pressure of population is lightened, the birth-rate will rise.

It may be debatable how far these views were correct in the past and how far they should be modified now that our population is almost stationary and the birth-rate falling. However that may be, the emigration policy of this country must now, and in the future, be governed by the fact that the Dominions have become free nations within the Empire, settled communities, each faced unfortunately with serious unemployment problems of their own,

[1] Later Sir C. P. Lucas, V.C.B., K.C.M.G., Assistant Under-Secretary, Colonial Office, and author of Lucas's *Historical Geography of the British Empire.*

and with an uncontrovertible right to decide what settlers they will take into their territories. Naturally, they look askance at any policy which seems to them to have as its object the relief of unemployment in this country. It is not reasonable or possible to take exception to this attitude.

Although the policy of state-aided emigration and settlement as embodied in the Empire Settlement Act was strongly endorsed by oversea Governments in the Resolutions of the Imperial Economic Conference, 1923, and the Imperial Conference, 1926, yet certain of those Governments seemed, from the very moment the Act was passed, to find difficulty in giving effect to it. They seemed inclined to restrict assisted passages to men going to farm work and women going to household work, and to refuse help for those going to industrial employment. They were more chary than in pre-War days of supplying information as to openings in industry and before long gave up giving this information. I refer later to the reasons for this attitude.

Post-War Emigration Schemes.

Yet as I look back at the Reports of the Oversea Settlement Committee between 1919 and 1929, I am astonished at the size and variety of the schemes set on foot in spite of the limited co-operation of oversea Governments.

The Treasury was effectively represented on the Committee during those years, and never withheld sanction from schemes which seemed to afford reasonable hopes of success. So far as His Majesty's Government was concerned, there was perfect willingness to spend up to the maximum of the £3,000,000 a year available under the Empire Settlement Act. Scores of schemes were started; assisted passages enabled those approved to proceed to Eastern Canada for £3 to £4, to Western Canada for £6 to £9, and to Australia and New Zealand for £11. There was a scheme for settling 3000 families from the United Kingdom on farms in Canada and half a dozen other smaller settlement schemes for that Dominion; there was a large scheme under which Australia agreed to raise £34,000,000 in loans for development schemes affording openings to British settlers; the British Government was to make a grant

of £150,000 for every £750,000 of loan money raised and spent. There were numerous arrangements with voluntary societies for passages, and aftercare for women and children. The Kingsley Fairbridge School was put on its feet with a grant of £20,000. Training in farm work was provided in this country for emigrants at the expense of His Majesty's Government without a contribution from the Dominions.

In 1928, the Government arranged with the Shipping Companies to give a £10 ocean rate to anyone who wished to emigrate to or settle in Canada and could pay his way at the reduced rate. In the same year the Government of Canada reluctantly, but courteously, acquiesced in a proposal of His Majesty's Government to send out 10,000 men, chiefly miners, to help in the Canadian harvest. Actually 8500 men went out; they reached Winnipeg to find that, owing to wet weather, work was not available, and when work started a very high percentage of the men had not the physique for this very tough job. By the end of the year 6500 were back in England. This scheme was a failure.

Something more must be said of the Canadian 3000 Families Scheme and the Australian Loan Agreement. Under the Canadian scheme, the Dominion Government undertook to place families from this country on farms ready for them in settled districts in Canada. This country's contribution was an advance of £300 for each settler for stock and equipment. The liability of each settler was about £1000. The scheme was carefully thought out by the Dominion authorities. The settlers were chosen by Canadian experts and were looked after by field supervisors, an admirable body of young Canadians who had learned their job in supervising the settlement on the land of Canadian ex-soldiers. These men looked after the families committed to their charge with care and sympathy. About 3300 families, say, 16,000 souls, were settled under the scheme. In 1926 Lord Clarendon, then Chairman of the Oversea Settlement Committee, and I visited Canada in order to inquire into its progress. We actually saw about 200 of the families in different parts of Canada and in our Report dated October, 1926, wrote: "The scheme has thus far proved a conspicuous success and promises to become the most successful

effort of colonization undertaken by any Government in modern times."

In 1929, in the general slump which caused a fall in the price of wheat and other farm produce, these settlers suffered in common with other agriculturists the world over. Even so, according to the latest figures, 1650 families, i.e. just half of the total families who went out, are still on their farms. It may be assumed that not a few of the remaining families found their feet in other occupations in Canada.

The scheme cost the Dominion Government over $14,000,000. It cost the British Government $4,000,000. Thus far, $1,200,000 have been repaid. 30 per cent of the settlers' debts was written off some years ago, and much of the original outlay will be irrecoverable. This outlay works out at a cost of about £2000 to £2500 for each of the 1650 families still on their farms. Such figures would shock the Colonization Committee of 1891. They do not stand the test of success that "the money advanced should in due course be repaid", but in 1891 ideas of finance were orthodox, indeed rigid, and general opinion to-day would probably be that in the altered circumstances and conditions of emigration and settlement an irrecoverable expenditure of, say, several hundred pounds per family might be justified if it ensured substantial and prosperous settlement.

The biggest scheme under the Commonwealth Loan Agreement was one which aimed at settling 6000 British families on farms in the south-east of Western Australia. 4000 families, chosen by the Western Australian authorities, went and were settled in groups. It is admitted, I think, that the scheme ought to have been more fully thought out on the other side. The intention was that the settlers should rely largely on dairy farming. They were put on land which needed laborious clearing, and when cleared was found unsuitable for dairying. At a critical moment prices of dairy produce slumped, and less than 10 per cent of the settlers are now on their holdings. The scheme involved Western Australia in great expense; subsidiary schemes for roads, small railways and water conservation were dependent upon it, and thus the cost of the scheme per family still remaining on the land is fabulous.

The economic depression hit Australia hard, and the States were unable to put forward satisfactory schemes for absorbing settlers. Consequently the £34,000,000 Agreement was ended by mutual consent in 1932.

Enough has, I think, been said to show that, as after 1820, so between the end of the War and 1929 a great effort was made by His Majesty's Government to encourage state-aided emigration and colonization. Owing to the limited co-operation of the Dominions, only a small part of the money available under the Empire Settlement Act was spent. The biggest expenditure in a single year was £1,200,000 in 1927, and the total average expenditure between 1923 and 1929 was rather over £800,000 per annum.

The United States and Emigration.

In 1929, the economic crisis brought emigration to a standstill. Dominion Governments ceased to co-operate in state aid, and in this country the wish to emigrate seemed to vanish. The excess of emigrants to other parts of the Empire over immigrants returning from the Empire had averaged about 80,000 during the seven years, 1923–9. In 1930 the excess fell below 8000, and during the next six years, 1931–6, returning immigrants exceeded the outgoers, by 26,000 in 1931, and by 33,000 in 1932. The excess has averaged about 13,000 during the three years 1934–6.

The year 1924 was marked by an event of the first importance. The Government and people of the United States decided that that country was saturated with immigrants, and a law was passed which virtually put an end to all emigration from Europe, including the British Isles. Thus a door which had been open wide to immigrants for a century or more suddenly shut. The effect on emigration from this country was very great, and indirect as well as direct, for no small part of the emigrants who had formerly gone from this country to Canada were in reality on their way to the United States.

Early in 1936 the Government set up a new Board to advise on specific schemes of emigration. Its members could not have been better chosen. " These are names," a *Times* leader rightly said, " which command confidence that the new Board will rise

to the level of an important task." But unfortunately this change in the machinery with some change of personnel has left the problem unchanged, except that its difficulties have intensified.

Government spokesmen in this country now seem inclined to suggest that there is not much chance for the British emigrant on the land overseas and that there is more hope of work in industry. Yet some of the Dominions still seem wedded to the idea that the land offers the only openings.

During the Session of 1937 an Act was passed extending the Empire Settlement Act for a further 15 years, but reducing the maximum yearly contribution of His Majesty's Government to £1,500,000, and allowing co-operation in expenditure with voluntary societies up to a maximum of 75 per cent.

It is strange, looking to the marked recovery in this country, Australia and South Africa, and the partial recovery in other parts of the Empire, that emigration is still at so low an ebb. Even to-day there are few indications of a revival, and expenditure under the Act during 1937 did not exceed a few thousands.

Statistics of emigration are confusing, because until after 1912 they lumped emigrants and ordinary travellers together, and after that date show them separately. Also, after 1923 Irish Free State movements were not shown. I therefore quote a minimum of figures.

In 1913 outgoing emigrants numbered 389,000; within the Empire the number was 285,000.

In 1926–8, the three peak years of emigration under the Empire Settlement Act (with the United States and Irish Free State out of the picture), the yearly movement of emigrants out of this country was 150,000 and within the Empire 120,000. The average number helped in each of these three years under the Empire Settlement Act was 58,000.

In view of the different bases of calculation, I rely on these figures no farther than as proof that emigration has not been raised by state aid to as high a level as it reached without state aid before the War.

A Changed Situation.

Let us now look at the present situation and compare it with the situation in 1922; it has changed profoundly both here and overseas.

Between 1870 and 1913 the population of this country had been steadily increasing at an average rate of 418,000 a year, which was reduced by emigration to about 360,000 a year. As recently as 1923, the Registrar-General saw no safe grounds for assuming that the rate of natural increase would diminish. But since 1928 the natural increase has never exceeded 200,000 a year. On the whole, it tends to fall. It was 121,000 in 1935, and 110,000 in 1936. Given a continuation of present tendencies in birth and death rates, we may before long see equilibrium between births and deaths and thereafter a decline of the population.

In 1922 the number of unemployed in this country was about 1,300,000, a trifle less than now. In 1932 the number had risen to 2,900,000. Since then, it has fallen rapidly. The returns for June, 1937, show 1,357,000 unemployed, including 200,000 temporarily stopped and 70,000 normally in casual work.

Thus in five years, unemployment has fallen by more than half. This phenomenal reduction implies that acute depression has passed, and that industry is almost booming in parts of the country.

The agricultural population of this island, which had dwindled to about 1,000,000 in 1921, only just exceeded 750,000 in 1936. This figure is alarmingly small, and as agricultural wages have risen sharply, it does not seem in the interest of agricultural workers and certainly not in the interests of the whole community that they should be encouraged by state aid to emigrate.

Apart from the 750,000 agricultural workers, the population is mainly industrial. It has been so for a hundred years, and has lost its land sense. Put an English family on to the land and they will ask where they can buy tinned food to keep them till the harvest. Put a true peasant family on the land, and they will get some kind of food out of it in a very short time.

Of course there are still some who hanker after the land; not few in the aggregate, but hard to find. But one cannot expect the

average family from this country to tackle with success the hardships and hazards of farming in Canada or Australia. They cannot, for instance, compete with the French Canadian, the one true peasant race in the Dominions, or the peasant families from Europe (who must show, before they proceed to Canada, that they are experienced farmers and possess $1000). It is some generations—a fact long acknowledged—since the soul of this nation was land-loving. Thus the report of the 1891 Committee refers to a settlement in or about 1860 in the heart of Kaffraria of 3000 specially selected families from Germany. Except that they did not repay the £90,000 lent by the Imperial Government, they did extremely well. But the Report says: "The scheme's success could hardly be taken as a precedent for a similar scheme with Englishmen, for they were extremely hard workers, men from Pomerania, Posen, and Silesia, who had all their lives lived on black bread and milk soup; they got up at daybreak and worked till the last moment at night, and they were very thrifty."

The social services, such as Unemployment Benefit, National Health Insurance, &c., are a growing obstacle to emigration from this country. The Report of the Oversea Settlement Committee for 1928 took the view that these services tend to anchor population in this country and decrease its mobility.

Immigration a Political Issue.

I myself am now convinced that these schemes, excellent and inevitable as they are, act like chains in immobilizing the population, most of all its least prosperous elements. Safety first!

As we turn our eyes across the sea, we note that steerage passages are things of the past, that a high standard of comfort is asked for on ocean-going steamers, with the result that passage rates are high, and it costs a substantial sum for a single emigrant, much more for a family, to travel from this country to a destination overseas. On the other hand, wages have risen, and money is more quickly earned.

In most of the Dominions immigration has become a burning political question. For many years organized labour has looked on it with suspicion, accepting the widely held belief that every

emigrant either fails to find a job and becomes unemployed, or displaces a member of the existing community from a job, thus in either case adding one to the unemployed. This idea is, I believe, just as mistaken as the idea that the removal of one emigrant from this country reduces by one the number of our unemployed. (When an emigrant gets a job overseas, he begins to earn money, creates wealth, and gives employment to others, and if he actually displaces someone from a job that person finds some other work, probably, in a new country, pioneers, and so benefits the community.)

State the case a little differently, and one can feel more sympathy with the standpoint of the workers overseas. They believe that emigration creates for them, or rather aggravates, their own unemployment problem. Only the other day a Canadian visitor said to me: " For pity's sake don't send us any more emigrants. There are far too many on relief in Vancouver already."

How Far is Land Available?

The price of land in the Dominions is of vital importance in relation to immigration, settlement, and indeed all development. It is altogether too high. Good cultivable land costs as much as in the home counties of England. When I was in Canada in 1926, land prices seemed to me excessive. I am told that those prices slumped during the world crisis, but are now rising. We are told in the Article on Canada (p. 49) that cleared land for fruit growing in the Okanagan and Kootenay valleys of British Columbia costs from $600 to $1000 an acre. One hears of land costing £40 to £50 an acre in New Zealand, and of £100 being paid for sugar-growing land on the borders of New South Wales and Queensland. High land prices make settlement infinitely more difficult than in the good old days.

How far is good and accessible land available for British settlers in the Dominions?

Farms can be bought at a price in any part of Canada, but the best agricultural districts in Quebec and Ontario are closely settled, even overflowing. There are areas, large in the aggregate, in the Northern prairies, in North British Columbia and in North Ontario

(a stiff clay soil which the Dominion authorities used to think unsuitable for British settlers) where there is still room for large numbers of settlers. There are stretches with uncertain or barely sufficient rainfall where peasants from Europe, Finns and Czechoslovaks, accustomed to a low standard of living, have made good. There are large forest tracts which, when cleared, will be suitable for farming. But clearing is inconceivably hard, and will be gradually carried out, not by settlers from here, but by French Canadians who, as M. André Siegfried tells us in his recent and illuminating book, *Canada*, have a genius for this difficult and magnificent work.

Even in the vast wheat-growing areas of the West, farming seems attended with risks greater than those of farming in this country or in Europe. Canada is far north. There are early frosts and late frosts, droughts, hail storms, and rust, and for the past four or five years the prairie harvest has been disappointing.

Perhaps in the next few years we may hear more of the opening up of Canada's mineral resources than of extending agriculture, and in developing Canada's mines, her underground fields, there should be scope for engineers and skilled men from England. Industrial openings should follow.

In South Africa, as appears from the section of this book dealing with that Dominion, there are no empty areas for group settlement. Areas which may seem to the uninitiated to be lightly occupied, are in fact congested and can carry no more population. This Dominion is prosperous, owing to the high price of gold, and should provide many openings for skilled industrialists.

Australia's Open Spaces.

Of all the Dominions, Australia has the vastest open spaces. But compare it to a soup plate; the centre of the plate is at present uninhabitable desert, only the southern half of the rim is suitable for agriculture and from that southern half one must cut out the large waterless chunk west of Adelaide.

In 1936 the Bank of New South Wales, an authority which cannot be suspected of drawing too dark a picture, published a circular on the subject of " Our vast empty spaces ". This document

deserves study. It states that in Victoria and New South Wales little Crown land is available which is suitable for selection; most of it is of an inferior nature, and suitable only for grazing; that the scarcity of farmland in Tasmania has for many years led settlers to come back to the mainland; that South Australia has a smaller proportion of well-watered land than any other State, and has for over 60 years struggled unremittingly to extend her wheat belt; that the farm land of Western Australia is confined to the South-West (the location of the recent costly and unsuccessful attempt to settle British families); that in Queensland—and here the Lands Department Report is quoted—"Most of the unoccupied country is of an inferior quality, and remote"; and that in the Northern Territory and tropical Western Australia every attempt to establish agriculture by capable men, who have experimented for over a century, has been a failure. With more intensive farming and the elimination of pests the settled areas could carry a larger population. The circular ends, "Greater settlement and production are possible not in the vast empty spaces of popular usage, but in the areas already proved suitable for farming, and which, although only a small portion of the Continent, constitute a large area in the aggregate." (See map, p. 129.)

The worst of the talk about "wide empty spaces" is that it encourages in Europe and Asia the idea that the British Empire adopts a dog-in-the-manger attitude, not settling and developing itself with its own people, yet preventing others from coming in.

Expert estimates of the possible future population of Australia vary between ten and one hundred million. One infers that the estimates must be in some measure guesswork, but one assumption is safe, i.e. that under present conditions it will be many years—a day as far off as it is safe to look forward to—before the ten million mark is reached.

One wonders whether Australia will one day be driven to reconsider her all-British policy. Peasant emigrants from Europe might succeed as they have in Canada on the belts of land which divide the areas of sufficient from those of insufficient rainfall. There was coloured labour in Australia until the early years of this century;

and it is a fact, little remembered to-day, that in 1876 the Government of Australia sounded the Japanese Government in regard to Japanese emigration into the Northern Territories.

New Zealand never put forward a scheme for settlement under the Act, though it co-operated readily in giving assisted passages. Yet perhaps our only really successful colonization scheme was carried out in New Zealand. In 1873–4 a land Company bought 100,000 acres from the New Zealand Government, one condition being the settling of 1500 adults on the land within four years. The New Zealand Government gave free passages from England. On arrival the settlers took up town lots on which the Company had built houses costing, be it noted, £32 each. Ample work on roads or railways was available for the settlers. Later most of them took up land from the Company, and in due course repaid with interest all they owed. Their success was due to the fact that they had well-paid work awaiting them. It was an employment and land-settlement scheme combined.

Empire Defence.

One of the chief arguments for state-aided emigration has been the defence argument; the need for more population in Australia and New Zealand to keep the British end up in the Pacific. Fifteen years ago I attached the utmost importance to this point of view. I am not sure that I was right. If it becomes necessary within a measurable time to defend Australia against aggression, this will be done, not by any extra population which it may be possible to send out from here, but by the British Fleet, which is maintained by the taxpayer in this country. Is it not most important of all to keep the heart of the Empire strong? The belief common in the first quarter of this century that the centre of gravity of the Empire might move from this country to the Dominions finds fewer supporters to-day.

The Future of Emigration.

I must now summarize these notes and say a tentative word about the future.

The century before the War saw the filling-up of what still remained empty in the temperate and habitable regions of the world. In future, while conditions remain as they are, emigration will flow in a small stream rather than as a great river.

British emigrants will not find many openings on the land overseas. No doubt individuals will find work on farms and those with capital will buy them. As Canada recovers there should be work for skilled engineers and industrialists. In Australia there ought to be openings for British industrial workers. This is also true of South Africa.

The life of the Empire Settlement Act has been renewed and money for state-aided emigration is available in excess of any demands to-day in sight. There is every advantage in giving state aid to the emigration of boys and girls going out to schools of the Fairbridge type. There is much to be said for state aid for women and for emigrants nominated and guaranteed a future by friends overseas. There is, I think, less to be said for state aid for voluntary societies. They exist to help the under-dog; and for this reason their activities have always been viewed critically overseas. Nor am I personally in favour of reviving the arrangements between His Majesty's Government and the shipping lines for a special £10 rate to Canada (a reduction of about £6 in the ordinary fare)—unless, of course, Canada herself were willing to join in financially. The arrangement was first made in the autumn of 1928. It was acquiesced in but not liked by the Dominion Government. A difference between £10 and £16 for ocean passages is not likely to deter a large percentage of suitable emigrants, and there is more confidence overseas in the emigrant who has paid his own way entirely.

I doubt whether there is to-day a strong case for state-aided emigration. In spite of a recovery here and in the Dominions, all emigration is dormant. If state aided by His Majesty's Government it becomes unpopular overseas. The subject was not discussed at

the recent Imperial Conference, evidently because Dominion Governments did not wish it discussed.

I am coming round to the view that a policy of state-aided emigration, actively pursued by His Majesty's Government without Dominion co-operation would defeat its own ends. Such a policy should only be undertaken with the full approval of Dominion Governments and their financial co-operation, pound for pound. Anything less than this might set this country at cross-purposes with the Dominions on a question of vital importance to the whole Empire.

But if it were known overseas that His Majesty's Government would only resume state aid to emigrants if and when the Dominions pressed for it, and offered to join in financing it, the result should be to free the problem once and for all from suspicion of being a camouflaged method of dealing with our own unemployment difficulties, to make British emigrants wholly welcome instead of somewhat suspect, and consequently to stimulate and encourage emigration.

This would mean a substantial return to the policy pursued up to 1914 when emigration was at a higher level than it has since been, and when even voluntary societies performed their most valuable work without state help. Rich and poor, who wanted to emigrate in those days managed to do so, and I doubt if lack of funds would hinder many suitable emigrants to-day.

It was a feature of the pre-War system that full and up-to-date information was available as to openings overseas. I have quoted from the old reports and circulars. Such information has not been published in recent years, and I should like to see the old system revived. The information should be full, always up to date and neither darkly nor brightly coloured. The High Commissioners in the various Dominions could supply much useful material and the Dominions would help.

By no means should emigration within the Empire be discouraged. All who want to try their fortunes overseas or see good prospects of bettering themselves should be assisted by every means short of financial help from Government funds. There should be enough Government supervision to prevent abuse.

"Let emigration take its course," was Mr. Lucas's advice in 1891. Treat it—as a speaker recently said in the House of Commons—not as a means to enable those who are doing badly to escape; but as a means of enabling those who are doing well to go and do better.

II. CANADA

By

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CHAPTER I

Canada's Population Problem

Before proceeding to discuss the opportunities and prospects in Canada for intending settlers, it is imperative that the present Canadian attitude towards immigration should be made as clear as possible. During the long trade depression from 1930 onwards, Canada, like other countries, has had to carry a heavy burden of unemployment. Even at the beginning of the year 1937 there were at least 400,000 unemployed in a population of less than 11,000,000. It would therefore be strange if either the Government or the people showed enthusiasm for immigration, or encouraged settlement except under conditions which will be referred to in later chapters.

Agriculture still holds a predominant position among Canada's industries, and, as far as it is humanly possible to foresee, it will retain that position for many decades to come, if not for all time. Richly as the country is endowed with minerals and timber, these raw materials do not renew themselves year by year as do the products of the soil under the influence of sun and rain. Consequently immigration will always have to be measured by the tape of the country's agricultural industry. As in the past, it would seem that the barometer of all other industries must rise or fall as the atmosphere of agriculture determines. Fully 85 per cent of Canada's trade is internal. When agriculture ails, the health of practically every other domestic industry declines correspondingly.

The agricultural industry in all its ramifications obviously depends for its existence and expansion upon internal and external demand for its products. It extends its activities only under the impetus of demand, and curtails them as demand dwindles. Canada now produces in excess of her domestic requirements, and exports the surplus to markets overseas, principally to the United Kingdom.

Internal sales can be augmented only if the population be increased, or the purchasing power of the existing 11,000,000 be enhanced as the result of all-round prosperity.

Can the Dominion rely upon overseas markets to absorb not only its present surplus, but the additional surplus that would naturally follow an enlargement of the agricultural population by means of immigration? On a satisfactory answer to that question depends the success or failure of land settlement by new immigrants.

Attitude to Immigration.

As one would expect, on the desirability of resuming immigration on a larger scale, opinion is divided. The objectors contend that it would be unwise to encourage land settlement until work is found for the unemployed; the advocates of immediate resumption maintain that it could not fail to create productive employment for all existing idle hands. Organized labour is opposed to an influx of new settlers, fearing that it would intensify competition for employment in industries other than agriculture, inasmuch as the tendency of workers is to move from the land to the factory, rather than in the opposite direction. The farmers object to larger numbers settling on the land because, so they contend, it would mean increased production, thereby inducing not only keener competition, but depressed prices. The other school of opinion argues that new immigrants, if scientifically settled and financially supported for a fixed period would create employment, not deprive others of it.

The two cardinal questions, therefore, which Canada must answer for herself are: (1) If new immigrants are permitted to enter the country with the object of land settlement—which would mean increasing agricultural production—is there a reasonable prospect of marketing the increased production that would inevitably ensue? (2) Would an enlarged land population provide a greater volume of employment, or add to the number of idle hands that for some years past have been maintained at public expense?

If, to use an arbitrary figure, 100,000 new immigrants were settled on the land, it is obvious that additional employment would

be provided for manual workers as well as for producers of foodstuffs. The immigrants would need housing accommodation, furniture, farm implements, tools, live-stock, clothing and food. But where would the increased production of farm products find a sales outlet, bearing in mind that Canada already produces much in excess of her domestic capacity for consumption? To absorb it, an export outlet would be indispensable. Is such an outlet available?

For at least a decade past, the tendency of most countries has been towards the development of economic nationalism and self-sufficiency. The pursuit of this policy has meant a diminution of purchases from external sources. Where can the Dominion of Canada look for oversea markets with a prospect of disposing of the additional surpluses that would arise from the increased production of new land settlers?

Canada's External Markets.

In regard to wheat, many markets are open in Continental Europe, and there are also the United Kingdom, the United States, the West Indies, Newfoundland, the Irish Free State, South Africa, and the growing markets of the Orient, the major outlet being the United Kingdom. The other farm products, however—horses, cattle, meats, butter, cheese, eggs, poultry, barley, oats, fruits and vegetables, fresh or canned—are bought almost exclusively by the United Kingdom and the United States. The outlet in the United States, although widened by the conclusion of a reciprocal trade treaty with Canada, operative from 1st January, 1936, is not unlimited. Quotas are imposed on many farm products, and, in addition, there is the limitation of demand set by production in the United States of enormous quantities of similar live-stock and foodstuffs.

The other major outlet, the British market, although practically unlimited when capacity of consumption is measured by Canada's present export surplus, may contract year by year as Great Britain's agricultural output enlarges. It is self-evident that as British agriculture develops, the less demand there will be for external supplies of similar products, modified to some extent, of

course, should the standard of living in the United Kingdom continue its upward trend. At the same time, many decades are likely to elapse before British agricultural production is of a magnitude to impede seriously the influx of Canadian surpluses. The point is indicated in this connexion as a possibility rather than a probability. Certainly the prospective situation cannot be ignored by anyone endeavouring to gauge the future overseas demand for such enlarged Canadian output as would result from expanded land settlement.

If, in dealing with the future prospects for the disposal of Canadian surpluses, the writer has singled out the United Kingdom, it is because the British market is not only Canada's largest outlet at the moment, but is likely to continue so even under changing economic conditions. Were it not that production in the Dominion must take its measure from overseas demand, the subject would not call for so wide a survey. As a matter of fact, the expansion of the population depends upon the extent to which external trade can be developed in all of the country's natural resources—farm products, timber, pulp, minerals, and so forth.

An analysis of Canada's current external trade strengthens this point of view. Her *per capita* overseas trade is normally in excess of that of all the larger countries of the world, with the exception of New Zealand. It is double that of France and Germany, and about one-third greater than that of the United Kingdom. It will thus be seen how dependent upon the existence of Empire and foreign markets is Canada's capacity for absorbing new and permanent settlers. To enlarge the production of the country and then, after a lapse of years, experience a contraction of external demand would indeed be a serious matter for the Dominion. There may very well come a time when Canada will be compelled in her own interests to arrange bargaining pacts with countries whose citizens wish to settle in the Dominion, such pacts to be based on the willingness of the Governments of the countries concerned to widen their doors for the reception of Canadian surplus products.

Effect of U.S.A. Immigration Quotas.

At this juncture it will be informative to look back for a few decades upon immigration and its influence upon Canada's population, particularly as things past have a habit of recurring in cycles of time. It is not generally realized that during the past seventy-five years Canadian emigration has almost equalized immigration in point of numbers. The United States, until recent years, was a powerful magnet to Canadian citizens. Indeed, it was often affirmed in pre-War days that the Dominion Government expended millions of dollars annually in providing the United States with additional citizens.

In 1924, however, the United States found it necessary to introduce quotas. The War had left the Continent of Europe somewhat impoverished. Employment was hard to find, consequently the old world looked again to the new. But possession of so much of the world's gold by the United States was one thing; industrial activity another and wholly different matter. Immigration provided the States with more labour than could be absorbed; hence the imposition of quotas. Six years later, when the depression deepened, it became even more difficult to gain entry through American ports except by those who were visiting the country on business, to see friends, or to spend holidays. Canadians who had hitherto moved with ease across the border now found it extremely difficult to set foot on United States soil as immigrants.

The explanation of the attraction of the United States to Canadians in the past is not far to seek. The nearest analogy to the situation can be found in the United Kingdom, where England has exercised such magnetic power—almost wholly economic—over Scotland, Wales and Ireland. England has offered employment, opportunities for acquiring wealth and success far in excess of those presented to Scotsmen, Welshmen and Irishmen at home; hence their migration across the borders of their respective countries.

In like manner, before the world-wide trade depression, Canadians found greater opportunities in the United States, or rather, opportunities of a kind non-existent in their native land. Canada was a country for pioneers. It had to be built up, and thousands

of young Canadians preferred ready-made positions across the border to the labour and discomforts of pioneering.

For our present purpose, the peopling of Canada before the dawn of the twentieth century can be ignored. The periods of immediate concern are 1900 to 1914, when immigration was at its meridian; the post-War years extending from 1919 to 1929, the decade which culminated in the world crisis; and the succeeding years during which the influx of immigrants had to be more strictly controlled.

The Tide of Migration.

In the last twenty years of the nineteenth century not more than an average of 60,000 people entered the Dominion annually, and not by any means all of these remained in the country. Then followed the period of remarkable expansion numerically. The three trans-continental railway systems, the resolution of the Laurier Government to embark on the opening-up and development of the West by the prosecution of a vigorous policy of immigration, aided by a sudden improvement of world trade and higher prices, were a powerful incentive to settlement. Further, the capital without which the West could not have been developed was liberally provided by Great Britain, then reaping a bountiful harvest from the improvement in world-wide economic conditions, and by the United States.

From 1903 to 1914 inclusive, the number of immigrants totalled 2,677,319, giving a yearly average of 223,000, nearly four times greater than in the preceding twenty years. This astonishing number rose to an average of 362,000 in the three years 1912, 1913, and 1914. The immigrants were of 32 different nationalities; 41% British, 31% United States, and others 28%. Not all of the new-comers settled in the West. On the contrary, only 42% went to the Prairie Provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta; 27% having chosen Ontario, 15% Quebec, 12% British Columbia, and 4% the Maritime Provinces, chiefly Nova Scotia.

With the relatively large and varied racial composition induced by immigration, the Canadian population has assumed a somewhat cosmopolitan character. According to the 1931 census there

were 10,376,786 inhabitants, 52% of British origin, 28% of French origin (French-Canadian), and 17% Continental. With the exception of about 220,000, all are whites; and of this number, nearly 129,000 are native-born Indians and Eskimos.

In an earlier paragraph, passing allusion was made to the attraction of the great American Republic for Canadians. The same " pull " is felt by the new settlers, many of whom, Continentals particularly, confess that Canada is being used by them as a half-way house between Europe and the United States. This drift southward has been a serious matter for Canada. With the doors of the United States now practically closed, it will be interesting to note the effect upon the population of the Dominion, as it will doubtless be some years before the United States immigration regulations relax. In 1933 there were 3,337,358 Canadians living in the United States. What proportion of these are likely to return if conditions continue to improve in Canada and there occurs little relief of depression in the adjoining Republic? No one can say; but it is almost certain that by far the larger majority of them will stay in their adopted country.

The foregoing paragraphs have dealt with the immigration question from the standpoint of agriculture's capacity for absorption of additional settlers, and the external market outlook for produce. There is another factor to be considered, one that is likely to assume increasing importance in the coming years—Canadian industrial expansion. From 1903 to 1914 the larger percentage of immigrants settled on the land, but from 1921 to 1930 about 73% settled in urban centres. In the former period, the Prairie Provinces absorbed the greater number; in the latter, quite three-fifths chose the Eastern Provinces for settlement. Thus there occurred a significant change in the drift of immigration from rural to urban districts, and from the West to the East. The movement is all the more noteworthy when it is borne in mind that the efforts of the Canadian Government during the years from 1921 to 1930 were directed towards the encouragement of agricultural immigration, and the discouragement of urban.

The drift was fostered by industrial expansion up to the year of the slump, 1930, or perhaps some months earlier. For four years

the depression lasted, until the country began to feel the benefit of the Ottawa agreements. These agreements gave a lively impetus to export trade which, quite naturally, reacted beneficially on internal trade. The improvement of conditions all round has continued. In the fiscal year 1936–7 the exports of Canada passed the thousand million dollar mark for the first time since 1930. Not only the agricultural industry, but, in an astonishingly increased measure, mining and secondary industries contributed to the high export figure. In the growth of mining and secondary industries lies the explanation of the change in the destination of immigrants, a change that is likely to be intensified in the immediate future should the trade revival throughout the world experience no setback.

Need for Planned Settlement.

Out of this brief survey of the population problem the question arises—What is Canada's attitude towards immigration likely to be in the immediate future? That there are huge regions of unpopulated territory; ample opportunities for increasing the primary form of wealth production, which is agriculture; and enormous quantities of untouched minerals and timber, Canada is fully conscious. She also knows that in her own interests she must fill her empty spaces with people lest at some future date rapacious enemies should covet and endeavour to take them for the accommodation of their own overflowing populations. There remain for her consideration the methods by which the peopling and developing can best be done.

Sir Edward Beatty, President of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and one of Canada's leading economists, in addressing the Canadian Club of Toronto in 1935, said that the most urgent need of the Dominion was a definite plan of land settlement. "Almost alone among the nations of the Temperate Zone," he stated, "this country still holds great areas of unused fertile soil. Although the rate of increase of the world's population seems to be slowing down, the League of Nations Economic Survey for 1934 points out that world-population is still increasing, while world-production of food has remained unchanged since 1929. In a world where these things

are true, the nation best adapted to increase its agricultural production is to me the nation with the brightest future—and as far as I know, that is Canada."

Sir Edward then suggested that as soon as Canada has assessed the agricultural production of the country, she should renew her effort to attract those immigrants fitted to aid its development. Of the unemployed in Canada only a small percentage can be considered as suitable to become farmers. That percentage should be encouraged and aided to establish themselves on the soil. " When we have done what we can in this way," said Sir Edward, " we should proceed to seek abroad those who by race, by experience, and by the possession of a modest amount of capital, seem adapted to become successful settlers."

In 1936 fewer than 12,000 immigrants entered the Dominion, of which only 2197 were of British origin. The greater number, 4876, came across the border from the United States. As intending British settlers are free to enter Canada at any time, provided they possess sufficient capital to establish themselves on the land, it is apparent that the inducements to settle are not magnetic enough to attract. Thousands of Britishers would doubtless take up land in the Dominion were they in possession of the capital necessary to tide them over until their farms were well-established. Here enters the question of financial aid which is dealt with in another chapter.

Of course, when the fears of war in Europe are allayed, the whole outlook for immigration will be changed. This constant fear of attack is one of the cardinal causes of the development of economic nationalism. Remove the fears, suspicions, jealousies, then we may witness the abandonment of the costly policy of self-sufficiency. International trade might reasonably be expected to follow, particularly if barriers be reduced in number so as to permit a freer flow of goods and people from one country to another. Such a restoration of international fellowship and commodity interchange may be much nearer than even the nations themselves realize at the moment.

CHAPTER II

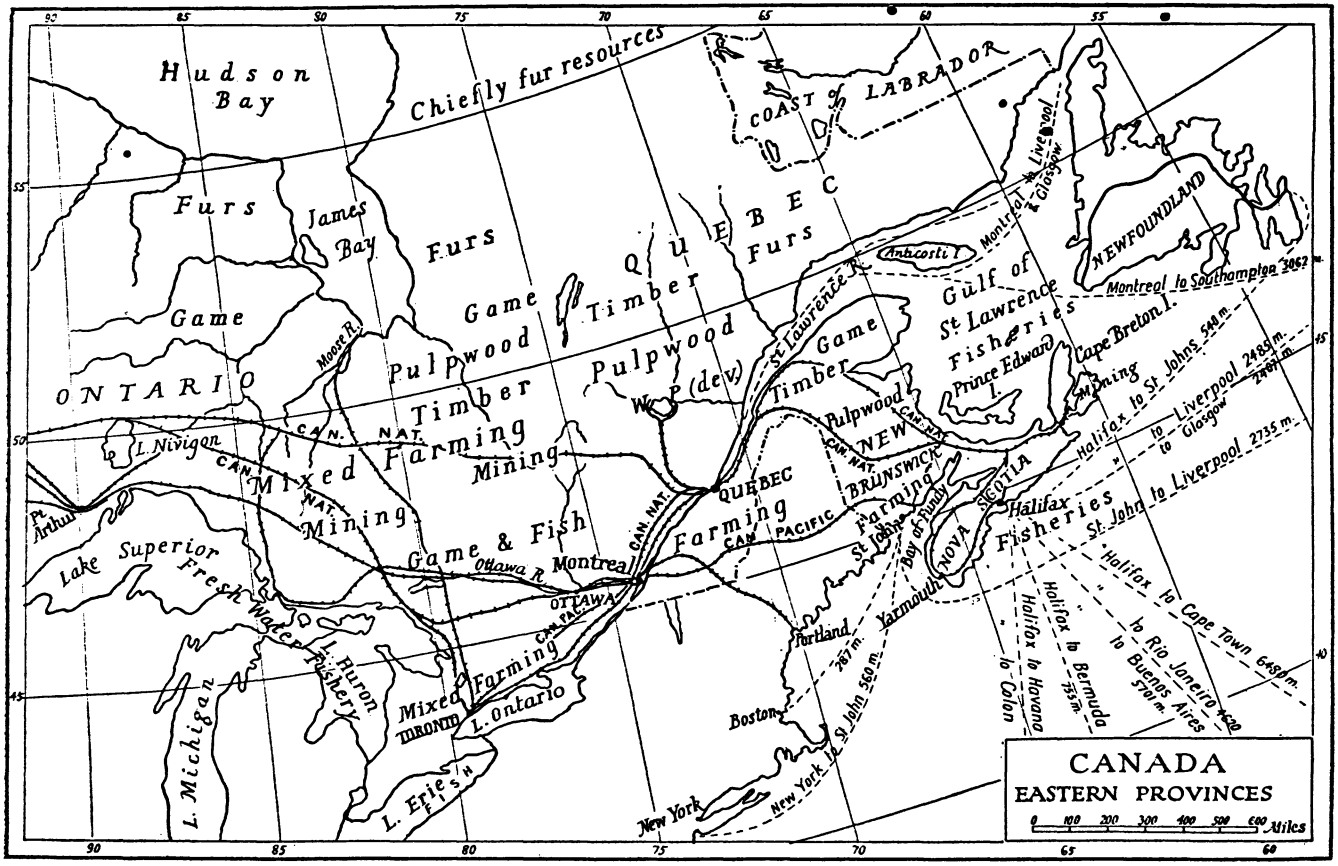
A Survey of Canada

Writers on the Dominion of Canada have frequently been charged with the too liberal use of adjectives in their descriptions of the country and its people. The plaintiffs in the case, it is to be feared, have never beheld the city of Quebec rising from the St. Lawrence, nor, after twelve hours' steady steaming along the scenic course of the river, have they come suddenly upon the commercial metropolis, Montreal, poised majestically above the busy harbour at its base. Only those in whom the sense of wonder is dead could make the St. Lawrence entry into Canada without emotion and a thrill of admiration. Nature and man have contributed to the impressiveness of the scene; Nature by form and colouring; man by his constructive genius and resolute will.

Men and women who contemplate migration to Canada quite naturally want to know something of the country before coming to a decision. After a brief description of its physical features, system of government, natural resources, industries and trade, the way will be made clearer for a study of the opportunities for immigrants in the various provinces, particularly the Prairies, consisting of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta.

Canada occupies the northern part of America, and has an area of 3,745,574 square miles, or thirty times the size of the United Kingdom. Its boundaries are the Arctic Ocean in the north, the Pacific Ocean and Alaska in the west, the United States in the south, and the Atlantic Ocean and Newfoundland in the east. From east to west the distance across the country is over 3000 miles, and from north to south about 1500 miles. The great inland sea known as Hudson Bay has an area of 360,000 square miles, and cuts deeply into the provinces of Quebec and Ontario at their northern extremities.

The lakes and waterways of Canada are one of the chief assets of the country, particularly the St. Lawrence River running from


Hudson Bay
Chiefly fur resources
COAST of LABRADOR
Furs
James Bay
Furs
Furs
Game
Timber
Pulpwood
Timber
Pulpwood
Pulpwood
Game
Timber
ONTARIO
QUEBEC
NEWFOUNDLAND
Gulf of St Lawrence Fisheries
Cape Breton I.
Prince Edward I.
Moose R.
L. Nipigon
CAN. NAT.
Mixed Farming
Mining
Mining
Game & Fish
Farming
Farming
Farming
Mixed Farming
Fishery
Fisheries
Fisheries
Pt. Arthur
Lake Superior
Fresh Water
L. Huron
L. Michigan
L. Ontario
L. Erie
Ottawa R.
Montreal
Quebec
St. Lawrence R.
Anticosti
CAN. NAT.
CAN. PACIFIC
CAN. PAC.
OTTAWA
CAN. NAT.
NEW BRUNSWICK
NOVA SCOTIA
St. John
Bay of Fundy
Yarmouth
Halifax
Portland
Boston
New York
New York to St. John 560 m.
767 m.
Montreal to Liverpool & Glasgow
Montreal to Southampton 3062 m.
Halifax to St. Johns 548 m.
Halifax to Liverpool 2489 m.
" to Glasgow 2496 m.
" to Liverpool 2735 m.
St. John to Liverpool
Halifax to Cape Town 6451 m.
Halifax to Colon
Halifax to Havana
Halifax to Bermuda 753 m.
to Rio Janeiro 4740
to Buenos Aires 5701 m.
CANADA
EASTERN PROVINCES
0 100 200 300 400 500 600 Miles
90 85 80 75 70 65 60
55 50 45 40
85

the head of Lake Superior for a distance of 755 miles to the Gulf. The Great Lakes with which the river is connected have a total length of 1517 miles. Enormous inland seas, though called lakes, abound in Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta. In the east is the Bay of Fundy separating New Brunswick from Nova Scotia, and in the west flow the Fraser and Columbia rivers, 1200 miles in length. Other great waterways are the Saskatchewan and Peace rivers, 1500 and 1000 miles long respectively.

Soil and Climate.

The physical features of the Dominion are invariably divided into five regions, the Acadian Region, the Lowlands of the St. Lawrence, the Laurentian Highlands, the Great Central Plain, and the Great Mountain Region. The Acadian Region, comprising Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island and the south-eastern section of Quebec, is a rolling country of hills and ridges with valuable agricultural lands abutting the rivers and the lower coasts. The Lowlands of the St. Lawrence Valley include the land lying between the Laurentian Highlands on the north and the Appalachian Mountains towards the south-east of Quebec, the country which extends from Lake Ontario to the Laurentian Highlands, and the broad peninsula to the west. The soil in this region is chiefly sand loam and clay loam, and is very fertile. An abundant rainfall, combined with the soil fertility, has placed parts of this region among the richest agricultural lands of the world.

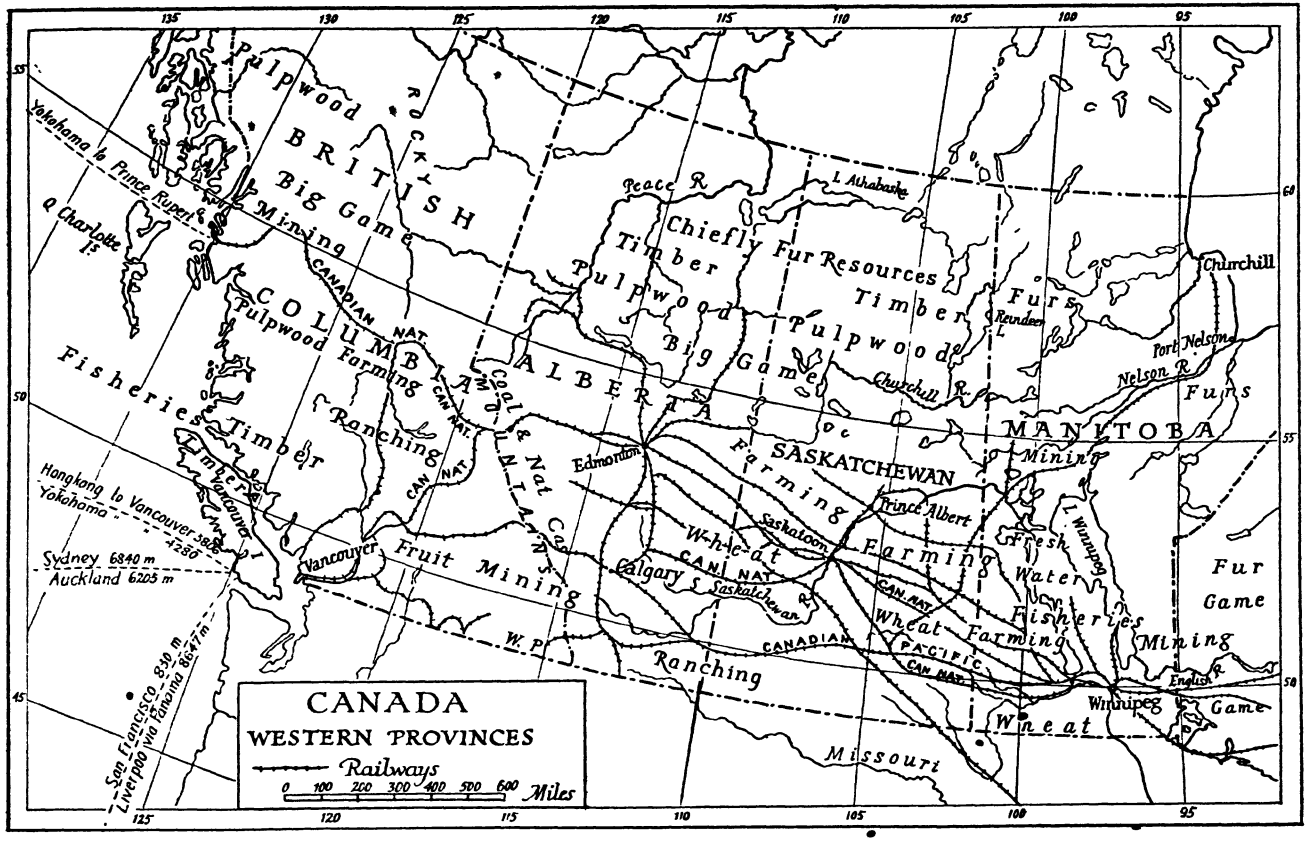
The Laurentian Highlands occupy nearly one-half of the area of the Dominion, and extend from the Lowlands of the St. Lawrence to Hudson Bay, thence westward to within a short distance of the Mackenzie River. From Hudson Bay they extend southward to Georgian Bay and Lake Superior. The region, as a whole, could not be described as fertile, but some of the valleys contain a rich and productive soil.

The Great Central Plains are bounded by the Arctic Ocean, the United States, the Laurentian Highlands and the Rockies. The region includes the rich agricultural lands of the Prairies on which is grown the famous No. 1 Hard Wheat. The soil is in general very rich, and consists of black or chocolate loam of a depth ranging

from twelve inches to nine or ten feet. The territory, though cold in sections, has less rain and snow than eastern Canada, the rain falling bounteously in the season when it is most beneficial to the growing crops. The severity of the winter in the westerly and southerly regions is mitigated by warm winds which come from the Pacific across the Rockies and modify the temperature considerably.

The Great Mountain Region comprises the territory lying between the foothills of the Rockies on the east and the Pacific Ocean on the west. The region is characterized by mountains and rivers, the former of great height, some peaks towering upward nearly 20,000 feet, and the latter ranging from 200 to over 2000 miles in length. The Okanagan and Kootenay valleys lie between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Coast, and therein are grown the deeply coloured apples that have become so popular among consumers in the United Kingdom.

Climatic conditions are so varied in Canada by reason of the extent and physical character of the continent that it will be better to deal with the subject later when describing lands suitable for settlement. It will be sufficient to state at this juncture that, compared with the climate of Europe, the Canadian winter is longer and colder, and the summer somewhat shorter, hotter and drier. The territory near the Pacific Coast provides an exception, for obvious reasons. The temperature there all the year round is not unlike that which normally prevails in the south of England. Sir Wilfrid Laurier, a former Prime Minister of Canada, once said at a public meeting: " The climate of Canada is the glory of Canada. It is the climate of Canada which makes the No. 1 Hard Wheat. It is the climate of Canada which puts the bloom upon the cheeks of the better half of the audience before me. When I rise on a winter morning and see the smoke rising in the atmosphere one hundred feet above the chimneys, perpendicularly in the clear, cold, still air, I know what it is that makes our men strong and our women beautiful."


CANADA
WESTERN PROVINCES
Railways
0 100 200 300 400 500 600 Miles
BRITISH COLUMBIA
ALBERTA
SASKATCHEWAN
MANITOBA
Pulpwood
Big Game Mining
Fisheries
Timber
Pulpwood Farming
Ranching
Timber
Fruit Mining
Coal & Natural Gas
Chiefly Fur Resources
Timber
Pulpwood
Big Game
Farming
Wheat
Ranching
Mining
Fresh Water Fisheries
Fur Game
Wheat Farming
Mining
Fur
Reindeer
Furs
Wheat
Missouri
Yokohama to Prince Rupert
Hongkong to Vancouver 5810
Yokohama 4280
Sydney 6840 m
Auckland 6205 m
San Francisco 8310 m
Liverpool via Panama 8647 m
Peace R.
L. Athabaska
Churchill
Port Nelson
Nelson R.
Edmonton
Prince Albert
Saskatoon
Calgary
Saskatchewan
Vancouver
Victoria
Winnipeg
L. Winnipeg
English R.
Q. Charlotte Is.
CANADIAN NAT.
CAN. NAT.
CANADIAN PACIFIC
CAN. PAC.
W. P.

Natural Production.

The economic life of a country is conditioned largely by the extent and nature of its natural resources, particularly in the initial stages of development. Canada, being relatively a young country, has still to bring her resources to full development. While it is true that the fur, fisheries, and forest resources have provided the Dominion with industries and trade for two or more centuries past, the present magnitude of her commerce is a growth of recent years. No man can predict the extent of future development, the resources being so abundant, and the exploitation of them to date having been relatively small. Moreover, new minerals and new mineral deposits are being continually discovered as the work of survey and investigation proceeds in territories hitherto unexplored.

As Canada is primarily an agricultural country, and as so much land was taken up by settlement in the first twenty years of the current century, it is rather astonishing that large areas still remain in a virgin state. At least 350,000,000 acres are available for use in agricultural production, of which approximately 163,000,000 acres are occupied. Consequently about 187,000,000 acres await occupation.

In every province except Prince Edward Island large areas of land can still be utilized by settlement. Not every kind of crop can be produced on all the land available. Climatic and various conditions of soil and location play their part. In all the provinces, however, grain, root and fodder crops may be grown. Stock-raising is prosecuted successfully in all the more thickly populated regions, and even outside them.

The Maritime Provinces have long held a reputation for fruits and vegetables, oats and potatoes being grown on a big scale in New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, and apples in the Annapolis Valley of Nova Scotia. Mixed farming is carried on in Quebec and Ontario, some districts specializing in dairying, others in sheep-raising, and some in tobacco plantations. The Niagara Peninsula is famous for its fruits, ranging from apples and peaches to strawberries, raspberries and grapes. In the three Prairie Provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta, grain is of first

importance, but mixed farming and stock-raising are every year being undertaken with increasing zest. The fertile valleys of British Columbia yield large quantities of apples and other fruits, and general farming and market gardening are followed along parts of the Pacific Coast and Vancouver Island. Large areas of rich undeveloped lands are located in northern Ontario and Quebec, and also in the northerly regions of Saskatchewan and Alberta.

Forests and Minerals.

Forest products represent 7% of the net value of the national production. A third of the area of the Dominion, or 1,153,000 square miles, is covered with forests. Fully three-quarters of the trees are merchantable in one form or another. There are three well-defined forest regions: the eastern, spreading through Quebec, Ontario and the Maritimes, consisting of pine, maple and birch in the main; a second in the north, consisting of birch, spruce, maple, and trees of the cypress genus; and a third extending from the south to the far north of British Columbia's coast, and on Vancouver Island, consisting almost wholly of coniferous trees of great size and beauty. About 64% of the accessible timber grows in the eastern provinces, 24% in British Columbia, and 12% in the Prairie Provinces.

Among the primary industries of Canada, mining stands second in importance to agriculture. The minerals and metals produced are many and varied, including gold, nickel, copper, zinc, lead, silver, platinum metals and cobalt. At the present time the industry contributes 90% to the world production of nickel, 60% of the asbestos, 53% of the cobalt, 13% of the copper, and 12% of the gold. This great wealth, the metals in particular, is procured largely in the Pre-Cambrian Shield, a geological formation which extends across two-thirds of the surface of the country.

Another asset of immense value to Canada is its water area of 180,000 square miles, well distributed throughout the country, thus providing a huge amount of potential electric energy. Over 20,000,000 h.p. is available at a minimum yearly flow. The existing turbine installation of 7,500,000 h.p. represents less than 20% of the recorded water-power resources. The power has been of

incalculable value to the pulp and paper industries, and to the mining, electro-chemical, electro-metallurgical, and flour-milling plants. About 90% of the available power is in Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, and British Columbia. Canada holds second rank in the world for power resources, the first place being held by the United States.

From even a short list of the country's resources, the fisheries cannot be excluded. With 5000 miles of coast-line on the Atlantic and 7000 miles on the Pacific, the Great Lakes, rivers and other inland waters, one would expect the fisheries to be extensive and a source of great wealth. More than 60 varieties of food fish and shell-fish are annually taken from the sea, lakes and rivers. The most plentiful species on the Atlantic coast are cod, mackerel, haddock, herring and lobsters, and on the Pacific coast salmon, halibut, herring and pilchard. The inland lakes and rivers yield such commercially valuable fish as lake trout, speckled trout, sturgeon, white fish and bass. The value of the fisheries exceeds $50,000,000 in a normal year.

Industrial Development.

Canada's reputation overseas having been built up by her primary productions of agriculture, forestry and mining, the remarkable expansion of her manufacturing industries since the beginning of this century is apt to be underestimated and, in some quarters, overlooked. Aided by the growth of the basic industries referred to, the domestic market has assumed formidable proportions; consequently many and varied manufacturing industries have come into existence. The natural products available for use in secondary industries have attracted not only Canadian capital, but also British and American. Some of the industries have recorded such gratifying progress that they now contribute millions of dollars to the national income, and give employment to many thousands of people.

Originally the people were content to concentrate on the development of their primary industries, as the population was relatively small. The influx of immigrants under the Laurier *régime*, however, combined with the example of the aggressive industrial

country across her southern border, furnished inducements to manufacture on a larger scale. The object of establishing industries was at first to supply, as far as possible, the Canadian people with domestically produced wares. Factories grew in number and magnitude until they were capable of supplying not only 85 per cent of internal requirements, but were in a position to develop export trade with practically every country in the world.

Without the influx of capital from the United Kingdom and the United States, immigration, large as it was, could never of itself have brought about the industrial expansion of the country. It contributed men, skilled and unskilled, but industries need money as well for their development. At least $1500 millions entered Canada between 1900 and 1912. In 1914 the outside capital invested in the Dominion totalled $3,794,825,000, the United Kingdom accounting for $2,711,841,000, and the United States $904,455,000. By 1934, however, a marked change had taken place in the distribution of these investments, the United States being responsible for $3,983,231,000, and the United Kingdom for $2,734,197,000. It will be seen that British investments now occupy a position second to that of the United States. In this connexion it is worth noting that Canada was not only strong enough financially in the War-period to raise $2000 millions internally, but that she now has $28,000,000 more than that amount invested abroad, two-thirds of it being in the United States. Despite all the capital imported and also that invested abroad, Canadian capital controls at least 60 per cent of the securities of all enterprises operating in the country.

Among the manufacturing countries of the Empire, Canada now occupies second position. Industries are on such a large scale, and the products are so varied, that many classes of goods imported at the beginning of the century, at the present time come from Canadian plants and factories in a volume sufficient to enable export to all parts of the world in addition to supplying home requirements. Manufacturers of the United States and Great Britain have shared in this increased industrial capacity and domestic demand by establishing some hundreds of branch factories in various parts of the Dominion.

Agricultural Industries.

Out of the agricultural industry emerge live-stock, dairying, flour-milling, fruit-growing and canning, slaughtering and meat-packing, and smaller industries. In 1936 there were 9,000,000 head of cattle, 4,000,000 hogs, 3,000,000 horses, more than 3,000,000 sheep, and 60,000,000 farm poultry of various kinds. Changes are taking place in this industry, due to changing conditions. The output of butter and the sales of liquid milk are advancing, but the output of cheese is not to be compared with that of former years so far as volume is concerned. Efforts are being made at the present time to increase exports to the United Kingdom, and they are meeting with gratifying success. Production being much in excess of domestic demand, it is imperative that the Canadian cheese manufacturers find new and larger external markets.

As there are 1300 mills (including chopping mills) in Canada producing 15,000,000 barrels of flour a year, it is obvious that the industry is important. Capital invested in them is approximately $60,000,000, and the value of the products in the latest year for which statistics are available exceeded $100,000,000.

Fruit-growing and canning, slaughtering and meat-packing are other industries of large dimensions. The exports of fruits have been curtailed in recent years by reason of an agreement with Great Britain not to export to the British market certain grades of apples until the domestic stocks in the United Kingdom have enjoyed preferential sales in the autumn. The chief apple-growing regions are in Nova Scotia, Ontario, and British Columbia. As many as 2,500,000 barrels of apples have been produced in Nova Scotia in a single year, and over 5,000,000 boxes in British Columbia.

Space cannot be given to all the industries of Canada; consequently an enumeration will have to suffice. They include fur production, lumber, pulp and paper, fish-canning, fruit-, vegetable- and meat-canning, textiles, iron and steel manufactures, aluminium and enamelled wares, chemicals, metal-working, boots and shoes, rubber goods, wearing apparel, sugar-refining, and so forth (see p. 74).

Production in many lines being far in excess of home consumption, an export trade has to be sought. Here again is furnished testimony to Canada's productive capacity. The total value of exports in 1913 was $431,500,000; by 1929, the peak year, they had risen to $1,368,000,000. The slump then followed, and the trade declined to $528,000,000 in 1932. In the fiscal year, 1936–7, however, exports again exceeded in value $1,000,000,000.

CHAPTER III

Possibilities of Settlement

That there exist openings in Canada for certain types of settlers is beyond doubt. Nevertheless, it must be stated at the outset that the regulations in force at the moment are more stringent than they have ever been previously. The cloud of depression that followed the peak year of Canada's prosperity, 1929, although less dark and heavy, has not wholly passed away. The prices of agricultural products declined heavily; all other industries reacted to the fall; wheat accumulated in the elevators; unemployment spread from province to province. It therefore became necessary, pending a trade revival, to prevent any addition to the number of unemployed. Hence the tightening up of the immigration regulations. At the same time, lest the Canadian Government's attitude towards immigration be misunderstood, it should be stated here that, from 1st October, 1930, to 30th June, 1936, the Department of Immigration and Colonization, with the active co-operation of the Canadian Pacific and Canadian National Railways, placed 19,702 families on farms and 44,034 single men in farm employment. On the basis of five persons to a family, this represents a settlement on the land of 142,540 individuals. These settlements were made without financial aid from public sources. In addition—according to official statistics—from June, 1932, to May, 1936, a total of 4358 families consisting of 22,870 persons were settled on farms under the Relief Settlement Plan, which is co-operative action

between the Dominion Government and the Provincial Government and municipality concerned in extending financial aid towards establishing suitable families on the land.

The present attitude of the Government may be summed up thus: migrants who are seeking employment would be well advised to await improved conditions; but the movement of migrants who have sufficient capital to create work for themselves or to provide work for others, is not discouraged. On 7th August, 1929, when the trade slump had asserted itself, and no man could foresee the end of it, an Order in Council was made on the recommendation of the Minister of Immigration and Colonization to the effect that, until otherwise ordered, " the landing in Canada of any immigrant of the following specified class, viz. contract labour is prohibited. Provided that the Minister of Immigration and Colonization may admit any contract labourer if satisfied that his labour or service is required in Canada. The term ' contract labour ' as used in this Order means, and includes, any immigrant seeking entry to Canada under contract or agreement, express or implied, to perform labour or service of any kind in Canada." It was provided further that the provisions of the Order in Council should not apply to the exclusion of farmers, farm labourers, and houseworkers.

It does not appear likely that the Order in Council will be cancelled for some time to come. Therefore, such opportunities for settlement as present themselves at the moment are of interest, in the main, only to migrants with capital, farmers, farm hands and domestic servants.

The provinces which offer the best opportunities and prospects to land settlers are undoubtedly Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta. This does not mean that there are no inducements in Eastern Canada, or British Columbia, as will be shown later. Previous to 1929 free homesteads were granted to immigrants in the three provinces named, but since that year the gift has been withheld. Good land may be bought at prices ranging from $12 to $50 an acre, according to the quality and location.

Conditions in Manitoba.

For the benefit of the prospective settler it will be well to describe these provinces one by one, beginning with Manitoba, the most easterly of the Western Provinces. To be frank, the climate is severe in winter, the temperature sometimes falling to 40° below zero. This extreme cold, however, is tempered by the dryness of the atmosphere and the almost perpetual sunshine. In summer the heat also is at times extreme; but neither extremity is of long duration. Extremes of heat are recorded only for a few hours in the afternoon; the nights are invariably free from discomfort. The snowfall in winter, except in the more northerly regions, is light, and the rainfall is never too heavy or too light for the requirements of all classes of agricultural production.

Grain-growing is the chief branch of agriculture. In this province is grown the famous No. 1 Hard Wheat, a grain that has long been recognized as a standard of excellence in the making of flour. Stock-raising and dairying are combined with the growing of wheat, but the farmer usually looks to his grain acreage for the greater part of his income. The average yield of wheat is about 16 bushels to the acre; oats, 32 bushels per acre, and barley 24 bushels.

Farmers invariably find that although there has never been a complete crop failure, it is a wise plan to combine the raising of live-stock and dairying with the production of grain. The settler generally keeps a number of cows and sells his cream to the nearest creamery. He considers the practice of selling his cream more profitable than converting it into butter on his farm. Nearly three-quarters of a million cattle graze in Manitoba. There is a ready market for beef. The steers of the province have carried off many first prizes at exhibitions in the United States and Canada.

Swine are profitable and will become more so now that Canada is specializing on the breeding of hogs of a kind suitable for the large ham and bacon market in Great Britain. Sheep are becoming more plentiful now that farmers have begun to appreciate their value on the farm. Hens, geese, ducks and turkeys also contribute handsomely to the annual revenue.

Saskatchewan.

As considerably more than half of the wheat produced in Canada is grown in Saskatchewan, it will be readily understood that agriculture is the leading industry of the province. Nearly 14,000,000 acres are sown to wheat annually, and that acreage represents less than one-fifth of the land available and suitable for grain-growing. Of the large area still uncultivated—about 68,000,000 acres—much is in proximity to the railways and lies in districts well provided with road transportation facilities. The land is cheap, ranging in price from $15 to $20 an acre.

While these paragraphs are being written, a report appears to the effect that, following the serious losses by drought in parts of southern Saskatchewan, the Canadian Government has decided to abandon wheat growing there and put the land under prairie grass. Originally this region was one of the best areas in Western Canada for grazing.

Complementary to wheat-growing are dairying, live-stock, and poultry production. The value of dairy products marketed now exceeds $22,000,000 a year, and that of poultry and eggs, $2,250,000.

Although drought and rust seriously damaged the crops in parts of the province in 1935 and 1936, the climate on the whole is exceptionally kind to cereals. Spring arrives early, and if the heat in July is often intense, the nights are cool and dewy. Winters are cold, but healthful and invigorating. The rainfall is lighter than in Manitoba, and heaviest in the growing season.

For the marketing of grain, excellent facilities are provided. Wheat is sold under grades established by law, and Government inspectors decide the grade. There are Wheat Pools in Saskatchewan, as in the other Prairie Provinces, through which the farmer may sell his wheat if he chooses. Nothing, however, prevents his selling through other channels if preferred. Each farmer in the pool—there are at least 150,000 farmers in the various pools—receives a uniform price for his wheat, for which an initial payment is made after the grain has been delivered to the elevator. A second payment is remitted in the following March, and the balance at the end of the crop year when the final price has been settled.

Although wheat is given preference in the province, the tendency now is for farmers to carry on stock-raising and dairying, as those branches of agriculture safeguard income against a falling-off in the average crop yield. There are domestic markets as well as an export outlet for cattle, hogs, poultry and dairy products. The value of the latter in 1936 exceeded $20,000,000, a demonstration of the extent to which the farmers have taken up the industry as a source of revenue.

"Sunny Alberta".

Alberta, which lies between Saskatchewan and the Rocky Mountains, is also an important grain-growing and cattle-raising country. Indeed it may be called the home of the cattle rancher. The climate differs from that of the other Prairie Provinces. In the southern extremity the rainfall and snowfall are relatively light. The winters are made milder by the warm winds which come over the Rockies, and the cold spells are exceptionally short in comparison with those in other regions of the Dominion. Sunshine is plentiful all the year round, hence the province's popular designation—"Sunny Alberta".

In addition to its suitability for wheat, other cereals such as barley, oats, and rye thrive exceedingly. Most of the wheat grown is spring wheat—sown in the spring; but winter wheat, which is sown in the autumn, is also grown successfully in the southern part of the province. Sheep-breeding is growing in importance. For example, not more than 70,000 lb. of wool were produced forty years ago; now the output is near 3,000,000 lb.

Prospects in British Columbia.

British Columbia, the most westerly province of the Dominion, is mountainous, abundantly mineralized, and thickly wooded, with fertile valleys in the more central parts. These valleys are thinly populated, yet they contain soil and other natural assets which furnish great scope for agricultural development in many different ways. There are at least 22,000,000 acres of land suitable for agricultural purposes, but not three-quarters of a million acres are under cultivation at the present time. Nevertheless, even with so

little acreage taken up, the annual value of the farm products, fruit included, approximates $60,000,000. It is questionable whether any other country can claim a larger *per capita* yearly production from its leading industries—agriculture, mining, forestry and fisheries—than does this far western province of Canada.

Much timber clearing has to be undertaken by the new settler before he can put new land under cultivation, and that is a rather costly business. Cleared land can be bought for fruit-growing in the Okanagan and Kootenay valleys, but the price commanded is usually high, from $600 to $1000 an acre. Land for mixed farming is cheaper, and prices are based on proximity to markets and the state to which development has been advanced. It is not a grain-growing province. The possibilities are associated with orchards, dairying, stock-raising, poultry, root crops and market gardening.

No one would contemplate settling in British Columbia without ample capital—more indeed than would be required in most of the provinces. A settler with a reasonable amount of capital, supported by industry, should be able to make quite a good livelihood in ideal surroundings; but it would be unwise to consider migrating thereto without those assets. Taken as a whole, the climate is ideal, there being no extremes of heat or cold, in two-thirds of the province at any rate. It is undoubtedly a most desirable land in which to establish oneself.

A word of warning might here be given to young men with capital in prospect, who may first wish to learn either mixed farming or fruit-growing before investing money in a farm or land. It is practically useless to look for some established family prepared to accept a young man and teach him the business of farming in return for services. It is better to get in touch with a married settler who would be willing to receive a pupil into his household, feed, clothe and teach him on an equitable arrangement made beforehand. After mastering the complexities of the business, say in two or three years, a farm or orchard could be taken up with no more risk of failure than that run by the rest of the farming community in the province. Men who possess no capital, but who wish to find employment on a farm with a view to starting in succeeding years on their own account, would be better advised to hire

themselves to farmers on the Prairies where the practice of hiring labour is part of the farming system. The wages paid to hired men in 1936 were from $20 to $25 a month, with board.

It will be found generally in British Columbia that of the various branches of the agricultural industry, stock-raising, dairying and poultry-breeding present the best opportunities for making an assured income. The domestic market is more than large enough to absorb production for years to come. As evidence of this, one has but to peruse statistics relating to the quantities of foodstuffs brought into the province annually from external sources.

To contend that fruit-growing on ten to twenty acres—the usual acreage—would yield a satisfactory revenue would be defying experience and straining optimism. The one hope of success is to combine with it a certain amount of mixed farming—the raising of a few cattle and hogs, and the breeding of poultry. Exclusive orcharding should be left to the man with a private income who would be content with a small profit while engaged in a pleasant occupation amid lovely scenery in ideal climatic conditions.

Conditions in the Eastern Provinces.

Crossing over from British Columbia to the province of Ontario in Eastern Canada is to find oneself in a community of agriculturists, industrialists, and mineral and metal miners. Hundreds of Englishmen and Scotsmen have settled on the land there during the past thirty years and are engaged in mixed farming, the most commonly practised branch of the agricultural industry. Until the Prairie Provinces began to grow grain on the big scale, the Ontario farmer gave up much of his land to wheat; but he now finds that hay and pasture, dairy produce and live-stock, fruit and poultry, pay him better. Throughout the agricultural area there are butter and cheese factories at which he can obtain cash for his milk; packers await his cattle and pigs; Great Britain and the domestic canneries accept his fruit, and cities and towns provide him with a large and permanent market for his poultry and eggs.

In writing of existing opportunities in Ontario for settlers with or without capital, even more caution is necessary than in the case of the West. If conditions were normal, one would not hesitate to

recommend the province to migrants as a land presenting opportunities for agriculturists. Conditions are not normal. Moreover, even in pre-War days, the agricultural settler found life on the farm far more strenuous than it was in any other province of the Dominion. The Ontario farmer works about twice as hard as the English farmer, and only by arduous toil is success to be achieved. Again, there exists keen competition. The Ontario farmer has paid a big price for his experience, and his accumulated knowledge is a formidable challenge to the new settler who takes up his land in entirely strange surroundings, with everything to learn.

Doubtless a migrant desirous of buying and running a farm would be foolish to undertake the task without at least £2000 at his disposal. The whole of this amount would be absorbed in the purchase of a 150-acre farm, stocking it, and meeting all other initial expenses. Even the man prepared to invest that amount of capital would be unwise to make a start without first gaining practical experience for a year or two in farming on the spot. It should be remembered that all the farmers work with their men from morning till night. Practical experience introduces the question of hired labour. Although there are not at the present time as many openings on farms as in the days preceding the slump of 1929, many farmers are prepared to engage hands at about $20 a month, with board.

In a general way, so far as opportunities are concerned, the same may be said of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia as has been said of Ontario. New Brunswick has never been favoured much by prospective settlers, inasmuch as the West seemed to them to offer greater attractions. The Annapolis fruit-growing region of Nova Scotia presents certain limited possibilities, and farms can be bought at fairly reasonable prices. Reliance on fruit-growing alone for a moderate income would undoubtedly result in disappointment. The raising of dairy cattle and poultry is the usual adjunct to fruit-farming. Markets are at hand for cream, milk, butter, cheese, beef, chickens and eggs. The richness of the pastures enables the Nova Scotian farmer to produce some of the finest dairy cattle in the Dominion. But, in regard to openings for settlers, again it has to be admitted that none exist at the moment except for the man

with capital, or with a private income large enough to meet his needs for a few years whilst putting his farm on a profitable basis. The demand for farm labourers, even in normal times, was relatively meagre.

So far this chapter has confined itself to openings in the agricultural industry. It would be gratifying if one could write encouragingly of the prospects for other kinds of settlers. Quite frankly, better times will have to be awaited before Canada is in a position to open her doors to all and sundry with every likelihood of their finding work of some kind more in harmony with past experience and ability.

At the same time, in a relatively young country like Canada, so rich in natural resources, developed and undeveloped; with so many and varied industries still in the initial stages of evolution, and with a population exceedingly small when measured by the immensity of the continent, it is apparent that for many decades to come there will be almost unlimited opportunities for enterprising migrants capable of adapting themselves to new conditions. Bearing in mind that Canada has only recently begun to emerge from the depression; that the immigration regulations are still stringent, and that the Dominion Government, while not discouraging the entry into the country of farmers, farm labourers, and household workers, discourages other categories, the chief problem at the moment is how the prospective settler can be led to a decision whether to migrate now or await the advent of better times. The only advice that can be tendered to him is that he should arrive at no decision until he has first consulted one of the Canadian Government Immigration officials in the United Kingdom who are maintained for the sole purpose of giving information and advice to intending settlers.

CHAPTER IV

Life in Town and Country

A writer on social conditions in Canada must of necessity take into consideration the vast area of the country, the cosmopolitan character of the population in certain regions, the centuries that divide colonization in the east from settlement in the west and the variations in habits and customs that have sprung therefrom, or his picture will not represent life in its true perspective. The racial traits of the French-Canadians in Quebec, for example, are wholly different from those of the English-speaking Canadians in the other provinces. The temperamental differences of the two peoples are reflected in their habits and diversions. There is a gaiety in these descendants of old French families that is not evident in the more serious English and Scottish settlers.

The agriculturists of Quebec are of the habitant class who live in accordance with the traditions of their progenitors. Their lives are simple, and in the rural areas they find relaxation in intercourse with their neighbours, their church, open air amusements, and periodic visits to the towns and cities where entertainments of various kinds are plentiful.

In a thickly populated city like Montreal, social life is quite different from that in rural districts, as one would expect it to be. Its life is an admixture of the gaiety of Paris and London. The theatres, vaudevilles and picture-houses are as attractive as those in England and the United States, and many of the world's most talented actors, musicians and operatic stars pay periodic visits to the city. The people love outdoor sports in winter as well as in the summer, ski-ing, tobogganing, skating and ice-hockey being the favourite sports during the colder season, and motoring, rambling, camping, fishing, shooting, canoeing and lacrosse the common recreations in summer.

Taking the other provinces from east to west, Nova Scotia has its own peculiar charms and recreations. The scenery of parts of

the province is extremely beautiful, particularly in the vicinity of the Bras d'Or Lakes, along La Have River, and in the Annapolis Valley. These regions are in great favour with Canadian and United States tourists who visit the country not only to enjoy its scenic beauty, but to reinvigorate themselves by hunting, fishing, canoeing, or yachting around its coasts indented with bays and coves in great number. The trout fishing is good, and deer, moose, otter, mink, snipe and partridge are plentiful enough to satisfy the man who finds pleasure in the use of a gun. As towns are not far removed from the agricultural areas, the settler who takes up either a farm or fruit-growing exclusively will find life most agreeable from a social standpoint.

The recreational attractions of New Brunswick are similar to those of Nova Scotia. Big game is abundant, and the large rivers, lakes and streams provide the angler with silver salmon, trout and several other kinds of fish.

Ontario's Attractions.

As the climate of Ontario is so delightful in summer, the province is in much favour with United States tourists, many of whom spend July and August, as temporary residents, in the Georgian Bay District, the Muskoka and Temagami regions, the Lake of the Woods, and the Thousand Islands. Canadians from the cities and towns of Ontario, too, make the most of these beauty spots. Many of them maintain summer residences at one or other of the resorts; others spend their vacations there in camps.

The Provincial Government and the Dominion Government have each preserved parts of the province for the free use of citizens and tourists, notably Algonquin, Quetico and Rondeau provincial parks which have a combined area of nearly 5000 square miles. There are also the national parks of St. Lawrence Islands, Georgian Bay Islands and Point Lelee set apart as recreation areas for the people. All the fishing and shooting usual in Eastern Canada can be enjoyed in Ontario.

The numerous cities and towns of the province make life more pleasant for the farmer in that he is not far removed from one or other of them. Charmingly planned they are, too, and centres

of many enjoyable social activities. The capital, Toronto, with its population of more than 630,000 souls, stands on the north shore of Lake Ontario, and is the second largest industrial and commercial city of the Dominion. There are regular cycles of dinner-parties, *soirées* and receptions, and no city in Canada, surely, witnesses so many gatherings at festive boards. Clubs are numerous, and places of amusement seem more than ample for the size of the community. The citizens are thorough in their enjoyment of life. They work hard; they play hard.

Youth is decidedly athletic. Football, cricket, lacrosse, boating on the bay, golf, ice-hockey are the chief items in the catalogue of games entered into with a zest that astonishes the Englishman, familiar as he is with the strenuous games and sports of England.

A word of appreciation should be written here of the bowery and verdant residential districts of the city. The lawns extend to the sidewalks and are unfenced, and the streets are lined with maples, lindens and other kinds of trees. The architecture of the houses is something of which Torontonians are proud, and their pride is justifiable. It is indeed one of the most delightful cities in the Dominion.

Life on the Prairie.

As the British migrant is most likely to settle on the agricultural lands of the Prairie Provinces, however, he will be more anxious to know something of social conditions there than in the east. So far as Manitoba is concerned—and one might say in the other two provinces—the farmer must not expect the amenities of town or city life. Communities do exist wherein intercourse and social gatherings are made possible; but, generally speaking, the settler must find his own relaxation and recreation. If he can make himself content with shooting as a relief from labour, he will have plenty of game birds for his gun, as well as moose, deer and other wild animals in their prescribed season. Market days, agricultural shows and exhibitions provide diversion and change if one's acreage is not too far removed from the towns and cities.

Social conditions in Saskatchewan and Alberta, and the facilities for sport and recreation are not markedly different from those

in Manitoba. Much, of course, depends on the location chosen by the settler. If his farm or ranch be near enough to Regina, Edmonton or Calgary, he can, when freedom from responsibilities is possible for a while, enjoy the kind of social diversions that are characteristic of Prairie town life in general.

On the whole, life in the rural districts and smaller towns can be made quite pleasant. It will vary in degree, naturally, according to region and community in which the migrant is established. In some parts of the Prairies life can be very lonesome, and the settler has to be content with his work and such social intercourse as his own household gives. The limitations on the social side need not prevent enjoyment of such pleasures as exist in and around his own home. Compensations are forthcoming in liberty, bracing air, healthful occupation, inspiring scenery, and in the knowledge that one has a small corner of the earth that can be called one's own.

Education in the Dominion.

A matter of supreme importance to settlers is that of facilities for the education of his children. It will be well, therefore, to enumerate those facilities briefly, yet fully enough to convey all the information an intending settler needs.

In whatever part of Canada a migrant establishes his home, he may be sure that the education of his children has been made possible by the respective provincial governments, who have control of all matters relating thereto. Free education is the basis of the Canadian school system, provision being made therefor by government grants and local taxation. It can be legitimately claimed that the Dominion school system is not inferior to that of any other country. Great care has been taken to co-ordinate the curricula from the primary stages of education to the universities. On the technical side special attention is given to agriculture, domestic science, mechanics, arts and handicrafts. As each province maintains a system of primary and secondary schools with one or more universities, and as slight differences occur in the system, it will be more helpful to the prospective migrant if the subject is considered province by province.

In Prince Edward Island there are four types of schools: (1) the

" primary " or one-room school; (2) the " advanced graded " school; (3) the " first-class " school, which is a secondary school proper; and (4) the Prince of Wales College, which undertakes secondary, normal school, and certain features of university studies.

In Nova Scotia the elementary institutions are called " common schools ", and the secondary schools are termed either " high schools " or " county academies ". The latter are usually located in county towns, the education being free to all pupils in the various counties. The former are located in such districts as are capable of supporting them. Tuition is free.

Four types of school are known in New Brunswick: (1) the primary; (2) advanced or graded; (3) superior school; and (4) grammar or high school. The superior school may be established in a " parish " of 6000 inhabitants who maintain it financially, and the education is free. The grammar school is generally situated in the county town, its support being charged to the county. Students receive free education thereat.

In both the Roman Catholic and Protestant institutions of the province of Quebec, three types of school are maintained: (1) the elementary; (2) the modern; and (3) the academy. The courses of study and the regulations are in the hands of the Roman Catholic and Protestant Committees of the Council of Public Instruction. The chief universities are McGill at Montreal, Laval at Quebec, and the University of Montreal in the commercial metropolis.

Ontario has about 7600 public schools which provide free education. In every important centre of the province, collegiate institutes or high schools are maintained, and continuation schools are established in districts where they are desirable. Eighty normal schools exist for the training of teachers. Several technical schools are located in appropriate parts of the province. More than 6000 undergraduates attend Toronto University in all its faculties. Other universities are McMaster at Hamilton, Ottawa in the federal capital, Queen's at Kingston, and Western Ontario at London. One of the finest institutions of its kind in the world, the Agricultural College at Guelph, of which more will be said later, is maintained by the Ontario Provincial Government.

Manitoba has elementary and secondary schools at which

education is free. There are also collegiate institutes in the more important cities. Where necessary, pupils are conveyed to and from their homes in covered and heated vehicles during the winter. Correspondence courses have been instituted for the benefit of students living in remote districts. At the University of Manitoba there are efficiently equipped faculties in arts and sciences, including engineering, architecture, agriculture and domestic economy.

Similar educational conditions prevail in Saskatchewan. The University at Saskatoon, maintained and controlled by the Provincial Government, has connected with it an Agricultural College which does splendid work on behalf of the farming community.

Primary education is provided free in Alberta, and high schools are established in all the leading centres. The University at Edmonton is well equipped, and technical schools are conducted at the capital city, in Calgary, Medicine Hat and Lethbridge. A feature of the educational system is the establishment of schools of agriculture at strategical points for the benefit of farmers' sons and daughters who intend to carry on some branch of agriculture. In addition, the province has seven demonstration farms and an agricultural faculty associated with the university.

In British Columbia there exist several grades of elementary schools: (1) assisted schools; (2) rural municipality schools; and (3) city graded schools. The system is free and non-sectarian. In any district newly settled and containing ten or more children, the Provincial Government contributes to the building and maintenance of a school. Normal schools for the training of teachers are located at Vancouver, and at Victoria, the capital of the province, on Vancouver Island.

Agricultural Training.

The migrant who settles in Canada and may wish to give his son or sons a good training in every branch of agriculture will find the Dominion well served with institutions for that purpose. The various provincial governments realize that Canada is, and must always be, an agricultural country primarily; consequently they have endeavoured to make their training colleges second to none in the world.

The Ontario Agricultural College at Guelph, established in 1874, has a twofold object; the training of young men in the science of farming and in the conducting of experiments. If any testimony to its worth to the agricultural community were sought, it could be found in the effect it has had upon farming methods in the province of Ontario alone. During the present century, compared with the latter part of the last century, the land in Ontario has nearly doubled its productiveness without a corresponding increase of the acreage under cultivation.

A large farm is attached to the college, and the buildings and appointments are as near perfect as human ingenuity could make them. Before admission, a student is obliged to furnish proof that he has devoted at least one year to practical farm-work, and must guarantee his intention to continue, after his course, in some agricultural pursuit, although it is scarcely likely that he would enter as a student unless he had resolved to earn his livelihood by farming.

Various courses of study are open to students, ranging from stock- and seed-judging courses of several weeks to a two-years course in agriculture leading to an Associate Diploma, and a four-years course leading to a B.S.A. degree at Toronto University. The courses are relatively inexpensive.

The college makes a feature of crop experimentation and maintains for that purpose a Field Department with a large acreage devoted to experimental crops. There is also an Animal Husbandry Department with specimens of horses, cattle, sheep and pigs, important elements in mixed farming. The students of the college have won several trophies in the United States for the extent of their knowledge.

In its laboratories and in the open air, research and experimental work is carried on from year to year. Not until the experiments have stood the test of several years are the results published. The Ontario farmers would be the first to admit that the improved varieties of crops in the province, the prevention of crop diseases, and the remarkable progress recorded in the dairying industry are the harvests reaped from experiments conducted at the college.

Similar work has been undertaken in Nova Scotia and Manitoba by colleges in those provinces, and with no less success. At Truro

College in Nova Scotia, a student with an associate diploma, obtainable after two years' study, can proceed to the degree of B.Sc. through other colleges. The college specializes on live-stock, and has been most successful in its efforts to improve the stock of Nova Scotia in particular.

One of the most successful of the agricultural tuition institutions is Manitoba College, Winnipeg. The fees are slightly higher than they were a few years ago, when they stood at about $100 for residence, books and tuition during the months October to March. The following courses are given: (*a*) short course in stock- and seed-judging, poultry-breeding, fruit and vegetable growing. The courses are designed on practical instruction lines. (*b*) Two-years course specially designed to give training in the several branches of agriculture to youths who intend to adopt farming as a career. (*c*) Four-years course in agriculture leading to the B.S.A. degree given by McGill University. It includes scientific training in animal husbandry, cereal husbandry, and horticulture. (*d*) Three-months course in domestic science. (*e*) One-year home-maker's course. (*f*) Two-years home-maker's course in the same subject. Each course is planned to impart a practical knowledge of household work, supplemented by scientific studies relative to cookery, laundry, household art, hygiene, and so forth.

At Ste Anne de Bellevue, in the province of Quebec, about twenty miles from Montreal, stands Macdonald College with its hundreds of acres of experimental plots, culture farm for cereals, husbandry plots, poultry-keeping, horticulture, live-stock and grain farms. The college has three schools—one for teachers, the school of agriculture, and the women's household science school. Courses in the first two schools are free to Canadians, and a nominal fee per session is charged in the third. All the courses are similar to those given at the Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph. The college is affiliated with McGill University.

Experimental Farms.

Complementary to the facilities for agricultural training in the colleges, practical work is done for the farmers of Canada by the Experimental Farms and Stations. At these farms are conducted

experiments in the improvement of grasses and the introduction of new varieties, and at a forage-crops laboratory attached to the University of Saskatchewan. Samples of forage-crops are collected from all parts of the world and put through tests to determine their respective adaptability to Canadian conditions.

In the province of Quebec, experiments have been made in the development of flax production with so much success that farmers are now able to obtain an increased return of seed and an enlarged yield of fibre, ranging from 10% to 20% an acre.

Many new varieties of wheat have been evolved after repeated experiments, particularly grain that is rust-resistant. Samples of the latter were distributed in 1936 to farmers in parts of Saskatchewan where rust is prevalent, and the crops from the varieties are being awaited with keen interest.

Insect pests are studied closely as well as the grasshopper plague. Much effective work has been done. For example, in 1934, due to the campaigns undertaken, the savings of all grains in Western Canada were estimated at 70,000,000 bushels.

The chief Experimental Farm is at Ottawa. It covers about 500 acres, half of which are devoted to crop experiments. The arboretum and botanic gardens contain two specimens each of over 300,000 kinds of trees and shrubs, and nearly the same number of perennial plants. In the agricultural department two sections deal with the cultivation and manuring of soil and the growing of crops; the breeding, housing and feeding of farm animals. To the immigrants settling in the Dominion, usually without knowledge of the conditions peculiar to the soil, climate, and farm conduct generally, this variety of information by experts is of inestimable value.

Space cannot be spared to describe even briefly the work being carried on experimentally with live-stock. All the leading breeds of cattle and pigs are kept on the Experimental Farm, and experiments continue year in and year out in regard to beef production, breeding, food values, economy of milk production, the influence of foods from the standpoint of values on the quality and quantity of milk, and so on.

The horticultural, botanical, entomological and chemical divi-

sions are all actively engaged in experimental work designed to aid the farmer, in whatever part of Canada he may be situated. So far as practical assistance is concerned, the Canadian farmer is better served gratuitously than the agriculturist in any other country of the world.

In regard to preliminary training in the United Kingdom before a migrant proceeds to take up farming in Canada, attempts have been made in the past on a limited scale to give the rudiments of tuition. The general view is, however, that as there is no similarity between farming in the two countries, such preliminary training is of little, if any, practical value. The months spent on an English farm in this manner would yield far more profit to the would-be land settler if he proceeded at once to Canada and hired himself out for a year or two to an experienced farmer in the district which he may have in view for settlement.

CHAPTER V

Government and other Aid to Settlers

From what has been said in Part I of this book it can be inferred that the British Government will be ready to act as soon as agreement is reached in regard to the best means of resuming migration, and when the Dominions have expressed their views fully on the question, particularly the manner in which and the extent to which they are willing to co-operate when a " proper scheme " has been worked out.

Apart from such aid as is granted by the British Government, there have been, and still are, certain organizations working in the interests of settlement in Canada (see p. 263). One of the most successful is known as the Scottish Immigrant Aid Society. Since 1923 the Society has settled 400 families in the Dominion, the total value of whose properties is now over £300,000. Live-stock in their possession comprises 559 horses, 1159 head of cattle, 344 pigs, 60 sheep, over 1000 turkeys and 5000 chickens. In addition the

Society has found employment for 160 other families from the British Isles. The work of this Society is mentioned as demonstrating what can be accomplished in the way of settling migrants on the land by financial aid and practical assistance in the initial stages of farming under new conditions.

The Canadian Government, except in special cases, does not grant financial assistance to immigrants. As already pointed out, migrants are not encouraged to settle in Canada, but they may proceed to farms conditionally that they are given work thereon, or if they possess the necessary capital to establish and maintain themselves.

Only in a few instances has the attitude of provincial governments towards immigration been made known. In the case of organized, financed, and supervised settlement of families, the Government of British Columbia would agree to receive them provided that they were adequately financed and did not look to the province for monetary support. A free grant would be made of any available and suitable Crown Lands required by such settlers, and the services of the Provincial Department of Agriculture would be placed at the disposal of any such " group " or " foundation " settlements.

The Nova Scotian Government has expressed its readiness to consider any policy that would assure the province of settlers having the proper agricultural background, and who have sufficient capital to make a success of any agricultural enterprise undertaken.

The other provincial governments do not appear to have expressed any decisive opinions on the subject. It may be inferred, however, that in opposition to the farmers, who are against increased settlement, believing that it would only add to their marketing difficulties, the governments would be sympathetic towards any scheme of settlement that included entire financial responsibility on the part of the promoters.

It was hoped that something tangible would develop at the last Imperial Conference in London, but whether by tacit agreement or not, the question of Empire migration gave place to other matters considered at the moment to be of greater importance.

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THE DOMINION OF CANADA

GENERAL INFORMATION AND STATISTICS

Physiography.

The area of Canada is 3,694,863 sq. miles, which may be compared with the area of the U.S.A., 3,738,395 sq. miles, of Europe, 3,776,700 sq. miles, of the British Isles, 121,633 sq. miles, and of the British Empire, 13,318,000 sq. miles. Canada is thirty times as large as the British Isles and forms over 27 per cent of the British Empire.

Canada is divided into the following provinces: the Maritime provinces of Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick; Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia. North of the 60th parallel of latitude are the Yukon Territory and the North-West Territory.

Prince Edward Island is the smallest province of the Dominion and lies in the southern bend of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, separated from the mainland. Agriculture and fishing flourish, the climate being tempered by the surrounding waters of the Gulf, yet free from Atlantic storms. The soil is fertile. Oats and potatoes are the chief crops. Fox farming and lobster canneries are predominant industries. Capital—Charlottetown.

Nova Scotia is about the size of Holland and Belgium combined. A ridge of low mountainous country divides it into two slopes. The one facing the Atlantic is generally rocky and open to the Atlantic storms, but the other is of fertile plains which are suitable for general farming and produce the famous Nova Scotia apples. Fishing flourishes in this province. Capital—Halifax, one of the chief winter ports of Canada and an important shipbuilding centre.

New Brunswick approximates in area to Scotland. It is one of the best-watered countries in the world and its numerous rivers provide access to extensive lumbering areas in the interior. Capital—Fredericton.

Quebec is in size equal to about the combined areas of France, Germany and Spain. It is the "threshold of Canada" and in addition has great natural resources, especially of timber. The climate and soil of the Upper St. Lawrence River valley and the plains of the eastern townships are very suitable for general farming operations. In addition the Province has big mineral deposits of asbestos, copper and gold, and occupies third place in the mineral production of Canada. Capital—Quebec.

Ontario is about 17,000 sq. miles greater than France or Germany, and although an inland province has a fresh-water shore line on the Great Lakes of more than 2300 miles. Its abundant water power, combined with its accessibility to Pennsylvania's coal, makes it the centre of Canada's manufacturing life. Owing to its range of climates it has also a variety of natural products, ranging from fruit to furs and including timber, minerals (especially nickel and gold). Capital—Toronto.

Manitoba is more than twice the area of the British Isles. It is typically agricultural country, but also, in its northern districts, produces timber and contains large mineral deposits, especially of copper-gold ore. Capital—Winnipeg.

Saskatchewan is about the size of Manitoba. Its southern plains include a large portion of the wheatfields, while in the northern districts,

which are abundantly watered by lake and river, there is much timber and prospective mineral wealth. The climate is quite different from Eastern Canada and rather more severe, but favourable to plant and animal growth. Capital—Regina.

Alberta is slightly larger than Saskatchewan. Its southern part is made up of a dry, treeless, prairie belt which changes in the north to a mixture of tree and open prairie, finally becoming mixed forest. Especially notable are the Peace River valley (which has led to settlements farther north than in any other part of Canada), and the wonderful grazing land in the foothills district. There is considerable coal and oil mining, some lumbering and ranching in the less populated districts. Capital—Edmonton.

British Columbia is slightly more than three times the size of the British Isles. It has great natural resources of timber. The shore line is deeply indented, with many good harbours, and the valleys which lie between the mountain ranges are extremely fertile and well adapted to mixed agriculture and fruit growing. It has two ocean ports served by transcontinental railways which well equip it to carry on trade with the Orient. In general the mines, timber, fisheries, and agricultural resources are remarkable. Capital—Victoria.

Yukon and North-West Territories are nearly half the size of the United States. In parts the Northern Territories are unexplored and not accurately mapped. Their potentialities, however, are thought to be very great. Because a great part of the Territories lies within the Arctic Circle they have in the past been considered barren lands, but nowadays they are regarded very differently. The development of air travel and of radio especially help these parts. In 1934 the production of minerals in the Yukon was valued at $1,628,879 and of furs in the N.-W. Territory and Yukon was $1,638,076. Capital (Yukon)—Dawson City.

Government.

The Government of the Dominion is vested in the Governor-General, appointed by His Majesty the King on the recommendation of the Canadian Cabinet; the Executive, or Cabinet Council, and a Parliament consisting of the Senate and the House of Commons. The seat of Government is at Ottawa, about 100 miles from Montreal. The Senate consists of 96 members, and the House of Commons of 245 members.

In addition to the Dominion Parliament, each of the nine provinces has a Lieutenant-Governor, a Legislative Assembly, popularly elected, and an Executive Council chosen from the Assembly. In the French-Canadian province, Quebec, there also exists a Legislative Council appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor acting on the advice of the Executive Council of the province. The legislative powers of the Federal and Provincial Houses of Parliament are clearly defined. Broadly interpreted, the Dominion Parliament controls matters affecting Canada as a whole, and the Provincial Parliaments control the internal affairs of their respective provinces. Throughout the greater part of Canada there is a system of local self-government under which cities, towns, villages, and rural districts have the right to manage their own affairs, much as in the United Kingdom.

Climate.

Canada is subject to greater extremes of heat and cold than countries in the same latitude in Europe. The mean temperature falls steadily to the north, but the zones of temperature do not cross the continent along parallels of latitude because the north-western shores are warmed by the Pacific current, which flows northward, while the eastern shores are chilled by a current moving southward from the Arctic Ocean. The Canadian winter is from 4 to 5 months' duration (mid-November to end of March); spring consists of April and May, and summer of June, July, August and September. The climate is healthy and invigorating. Owing to the dry atmosphere and the high proportion of sunshine the extremely low winter temperatures in the interior of the Dominion give a false impression of the severity of the climate. In the south-western prairie regions the winter climate is comparatively mild, and in British Columbia it resembles that in the south-west of England.

The following table shows the mean annual sunshine, rainfall and temperature in cities in various parts:

Station	Hours of Sunshine per Year	Rainfall: Year's Total	Temperature	
			Average Max. per Year	Average Min. per Year
Vancouver	1813	58·65	56	42
Edmonton	2145	17·67	48	26
Moose Jaw	2311	14·66	48	25
Winnipeg	2122	20·37	45	23
Ottawa	2014	33·33	51	32
Toronto	2062	33·46	53	36
Montreal	1829	40·65	50	35
Quebec	1765	42·06	47	30
St. John	1869	46·02	49	34

Vital Statistics

POPULATION OF CANADA IN THE CENSUS YEARS 1901–31

	1901	1911	1921	1931
Prince Edward Island ..	103,259	93,728	88,615	88,038
Nova Scotia	457,574	492,338	523,837	512,846
New Brunswick ..	331,120	351,889	387,876	408,219
Quebec	1,648,898	2,005,776	2,360,665	2,874,255
Ontario	2,182,947	2,527,292	2,933,662	3,431,683
Manitoba	255,211	461,394	610,118	700,139
Saskatchewan	91,279	492,432	757,510	921,785
Alberta	13,022	374,295	588,454	731,605
British Columbia ..	178,657	342,480	524,582	694,263
Yukon	27,219	8,512	4,157	4,230
North-West Territory ..	20,129	6,507	7,988	9,723
Royal Canadian Navy [1]	—	—	485	—
Total	5,371,315	7,206,643	8,787,949	10,376,786

[1] The men of the Royal Canadian Navy were counted in their homes in the 1931 census.

Births, Marriages and Deaths.—The birth rate per 1000 is 20·5, the marriage rate 6·8 per 1000, and the death rate 9·4 per 1000. The excess of births over deaths was 119,721 (1934), and the natural rate of increase per 1000, 11·1.

COMPARATIVE CRUDE BIRTH RATES

England and Wales	1933	14·4 per 1000
France	1933	16·3 ,,
Germany	1933	14·7 ,,
Canada	1934	20·5 ,,

Canada's high birth rate is in part due to the influence of Quebec, where it stood at 25·3 per 1000 in 1934.

There is a population movement in Canada from east to west, but Ontario and Quebec still remain the centres of large populations. Generally speaking the density of population declines as one travels westward; the density of population is greater in Prince Edward Island and least in British Columbia. The enormous extent of Quebec unduly reduces the density of its population. In distinction to most of the countries of the old world there is in Canada an excess of males over females. In 1931 there were 578 males to 482 females for Canada as a whole.

Racial Distribution.—The groups of British and French origin together constituted 80% of the total population compared with 83% in 1921 and 1911,.88% in 1901, and 92% in 1871.

Chief Cities.

The following are the chief towns. The populations are based on the 1931 census, unless otherwise stated:

Montreal (Q.) (1936), 865,000 (" Greater " Montreal, 1,500,159), the largest city of Canada, at the head of ocean navigation on the St. Lawrence River, 1000 miles from the sea. Although ice-bound from the beginning of December until the third week in April each year, Montreal ranks as the seventh port of the world.

Toronto (Ont.), 631,000 (" Greater " Toronto (1936), 808,000), the capital of Ontario. The chief port on the Great Lakes, and the seat of the Canadian National Exhibition, the largest regular exhibition in the world. The educational and commercial centre of Canada.

Vancouver (B.C.), 246,500 (" Greater " Vancouver (1936), 308,000). This fine city, the western terminus of the C.P. Rly. and the C.N. Rly., has a magnificent harbour and shipping connexions with all parts of the world.

Winnipeg (Ma.) (1936), 280,000, from its central position on the continent forms a gateway to the west and north-west. It is the greatest grain market in the world.

Ottawa (Ont.), 126,800 (" Greater " Ottawa (1936), 175,900), the administrative capital of the Dominion, and the chief centre of the lumber industry.

Quebec (Q.) (1936), 166,400, an historic and picturesque city, capital of the province. It is a seaport on the St. Lawrence, 400 miles from the sea.

Hamilton (Ont.) (1936), 163,700. " The Birmingham of Canada ".

Windsor (Ont.) (1936), 110,300 (with suburbs). A port on the Detroit River, opposite Detroit, U.S.A., and the centre of the Canadian automobile industry.

Other large towns are Edmonton (Alb.) (1936), 85,600; Calgary (Alb.), 83,300; Halifax (N.S.), 74,100 (with suburbs); Verdun (Q.) (1935), 73,000; London (Ont.), 71,000; Regina (Sas.), 53,300; St. John (N.B.), 47,500; Saskatoon (Sas.) (1935), 41,600; Victoria (B.C.), 39,000; Trois Rivière (Q.) (1935), 38,000; Kitchener (Ont.), 30,700; Brantwood (Ont.), 30,100; Sherbrooke (Q.) (1935), 30,000; Hull (Q.) (1935), 30,000; Fort William (Ont.), 28,200; Outremont (Q.), 28,600; St. Catherine's (Ont.), 24,700; Westmount (Q.), 24,000; Kingston (Ont.), 23,400; Oshawa (Ont.), 23,400; Sault Ste Marie (Ont.), 23,000; Sydney (Cape Breton Is., N.S.), 23,000; Peterborough (Ont.), 22,300; Guelph (Ont.), 21,000; Glace Bay (Cape Breton Is., N.S.), 20,700; Moncton (N.B.), 20,600; Moose Jaw (Sas.), 20,000.

HOUSEHOLDS, OWNED OR RENTED, RURAL OR URBAN (1931)

	Percentage of Householders who are:	
	Owners	Tenants
Prince Edward Island ..	84·72	15·28
Nova Scotia	69·21	30·79
New Brunswick	67·40	32·60
Quebec	47·93	52·07
Ontario	61·38	38 62
Manitoba	63 92	36·08
Saskatchewan	71 87	28·13
Alberta	70 02	29·98
British Columbia ..	58 49	41·51
Canada	60·50	39·50

Religions.

In 1931 Roman Catholics (including Greek Catholics) formed 41·30% of the population, Anglicans 15·76%, United Church of Canada (Congregationalists, Presbyterians, Methodists) 19·44%, Independent Presbyterians 8·39%, Baptists 4·27%, and a number of other smaller bodies formed the remainder including 1·50% Jews.

Languages.

In 1931 1,322,370 people spoke both the official languages of Canada (English and French), 6,999,913 spoke English only, 1,779, 338 spoke French only, and 275,165 were unable to speak either.

Education.

A summary of the educational system in Canada is given on p. 56.

In 1934 the total sum expended by the governments on schools, colleges and universities of all kinds was $139 million, which came from the following sources in the proportions named: Dominion Government, 1·8%; Provincial Governments, 20·8%; Counties (3 provinces), 2·1%; School Administrative Units, 61·8%; pupils' fees, 8·0%; endowments, 1·7%; other sources, 3·8%.

Control of Schools.—As a general rule each school district is responsible for about 60% of all the institutional education that its children receive and for 80% of the cost of the primary and secondary schools. As there are over 23,000 independent school districts, this means that on average each community of 100 families is responsible for the greater part of the cost of educating their children. In consequence, the quality of the education given varies considerably, though some of the smaller and poorer communities assess themselves more heavily than do the richer and larger. The question of equalizing a greater proportion of school costs over a whole province is now being considered.

Where it is provincially controlled general elementary and secondary education throughout the Dominion is carried on, save in Quebec (see below), in free schools supported by general taxation. These schools are divided into 12 grades, of which 8 are considered elementary and 4 secondary.

Schools in Quebec.—In Quebec there are two distinct systems—Protestant and Roman Catholic. The Protestant schools, which are English-speaking, are similar to the Government Schools in other provinces. They are controlled by a body called the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction. The Roman Catholic schools, which are French-speaking, and controlled by a Catholic Committee of Public Instruction, arrange their system differently. There is one preparatory year, six " years " of an elementary course and two " years " of a complementary course. Since 1929–30 there has also been a superior course, beyond the complementary course, of three " years ". Some of these " years " are equal to more than a year in time for those wanting to follow different callings.

Military Service.

There is no compulsory military service in Canada. In addition to the permanent forces there are volunteer forces attached to each arm of the Service.

Taxation.

Taxation in Canada is based on the same principles as in the United Kingdom. Despite the fact that both the Federal and the Provincial Governments levy separate taxes, taxation in Canada is lighter than in the United Kingdom.

DOMINION FINANCES, 1930–6

Fiscal Year	Revenue Receipts	Per Capita Receipts[2]	Total Expenditure	Per Capita Expenditure[2]	Net Debt at End of Year	Net Debt per Capita[2]
	$	$	$	$	$	$
1930	445,916,992	43·68	398,176,246[1]	39·01	2,177,763,959	213·34
1931	356,160,876	34·32	440,008,854[1]	42·40	2,261,611,937	217·94
1932	336,721,305	32·05	450,955,541[1]	42·92	2,375,846,172	226·14
1933	311,126,329	29·13	531,760,983[1]	49·79	2,596,480,826	243·09
1934	324,471,271	29·98	457,968,585[1]	42·31	2,729,978,140	252·22
1935	361,871,929	33·09	478,004,748[1]	43·71	2,846,110,958	260·28
1936	372,542,040	33·78	532,531,598[1]	48·29	3,006,100,517	272·59

[1] Includes advances to railways and transfers from active to non-active assets.

[2] Per capita figures for census year (1931) are based upon census populations and for subsequent years on revised official estimates.

ESTIMATE OF THE NATIONAL WEALTH OF CANADA AS IN 1933

Classification of Wealth	Aggregate Amount	Percentage of Total	Average Amount per head of Population
	$	%	$
Farm value (land, buildings, implements, machinery and live-stock)	4,760,844,000	18·48	445·73
Agricultural products in the possession of farmers and traders	802,946,000	3·11	75·17
Totals, Agricultural Wealth	5,563,790,000	21·59	520·90
Mines (capital employed)	800,292,000	3·10	74·93
Forests (estimated value of accessible raw materials, pulpwood and capital invested in woods operations)	2,090,821,000	8·11	195·75
Fisheries (capital invested in boats, gear, &c., in primary operations)	25,380,000	0·10	2·38
Central electric stations (capital invested in equipment, materials, &c.)	1,309,801,000	5·08	122·63
Manufactures (machinery and tools, and estimate for capital in rural lands and buildings) [1]	949,721,000	3·69	88·92
Manufactures (materials on hand and stocks in process) [1]	368,070,000	1·43	34·46
Construction, custom and repair (estimated investment in machinery and tools and materials on hand)	32,385,000	0·13	3·03
Trading establishments (estimated value of furniture, fixtures, delivery equipment and materials on hand)	708,043,000	2·75	66 29
Steam railways (investment in road and equipment)	3,365,464,000	13·06	315·09
Electric railways (investment in road and equipment)	223,704,000	0·87	20·94
Telephones (cost of property and equipment)	330,491,000	1·28	30·94
Urban real property (assessed valuations and exempted property and estimate for under-valuation by assessors and for roads, sewers, &c.)	6,913,530,000	26·83	647·27
Canals (amount expended on construction to 31st March, 1934)	267,671,000	1·04	25·06
Harbours (approximate amount expended to 31st March, 1934)	502,264,000	1·95	47·02
Shipping (including aircraft)	135,506,000	0·53	12·69
Automobiles (estimate of the value of automobiles registered)	392,211,000	1·52	36·72
Highways, &c.	689,333,000	2·68	64·54
Household furnishings, clothing, &c. (value estimated from production and trade statistics)	913,397,000	3·54	85·52
Specie, coin and other currency held by the Government, chartered banks, and the general public	186,362,000	0·72	17·45
Totals	25,768,236,000	100·00	2412·53

[1] Duplication excluded.

Agriculture.

Agriculture, including stock raising and horticulture, is the chief single industry of Canada.

In 1931 37·6% of the total gainfully occupied people of Canada were employed in agriculture, and 34·0% of the total gainfully occupied males. Moreover, it provides the raw material for a large number of Canadian manufactures and constitutes the greater part of Canada's exports.

THE FIELD CROPS OF CANADA, 1936

Field Crop	Area	Total Yield	Total Value
	Acres	Bushels	$
Wheat	25,289,000	233,500,000	200,085,000
Oats	13,118,000	276,265,000	109,433,000
Barley	4,432,500	72,726,000	43,316,000
Rye	635,000	4,368,000	2,410,000
Peas	92,500	1,153,000	1,480,000
Beans	64,000	833,400	1,699,000
Buckwheat	398,000	8,664,000	5,802,000
Mixed grains	1,172,800	34,381,000	18,477,000
Flaxseed	467,750	1,779,300	2,481,000
Corn for husking ..	164,400	5,935,000 cwt.(1000 lb.)	3,027,000
Potatoes	496,400	39,063,000	43,761,000
Turnips, mangolds, &c.	181,800	37,854,000 tons (20,000 lb.)	13,407,000
Hay and clover	8,786,800	13,893,000	110,287,000
Alfalfa	853,600	1,966,300	18,022,000
Fodder corn	408,500	3,118,300	10,624,000
Grain hay	1,045,000	1,010,000	6,473,000
Sugar beets	56,100	569,000	3,355,000

The following is a summary of the chief items in the gross annual revenue of Canada in 1936: Field crops, $599,421,000; farm animals, $130,886,000; wool, $2,783,000; dairy products, $208,238,000; fruits and vegetables, $42,821,000; poultry and eggs, $53,236,000; fur farming, $6,399,000; tobacco, $9,185,000; honey, $2,386,000.

Fisheries.

The Canadian fisheries are of great economic importance. The industry has an invested capital of $43,500,000 and gives employment to 82,835 persons. In 1935 the total value of fish production was $34,427,000. Of this total 44·1% came from British Columbia, 22·8% came from Nova Scotia, and 11·5% from New Brunswick. The quantities and value of fish marketed in 1935 were as follows:

	Cwt.	$
Salmon	1,824,205	12,540,307
Lobster	319,969	4,378,742
Cod	1,539,150	2,758,140
Herring	2,060,320	1,817,540
Whitefish	147,456	1,432,072
Sardine	187,666	1,335,708
Halibut	132,130	1,285,587
Haddock	368,426	1,129,695

Fur Farming.

From the early custom of keeping foxes caught in warm weather alive until the fur was prime, has arisen the modern industry of fur farming. The industry is devoted chiefly to the raising of the silver fox, a colour phase of the common red fox, established through experiments in breeding.

Fox farming is now carried on in all provinces of the Dominion, and the number of farms is steadily increasing. The Dominion Department of Agriculture conducts at Summerside, Prince Edward Island, an experimental fur farm for the study of matters affecting the health of wild fur-bearing animals, especially the silver fox, in captivity. The Ontario Department of Game and Fisheries and the Quebec Department of Public Works, Game and Fisheries, also operate experimental farms in their respective provinces. Reports and pamphlets are issued from time to time and the advice of the officers in charge of the stations is available at all times to the fur farmers.

Although the fox is of chief importance, other kinds of wild fur-bearing animals are being raised successfully, such as the mink, raccoon and musk-rat.

In 1934 there were in operation in Canada a total of 7019 fur farms, an increase over the preceding year of 546. Of the total number, 6083 were fox farms and the remainder, farms raising various other kinds of fur-bearing animals. The highest price received by any one farm for a single silver fox pelt during the year 1934 was $176, compared with $230 in the preceding year. Altogether, the farms received from the sales of live fur-bearing animals and of pelts during 1936 a total of $6,399,000, compared with $4,066,905 in 1933.

Minerals.

Canada possesses great mineral wealth, much of it still awaiting development. The provinces of Ontario and Quebec produce oil, coal, gold, copper, cobalt, asbestos and nickel.

The following table shows the quantity and value of the chief metals and other minerals mined in 1935:

		Quantity	Value
			$
Gold	fine oz.	3,284,890	67,904,700
Estimated exchange on gold produced		—	47,690,579
Silver	fine oz.	16,618,558	10,767,148
Nickel	lb.	138,516,240	35,345,103
Copper	lb.	418,997,700	32,311,960
Lead	lb.	339,105,079	10,624,772
Zinc	lb.	320,649,859	9,936,908
Platinum metals	fine oz.	190,146	5,408,667
Coal	ton	13,888,006	41,963,110
Natural gas	M cu. ft.	24,910,786	9,363,141
Petroleum, crude	brl.	1,446,620	3,492,188
Asbestos	ton	210,467	7,054,614

PRINCIPAL STATISTICS OF FIFTEEN LEADING INDUSTRIES, 1934

Industry	Establishments	Capital	Employees	Salaries and Wages	Cost of Materials	Gross Value of Products
	No.	$	No.	$	$	$
Pulp and paper	95	553,973,891	26,993	33,307,043	53,426,534	152,647,756
Non-ferrous metal smelting and refining	15	146,047,422	8,298	11,059,206	78,325,552	149,936,239
Central Electric stations	1,043	1,430,852,166	14,974	21,829,491	—	124,463,613
Slaughtering and meat packing	147	56,765,624	10,119	11,608,338	98,417,162	122,112,406
Flour and feed mills	1,310	59,293,426	5,633	5,135,312	74,048,243	95,746,183
Butter and cheese	2,632	61,513,373	14,389	13,140,844	63,763,974	92,813,271
Petroleum products	51	67,021,041	4,957	6,379,226	56,969,015	76,337,513
Automobiles	21	34,520,938	9,674	12,938,933	52,693,074	76,133,448
Cotton yarn and cloth	36	75,889,237	18,106	13,768,278	33,132,480	61,306,490
Bread and other bakery products	3,173	44,196,221	18,562	15,794,117	26,681,559	57,295,522
Rubber goods, including footwear	51	66,047,471	11,079	10,858,637	18,439,498	55,230,381
Sawmills	3,572	71,649,186	22,605	14,118,200	29,487,086	54,819,071
Printing and publishing	790	56,316,901	16,353	21,975,805	10,182,077	52,681,607
Clothing, factory, women's	577	19,389,407	17,000	13,591,131	30,473,677	51,533,091
Electrical apparatus and supplies	174	77,980,366	13,657	15,220,022	21,308,006	50,234,811
Totals, fifteen leading industries	13,687	2,822,456,670	212,399	220,724,583	647,347,937	1,237,291,402
Grand Totals, all industries	25,663	4,703,917,730	545,162	533,594,635	1,230,977,053	2,533,758,954
Percentage of fifteen leading industries to all industries	53·3	60·0	38·9	41·4	52·6	48·04

Timber.

Nearly a quarter of the total land area of Canada is under forest, the estimated area of saw timber of merchantable size amounting to 150,000,000 acres (see p. 40). The lumber, paper and pulpwood products amounted, in 1934, to $156,859,000. The values of the products under these headings take second place in Canadian exports.

Manufactures.

Canadian manufactures have been greatly helped by the abundance of cheap electricity from water power, particularly in Quebec and Ontario, though it is available in different degrees in all the provinces. The chief power rivers are the Niagara, the St. Lawrence, and the Ottawa. The Hydro-electric Power Commission of Ontario is the largest publicly owned electric undertaking in the world, having an aggregate peak load exceeding 1,366,000 h.p.

The industries in Canada have a total invested capital (1934) exceeding $4,703,000,000, and give employment to more than half a million people.

Cost of Living.

Living is somewhat dearer in Canada than in Great Britain. The following table shows the index numbers of retail prices and rents from 1930 to 1937. An index figure of 100 represents the average prices in 1913.

Index numbers are constructed from a general point of view, having for their object the measurement of the general movement of such prices and costs in the Dominion as a whole, and being so calculated as to make comparisons possible with other general index numbers constructed on similar principles. Calculated as they are on the aggregative principle, i.e. the total consumption of each commodity, the index numbers afford an excellent measurement of changes in the average cost of living in the Dominion as distinguished from that of any particular class or section.

TABLE SHOWING CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING—1930–37

AVERAGE PRICES IN 1913 = 100

Year	Food	Fuel and Light	Rent	Clothing	Sundries	All Items[1]
Dec. 1930	138	156	160	148	165	151
Dec. 1931	107	152	158	127	163	135
Dec. 1932	96	145	141	114	161	125
Dec. 1933	100	142	129	113	157	123
Dec. 1934	103	144	129	115	154	123
Dec. 1935	111	141	132	115	154	127
Dec. 1936	114	142	135	115	154	128
Aug. 1937	120	138	140	118	155	132

[1] The figures for "all items" were calculated by giving the following weights to each group: Food, 35%; Fuel, 8%; Rent, 18½%; Clothing, 18%; Sundries, 20%.

RETAIL PRICES OF VARIOUS COMMODITIES
(DOMINION AVERAGE), AUG., 1937

Commodity	Quantity	Price (Cents)	Commodity	Quantity	Price (Cents)
Milk (delivered)	quart	10·7	Rice	lb.	8·2
			Tea	lb.	54·3
Bread (delivered)	lb.	7·1	Sugar	lb.	6·6
			Jam	14 lb.	60·1
Bacon	lb.	30·7	Salt	lb.	2·7
Butter (factory)	lb.	26·7	Beef—		
			Sirloin	lb.	29·2
Cheese	lb.	23·0	Ribs	lb.	21·2
Potatoes	15 lb.	30·9	Mutton—		
Flour	lb.	4·7	Leg	lb.	23·3
Rolled oats	lb.	6·0	Pork—		
			Leg	lb.	23·7

Railways and Roads.

The distance across Canada is approximately 3500 miles and three transcontinental railways stretch from coast to coast.

In 1922 the Government amalgamated the Intercolonial, Transcontinental and other roads with the Canadian Northern, the Grand Trunk and the Grand Trunk Pacific, which it had been obliged to take over, due to failure under private operation, and placed the whole under one Board. In 1935 this great system controlled 23,684 miles of railway, being the largest single system in North America. Side by side is the Canadian Pacific with its 17,289 miles of road, and its subsidiary steamship lines on the Atlantic and the Pacific. The Canadian Pacific forms, with its auxiliary steamship services, a comparatively short route from Europe to the Far East.

Roads.—A rapidly increasing tourist traffic which brought into the trade channels of the nation an estimated sum of around $131,806,000 in 1935 has naturally stimulated first-class road construction and Dominion and provincial engineers are devoting a great deal of thought and attention to the construction, maintenance and care of highways in all provinces. In 1934, Dominion, provincial, and municipal expenditures on the improvement and maintenance of rural roads amounted to $60,556,652, and another $6,469,608 was spent on bridges and ferries. Construction expenditures increased by $22,289,716 or 93 per cent.

Motor Vehicles.—In 1935 there were 1,176,116 motor vehicles registered in the Dominion.

Immigration Regulations.

The Canadian immigration regulations are very strict, being designed to exclude persons who are feeble-minded or insane, those suffering from tuberculosis or any disease which may become dangerous to public health, criminals, persons over 15 who cannot read French or English, and all persons likely to become dependent on public funds. (See also p. 45.)

The regulations also forbid the entry of immigrants to whom money has been given or loaned by any charitable organization for the purpose of enabling them to qualify for landing in Canada, or whose passage to Canada has been paid wholly or in part by any charitable organization, or out of public moneys, unless it is shown that the authority in writing of the Deputy Minister, or in case of persons coming from Europe, the authority in writing of the assistant Superintendent of Immigration for Canada, in London, has been obtained, and acted upon within a period of sixty days thereafter.

The Immigration Officer-in-Charge may permit to land in Canada any immigrant who otherwise complies with the provisions of the Immigration Act, if it is shown to his satisfaction that such immigrant is:

1. A British subject entering Canada directly or indirectly from Great Britain or Northern Ireland, the Irish Free State, Newfoundland, the United States of America, New Zealand, Australia, or the Union of South Africa, who has sufficient means to maintain himself until employment is secured: Provided that the only persons admissible under the authority of this clause are British subjects by reason of birth or naturalization in Great Britain or Northern Ireland, the Irish Free State, Newfoundland, New Zealand, Australia, or the Union of South Africa.
2. A United States citizen entering Canada from the United States who has sufficient means to maintain himself until employment is secured.
3. The wife or unmarried child under 18 years of age of any person legally admitted to and resident in Canada who is in a position to receive and care for his dependents.
4. An agriculturist having sufficient means to farm in Canada.

Currency and Weights and Measures.

The denominations of money in Canadian currency are nickels and cents. The cent is one-hundredth part of a dollar. The legal equivalent of the British sovereign is 4·86⅔ dollars. The legal weights and measures are the Imperial yard, pound avoirdupois, gallon and bushel, but the hundredweight is declared to be 100 lb., and the ton 2000 lb. avoirdupois.

Radio.

Radio is under the jurisdiction of the Dominion (not the provincial) Government.

The national broadcasting service was established in 1933, and is controlled by the Canadian Radio Broadcasting Commission. The scope of the service has recently been much improved, particularly by the daily broadcasting of programmes from Great Britain. The Commission itself operates stations at Chicoutimi, Quebec, Montreal, Ottawa, Toronto, Windsor and Vancouver, and it also purchases programmes from private stations.

Office in London.

All information relating to Canada can be obtained from the office of the High Commissioner, Canada House, Trafalgar Square, London, S.W.1.

III. THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

By

ERIC A. NOBBS, Ph.D., B.Sc.

CHAPTER I

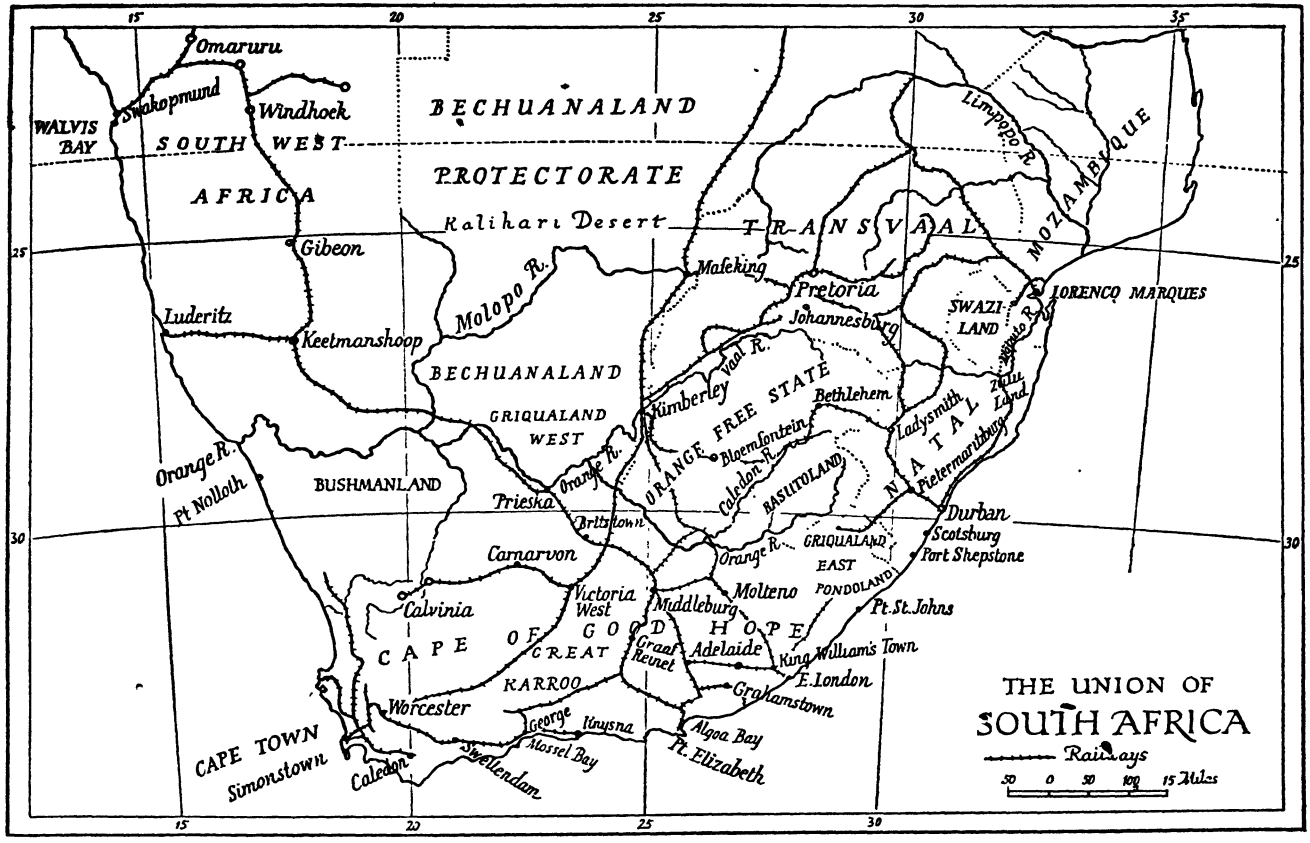
Economic Conditions Affecting Settlers

For the benefit of those meditating making homes and livings in the Union of South Africa, the intention here is to present a general survey of the opportunities and the conditions of normal life that will be met, leaving it to each individual to decide whether or how these will meet his or her particular requirements. Details regarding any place or calling will be found in countless brochures, reports and tabulated statements, blue books, railway guides and publicity pamphlets. It is hoped that readers will find here just what is not found there.

Everyone is aware of the sunny climate, of the spaciousness and the bountifulness of nature in South Africa. Less generally known, but even more important, is her marvellous recuperative power after depressions and calamities owing to her innate soundness and the wealth of her natural resources. This sign of intrinsic strength must give confidence to those who stake their future in the country.

South Africa is built up of a series of terraced plateaux. Therefore altitude as one goes north and inland compensates for the effects of approach towards the equator. Navigable rivers are lacking but are compensated for by centripetal railways from seven major ports. The position of towns has been determined by historic causes, the situation of natural harbours and the existence of sharply defined mineral and agricultural belts.

The sub-continent of South Africa consists of seven separate states, politically distinct, though economically closely associated: the Union of South Africa, a Dominion; Southern Rhodesia, a self-governing Colony; three British Protectorates—Bechuanaland, Basutoland and Swaziland; South-West Africa, a mandated territory under the Union; and Portuguese East Africa, the only non-


15
20
25
30
35
Omaruru
Swakopmund
Windhoek
WALVIS BAY
SOUTH WEST AFRICA
BECHUANALAND PROTECTORATE
Kalihari Desert
Gibeon
Luderitz
Keetmanshoop
Molopo R.
BECHUANALAND
GRIQUALAND WEST
Orange R.
Pt Nolloth
BUSHMANLAND
Prieska
Orange R.
Britstown
Carnarvon
Calvinia
Victoria West
Middleburg
Molteno
CAPE OF GOOD HOPE
GREAT KARROO
Graaf Reinet
Adelaide
King William's Town
E. London
Grahamstown
Worcester
George
Knysna
Algoa Bay
Pt. Elizabeth
CAPE TOWN
Simonstown
Caledon
Mossel Bay
Swellendam
Limpopo R.
MOZAMBIQUE
TRANSVAAL
Mafeking
Pretoria
Johannesburg
LORENCO MARQUES
SWAZILAND
Komati R.
Vaal R.
Kimberley
ORANGE FREE STATE
Bloemfontein
Caledon R.
BASUTOLAND
Bethlehem
Zulu Land
Ladysmith
NATAL
Pietermaritzburg
Durban
Scotsburg
Port Shepstone
GRIQUALAND EAST
PONDOLAND
Pt. St. Johns
THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA
Railways
50 0 50 100 150 Miles

British country. Frequently this multiplicity of countries is overlooked and the Union spoken of loosely as South Africa, whereas it is only one of seven, albeit mnch the most important.

The climate of South Africa corresponds in many ways with that of countries bordering on the Mediterranean. Naturally, in a land of such great extent, climate varies all the way from humid to arid, equable to severe, coastal to inland, also regions occur of summer rainfall and dry winter and the converse. The main characteristics are bright sunlight, invigorating air, rapid thermal changes, distinct wet and dry periods, long spells of reliable weather with all meteorological events on a big scale. The great range allows of choice to suit constitutions of all descriptions and gives scope for the most varied activities from wheat farming to sugar planting and from ski-ing to stalking the buffalo.

Natural Advantages.

No portion of the globe could have attracted the population or attained the prosperity of South Africa without the possession of very great natural resources and advantages. To recapitulate these would be tedious and their existence and nature will perhaps best appear in the consideration of the opportunities for settlers dealt with in subsequent chapters.

Without offering statistical proofs, a few indications of the present prosperity of the Union of South Africa may be permitted. By far the world's greatest producer of gold and diamonds, the Union is also a notable exporter of copper, coal, manganese, chrome, vanadium, tin and asbestos. Though usually described as wasting assets the mines are likely to enjoy increasing outputs, giving opportunity and employment both directly and indirectly for many years to come.

The products of her mines, her soil and her industries support two million of white people and three times as many natives—proof enough of the capabilities of the Union. South Africa is no longer a mere producer of raw materials in the way that continental countries are apt to regard colonies. By virtue of its position, South Africa has advantages over other civilized countries in facilities for trade right up to the equator and beyond, as well as exceptional

ocean facilities to the east and the west. Yet its traffic is mostly with the northern hemisphere and chiefly with the United Kingdom.

It is not too late to share in the progress and development that is taking place, to " make good " and even to play a leading rôle in the building up of a great State based on British traditions.

Though there is to-day a very considerable British population in the Union of South Africa, yet at no time has there been any mass migration of settlers. At most there were in the early days a few attempts at group settlement. During the recent serious depression, migration from the British Isles was exceeded by the return to its shores of many who had been living in other countries. It is to the credit of the Union and Southern Rhodesia that migration to these countries never entirely ceased, though the volume became very small. This surprising and gratifying fact is attributable mainly to the fact that the classes South Africa attracts are less influenced by the ups and downs of world prosperity and also to the soundness of South African economic conditions and the permanent nature of its attractions.

Analysis of Migration.

Immigration statistics bring out clearly the fact that British immigrants belong largely to the agricultural, mining, professional, domestic and, of course, the independent or retired sections, whereas foreigners are chiefly industrial and commercial, urban classes. The latest information points to a welcome increase of British artisans.

Analysis of immigration returns shows that the white population of South Africa is augmented from overseas by about one thousand European persons a month. Although this is not a very large figure, it is remarkably constant, with a recent satisfactory tendency to rise. For the whole year 1936 and first quarter of 1937 the flow of British subjects entering the Union for permanent residence averages 300 of European race and 80 non-Europeans, each month, or at the rate of 4560 persons per annum in all. Since November, 1936, the rate of British immigration into the Union of South Africa has nearly doubled and there is good reason to think that this increase is likely to be maintained. There is also a con-

siderable movement from the Union into Southern Rhodesia and the mandated South-West African territory and a minute flow of South Africans to other countries to openings in such spheres as science, engineering, aeronautics and even into the British army.

In addition to the British immigration into the Union, one must record the entry of nearly twice as many foreigners annually; actually at the present rate of 575 persons per month or 6900 per annum. Owing, no doubt, to disturbed political and economic conditions on the Continent, the recent influx has been so great as to occasion public anxiety and the Government has had to adopt more stringent regulations controlling the quality, and so the numbers of immigrants.

Whilst the total foreign immigration is so much greater than the British, it is to be recollected that it is in turn broken up over some forty nationalities. Of the total, about one-quarter come from Germany and comprise both Gentiles and Jews, and one-fifth are at present from Holland, other countries sending a few score settlers each. The character of the population has been definitely influenced by these immigrants of many nations, but that is not altogether to be regarded as a bad thing, provided it is not allowed to go too far: safeguards to prevent this are now in operation. Certainly South Africa has received much in return from many of the foreign settlers to whom she has given opportunity, home and fortune. The process of absorption has often proved mutually beneficial.

The "Poor Whites" and the Natives.

At first sight it seems contradictory that South Africa should want settlers when one of its crying social difficulties is the reclamation of the depressed and degraded "poor white" section of the population. The presence of these unfortunate classes is in no way detrimental to new settlers, whilst the stimulus due to the advent of fresh population tends to counteract the conditions which produce them. The "poor white" represents a European peasantry capable of living in the most remote and barren backveld where the more cultured classes, local and from overseas, cannot subsist. Unfortunately they are gravitating into the towns in search of work

for which they are not fitted. It is only fair to mention the presence of these people, constituting as it does a social problem in the country, but at the same time it is emphasized that it does not in any way affect the prospects of the settler.

A word must be said about the South African native. The Bantu and the white man entered at opposite ends of South Africa at virtually the same time; only the Bushman and the Hottentot, both now rapidly dwindling, preceded them in a sparse and nomadic occupation of the country. The results of their contact provide to-day, after nearly three centuries, some of the most acute of the complex race problems of Africa. It is not a question of war or of expropriation so much as of distribution, segregation, economic competition and social adjustment to meet the facts. Efforts to deal with the problem by legislation have lately occupied much time in Parliament, with what results it is yet somewhat too soon to determine.

Although the native outnumbers the European greatly, yet the white settler may not come across him in his tribal state unless he proceeds to the native territories, reserves and the protectorates. In the towns and the farming districts natives supply the domestic and semi-skilled service, in which spheres they are a great asset to the country. On the mines and the farms the native is the labourer, not always unskilled indeed, for he is capable of handling a pneumatic drill underground and a tractor plough on the surface. Such natives and coloured men and their families are, however, Europeanized to a great extent and form an integral portion of the working classes.

CHAPTER II

Social Conditions from the Settlers' Standpoint

The Union of South Africa, in spite of its wide spaces and unfenced veld, is far removed from the pioneer stage. The opportunities are greater than in the older countries of Europe, and fresh openings can still be created, yet it is a settled and civilized country where all reasonable comforts are readily procurable, and in which people of refinement and taste, as well as the hardier types, can quite safely find a home amid congenial surroundings. South Africa is still under-populated. It is still at a stage where the more white people who arrive the more scope there is not only for the new arrivals but also for those previously in the country—and even for more yet. Population is needed to build up an adequate and balanced community—even if complete self-sufficiency and independence of other countries is a foolish dream. There is most room, not in the lower social levels, but at the top for people of culture and for leaders in the professions, arts and " big business ".

The choice between life in the country or in the town is purely a matter of calling and temperament. One may not go to South Africa in order to live in a town, yet, if one's business or interests so require it, such a life can be both interesting and pleasant. There is ample scope for social intercourse according to taste, as well as for intellectual, sporting and benevolent activities, for church life, club life, study or hobbies. Factory, warehouse, shop or office will, as anywhere else, occupy working hours. There remains a considerable margin each day, and on the many holidays, for the pursuit of pastimes, for exercise and the numerous pleasures which the neighbourhood and the climate so generously supply. Friendship is ready; sport is plentiful and the choice is abundant.

Life in the Towns.

To those with doubts as to whether there are opportunities and openings for themselves in a city life in South Africa let it be

said that the question has been answered in the affirmative by a quarter of a million white persons resident in Johannesburg alone, apart from the many in other towns. This, the largest city in the Union, and one only of many along the Rand, is the capital of the greatest gold mining industry in the world and the centre of densest European population in all Africa. Consequently it is the largest manufacturing centre in the Union and the chief marketing and distributing point, the financial and trading hub, the greatest buyer of local products and the principal agricultural centre. Johannesburg is the head-quarters of the Union railways and the axis of the airways. It is a cathedral city and has many first-class schools and a University. It is not too much to say that to-day Johannesburg is one of the most prosperous and progressive cities in the world, and that the entire Union reflects and benefits from the great gold industry.

There are more than a score of lesser cities and towns of which in varying degree much the same may be said. Some are purely mining camps, five are ports, several are chiefly manufacturing towns or important agricultural centres. Besides these there are many small watering-places, villages and holiday resorts. According to the needs of newcomers different localities are to be recommended, and to this end the best course is to seek specific information from the various sources indicated on p. 109. The towns possess in varying measure all the amenities of modern civilization. There are numerous places of worship, clubs, museums, public libraries, art galleries and schools, orchestras, theatres, up-to-date hospitals, research institutes, observatories, zoos, swimming baths, racecourses and sports organizations of all kinds.

Many of these towns possess, in a measure unusual in the British Isles, both commercial and holiday attractions, giving opportunities for work and play alike to townsmen and visitors from outside. This happy combination has been developed in both coastal and inland places. It may be said of all the towns that they are anxious to attract enterprise and give every possible inducement to young industries. As a result, cheap sites for factories, generous terms as to water, power and light, rating, road and rail facilities, and housing for employees are offered. Towns

compete in extolling their advantages, which are numerous and genuine.

Most towns possess very attractive suburbs. Often the suburbs of the coastal town extend for many miles along the shore. Up-country people flock to the seaside and coastal dwellers seek change of air inland in a host of delightful spots where scenery—and company—to suit all tastes can be enjoyed to the full and at small expense. Here again particularization is impossible; those interested can readily obtain the information they seek.

Country life in South Africa has all the advantages of such existence anywhere, with charm all its own superadded. The peace of the veld can be combined with all modern comforts whilst social pleasures have been brought to the most distant homes. The car, the radio and electricity have reached the far horizons.

Farming as a Livelihood.

Country life usually implies farm life; but there are many rural occupations—such as those of surveyors, engineers, even country doctors and clergy—connected so much with outdoor work as to have a great deal in common with the landowner.

The question always comes up: Does farming pay? Good farming pays; bad does not; but good and bad are relative terms. Farming is a livelihood and an art and need not be more of a gamble than other occupations. Theoretical farming seldom or never pays; scientific and practical farming can be made to pay and sometimes —though not often—yields a fortune. It must pay, since there are upwards of one hundred thousand farmers in the Union and some are quite wealthy whilst most are thriving. The failures are relatively so few that they may be attributed to personal factors rather than to the conditions of the industry. Drought, locusts and other " natural " disasters, when they do occur, affect such large numbers that the State is bound to intervene and carry the farmers over. On all sides the traveller sees evidences of prosperity and the standard of living amongst farmers is generally comfortable.

Farming as a business may not pay out annual dividends and so may be regarded as unprofitable, yet the fact remains that the men with appropriate qualifications make a living at it. This may

not appear from the amounts they pay in income-tax, which is applied in a specially sympathetic manner to farmers. It is difficult to judge their incomes from statements by accountants, since so much of the profits—such as enhanced fertility, many of the permanent improvements and the increased value of land which is not for sale—all go back directly into the farm and the income is therefore not realized; but none the less it is there and real. What other calling supplies food and lodging, fuel and water, health and happiness in a similar degree?

It is rather hard that the most trying period in farming must inevitably occur whilst the beginner is still unfamiliar with conditions and before he has laid out his capital to the utmost possible advantage. To anyone conversant with the elements of farming it will be obvious that, even after local experience is acquired, capital is needed for investment in land and equipment, and must remain idle until the farm and the outlay can yield their returns. Moreover, the process of putting in the capital is a lengthy one, not like buying the stock-in-trade of a shop, so that it is difficult to say when, exactly, the farm, as a business, is fully established. Improvements of a capital nature can continue indefinitely. One must not expect returns until time has elapsed for crops to ripen and for stock to multiply and mature. Meantime one must live—and so must animals, labourers and merchants.

The term farmer in South Africa almost invariably connotes landowner. A wide diversity of farming, from extensive ranching to intensive arable farming, is practised. Specialization is a feature of the present time, though mixed, general or " balanced " farming is still the rule. Although South Africa is mainly pastoral so far as area is concerned, it now grows more than its own requirements and so exports maize, wine, fruit in many forms, wheat sometimes, sugar, wattle bark, ground-nuts, tobacco, aloes, buchu and lucerne seed. From the surplus of stock-farming the exports include wool, beef, hides, skins, pig products, mohair, butter, cheese and eggs.

A Paternal Government.

The Government, whatever party is in power, is always—and properly—the farmer's friend, and gives him every possible en-

couragement. It is quite true that there are many pests of crops and stock, that marketing conditions have been erratic and prices often unprofitable, whilst caprices of weather sometimes upset all expectations. Yet are not these happenings incidental to agriculture the world over, and is agriculture the only industry exposed to such vicissitudes? The outstanding facts remain, that throughout South Africa land is in demand and the farmer is constantly envied.

The settler with a family is interested in the opportunities for education. The level of attainment is a high one. Compulsory education is in force, limited only by the difficulties inseparable from an increasing population. The value of learning is fully realized, and the demand exceeds the existing provision in all categories. Without particularizing, let it be understood that there are schools, either free or at a fraction of the fees charged in England, able to bring scholars to any desired level of education in preparation for almost any position in life.

Technical education is very amply provided for in the towns. It has lately been more and more realized that the country pupil deserves to be prepared for rural life along different lines from those available to the urban child. The five universities and the outlying colleges give wide courses of instruction, more in preparation for professions, law, medicine, engineering, architecture, economics, art and social science than in classic attainment.

In brief, primary and secondary education in South Africa is progressive, if burdened with the complications due to two official languages and an excess of standards and diplomas.

Cost of Living.

To settlers in every land the cost of living is a matter of great importance. In South Africa, as elsewhere, the cost of living is difficult to assess as everything depends on the standard demanded. The minimum necessary for the support of life is very low indeed. Owing to the climate little is required in the way of warm clothing. Housing and the bare necessities of food—maize, sweet potatoes, pumpkins, meat—are cheap or easily raised. On the other hand, extravagance can be practised on almost any scale, except the very highest. Happily no great ostentation is customary and most pleasures

as well as normal comforts are procurable at very reasonable prices. Extremes of wealth and poverty are met, but the great bulk of the people may be described as adequately provided with their needs, very well paid for their work, and fully supplied with the means for wholesome enjoyment. The land is prosperous and advancing.

To enter upon figures of cost of building, rents, water, lights, fuel, and so on, serves no good purpose, since all these depend entirely upon locality and the consumer's ideas of what is desirable. Clothing, garment for garment, is somewhat dearer than in the countries whence they are imported, but it is to be remembered that the climate requires mostly lighter clothing and underclothing, washable things, and that the more expensive articles such as furs, silks and warm dresses are worn less often and so last longer. Clothing, if new, is subject to customs duties ranging from 15% to 30%. In the case of wines, spirits, tobacco and sweets, the local article is very much cheaper than the imported and suffices for all ordinary occasions. Food is largely a matter of taste and of skill in shopping and preparation. It can be procured cheaply or dearly according to the housekeeper's ability.

Furniture can be imported at special settlers' rates up to a value of £400 for a family, and articles over one hundred years old are, if duly certified, admitted free as antiques whatever their artistic merit. Otherwise there is an *ad valorem* duty, and ordinary furniture should be bought in South Africa rather than imported.

Comparatively, the cost of living is sometimes considered to be high owing to the fact that the settler is so apt, sooner or later after arrival, to insist on a higher grade of housing, feeding, clothing, and on more costly pleasures, than he or she has been previously accustomed to. Such lavish expenditure is a not unnatural outcome of quite proper ambitions, but it must be charged to the settler and not to the country.

Recreations.

Travelling is encouraged. Railway rates are on a graduated scale making as much allowance as possible for the dweller in remote parts. Since distances are great, travelling would be costly but for many special reductions for holidays, for tours, season

tickets, for motor-cars accompanying passengers and for excursion fares. The actual mileage rates are low, but everyone travels first-class.

A system of national roads is being pushed on. Tarred roads radiate from every township and are extending, though most roads are still earthen. Car licences and insurance are very reasonable. Petrol, now one of the necessities of life, is fixed by law at a price allowing the same profit to all distributors, being lowest at the coast and rising only in direct relation to railway transport costs.

Social sports all over South Africa are much the same as those of any other civilized country. Yet many have a character of their own induced by the reliability of the climate for outdoor pleasures, the open character of the country with its exceptional possibilities for camping and picnicing, and, of course, the opportunities for killing buck and big game.

The reputation of Springboks and other touring teams is sufficiently well-known to assure players from other countries that they will meet rivals worthy of their steel and have plenty of opportunity for games. It must be recognized, however, that there are certain centres where different sports are to be had. Thus Rugby football is chiefly played on the Rand and at the Cape; trout fishing is to be had in widely separated rivers, horse racing at all the larger centres, lawn-tennis everywhere, and golf almost everywhere. South Africans are a sport-loving nation and practise the virtues of sportsmen.

The high-lights of happiness in South Africa, not surpassed and seldom equalled elsewhere, are to be found in excursions to such places as the Victoria Falls, Zimbabwe and the Matopos in Southern Rhodesia, the Kruger National Park and some other twelve game reserves in the Union where a comprehensive—if belated—effort to preserve the wild fauna of the country gives the visitor opportunities of meeting any of a score of different antelopes, besides carnivora and buffalo, hippopotamus, rhinoceros, and even elephant, in their wild state.

The Drakensberg and other ranges give ample scope to the mountaineer and afford superb scenery.

South Africa's Social Problems.

Labour questions occupy a good deal of attention. In South Africa, as in other countries, the usual problems occur and provide material for discussions and propaganda. Agriculture and mining absorb much of the white labour available, and most of the of the native. White labour is organized and commands high wages and liberal terms and is, on the whole, contented. There is considerable competition for labour, with the effect of keeping up wages, which, however, are now largely state-regulated and so less dependent on supply and demand.

Another class of social problem—still in the melting-pot—is due to the interplay of democratic ideals and the differing outlook of the various races which make up the present population. The British element is very far from being overwhelmed, as is demonstrated by the local habits and national institutions, and no one coming from Great Britain need fear not finding himself entirely at home.

As a result of past events and present conditions, party politics are a fruitful source of interest, excitement, satisfaction and discontent. Whilst normally people are tolerant and freedom-loving, at election-time feeling runs high. Parliamentary practice follows that of Westminster and debates are earnest and acrimonious. On fundamental principles there is less difference than appears, and the smallest sections are the noisiest. Of course, all the states of South Africa, like all other countries the world over, have their economic problems and troubles, clashing of interests, discontent, poverty, political animosities, strikes and agitations, which find their outlet in Parliament.

CHAPTER III

Problems of Settlement

The occupation of South Africa by a white population has consistently been one of spontaneous infiltration by individuals or by family units in response to a desire to better their fortunes. Occasionally there have been organized groups, such as the original Dutch settlers under van Riebeek, the Huguenots and the British settlers of 1820, but this method has not been generally followed. Settlement by individual enterprise has suited the circumstances of South Africa far better than would any system of mass migration. It has led to a merging of the various component elements and the happy blending of several nations now coalescing into a South African people, with proportional characteristics of all. Naturally the British influence and the Afrikaans, itself a fusion of Dutch and Huguenot French, predominate.

Perhaps migration is hardly the correct word to express transition from the United Kingdom to the Union of South Africa. It is only a change from one part of the Empire to another, without inducement other than the improved prospects and without restriction. At most, this can be called a selective redistribution of population, a change of scene, not a form of exile. There need be no loss to Great Britain in the long run, nor risk to the Union; and the benefit to the migrant should eventually reflect to the advantage of both countries. Those who wish to come to the Union of South Africa are free to do so, but recruiting by the State is not practised, nor are there any large settlement schemes such as have been tried with varying success in other parts of the world.

Organizations assisting Settlement.

The success of settlement in South Africa of recent years is in no small measure attributable to private but organized assistance. In the special circumstances of the country there is a great deal to be said for settlers' aid being undertaken by a non-political body,

free from red tape but actuated by patriotic sentiments, working solely to enable newcomers to establish themselves.

Such a body is the 1820 Memorial Settlers' Association, which gives its services freely, drawing its resources from voluntary contributions of the public.[1] Its aim is to encourage British settlement in a British state, and its machinery consists of an organization scattered over the length and breadth of South Africa as well as in the United Kingdom. A sister organization working in friendly association with the 1820 Memorial Settlers' Association, though entirely distinct from it, is the Society for the Oversea Settlement of British Women, a body with its centre in London and serving all parts of the British Empire.[1] In South Africa it carries on most valuable functions, and women of all grades, occupations and intentions cannot do better than seek its guidance and care. These two bodies are not to be confused with the very meritorious but purely philanthropic institutions which also give help to would-be emigrants, but mostly on sectarian lines.

Every prospective settler should make himself conversant with the current immigration regulations and ascertain how far they apply in his case. The provisions are voluminous and somewhat complex, and lately have been tightened up to keep out undesirables and particularly in respect to foreigners, but in such a way as not to discourage the better elements of any nationality.

South Africans are friendly people. The newcomer soon makes congenial friends and finds himself in a circle which appeals to him according to his social tastes and standard.

Capital and Training.

It would be idle to pretend that the possession of capital by the immigrant is not essential. Certainly it is a tremendous advantage and the more capital the better, even though the penniless man sometimes makes good. Large sums are, however, not necessary, and a man or woman with small means is not debarred. After all, even in England no one starts in business of any kind without some capital—whether his own or borrowed. In practice the very least capital required is that needed to maintain the new arrival until

[1] See p. 263.

work is found and to provide for his or her return in case of non-success in finding a post, an unlikely event if due care has been taken in making inquiries beforehand. Even the wage-earner is the better of a nest-egg against emergencies. The man who can purchase a farm or a business is very likely to establish himself successfully. In this young and progressive country there are many projects requiring only some skill and capital to prove remunerative investments.

The amount of capital available does, of course, largely determine the careers open, the standard of living and the social amenities that may be enjoyed from the first. Not entirely so, however, for the work one does, the address one has, the bank balance one possesses, do not solely nor arbitrarily determine the friends one makes, the houses one frequents or the life one leads. More depends on one's manners, methods and behaviour.

The settler who proposes to take up farming must, whether he already possesses knowledge of the subject or not, spend some time—preferably some years—in acquiring experience in South Africa. Methods and processes are so unlike even as regards crops common to both hemispheres, labour and languages are so utterly different, that it would be fatuous for the newcomer at once to take up land for himself. Yet many want to, and some do. Failures are more often attributable to rash haste at the outset than to all other causes put together. Self-confidence and the common error of thinking the first proposal is "the chance of a lifetime" often commit the beginner to an inappropriate type of farming, often in an environment unsuitable to himself or at a price which precludes withdrawal except at considerable loss. A provoking reflection is that this predicament may be so readily avoided.

Agricultural Courses.

There are excellent means in South Africa for acquiring at very little expense and in a reasonably short time a thorough training in any of the various branches of agriculture open to the prospective farmer. The Universities of Pretoria and Stellenbosch offer complete courses in agricultural sciences, culminating in degrees. There are Government schools of agriculture in each Province,

where, in addition to the full curriculum, short courses for farmers are held.

The Tarka Training Farm of the 1820 Memorial Settlers' Association is specially intended to prepare settlers from overseas to take up farming in South Africa. It receives them on arrival and gives them in the least possible time an understanding of the rudiments of South African farming. Whilst so learning, the settler is also finding out on the spot whether he is really suited to farming—and it to him. Simultaneously he is being tested under sympathetic and experienced hands as to his fitness for such a life, and prepared for further training with a private farmer. There is a similar institution for women, but conducted on private lines, at Harrismith in the Orange Free State.

After the preparatory period at Tarka, settlers are assisted to gain further experience on farms as learners. In this way they gain, under kindly guidance, an insight into the practical details of different kinds of farming in several districts. Gradually they are launched as independent landowners or tenants, but only when they can commence farming on their own account, on a scale suited to their means and with every reasonable prospect of success. To the established farmers who have thus opened their homes and have given time and trouble to training them, numberless settlers owe a great debt. The knowledge that such a system exists, controlled by a local organization with representatives in Great Britain, has given—and should continue to give—confidence to prospective farm-settlers.

Of other forms of vocational training, it may be said that many technical subjects can be learned as well in South Africa, if they are to be followed there, as in the United Kingdom. Such education is more for the sons of settlers than for those who come to the country at a mature age. In the case of " closed " professions such as the law it is well to serve articles of apprenticeship or pupilage and to secure diplomas in the country itself. The churches have their own training institutions but also draw on those in other countries. The hospitals are largely the training-grounds of nurses, but here, too, many come from Great Britain. Complete training in medicine, law, architecture, dentistry, pedagogy, mining,

veterinary science and forestry can all be acquired on the spot. Commerce and trade are provided for in the technical colleges in all the large towns.

CHAPTER IV

Careers for Settlers

It is manifestly to the advantage of Great Britain that openings for her sons and daughters should be found within the wide spaces of the British Empire. It is, too, of benefit to South Africa that she should receive fresh blood from the old country. The settler himself is not influenced by such patriotic considerations so much as by the prospects of his own material advantage. This he can only decide, rightly or wrongly, for himself. All that others can do for him is to put the facts plainly before him.

It is said that state-provided benefits, so widely dispensed in Great Britain, serve to discourage emigration. Though South Africa is not lacking in advanced social legislation it has happily not been found necessary to the same extent. Even so, this argument does not really apply, since those who elect to come to South Africa are not as a rule of a class likely to be influenced by considerations of old-age pensions, panel doctors, sub-economic housing or other forms of state assistance.

The stream of emigration to South Africa, if never large, has always been, as the result of processes of natural and artificial selection, of a rather choice quality. This high standard has been due to the demands of the country, where intellect, education, character, sobriety and steadiness in work are appreciated. In spite of the glamour of gold and diamonds, the population is on the whole of a quiet and eminently respectable temperament.

Farmers.

Those who desire to take up farming constitute rather a special class. Since the farmer in South Africa is the landowner, an

employer of labour and user of expensive machinery, he must be a capitalist, though not necessarily on a very big scale. A number of boys from the English public schools want to become farmers. Usually they have youth and strength on their side, no predilections, a general education and little or no idea of what the life involves. They have first to learn their trade, as explained in the last chapter. They have nothing to give in exchange for what they get; they are not, therefore, deserving of salary. It takes some time before they are of economic value to themselves or anyone else.

The farmer's son, brought up on the land, is likely to make good, given adequate capital and after the essential period spent in acquiring local knowledge. Even the experienced home farmer has to revise his ideas and spend some time in familiarizing himself with new conditions and gaining an understanding of farm practice in South Africa before he can profitably engage in it on his own account.

It may be said at once that there is no scope for the farm labourer, none whatever. Overseers, farm-bailiffs or grieves are essentially local men, knowing the various languages, European and native, accustomed to the country, the crops cultivated and the local labour. Occasionally an opening occurs for a skilled stockman, cheese-maker, horticulturist or other agricultural specialist, but very rarely are such posts filled from overseas; they are usually taken by some eligible man on the spot.

The Professions.

Anyone in the professions, or proposing to follow one, has to realize that he will have to encounter in almost every instance locally trained men of the same calling. He will possess certain advantages but will also suffer from disadvantages. In some instances the law protects local members; in others British and Dominion graduates are favoured over foreigners. Competition is keen and in all cases it would be well to make most careful inquiries before purchasing a practice or setting up in business. Methods in the professions do not differ greatly from what they are elsewhere, and the advantages the professions offer in South Africa are less those of the working hours than of the life and leisure of the country.

Mining, Manufactures and Commerce.

The present phenomenal activity of the mining industry draws many to its service, and those with a knowledge of any of the many aspects of the industry can well proceed to the Rand. Apart from miners there are engineers, financiers, speculators and many who make livings and even fortunes from allied callings without ever seeing or touching the gold. New openings constantly occur.

New factories are a feature of the landscape and new products made in South Africa are constantly appearing, encouraged by protection and by an increasing demand. People with the requisite knowledge and capital find it profitable to come to the country and make articles, rather than to consign them from abroad. The opportunities in this direction are by no means yet exhausted.

Those engaged in business or trade are favoured in that they usually proceed to appointments awaiting them, and have not to seek for openings on arrival. Such persons represent firms in Great Britain, or are selected for their special knowledge. Accordingly they need little guidance or assistance.

Artisans.

The building and engineering trades in all their multifarious branches have of late been attracting skilled mechanics from other countries. Pay is so good that even should the present boom fade, as have others before, the gain will yet have been considerable whilst it lasted. The great majority of skilled workers who enter the country will no doubt remain permanently. Artisans often, in time, become contractors on all manner of constructional work—roads, railways, sewerages, buildings, public works; or they turn to the manufacturing side of their trades.

A Ministry of Labour, Commerce and Industries, a Board of Trade and Industries, labour bureaux and scores of trade unions and associations control the many matters within their scope, but do not discourage the advent of operatives where there is really a need of them.

The societies concerned in migration assist workers and mechanics of all kinds in their search for employment. The

competent man with adequate resources need have no hesitation in going to South Africa. He has the prospect of soon finding work and of doing well for himself.

Office Workers and Teachers.

With the recent return of better times, any well-educated man or woman, trained in office routine, can readily find a post. Of late the demand, particularly for competent female clerical workers, has greatly improved. The main difficulty is that vacancies are filled on the spot and very seldom can an appointment be obtained without personal interviews. This class of work for either sex is well paid, conditions are liberal and advancement rapid, so that, apart from the other attractions of life in South Africa, the prospects are encouraging. The chance seems worth the risk.

Schoolmasters and mistresses from Great Britain are needed, particularly for the big boarding schools run on English lines. Openings can best be obtained by personal interview, failing which they may be sought through the usual channels of the profession, and the emigration societies mentioned elsewhere. In Government schools insistence on bi-lingualism restricts newcomers, but the Afrikaans language is not at all difficult to master and is certainly of very material use in a teacher's life.

Nurses and Domestic Servants.

Openings for nurses are numerous; the supply for some time past has been much below the needs, and there is every prospect that this will continue to be so for several years. Many new hospitals have of late been built and require staffs. Fully-qualified nurses can readily find openings, both in hospitals and in private work. In Government hospitals and institutions Afrikaans is required, but usually reasonable time is allowed for newcomers to acquire the language.

The demand for children's nurses trained in England exceeds the present supply, and there is no difficulty in placing all that arrive. The remuneration offered is relatively not so high as that of office-workers but against this is the consideration that they live in good homes and do not go out to their work. They are

treated as are other white people and not classed with menial servants.

There are abundant openings for nursery governesses, in regard to whom the same facts apply. Good posts are readily obtainable both in the towns and in the country.

South Africa is fortunate as regards its house-servants, and householders are much better off in this matter than in the United Kingdom. The servants vary from the very rare black-coated butler to the ubiquitous black-skinned piccanin. Only hotels and the more well-to-do households employ European servants, so that such openings are comparatively scarce, though conditions in them are good. On the other hand, the supply is also limited, so wages are high. Many Europeans who come to the country originally to do household work seem to drift into the hotel business and rise to responsible positions.

Catering.

Hotels, restaurants and boarding establishments of all descriptions abound, and the liquor trade, though sharply controlled by special legislation, is generally regarded as lucrative. These businesses are much in the hands of foreigners. With such a shifting population and one much given to travel the trade is a busy one and gives employment to many people. There is admittedly room still for first-class hotels, and in the comforts supplied at seaside resorts. On the other hand, it must be remembered that the public are not accustomed to pay high prices.

Residential Settlers and Tourists.

Those who are seeking homes or are concerned in starting their children in life rather than with carving fresh careers for themselves may well consider the attractions and the suitability of many parts of South Africa. Independent or retired persons with or without families can choose homes from among many attractive residential areas both near to or away from the towns. Many places of great scenic charm, which only a few years ago were too remote and rough, are being brought daily within ready accessibility of the amenities of life. Attractive resorts have arisen, too many to name,

but in addition to the suburbs of the coastal towns there are strings of pleasant places along the shores of the Indian Ocean in Natal and the Wild Coast of the Transkei—Tsitsikamma, Knysna and the Wilderness; also along the South Atlantic coast at places like Hermanus and Mossel Bay; or inland at Ceres, Queenstown, Kokstad, Grahamstown and many others. The selection is a wide one, and best made by careful personal inspection.

In such places—urban, suburban and rural—this class of settler can be assured of physical comforts in pleasant and healthy surroundings, houses and domestic service in reason and cheap, a life of ease with as much or as little social intercourse as desired, ample scope for interests, sports, hobbies and good prospects and pleasures for the rising generation. Is there much more to ask for? Of such settlers the number in the country is already considerable and their obvious content augers well for those yet to come. Formerly the distance from friends in England was a drawback; but with the voyage reduced to fourteen days and with cables so cheap, air travel practicable and cruising so popular, the difference is now negligible.

Strictly speaking, the tourist is not a settler, but he often becomes one, attracted by what he sees round him during a trip. Tourists also may induce those whom they tell about the country to go and settle there. They are therefore to be regarded as valuable propagandists. The way of the traveller is made very easy and inexpensive, so much so that many become semi-settlers, returning, like the swallows, season after season.

Change of Callings and Those Not Wanted.

It is a common error to think that settlers must of necessity follow the same particular calling, be it farming, merchant or a profession, which, on or before arrival, they had in mind. In a young and growing country this is not so. Change from one job to another is no sign of failure but may often be a wise step in progressing up the ladder of success.

Always there must be some casualties, misfits, disgruntled or unfortunate people who, for one reason or another, fail to make good. They usually blame everyone and everything except them-

selves. More is apt to be heard of them than of the vast majority who thrive and are content.

It is only right, besides mentioning those for whom there are opportunities, to indicate at the same time the classes not to be encouraged to go to South Africa. Certain sections may find greater scope in other portions of the Empire, and it is no reflection on them or on South Africa that this should be so. It is a happy circumstance that the differences as well as the opportunities in the wide-spread Empire should be so varied.

For geographical and economic reasons South Africa is not suited for the group-settlement systems projected during recent years. It is too far advanced now to offer empty areas for such settlement. Certain regions such as the Karoo, the Kalahari and much of South-West Africa seem to the uninitiated to be but lightly occupied, yet in fact they are congested in that they cannot carry any more population. Other areas with but small white populations are actually already densely settled by natives.

The civil service and the public services generally are naturally and rightly the preserve of locally-born youth of both sexes. Recruits for the police are from time to time wanted for Southern Rhodesia and the protectorates, but not for the Union.

The local supply of shop assistants is quite adequate. Unskilled manual labourers are not required, either in towns or on the farms.

South Africa depends for its histrionic entertainment on the films and on visiting artistes. Dancing is taught by local professors; the public on which they draw is restricted. No great prospects can be held out in these directions.

The young man who has no other qualifications but wants to ride and shoot cannot be paid for doing so. The average " remittance man " also, is, for obvious reasons, no more likely to do well than in the country from which his support is derived.

Disturbing elements, especially political and religious cranks, are undesirable as likely further to complicate the ideals of the country, already somewhat distracted on questions of colour, race, faith and loyalties. South Africa is not very exclusive, but she does not want those from other countries who are likely to become a public charge, nor their criminals, paupers, nor those in any way

afflicted in body or mind. The offscourings of Europe are not likely to turn over a new leaf in Africa and to become valuable citizens.

CHAPTER V

The Three Protectorates and the Mandated Territory

A common mistake is to speak of South Africa when only the Union—comprising the old Cape Colony, Natal, Orange Free State and the Transvaal—is meant.

In the Protectorates there are limited but by no means negligible opportunities for settlement. True, the residential, the industrial and the domestic classes have little or no prospects there. For farming there are excellent opportunities, more primitive than in the Union, it is true, but that is no disadvantage, often the reverse. There are numerous store-keepers, mostly foreigners, and they appear to thrive. The public service offers great attractions to suitable candidates; the posts are filled by the Department of Dominion Affairs in London.

Swaziland and Bechuanaland.

Swaziland is undoubtedly the most fertile and attractive of the protectorates and the one most favourably situated for European farming. Rains are ample and reliable compared with other parts of the sub-continent, the soil is good and the three natural zones—the mountains, the foothills and the plains—offer good if differing opportunities to farmers. Swaziland has been fully demonstrated to be a first-rate cattle-ranching country and excellent for sheep, which are annually driven down from the Transvaal to winter and lamb and fatten there. Rain is less at the lower levels which are hot enough for cotton, but here numerous permanent rivers offer abundant opportunities for cheap irrigation to a degree quite unapproached elsewhere in South Africa. In the middle veld general farming has been practised successfully for many years.

The situation of the country between the Transvaal and Portuguese East Africa gives both benefits and disadvantages, as also does the large native population. The uncertainty of the political future of the country rather militates against its development. To many, these points are no drawbacks. Especially to the young and enterprising farmer-settler Swaziland can be recommended for earnest consideration.

Basutoland affords no openings whatever except within its very limited Civil Service and police, and for native trading, which is best left to local people. Europeans are not allowed to buy land, which is very fully occupied by the natives.

Of the Bechuanaland Protectorate, well over one-half is Crown Land. The remainder consists of blocks settled by Europeans and of native reserves which are ample for all the indigenous population, present and prospective. The unoccupied area is, however, very arid and includes the bulk of the Kalahari. Although a desert in name, it is more correctly a region of very low stock-carrying capacity, but otherwise wholesome for cattle and useful for nothing else. Except for sparse tall grass and bush it does not produce food of any kind suitable for man (excluding a very few bushmen) or beast, except occasional buck. The limiting factor is lack of surface water and the paucity of wells. The rainfall is not so low, but it all sinks rapidly away in the deep soft sand. Development of such a land is beyond native arts, nor is it adapted for single farmer-settlers. It might be effected by large ranching companies employing such people. So far no encouragement has been given to such enterprise, and the country has made little or no advance except along the line of the railway from the Union to Rhodesia.

South-West Africa.

The mandated territory of South-West Africa consists of the Namib desert on the coast and the Kalahari on the eastern boundary and a narrow belt of semi-arid pastoral land and mountains between. It possesses copper and diamond and vanadium mines of definite value, a cattle-raising industry chiefly dependent on the market in the Union, and a very successful and unusual form of sheep-farming due to the Karakul breed which provides the

so-called Astrakhan lamb pelts. Trade is largely in foreign hands, and it is surprising how little of British shipping or manufactures is seen. There has been much progress since the capitulation in 1915, so far as the country's peculiar climate and circumstances permit. The natural herbage is of exceptional feeding quality. After rains the country is wonderful, but the return of normal dry conditions is certain and this must permanently limit its productive capacity. Settlement has been largely from Germany and latterly also from the Union. There are excellent prospects for business which the United Kingdom might well explore and exploit, but less for successful emigration. For those who are drawn by the unquestionable allurements of this great open sunlit " hard " land there are the additional inducements of exceedingly liberal terms of purchase of Crown Land to anyone taking up residence. But before one does so it is specially necessary to test the country by a prolonged preliminary visit.

Conclusion.

The openings in South Africa are endless; but the needs of individual inquirers are so various that they cannot be dealt with fully in cold print and scarcely by correspondence. Verbal consultations with those who know is better than the written word and may be secured through the channels that have been indicated, but personal inspection and investigation on the spot is the best course of all and by no means impracticable in very many cases.

The official report of the Dominions Royal Commission contains the following unequivocal passage, somewhat unusual in a blue book and therefore praise indeed:

" South Africa is one of the most attractive countries in the world. Its charm would be hard to analyse, but undoubtedly it exists. That cannot be set down to climate, beautiful though it is, or to the wide expanses of rolling veld, or to the grandeur of its mountains, or to the charm of its woodland scenery. The real cause lies deeper and results in the fact that to those who have made South Africa their home, and even those who have made only a temporary sojourn there, it will always remain the one country they desire to return to."

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THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

GENERAL INFORMATION AND STATISTICS

Physiography.

The Union of South Africa, combining the Cape Provinces, Natal, Orange Free State, and the Transvaal into one political entity, was established on 31st May, 1910, with Pretoria, the administrative capital, and Capetown, the legislative—a thousand miles apart. It embraces an area of

472,550 sq. miles, and lies between the parallels of 22° and 35° South and between 17° and 33° East.

The eastern coastal belt, with the cool, temperate and, in parts, humid climate, passes inland and upwards, through a series of sharply defined escarpments, to the central plateau, where the seasons are more clearly defined, the sun more powerful in winter than during the summer, brief frost is not infrequent and snow is occasional (see tables under *Climate*, p. 111).

Great mountain chains, such as the Zwartbergen, Langebergen, Outeniqua, Amatola and Biggarsberg, run parallel to the coast, while, on the Basutoland border, the Drakensberg range, greatest of all, rises to upwards of 11,000 ft.

In the north-west, stretch the immense plains of Bushmanland and the Kalahari, the latter rising eastwards to the high veld and the Witwatersrand. To the north and east, the country breaks away, suddenly, to the low veld on the eastern and northern borders and the Kruger National Park. Only the northern limits of the Union touch the Tropic of Capricorn, so that the great part of the country is in the temperate and sub-tropic zones. Only the higher and lower levels are subject to any extremes of temperature, and all sorts of intermediate conditions are found.

The entire sub-continent is traversed by only a few big rivers, the Orange and Vaal combining to enter the Atlantic Ocean, whilst the Limpopo, Sabi and Zambesi seek the East Coast. Most of the smaller rivers become dry watercourses for large parts of the year.

Races.

Not only is there a considerable mixture of white races in South Africa, but there is also the native, Indian and coloured population. Historically, the white and the Bantu races reached South Africa much about the same time, the one in ships from overseas, the other in hordes from the equatorial north-east. The advancement and prosperity of the South African native are considerations of the first national importance to the white man, and consequently constitute a political factor—one of the greatest in South Africa.

The Bantu furnishes much of the manual labour necessary for the mines and farms, also that for cultivating the land and tending the stock in the native reserves. Much of the house-work is performed by " boys " of all ages, though in Natal this is also largely provided from the Indian community, originally derived from indentured labour imported for the sugar plantations. The immigration laws prohibit the introduction into South Africa of Asiatic servants.

The coloured population constitutes a fixed and useful element with its own characteristic virtues and drawbacks. They are law-abiding, decent people. Economically, they are mostly of the peasant, artisan and labouring class, and in parts of the Cape Province provide the farm workers and domestic servants. Under this description are embraced what are known in other countries as half-castes, quadroons, octoroons, off-coloured, Eurasians, Euafricans, Creoles, and by similar terms. It must be remembered that in South Africa a strict social line is drawn between persons of pure European origin and those of mixed race, however slight. People of colour from other parts of the world are advised

not to make their homes in the Union or Rhodesia, however cultured they may be; indeed, the more they are so, the more they will feel the discrimination which is customary, and which is regarded as being in the best interests of both sections.

British and Dutch South Africans live side by side in complete harmony, and it is only in political sympathies and reactions that the white races occasionally come into conflict. There are two official languages, English and Afrikaans—a modification of Dutch.

Government.

By the South Africa Act of 20th September, 1909, which is the constitutional basis of the Union, provision is made for an executive government, to be administered by a Governor-General as representative of His Majesty the King, together in council with a cabinet ministry, consisting of not more than eleven officers, who shall administer the various departments of State.

Pretoria is the seat of administrative government and Capetown of legislative government. Legislative power is vested in Parliament, which consists of the Governor-General, Senate, and a House of Assembly.

Voters' Qualifications.—Every white male or female British subject of the age of 21 years or over who has been resident in the Union for at least two years is entitled to be registered as a parliamentary voter.

In the Cape and Natal, coloured persons are entitled to vote if possessed of certain qualifications.

Provincial Government.—In each province a chief executive officer, known as the Administrator, is appointed by the Governor-General-in-Council, and holds office for five years.

A Provincial Council is elected for each province and holds office for three years. It consists of the same number of members—though not fewer than twenty-five—as are elected by its province to the House of Assembly.

The seats of provincial government are at Capetown, Pretoria, Bloemfontein, and Pietermaritzburg.

Local Government.—The units of local government, and the functions vested in them, vary slightly, according to the different provinces, legislative control being exercised usually by their respective Provincial Councils, though in certain instances directly by Act of Parliament.

Climate.

Although the Union of South Africa is situated between the fairly low latitudes of 22° and 25° S., its climate is cooler than that met with in similar latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere. The various parts of the sub-continent have a mean annual temperature corresponding to that found in Europe 7 to 10° farther from the Equator. The physical conformation of the country is that of an elevated table-land, 40 per cent of which lies over 4000 feet above sea-level, bordered by a narrow fertile strip of coast-belt. Climatic changes, on the whole, are gradual, and of a remarkably equable character. Expressed in detail, there is a variety of climates, depending, of course, upon the situation. These range from temperate to sub-tropical. The percentage of sunshine is high, and on the high veld the yearly total is on an average 720 hours higher than that

of the French Riviera. Evaporation also is high, averaging about 75 inches annually. The accompanying tables serve to illustrate in condensed form the general climatic conditions of South Africa.

AVERAGE ANNUAL TEMPERATURES—SIX REPRESENTATIVE STATIONS (Degrees F.)

	Max.	Min.	Mean
Capetown (scrub)	71·2	53·8	62·5
Bloemfontein (high veld) ..	75·6	47·0	61·3
Durban (palm belt)	76·4	63·0	69·7
Johannesburg (high veld) ..	72·7	48·1	60·4
East London (thorn veld) ..	72·4	57·3	64·9
Barberton, Transvaal (low veld)	78·8	57·1	68·0

AVERAGE ANNUAL RAINFALL—SIX REPRESENTATIVE STATIONS (inches)

	Cape-town	Bloem-fontein	Durban	Johan-nesburg	East London	Barber-ton
Altitude ft.	40	4583	50	5750	149	2760
Mean annual number of rain days ..	97	65	116	94	102	91
Mean annual rainfall ..	24·6	20·8	45·1	32·6	32·5	30·2
Percentage rain falling in summer	22	77	72	86	62	85

AVERAGE SUNSHINE—MEAN DAILY HOURS COMPARED

	Cape-town	Kimberley	Johannes-burg	London	New York
January	9·7	9 9	7 8	1·4	5·1
February	9·8	9·1	7·5	1·8	6·2
March	8·4	8·8	7·2	3·4	6·5
April	6·5	8·7	8·7	4·6	7·7
May	6·1	8·6	8·8	6·5	8·1
June	4·8	8·6	9 0	6·2	9·0
July	4·9	8·9	9·2	6·3	8·4
August	5·9	9·2	9·9	5·9	8·3
September	6·8	9·8	9·3	4·3	7·5
October	7·9	10·1	9·0	3·1	5·8
November	9·2	10·8	8·9	1·7	4·0
December	10 2	10·3	8·6	1·1	4·9
Year	7·5	9·4	8·7	3·8	6·9
Percentage of total possible hours ..	66	78	73	29	56

Population.

AREA AND POPULATION OF THE UNION BY PROVINCES

Province	Area in Square Miles	Population—Census 1936				
		European	Native	Asiatic	Other Non-European	Total
Cape	277,169[1]	791,394	2,045,110	10,692	681,831	3,529,027
Natal	35,284	190,551	1,553,930	183,646	18,513	1,946,640
Transvaal ..	110,450	820,620	2,445,045	25,561	49,918	3,341,144
Orange Free State ..	49,647	200,947	553,156	29	17,722	771,854
UNION ..	472,550	2,003,512	6,597,241	219,928	767,984	9,588,665

[1] Inclusive of Walvis Bay Area, 430 sq. miles, administered under Act No. 24 of 1922 as part of the mandated territory of South-West Africa.

Births, Marriages and Deaths.—Birth rate per 1000 of estimated mean population = 24·54; marriage rate per 1000 = 10·60; death rate per 1000 = 10·61. Deaths under 1 year per 1000 births registered = 62·81 (all figures for Europeans only).

Chief Towns.

Most of the towns are small but clean and pleasant and afford all reasonable amenities of town life, such as good shops and hotels, cinemas, concert halls, libraries, and sports facilities of all kinds. The following are the important cities of the Union:

Johannesburg (Trans.). Pop. 519,268 (Europeans, 261,738). The largest city in Africa south of Cairo, and one of the finest in the world. First settled in 1886, it owes its rapid development to the Witwatersrand gold-field. Owing to its position, it is a great railway and commercial centre. It stands 5750 ft. above sea-level.

Capetown; capital of Cape Province, seat of the legislature of the Union and the chief port. Pop. 335,371 (Europeans, 171,534). A well-planned town with many fine public buildings, splendidly situated at the head of Table Bay. It is built at the base of Table Mountain, which rises sheer above it.

Durban, the chief port of Natal, stands on a land-locked bay (Port Natal) which affords the finest harbour on the east coast. There are many handsome buildings. In addition to being a great seaport, Durban is also a flourishing resort. Pop. 259,647 (Europeans, 95,036).

Pretoria, the capital of the Transvaal and administrative capital of the Union, is 35 miles north of Johannesburg. The buildings befit a capital city. Pop. 128,636 (Europeans, 76,954).

Port Elizabeth (C.P.), on Algoa Bay, is the chief seaport for the eastern section of the Province. It is a busy manufacturing town. Pop. 109,824 (Europeans, 53,448).

East London (C.P.), an important seaport and well-ordered town at the mouth of the Buffalo River. Pop. 60,550 (Europeans, 31,300).

Bloemfontein, capital of the Orange Free State, is a rapidly growing city. It has a good situation (alt. 4500 ft.) and fine buildings and is an important railway centre. Pop. 62,842 (Europeans, 30,300).

Pietermaritzburg; capital of Natal, is situated about 50 miles from Durban. It contains the Government buildings, two cathedrals, and a University College. It is also an important manufacturing town. Pop. 49,550 (Europeans, 22,460).

Kimberley (C.P.), about 600 miles north-east of Capetown, is the centre of the diamond-mining industry. Pop. 40,220 (Europeans, 15,750).

Other large towns with populations exceeding 10,000 Europeans are: Germiston (T.), 32,590; Benoni (T.), 21,000; Krugersdorp (T.), 18,000; Boksburg (T.), 16,000; Brakspan (T.), 17,300; Springs (T.), 18,400; Roodepoort (T.), 10,700; Potchefstroom (T.), 10,700.

Education.

Primary education is free throughout the Union and is controlled by the Provincial Education Department in each of the four provinces. The primary schools are of a high standard and take children from the age of 7 to 13 or 14. Children are taught through the medium of the home language—English or Afrikaans as the case may be—and must learn the other language as a subject of instruction.

In the rural districts many of the primary schools are provided with hostels. Good board and lodging for children can be obtained at from £3, 10*s.* to £5 per month.

Secondary education or high school education is within the reach of practically all European children. It is free in the Transvaal and Orange Free State, but there is a charge of approximately 30*s.* a quarter in the Cape and Natal. Nearly every town or village has one or more high schools, with hostels. The work of the high schools conforms with the matriculation examinations for the South African Universities, which also admit on certain conditions to all the British Universities, except London. There are more than 9000 state schools in the Union (other than higher education) with 870,000 scholars and 28,000 teachers. The normal State expenditure on these schools is over £8,600,000.

There are many private schools throughout South Africa. The fees are comparatively low (usually about £150 per annum for a boarder), and the standard is equal to that of English public schools.

There are State technical colleges at Capetown, Durban, Witwatersrand, Port Elizabeth, East London, Pretoria, Pietermaritzburg and Bloemfontein. The Government also maintains five agricultural schools and experimental stations, on farms situated in the Union.

Universities.—Complete university training is provided by the universities of South Africa—Capetown, Stellenbosch, Witwatersrand and Pretoria—and their affiliated colleges. The annual cost of training, everything included, is from £200 to £250.

Military Training.

Every man of European descent between the ages of 17 and 25 is liable in peace time to undergo training, spread over four years, in the Active Citizen Force. Only 50 per cent of the total number liable to peace training actually undergo training and, so far, the necessary quota has

been filled by volunteers. Citizens between the ages of 21 and 25 who are not entered for peace training with the Active Citizen Force are required to undergo training in a rifle association. As an alternative citizens may enter for service in the South African Division of the Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve.

Taxation.

Taxation in South Africa is relatively light. Direct income tax is levied by both the Central Government and the Provincial Administrations.

I. Union Government.

1. *Income Tax* is leviable on all incomes derived from sources within the Union, and comprises:

(*a*) *Normal Tax.*—Levied on all incomes over £400. Abatements are made in respect of insurance and children. For individuals, the tax graduates from 1*s.* to 2*s.* per £1, less 30 per cent.

(*b*) *Super Tax.*—On incomes over £2500. The tax graduates from 1*s.* to 5*s.* per £1 of taxable amount.

2. *Other Taxation* comprises customs, excise, licences, death duties, and stamp duties.

II. Provincial Taxation.

This varies considerably and only taxes common to all the provinces are mentioned here.

Personal Taxes:

(*a*) *Cape*: On every adult, 10*s.* on an income of £250 for married and £1 on an income of £150 for unmarried, rising by 2*s.* 6*d.* on every completed £10 over such incomes to a maximum of £3 and £5 respectively, less 50 per cent.

(*b*) *Natal*: On married adults, £1 for incomes between £250 and £450; £2 on incomes over £450. On unmarried adults, £1 up to incomes of £450; £2 on higher incomes.

(*c*) *Transvaal*: Basic rate of £1, 10*s.* on all adults, but £2, 5*s.* on unmarried persons over 25 years of age with taxable incomes of £100 and over.

(*d*) *Orange Free State*: £1 on all adults plus 2*s.* (married) and 3*s.* (unmarried) on each £10 above £100; maximum tax £4.

3. *Income Taxes*: On amount of Union Income Tax assessed, Natal levies 10%; the Cape and Transvaal 15% for married and 22½% for unmarried persons; and the Orange Free State 20% and 30% respectively.

Revenue and Expenditure.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF THE UNION

(excluding interest on Railways and Harbours Loan Capital, now paid direct to the Public Debt Commissioners and shown separately hereunder)

Year	Revenue	Expenditure	Provincial Subsidies	Interest on Railway Capital
	£	£	£	£
1930–1	28,563,005	24,249,960	5,358,871	6,367,836
1931–2	27,740,746[2]	22,975,664[1]	5,425,911	6,494,296
1932–3	28,441,852[2]	22,714,215[1]	5,397,738	6,558,141
1933–4	37,624,903	27,281,728[1]	5,469,125	6,115,787
1934–5	38,730,228	29,551,242	5,565,024	5,830,397
1935–6	39,675,501	30,135,791	6,043,978	5,788,487

[1] Including export subsidies paid out.
[2] Including primage duty collected for the payment or part-payment of export subsidies.

Agricultural Production. (See also *Farming Conditions*, p. 122.)

The census of 1934–5 showed that there were then 101,277 occupied farms in the Union, of a total area of 209,811,000 acres. The following table shows the number of farms by states:

Area and Acreage	Cape	Natal	Trans.	O.F.S.
Number of farms ..	37,731	10,215	31,437	21,894
Area: 1000 acres ..	127,769	10,999	40,851	30,192

LIVE STOCK IN THE UNION, 1934–5
(*Excluding Live Stock in Towns*)

Stock	Cape	Natal	Trans.	O.F.S.	Native Reserves, &c.
Cattle ..	1,569,931	1,206,667	2,426,635	1,591,438	3,603,206
Sheep ..	19,077,269	1,845,925	3,999,242	7,679,204	3,213,190
Goats ..	2,711,954	356,193	381,431	60,820	2,480,802
Pigs ..	207,466	68,480	222,870	133,250	not enumerated

The production of wool is in the neighbourhood of 200,000 lb. a year.

EUROPEAN PRODUCTION OF CROPS, 1934–5

Crop (1000 lb.)	Cape	Natal	Trans.	O.F.S.
Barley	51,804	50	3,186	573
Oats	164,914	1,005	7,952	37,292
Rye	45,314	158	638	5,388
Wheat	576,447	759	88,508	316,761
Maize	143,190	265,385	1,608,202	1,262,676
Kaffir corn ..	10,930	14,043	103,846	26,325
Potatoes	77,273	47,541	154,558	59,194
Tobacco	4,623	313	10,972	354
Ground nuts ..	107	1,057	16,479	51
Tea (green leaf) ..		3,450		
Cotton (seed) ..	535	810	2,147	
Sugar cane (tons of 2000 lb.) ..		3,594,298		

MINERAL PRODUCTION OF THE UNION

Mineral		1934		1935		1936	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value (£)	Quantity	Value (£)
Asbestos	ton	17,594	203,033	22,802	226,881	725,237	337,229
Coal	ton	13,116,546	3,154,195	14,607,604	3,539,796	15,096,376	3,949,736
Copper (99·82%)	ton	9,968	275,305	11,927	323,674	12,196	385,571
Diamonds ..	metric carat	440,313	1,437,591	676,722	2,171,267	623,923	2,125,216
Gold	fine oz.	10,479,857	44,515,603[1]	10,773,991	45,765,005[1]	11,336,214	79,495,202[2]
Silver	fine oz.	1,002,203	95,687	1,042,203	135,903	1,075,625	97,051
Tin (65·66%) ..	ton	975	135,773	1,042	136,359	1,065	114,516

[1] Excluding Gold Premium: £30,767,825.

[2] Total at value realized for gold, namely £7·012 per fine oz. in 1936.

Minerals and Mining.

South Africa is rich in minerals; the gold from the mines on the Rand accounting (1935) for 43 per cent of the total world production. 33,000 Europeans and 285,000 natives are employed in the gold industry. Diamonds are mined in the Cape, Transvaal, and Orange Free State, coal throughout the Union, and copper in the Transvaal. The value of the total mineral production of the Union for 1936 was £88,516,790, including gold premium. Asbestos, osmiridium, platinum, corundum, magnesite, and graphite are mined in small quantities.

Manufactures.

In recent years there has been a great increase in industrial activity in the Union, the total output of local manufactures now exceeding £100,000,000 a year in value. Among the more important productions are wattle extract, for use in tanning; motor fuel (industrial alcohol) from molasses; calcium carbide; bottle making; iron smelting; and the manufacture of starch from maize.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES EXPORTED, 1935 AND 1936

Article (S.A. Produce)		1935		1936	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
			£		£
Bark—					
Wattle	tons	93,340	380,102	83,065	348,878
Extract	tons	38,509	387,530	38,344	428,107
Butter and substitutes	lb.	8,956,968	495,334	9,324,192	509,558
Crawfish, preserved ..	lb.	2,591,583	171,667	3,438,827	228,491
Fruit, fresh and edible nuts		—	2,308,507	—	2,719,814
Fruit, dried and preserved	lb.	19,009,818	313,755	25,731,141	482,001
Hides, ox and cow ..	lb.	24,349,880	481,190	30,241,240	655,216
Maize	tons	499,676	1,557,732	17,797	55,664
Maizemeal	lb.	286,226,381	433,428	25,890,656	44,595
Mohair	lb.	10,628,782	361,486	6,341,602	427,265
Skins, sheep and goats	lb.	40,468,765	941,228	37,772,398	1,227,097
Sugar	lb.	440,843,810	1,764,057	296,654,301	1,184,732
Wool, sheep's—					
In grease	tons	125,600	8,924,370	103,186	9,249,658
Scoured	tons	4,295	591,462	3,786	590,908
Asbestos	lb.	47,428,379	307,182	49,417,379	326,464
Coal—					
Cargo	tons	1,271,136	560,001	1,175,851	529,437
Bunkered	tons	1,187,696	999,154	1,365,276	1,123,790
Copper (bar) ..	lb.	18,843,600	340,323	19,973,200	342,315
Diamonds	carats	2,455,504	2,975,525	1,037,960	3,313,475
[1] Gold bullion ..	fine oz.	10,072,599	71,439,992	11,674,348	81,855,198
Whale oil	galls.	1,190,284	53,252	4,418,547	291,071

[1] Includes Gold Premium and Rhodesian and Tanganyika gold refined locally.

Cost of Living.

Living is cheap in South Africa, a pound sterling buying more than in the United Kingdom or in any other Dominion. Coal, meat, dairy produce, fruit and vegetables cost less than in the United Kingdom, but imported goods are naturally dearer. Prices vary from state to state and from district to district, but the standard of living is, generally speaking, somewhat higher than in Britain, greater use being made in South Africa of modern aids to ease and comfort.

Houses of modest size are furnished with up-to-date domestic appliances and have large gardens. Sports and recreations are cheaper than in Britain and are available throughout the year.

Excluding house rent, the cost of subsistence of a family of four will range from £20 to £30 per month in the towns, much less in country districts.

PURCHASING POWER OF A SOVEREIGN

Based on predominant retail prices of food, fuel, light, and rent, in nine towns, 1910–36, compared with purchasing power in the nine towns regarded as a whole in 1910 = 20*s*.

Town	1910	1914	1934	1935	1936
	s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*
Capetown [1]	24 1	20 5	16 9	17 0	17 1
Port Elizabeth	21 7	20 4	17 10	17 11	18 0
East London	22 10	20 7	17 2	17 4	17 4
Kimberley	23 3	18 0	20 9	21 3	21 4
Maritzburg	23 5	21 6	17 10	17 11	17 9
Durban	21 3	19 5	16 2	16 4	16 5
Pretoria	17 4	16 1	15 10	15 11	15 11
Johannesburg and Reef Towns	18 0	17 2	16 5	16 7	16 5
Bloemfontein	19 3	17 6	17 6	17 8	18 0
Weighted average	20 0	18 4	16 8	16 10	16 10

[1] Includes Wynberg.

AVERAGE MONTHLY RENTS OF HOUSES OF THREE, FOUR, AND FIVE ROOMS IN THE NINE PRINCIPAL URBAN CENTRES, MAY, 1936

Centre	Three Rooms	Four Rooms	Five Rooms
	s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*
Capetown	88 0	117 5	153 8
Port Elizabeth ..	85 9	118 7	144 11
East London ..	103 1	124 2	145 9
Kimberley	57 8	72 5	93 3
Pietermaritzburg ..	84 2	108 8	128 5
Durban	108 0	133 1	159 2
Pretoria	115 10	145 3	173 3
Witwatersrand ..	120 8	143 2	180 0
Bloemfontein ..	97 7	123 5	147 4

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF CERTAIN COMMODITIES IN FIVE OF THE PRINCIPAL TOWNS, JANUARY, 1937

Commodity	Capetown	Durban	Pretoria	Johannesburg	Bloemfontein
	d.	*d.*	*d.*	*d.*	*d.*
Bread .. .. lb.	3·71	3·39	3·15	3·32	3·0
Flour .. .. 25 lb.	77·1	69·4	66·7	70·4	73·4
Oatmeal, S.A. .. lb.	3·5	3·1	3·0	3·0	3·1
Breakfast oats, S.A., 2-lb. pkts.	8·6	9·9	10·3	10·7	10·1
Rice .. .. lb.	1·9	2·2	3·0	3·3	3·2
Tea .. .. lb.	25·1	26·5	25·4	25·4	26·1
Coffee .. .. lb.	17·1	17·4	12·9	14·5	10·8
Sugar .. .. lb.	3·32	3·25	3·50	3·48	3·50
Jam, S.A. .. lb.	5·1	5·1	5·8	5·6	5·4
Potatoes .. .. lb.	1·5	1·2	1·1	1·1	1·3
Butter .. .. lb.	16·4	17·1	15·8	16·5	16·0
Cheese .. .. lb.	15·3	16·1	14·9	15·4	14·4
Eggs .. .. doz.	18·6	17·1	17·0	17·3	11·8
Milk (fresh) .. pint	3·00	3·50	3·13	3·08	2·38
Bacon, S.A. .. lb.	19·2	16·5	17·3	17·2	18·8
Beef—					
Rump steak .. lb.	11·1	11·2	11·9	11·8	8·6
Sirloin.. .. lb.	8·4	9·4	9·2	9·0	7·3
Brisket .. lb.	5·8	6·2	6·3	6·2	5·5
Mutton—					
Leg .. .. lb.	8·9	10·8	11·5	10·6	8·6
Shoulder .. lb.	7·1	8·8	9·4	9·1	7·6
Paraffin .. .. gall.	13·5	13·2	19·1	19·7	19·7
Coal .. .. 100 lb.	28·4	20·5	13·4	12·7	16·6
Candles .. .. lb.	5·4	5·3	5·1	5·4	5·6
Soap (household) in bars lb.	4·2	3·5	2·9	3·4	3·5

Transport.

In spite of the great distances separating the towns and smaller settlements, all parts of the Union are accessible by regular rail or road services.

Railways.—The railways are owned and managed by the Government through a Railways and Harbours Board, of which the minister responsible to Parliament acts as chairman. The total mileage of Government-owned lines at the end of March, 1936, was 13,189 miles, more than 12,000 miles being 3 ft. 6 in. gauge. The *Cape to Cairo Railway* at present extends from Capetown to Port Francqui on the lower Congo, 3300 miles. The Union is now in direct communication with Nyasaland by way of the *Trans-Zambesi Railway*, from Dondo on the *Beira-Mashonaland Railway* to Lake Nyasa.

A high standard of comfort is maintained on the South African railways, but the speed of the trains is slow compared with European standards.

SOME RAILWAY DISTANCES AND TIMES BY QUICKEST SERVICE

	Miles	Hours
CAPETOWN to—		
Bloemfontein	755	23¼
Bulawayo	1355	45¼
Durban	1271	44
East London	888	42¼
Johannesburg	956	28¾
Kimberley	649	19¾
Lourenço Marques	1325	48¾
Mossel Bay	320	13¼
Port Elizabeth (via George) ..	675	29¼
Victoria Falls	1635	56¾
Pretoria	1001	30¼
Windhoek	1383	66¾
DURBAN to—		
Bloemfontein	516	20¾
Bulawayo	1168	61¼
East London	917	44¼
BULAWAYO to—		
Beira	670	31¼
Sakania	796	35¼
PORT ELIZABETH to—		
Bloemfontein	451	17¼
Johannesburg	714	27
EAST LONDON to—		
Bloemfontein	401	18
JOHANNESBURG to—		
Bloemfontein	263	8¾
Bulawayo	674	34¼
Durban	494	18
East London	664	26¼
Kimberley	307	8
Lourenço Marques	369	13¾
Messina	396	21
Victoria Falls	954	47¼

Roads.—In and around the towns and throughout the more thickly settled areas the roads are maintained at a standard equal to that in western Europe. Elsewhere the roads are in a backward state, although they are everywhere practicable and safe for motor traffic. In the country districts chains are generally carried in wet weather. There are far more motor-cars in the Union, in proportion to population, than in Great Britain, and in consequence garage accommodation and fuel stations are everywhere available. A forward policy of road development is now in progress.

There are good omnibus services connecting villages and scattered settlements with the nearest railway. The fares are usually 3*d.* or 4*d.* a mile.

Motor Taxation.—In South Africa motor vehicles are taxed on the basis of weight, not on horse-power as in Britain. The taxes vary in each province, but are everywhere much lower than in Britain.

Commercial Aviation.—The responsibility for the conduct of commercial flying within the Union lies with the South African Railways and Harbour Administration, which took over existing private lines and operates its own aircraft for the transport of passengers and goods. Regular services are operated between various important centres, and these are now in the

process of being extended and developed. In addition, there are regular connexions with the Imperial Airways service from London.

The Government pays a subsidy to approved flying clubs.

Immigration Regulations.

All persons entering the Union of South Africa, excepting those domiciled therein, must comply with the Immigrants Regulation Act, No. 22 of 1913. Special provisions are made for visitors, but all persons entering the Union for permanent residence must be prepared to deposit with the Immigration Authorities *on arrival* any sum up to £250 (£50 is the sum usually accepted), which the authorities will retain in their possession until such time as they are satisfied that the passenger is not likely to become a public charge.

Farming Conditions.

The farming industry of South Africa is extremely important, and embraces a wide range of stock and crops. The veld (i.e. the natural, uncultivated, land) bears immense numbers of cattle and sheep. The Government is actively assisting beef raising for export, and it also keeps a watchful eye on the interests of farmers in every branch of production. Land taxation is low, there are special facilities in the way of loans (see below), grants and subsidies, and technical education, advisory services of many kinds, irrigation, forestry and transport are all matters to which much attention is given.

Of arable crops, maize, with millets and sorghums, is the staple grain throughout the summer rainfall zone. Wheat and barley are the chief crops in the winter rainfall zone. Lucerne and various fodder crops for ensilage are largely grown. Sugar is the chief crop in Natal. Tobacco is of increasing importance, South Africa being now a competitor in the world tobacco market. Viticulture is an important Cape industry, and wines, sultanas and muscatel raisins are valuable exports. Wattle (acacia) for tanning is one of the chief exports of Natal.

Fruit growing is a large and flourishing industry. Exports of citrus and other fruits are now about £2,000,000, the growth of the overseas trade being due in large part to the provision of refrigerating and pre-cooling stations at the ports.

Poultry farming is of growing importance. The natural conditions are ideal for poultry and the necessary feeding grains are grown in the Union.

Government Loans.—Under the Land Settlement Act of 1912, the Government of the Union assists settlers to acquire privately owned land, selected by themselves for agricultural and pastoral purposes. The financial contribution of the Government will not exceed nine-tenths of the purchase price and is limited, except under very exceptional circumstances, to £1500 for a one-settler holding. Repayment is made by half-yearly instalments, including interest at the rate of 4 per cent per annum, over a period of forty years. Personal occupation is an essential condition of the purchase agreement in terms of which the allotment of the land is made. All applications are considered on their merits by Land Boards, appointed under the Land Settlement Act, 1912, as amended from time to time. The boards are not prepared to consider applications from persons who

have not personally inspected the land for which they have applied. The Land Settlement Act and regulations under it are subject to amendment from time to time, and the latest information should be sought from the Secretary for Lands, Union Buildings, Pretoria, at the time of proposed selection and purchase.

Training.—It is inadvisable for anyone to enter upon farming without actual experience of the local conditions in the particular region of the Union selected. This applies to those with farming experience in other countries as well as to those without experience. Climatic, topographical and economic conditions vary greatly, and the handling of native labour calls for understanding.

Training can be had at low cost on established farms in all parts of the Union. The 1820 Memorial Settlers' Association has inaugurated a scheme for settling pupils on farms for training, the training period being from 1 to 4 years. The association also maintains the Tarka Bridge Training Farm, 1190 acres, 170 miles by rail from Port Elizabeth (see p. 264).

Radio.

Throughout the Union of South Africa radio is under the control of the Government and programmes of a nature similar to those in the United Kingdom are broadcast from principal stations and subsidiary stations (which also put out news). A receiving licence costs between £1 and £2, according to local conditions.

Office in London.

Information on any matter relating to settlement or trade in the Union of South Africa can be obtained from the office of the High Commissioner, South Africa House, Trafalgar Square, London, W.C.2.

IV. AUSTRALIA

By

GEORGE BERRIE

CHAPTER I

The Land Difficulty in Australia

Australia offers variety. Between the snow zones of the southern tablelands and the tropical jungles of the northern plateaux, there is every possible variation of soil, rainfall and climate. On the coast the population of modern cities passes the million mark; inland there is, in places, complete isolation. In very few ways do the physical features of the continent resemble, even remotely, those of any other. The home-seeker has a wide choice.

There are opportunities in Australia for men and women with certain qualifications, but they are not lying at every corner, nor do they offer a short or easy road to affluence. The personal factor counts vitally. The characteristics which make success possible and the lack of them which makes failure probable will be dealt with in a later chapter.

In Britain accurate knowledge of Australia is rare. The great bulk of the people are frankly not interested in becoming acquainted with conditions of life in the Commonwealth. Opinion—where it exists—differs sharply and sometimes ludicrously, but on one point it seems to be unanimous. If the question of migration crops up, it is soon dismissed with, " but anyway, Australia does not want migrants."

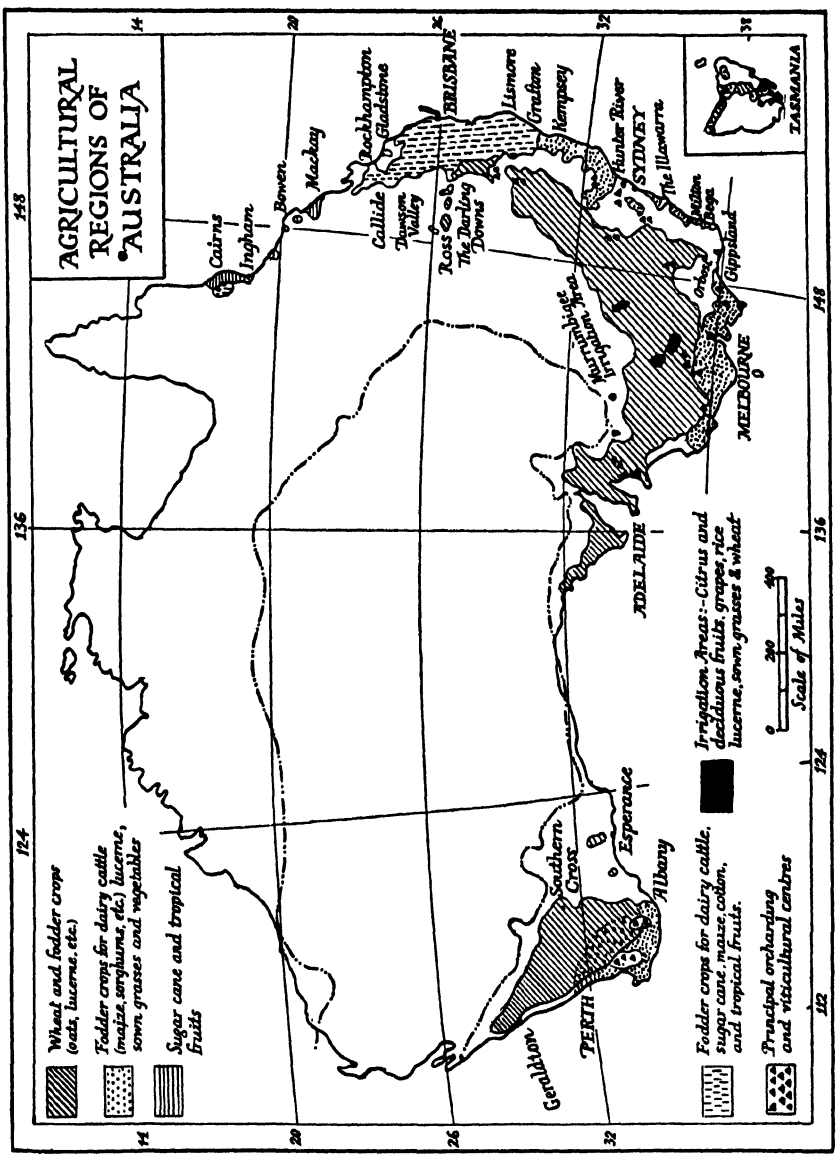
To have paid migrants' passages during the depression would merely have meant transferring dole-recipients from Britain to Australia. So much is obvious. The group settlements and ready-made farms schemes were more or less hopeless from the start, and the depression merely hastened their abandonment. Undoubtedly some of the " settled " migrants suffered badly through Government bungling or worse, but even if they had all made good—an impossibility in the circumstances—what country can afford to buy population at the rate of £1000 of debt per head?

That, in effect, was what the ready-made-farms-cum-cheap-loan-policy amounted to. A simple sum in multiplication should be enough to convince anyone that the economics of the system were ruinous. It will never be attempted again, its legacies of debt and bitter feeling are too severe to be disregarded. Any future attempts at mass migration will have to be on a totally different basis. Australia *does* want migration, but it wants it to be effective.

The would-be migrant, looking at the map of Australia, and knowing that its population is less than 7,000,000, may well wonder why it should cost £1000 or more to establish one man on a farm there. He may know, possibly, that the great bulk of the continent is climatically unsuited for dense, and in some parts even for sparse settlement. But what of a State like New South Wales, with its 310,000 square miles of territory, and a mere 2,000,000 or so of people—half of whom live in Sydney? Surely it must have good land unoccupied where a man may start with only a strong arm and a stout heart for capital?

"Dummying" in New South Wales.

A brief account of the land legislation of New South Wales will explain the position existing to-day. Until the sixties of last century the big grazier—or "squatter"—was supreme. He was the first settler in the field, and whole countrysides were his for the taking. He held his land under lease from the Crown at a small rental. His sheep were shepherded and his cattle ran at large. Naturally, he took up the country which required little or no improvement. In response to an agitation for small holdings, the Government of the day, instead of satisfying its legitimate demand, by dispossessing the squatter in certain specially favoured districts, made the fatal mistake of throwing the whole State open for "selection". Any man could go to any part of New South Wales and select a maximum of 2560 acres without waiting even for a survey. The upset price per acre was fixed at £1; the selector was given 20 years in which to pay for his farm—it then became freehold—and after residing on it for five years, he was entitled to sell out. As a result, selecting land on the choice spots of a station and selling out to the squatter after five years became a profitable



(From the Bank of New South Wales Circular, by permission.)

occupation. The squatter retaliated by putting up " dummies ", who did the five years' residence, allowed him the use of the land, and transferred it to him for a trifle.

For several decades the land history of New South Wales reeked with law evasion, blackmail, dummying and bitter strife between big and small holders. Its upshot was the gradual building up in all favoured districts—particularly in those suitable for agriculture —of the large freehold estates which are in the main the stumbling block to cheap land settlement to-day. Leasehold land, as it reverts to the Crown, is thrown open to the ballot from time to time, and if it has any special value it is eagerly competed for. Most of what is left in New South Wales needs an outsize in heart and arm to deal with it. The land history of the other States—Queensland and Western Australia excepted, is much the same.

In the late nineties, New South Wales passed a compulsory subdivision law, and large estates were resumed and opened-up for settlement. The law is inoperative to-day, but the Government has recently introduced a system of voluntary subdivision. Where a large estate is agreeable to subdivide, the Government will—for approved buyers—find 80 per cent of the purchase money through the Rural Bank, the advance to be repaid on easy terms over a number of years. The buyer has to have sufficient cash resources to provide the remainder of the purchase money, and the stock, plant and equipment necessary to work the farm satisfactorily. This system would not be available to the migrant with capital until he had acquired some experience of local conditions.

There are, of course, large areas of virgin land in the Kimberley district of North-Western Australia and in the Northern Territory which will some day carry close settlement. Their inaccessibility, however, and complete lack of communication debar them from consideration for the purposes of this article.

CHAPTER II

The Young Migrant without Capital

First-hand information about a country from compatriots who are already living in it is worth more than all the official pamphlets ever printed. It at least stands a chance of being unbiassed. If the man who thinks of going to Australia does not know anyone there, he may know someone who does. He should write for information and advice, and to more than one person if possible. If their verdicts differ, he will have to decide between them as best he can, but he will at least have the candid opinions of men with no axes to grind. They will tell him things, both for and against, which he will never see in print. If he goes, he goes forewarned, and he will have some idea of what his chances are—whether the country will suit him and what is even more important, whether he will suit it. He can ignore the opinion—good or bad—of the tourist. To get to the bedrock of any country—or any people—one needs to work *in* that country and *with* its people. As to the type of man who " clicks " with the Australian temperament, it is impossible to lay down any hard and fast rule; but the Australian in the main is a mixer, his friendliness is *not* to be mistaken for familiarity, and he takes people as he finds them.

The migrant to Australia needs three main qualifications: youth, intelligence, and grit. Health is also a factor, but Australia specializes in a health-giving climate, and many a man has gone there with little and found it in plenty. The younger the migrant, the more readily he will transplant, and once he has overcome the early inevitable homesickness, he will soon cease to long for the fields and hedges, the brooks and woodlands of an English county. An older man seldom does so. Youth, too, is less likely to carry a grievance against life from one country to another. Eighteen to twenty-one is the ideal age. Twenty-five is all right; over thirty is risky.

Intelligence is necessary if the migrant means to get out of the rut. Whatever else it is, Australia is an *active* country, and the

boy who is alert, who can adapt himself readily and learn quickly, starts with a big advantage. If he is going to the land, previous farm experience may be an asset, but it is by no means essential. The town-bred boy with the will to learn can master the A B C of Australian bush life in six months.

The Fighting Spirit.

No one succeeds in the battle of life without a share of grit. It is not easy to make something out of nothing, but it is done repeatedly in Australia although it may take half a lifetime or longer. The size of such a task may well frighten a youngster. He will meet men who have succeeded and men who have failed, and he will hear fearsome stories of what they have been through in a battle with nature. But he will find that, in the main, the men who made good were those who fought the tide until it turned and that a big percentage of them began with nothing. He will do well to study their optimism, their courage, and their obstinate refusal to be beaten. No matter how often they have failed, they have managed to make a fresh start. An inexperienced boy, if he will work and save, if he likes a fight and can take a beating, particularly if he is resourceful and adaptable, will eventually work his way to the top. But without a full share of grit he will be better away from life on the land in Australia.

Given these three main qualifications, the migrant who pays his own passage, and who lands in Australia with enough money in his pocket to tide him over the first few months, has just as good a chance of ultimately succeeding as the man with capital, and a better one than the man who has to be " assisted ". The mere fact of going twelve thousand miles into the unknown " off his own bat " argues a certain amount of pluck and determination, plus a spirit of adventure. If he possibly can, the migrant should make sure of a job to go to, or at least of friends who will help him to find one, particularly if he has had no land experience. If he has neither friends, prospective job, nor experience, he has a risky time in front of him. It is as well—here—to deal with the immigration laws which are likely to affect him.

The Australian immigration laws are elastic. They are de-

signed and administered on the main principles of letting desirables in and keeping undesirables out. There is the " educational " test whereby *anyone* can be excluded. It is applied in the great bulk of cases to undesirable foreigners. As far as British subjects are concerned, the authorities merely require to be satisfied that the migrant is of good health and character and that he is unlikely to become a charge on the State. No decent citizen who has been issued with a passport in Britain, and who has a job or friends to go to, or who possesses, say, fifty pounds when he arrives need be afraid that he will be refused a landing.

" Go North, Young Man!"

We will suppose that the young migrant lands in Sydney, and has neither job, friends nor experience, but sufficient cash to keep him for several months. If his intention is to go to the land, spring is the best time to arrive, for it is the season which offers most chances of casual employment. The shearing sheds of the west are starting work; haymaking will follow a little later, and then comes harvesting. For six months, casual labour will be in demand, and a lot of it is labour which requires little or no experience.

The migrant who has been a farm labourer should first try some of the employment bureaus in the City, for if he succeeds in getting a country job, the Department of Labour and Industry will advance him his railway fare, to be refunded from his first earnings. If, however, he is inexperienced his chances of finding a job while in the city will be small. He must go to where the work is. His best plan is to buy a push-bike, pack on it the minimum amount of gear he needs, and ride west until he is well across the mountains. If, by then, he has found nothing, he should head northwards. " Go north, young man " would be a good slogan to adopt in Australia to-day.

It will mean a two-hundred-and-fifty-mile ride before our migrant reaches the western slopes, and the roads are far from being what they are in England, but he will find many compensating advantages. He can camp anywhere in the fields or by the roadside, and if the nights are cold, he can help himself to all the firewood he wants. Once he crosses the Dividing Range, he will not

be refused food or shelter if he asks for it. There are no game laws in Australia. He will be heartily welcome to all the rabbits he can catch, and if his road crosses a river, he may fish until he is tired of it.

Our migrant's objective is a job where he can begin his new education. Since he will have to be taught everything, he need not expect to be paid more than ten shillings a week and his keep at first, and it is more likely to be five. Still, he will be wise to take it and settle down to the job of *learning*.

If he can hear of nothing while on the road, he should, when he reaches the first decent-sized western town, call at the office of the leading Stock and Station agent. The agent's main business is to sell stock and properties on commission. He usually knows every landowner in his district and a good many out of it. If any farmer wants a boy, the agent is the most likely man to know of it.

The Trials of Learning.

Practically every farm or station employs what is known as the "knockabout boy" or the "wood and water Joey". His job is one that is never finished. His hours are those of daylight, with Saturday afternoons and Sundays off. He begins the day by milking a few cows before breakfast. They do not stand placidly at a feeder like English cows, they have to be bailed and leg-roped. If he has time before breakfast he will also "run up" the horses—probably on foot, from their paddock to the stockyard and perhaps feed them. After breakfast, he separates the milk and washes the utensils. An hour on the woodheap comes next, and he wheels in a day's supply of split stuff for the kitchen stove and short logs for the evening fires. When the woodheap gets low, he will take a horse and dray and cart in a few loads from the nearest paddock where fallen timber is plentiful. He has to clean up round the premises, and help in the garden—if there is one. In the afternoons he pens up the calves for the night. They run with their mothers during the day, so there is no afternoon milking, except, of course, on recognized dairy farms where calves are weaned in the ordinary way. Once a week—perhaps oftener—he will have to butcher a sheep, and his first few efforts will be sure to draw the comment

that the " crows have been at it "—or even the dingoes! While shearing or harvesting is in progress, he will be expected to find time for many other jobs besides those of every day. He will be bound to make mistakes, but he will be forgiven for most of them if he is able to " step on it ".

Generally speaking, the Australian farmer is a fair boss. Our young migrant may, of course, be unlucky enough to get with one who will work him like a galley-slave, blame him for everything that goes wrong, and have no word of praise for anything he does right. If he is honestly trying, and satisfied that he is not getting a fair deal, he must look for another job. With that kind of boss—who will be well-known—he may easily find a better one on the next farm.

If a farmer meets his application for a job with: " no thanks, no more ' pommies ' for me," the young migrant may fairly blame some of his predecessors. A farmer's time is valuable. He will not mind breaking in a raw " new chum ", if he is reasonably intelligent and *teachable*. It is an unfortunate fact that the Australian farmer has, during recent years, been saddled with many who were neither.

The worst trial in front of the young migrant is loneliness. Even if he is treated as one of the family, there may be no young people in it. He cannot pedal to the " Red Lion " in the evening and spend a few hours at darts with the lads of the village. The nearest town may be twenty miles away, and its pubs mere drinking shops. There is nothing in Australia even remotely resembling the club life of the English village inn. If it happens that the farm is one where there are no other permanent employees, and where he is in quarters separate from the farmer's home, his isolation may well become unbearable.

The young migrant must also expect to have to put up with a certain amount of " leg-pulling ". The " new chum " in Australia —whether he comes from overseas or from a local city—is considered fair game in the bush, like the " tenderfoot " in America. If he remembers his first term as a new boy at school, it will help him. It will help him too, if before he embarks, he buys a copy of A. B. Paterson's bush ballads, *The Man from Snowy River*, and commits them to memory during the voyage.

Contract Work.

By the time the young migrant has served a year's apprenticeship, he should be qualified to hold down a man's job and draw a man's wage—usually somewhere about thirty shillings a week and his keep. If he is in a district in the earlier stages of development, he will find plenty of contract work to be done, in the shape of clearing land for the plough, fencing, or ring-barking. Ring-barking is the usual method of tree killing. The process is merely to cut through the bark, and lightly into the sapwood, joining each blow, and prising the chip outwards in the form of a frill. Fencing and axework are in Australia different in every way from what a migrant may have been used to in England, and before a new hand attempts them, he should ally himself with an experienced mate who can teach him that part of bushcraft thoroughly. The prices paid for contract work and casual labour will tempt him, but if he means to become a farmer himself, he should aim at a permanent job on a *successful* farm and concentrate on mastering his boss's methods.

Meantime there is one thing he *must* learn to do, and that is to save his money. It may seem a long job to save the several hundred pounds he needs to make a start for himself on a wage of thirty shillings a week, and keep, but he is—or should be—learning all the while, and five years' experience is little enough. Ten would be better still. Above all, he should aim at making a reputation as a reliable and hard-working farm hand. If he decides to make his first start as a share-farmer, he will find his reputation a tremendous asset. A landowner will meet him more than half-way, and, realizing that such assistance is a good investment, will help him in every way possible.

Share-farming.

Share-farming is extensively practised in many of the big agricultural districts in New South Wales. As the term implies, the landholder and working farmer share both costs and profits. The agreements vary considerably, but usually they are on a fifty-fifty basis. The landholder finds the land—fenced, cleared, and free from rabbits—and half of the seed and fertilizer, if the latter is used. The share-farmer finds all working plant and labour and his

half of seed and manures. Each finds his share of the sacks, and the crop is divided in the paddock. If the land has been previously uncultivated, it has to be fallowed, in which case the share-farmer is paid for ploughing the landowner's half. In some cases the share-farmer may get two-thirds of the yield, even all of it, the first year. He is usually provided with a small grass paddock for his horses, but he has to build his own camp, unless there is a vacant hut handy. Many of the most successful farmers in New South Wales began as " halves men ", and the system offers the best opening for a man with the necessary experience and a few hundred pounds in cash.

Wheat-growing is a precarious business in any country, and Australia is no exception. Yet it is remarkable how some men will get a reasonable return even in the worst years. The migrant will not be long in New South Wales before he experiences drought conditions. Then he will see one crop which is quite payable and another an absolute failure and only a six-wire fence separating them. Part of his job is to find out why.

CHAPTER III

The Man with Capital

To the man who goes to Australia with capital—whether he has had land experience or not, the first and best advice is to do nothing in a hurry. His surplus cash should go into a safe place for at least three years. Long before then he will have made up his mind about the country, and if he decides against it he can take himself and his cash elsewhere, and no harm will be done. He will go away wiser but not sadder. Many an inexperienced man has been saddled with an inferior property and eventually lost his money, through his haste to make a start. There are just as many sharks on Australian land as there are in Australian waters.

There are several States and many widely varying districts to choose from, and the young capitalist naturally wants the one which offers the best prospects with congenial people to live amongst.

He may have introductions to landholders; but enjoying their hospitality or motoring through the countryside will not help him much, for he will only see the more pleasant side of life that way, and may conclude that it is idyllic. He has to test the country, its people and himself. There is only one way to do that—by working.

The man with capital also needs time to decide which of the various branches of the land industry he will enter. He can become a grazier, wheatgrower, mixed farmer, or fruit farmer. On the coast he will find whole countrysides devoted to dairying, pigs and maize. It is impossible to do more than generalize as to the amount of capital he will require, since land values vary widely according to title and locality. Much, too, depends on whether the land he buys is fully improved, or only partly. Purely grazing country is cheaper than agricultural, and dairying country dearer than either. In districts such as the Western Division of New South Wales, grazing is the main industry, the land tenure is mainly leasehold, the areas large and cheap and the rainfall precarious. The landseeker should confine his search to districts where the annual average rainfall is not less than twenty inches. When he has acquired sufficient experience of the right kind, he can make a fair start as a grazier or mixed farmer on a capital of from £2000 to £3000. Many a man has, of course, failed with much more and others have succeeded with much less. Again, it cannot be emphasized too strongly that the personal factor counts vitally.

Experience in Sheep Farming.

The young capitalist may decide to become a grazier—that is a sheep- or cattle-breeder. The merino sheep-breeding industry is a science, and the men at the top of it are men of genius. They have spent their lives studying and experimenting. Fortunately, the results of their work are available in the shape of stud sheep for the rank and file.

How is the newcomer to gain his experience? He has an A B C to learn as well as the "wood-and-water-joey", and no two districts are quite alike. A man may be an excellent station manager on a dry property west of the Darling River and completely puzzled in the mountains. The migrant can see a number of different dis-

tricts, learn quite a lot about the handling of merino sheep, get excellent chances to study their wool, and pay his expenses and a bit over by going out into the country as a shed hand during the shearing season.

Shearing in Australia is done mainly by contractors. They may be individuals or firms with city head-quarters. In the latter case they employ overseers to superintend the work. They supply all the necessary labour and they move their teams of men from district to district, beginning in the far west in midwinter and ending on the mountains in November. One team may cover five hundred miles or more in a season and work in half a dozen widely varying districts. The shed hand is the man who handles the wool from the time it is shorn until it reaches the wool-classer. An intelligent man who has never seen a shearing shed can become thoroughly proficient as a wool hand in a few weeks, if he will take notice of what he is told. The policy of every shed to-day is to encourage men to learn to shear, and the machines are often run during spell intervals for that purpose. If the newcomer follows a run of sheds from the West Darling country of New South Wales to the tablelands, he can get knowledge which will be invaluable to him—if only by observation. Incidentally, he can study the Australian bush worker, a class of labour which, as a grazier, he will one day have to handle. There is in both Sydney and Brisbane a large co-operative company which shears sheep annually by the million. The man who introduces himself as a future grazier and a possible client will be certain of getting work in a run of sheds, and also advice and assistance.

Mixed Farming.

Mixed farming will probably suit the man with small capital best, particularly if he has been a successful farmer in England. He will have no difficulty in adapting himself to Australian methods, to large areas, multiple ploughs and harvesting machinery. In one sense at least he will find agriculture simpler. Animal manures are not used, and in some districts no manures of any kind. There is no stock housing in the winter—it will probably astound him to find places where crops are grown and the horses used are worked

wholly on grass. If the newcomer is an expert with root crops, he will have a chance of making a name for himself. There are many districts where they would do admirably, but the Australian farmer is singularly backward in this form of fodder production.

Still, even the most expert English farmer would do well to give himself three years before he risks his capital. There are agricultural colleges in all the States, and they are thoroughly practical. They grow crops and fatten stock as successfully as the most scientific farmer. The College at Wagga in Southern New South Wales is one of the most outstanding, and a term there would be time well spent. Nevertheless, the best experience of all is to be acquired with some progressive farmer whose livelihood depends on his knowledge and energy, and since methods vary widely in different localities, the newcomer should study at least three districts before he chooses one wherein to start farming himself.

Three representative mixed-farming districts in New South Wales are Wagga (south), Wellington (central-west), and Inverell (north). They are all on the western slopes of the main Dividing Range, and are thoroughly prosperous centres. Most of their farmers rely on a combination of wheat, fat lambs and fodder crops. Dairying and pig-raising are also extensively practised. There are co-operative butter and bacon factories in each centre. A newcomer who spent a full year in each of these districts should be equipped with sufficient experience to venture his capital. If he does this—beginning on the lowest rung of the ladder in acquiring his knowledge—he will not regret it.

The decision to make his start is a momentous step, for everything depends on the land he buys and on what he pays for it. He will certainly have made friends on whose advice he can rely, but if anything in the nature of a land boom is on he will do well to wait, and the surest sign of a land boom is easy money. He may be offered attractive properties—half cash and the balance on overdraft. He will be far safer if he is satisfied to start on an area which his own capital will buy. Then, if he should have paid too much, a drop in values with the first bad year will only affect him on paper, and he can wait for the wheel to turn again. Too often, the man who is tempted to buy far beyond his own resources first

watches his equity disappear and soon afterwards disappears himself. It is probably true that more men are ruined on the land in Australia through ignorance of accountancy and business principles than through drought.

CHAPTER IV

Selected Districts for Enterprise

With limited space it is impossible to deal with representative districts in each of the six States. Since the greatest rural development seems likely to take place in New South Wales and Queensland in the near future, this chapter will be devoted to a brief description of pastoral and agricultural centres in each of those two States.

In New South Wales, the town of Moree lies 400 miles by rail to the north-west of Sydney. It is the centre of a typical sheep and cattle district, and its annual rainfall averages twenty-two inches. In summer the climate is hot, sometimes very hot, but in winter it is delightful. To the north, west and south the country is quite flat, and the plains are lightly timbered in places and watered from underground sources. The artesian bore in the town supplies the water for the famous hot baths which have brought relief to many a rheumatic sufferer. The soil in the district is principally a heavy black clay of basaltic origin and quite unsuited for agriculture. The black soil plains grow natural grasses and herbages which are extremely fattening.

There are still a few large sheep and cattle stations around Moree, but the district is noted as the home of the small graziers. Their holdings vary from 3000 to 6000 acres, and when thoroughly improved they graze approximately three sheep to 4 acres all the year round. Choice spots would carry a sheep to the acre. The wool bred on these farms can hold its own in quantity and quality with the output of the big stations, and the industry has gained by the gradual subdivision of the latter.

The tenures of these farms are mostly leasehold with the right to convert to a limited freehold what the local Land Board considers a " living area "—usually one which will graze 3000 sheep.[1] The annual rentals per acre vary from threepence to sixpence and they are subject to periodical reappraisements, the tenant having a prior right to further occupancy at the end of his term, which in most cases is forty-five years. These small graziers are prosperous and the value of their improved leases varies from £2 to £3 an acre. As an indication of the stability of the district, Moree—its population is 3000—built a Memorial Hall shortly after the War at a cost of £15,000.

Inverell District.

Eastwards from Moree, the country rises gradually towards the mountains, and the town of Inverell lies on the slopes. It is 500 miles distant from Sydney by rail, and its population is 5000. It has an excellent all-the-year-round climate, and its annual average rainfall is 29 in., with a good seasonal distribution. As a mixed farming district it is ideal. The soil varies from red to black, and it is extraordinarily rich. The natural grasses of the district are fattening and lucerne is laid down extensively for grazing. Sheep, cattle, cereals, maize, lucerne, fruit and tobacco all flourish. The fat lamb trade is growing fast, and dairying and pig farming are extending rapidly. There are butter and bacon factories in Inverell.

There are still a few large holdings in the district, but the demand for land and the continuous rise in values are gradually forcing them to subdivide, so the titles of the small farms are freehold. There is little, if any, Crown Land of any value remaining. The areas of the mixed farms run from a few hundred to 2000 acres, and the price of one—well improved—would be round about £6 per acre. If its position were close to town and railway, it would be a good deal more. Inverell is a district where root crops should do very well, and for that reason alone should suit an English farmer. There is no question as to its productivity. Heavy crops of wheat

[1] These "converted" freeholds can only be sold to men who either own no land or less than the established living area. This restricted transfer prevents the re-aggregation of large estates.

and maize have been taken from the one paddock in the one year without the use of manures of any kind.

Pallamallawa.

Between Moree and Inverell there is a large tract of country which has come into much prominence in recent years. It is known as the Pallamallawa district, and originally it was very heavily timbered and considered a grazing locality only. Settlers who had grown up there scoffed at the idea of its being suitable for agriculture. The advent of skilled farmers from Southern New South Wales and Victoria changed all that. They sold their farms in the south for £20 to £30 an acre and hurried north to buy what they saw to be better land at twenty to thirty shillings. As an instance of what they proved this land to be worth for agriculture, a block of it which was originally heavily timbered and well known to this writer, was sold to a southern buyer for thirty shillings an acre. He has since refused £6 an acre for it, for the good reason that his wheat average per acre over the last ten years has been thirty bushels, and he has not used an ounce of fertilizer. This district is one that is worth the attention of the share-farmer, for he is likely to get better terms there than farther south, and there are still some Crown Lands available occasionally for selection. If the intending settler with capital takes a map of New South Wales, draws a line from Moree to Inverell, and from those points draws further lines at right angles until he reaches the Queensland border he will have a section of the State which for diversity and general security cannot be surpassed by any other and is equalled by few.

Prospects in Queensland.

Many good judges predict, that of all the States, Queensland has the greatest future, if only for the reason that it includes all the varied conditions of the continent inside its boundaries. On its southern tablelands, where snow falls occasionally, it grows apples which equal those of Tasmania, and the tropical plateaux of its north can only be described as mines of agricultural wealth in a climatic fairyland. Queensland, too, is fortunate in that it did not repeat

the short-sighted land policy of New South Wales. The bulk of its areas are still leasehold.

Close to the New South Wales border conditions are suitable for the small grazier—a size bigger than his opposite number at Moree (N.S.W.). Size is a relative matter and so is distance. In the west and central-west of Queensland a "small" grazier may hold twenty, forty, or even sixty thousand acres and his unit of distance is 100 miles. Rail communication is limited and the grazier thinks nothing of driving 100 miles to his business town before breakfast.

There is a great deal of pastoral Queensland which is best left to the "big" man or company, for its rainfall is extremely treacherous. It may be a pastoral paradise one year and an inferno for the next three. The advice as to keeping away from country with a rainfall of less than 20 in. applies specially to Queensland unless a district has the compensating advantage of big supplies of edible trees and scrubs, such as Cunnamulla in the south. The central and central-western downs country is best suited to the small grazier. There, a "living" area is considered to be about 20,000 acres, which when fully improved would carry from 6000 to 8000 sheep. These belts of country have never been rabbit-infested, and the reader can locate what is perhaps the pick of them on the map of Queensland by drawing a line from the township of Augathella north to Tambo, and thence west to Blackall, a distance of 150 miles.

Balloting for Leaseholds.

There is very little freehold land in pastoral Queensland. As the big leaseholds of the old sheep stations expire, the occupants are given renewal of a portion, and the balance is thrown open for selection as grazing farms. During 1937 nearly 2,000,000 acres were made available. These grazing farms have a minimum tenure of twenty-eight years, with prior right at the end of the term and tenant right to the value of the improvements on any portion surrendered. The rentals vary from one penny per acre per year upwards, and they are based on the sheep-carrying capacity of the country and its distance from rail. When the blocks are thrown open

a provisional value is placed on the improvements already on them, but the incoming lessee has the right of reappraisement.

At one time, anyone could ballot for these leases, but they became the sport of the speculator, and the man of straw who could borrow the small amount necessary to be deposited with his application. To-day the conditions are most stringent. Applicants are required to show possession of sound pastoral experience, and to lodge with their applications an amount equal to one year's rent and the survey fee plus the provisional value of the improvements. Where a man's experience is considered insufficient, he will be allowed to ballot if he lodges an additional 50 per cent of the total amount. Further conditions are that the successful applicant must stock the country to its full carrying capacity, and also to rabbit-net it within three years. In some leases there are also stipulations with regard to ring-barking, subdivisional fencing and water improvements.

These conditions make it practically necessary for the applicant to have £2000 to £3000 of his own before he will be allowed to go to the ballot, and if the areas open for selection are at all attractive, they draw large numbers of land seekers. With this amount of personal capital the winners have no difficulty in finding financial assistance for the purchase of stock. Applicants do not have to attend ballots personally. They can be represented by agents, and be resident and hold property in another State, but eventually they must reside on the leases they draw.

Obviously a good deal of luck is needed to draw one of these good leases. There is only one course open to the intending grazing farmer. He must employ a reputable agent[1] to notify him of the various areas as they are thrown open, to make his applications for him, and to appear for him before the Land Court if necessary. Meanwhile he must leave his capital in a safe place and continue with his job of learning. In New South Wales—somewhere near the Queensland border—is the best place to acquire his experience. When it comes to flock breeding, improving country and general management the southern State is in advance of the northern.

[1] The agent's fee for each application is usually a guinea. A number of big reputable wool-broking and finance firms in Brisbane act in this connexion, and they are the best people to deal with.

Queensland's Attractions.

To the man who is pastorally inclined, there is an inexplicable attraction in those gently undulating downs of Central-Western Queensland. They have an atmosphere peculiarly their own, although the Mitchell and Flinders grasses which cover them, and the belts of gidgea and wilga scrub they carry are to be found in many other districts. The summer there is hot (but not so hot as parts of New South Wales 1000 miles farther south), and thunderstorms occur repeatedly between December and March. For the winter, there is no climate on earth to beat that of Central-Western Queensland. This writer invites the sceptics to try it. No one lives there long without becoming " Queensland minded ", and no other State has gripped its residents to a like extent.

For mixed farming on the lines described at Inverell (N.S.W.) the Darling Downs district is pre-eminent. It lies in the south-eastern section of Queensland, and its chief centre—Toowoomba—is 100 miles west of Brisbane. The altitude varies from 1000 to 2000 ft., and climatic conditions are excellent. With the exception of purely tropical products, anything can be grown in its heavy basaltic soil, and as a producer of maize it is unrivalled. West of the Darling Downs lies a large tract of country—mostly heavily timbered—which until a few years ago was abandoned to dingoes and wild cattle. It had been completely overrun by " prickly pear " (the common *Opuntia inermis* cactus), but scientific action—the story would fill a book—has reclaimed it, and it is fast becoming an area of small grazing farms. There is cheap land to be had there—provided the holder is prepared to wait some years until his improvements become fully effective.

The advice: " Go north, young man," applies in Queensland itself. In theory, of course, the white man cannot live and work in the tropics, but the Australian tropics differ in one vital respect from any others. There is no large indigenous coloured race there to do the spadework, *and there never has been.* Northern Australia had a narrow escape nevertheless. When the Kanakas were repatriated to their Polynesian Islands shortly after Federation, Australia was assured that it would never grow sugar—for ex-

ample—by white labour, no matter what price it paid. The sugar industry of North Queensland to-day after thirty years is sufficient answer.

Atherton and Evelyn Tablelands.

The Dividing Range which fringes Australia's eastern coast reaches a height of over 5000 ft., 15 miles south of the coastal town of Cairns, which is fast growing in size and importance. Westward from Cairns lies the Atherton tableland. It is 68 miles by rail, and has an average altitude of 2500 ft.

One cannot describe this wonderland in a few hundred words. It has " everything " in the way of scenic beauty, climate, and wealth of soil and rainfall which mankind can desire. There is little difference there between summer and winter, the respective mean maximum readings of the thermometer are 72 deg. and 63 deg. Fahrenheit. The soil of the tableland is a decomposed basalt, and dairying and maize-growing are leading industries, with cheese and bacon production making rapid strides. The areas of the farms vary, up to 300 acres, and all Crown Lands made available for selection are now on the basis of perpetual lease.

The Evelyn tableland—a sister to the Atherton—is less developed. Its altitude is greater—over 3000 ft.—and its rainfall is 62 in. annually. There will be opportunities there for land seekers to get in " on the ground floor " of settlement in the near future.

Between Cairns and Atherton lies the Mareeba area to which Australia looks to make the importation of American tobacco unnecessary. Although tobacco is grown extensively in the southern States, experts are of the opinion that North Queensland is destined to supply Australia with its high-grade tobaccos and Mareeba has begun to prove that they are right. The best days of tobacco growing in Australia lie ahead. The present consumption is about 18,000,000 lb. annually and less than 10 per cent of that weight is produced locally. With the Empire preference duty there is no reason why white grown Australian tobacco should not compete with black grown American in the British market.

CHAPTER V

Social Conditions

In Australia to-day, politics are stable and unemployment figures are fast coming back to normal. The overseas trade balance has been more than sufficiently favourable to meet public interest commitments, a proof that externally the Commonwealth is paying its way.

The next decade will certainly see a striking development in Australian industrial activity. The federation of the States gave manufacturing enterprise its first real boost, and the World War its second. The depression taught Australia one salutary lesson at least. In future it will pay cash for overseas goods, and from now onwards an increasing proportion of the commodities needed by it as a civilized community will be produced locally. The key industry of iron and steel is a case in point. There is already a large blast-furnace operating at Port Kembla (N.S.W.), and a new one with a rated capacity of approximately 250,000 tons of pig-iron a year is under course of construction. There are frequently advertisements in Sydney and Melbourne newspapers for such hands as metal turners, mechanical draughtsmen, template-makers, markers-off and boilermakers for structural steel work.

Practically all the States have legislated for what is known as the basic or minimum wage. The figure is arrived at after exhaustive inquiry by Industrial Courts, and in New South Wales it is calculated on the needs of a man with a wife and two children. It applies to all industries except the rural. It is the minimum wage which may be paid to an adult male worker; for female workers there is a separate scale, sufficiently high to keep a single woman in decent comfort. The awards are varied from time to time in accordance with the prosperity of industry and the cost of living. In skilled trades, wages are far above the basic minimum. Examples of the minimum wages are given on p. 166. One significant result of this statutory wage system is the complete absence of tipping in

Australian middle-class life. The man who left " twopence beside the plate ", who offered threepence to a barber, or fourpence to a taxi-driver, would be a suitable subject for H. M. Bateman's humour. There is no " commissionaire industry " in Australia either.

Cost of Living.

In some respects living is dearer in Australia than it is in Britain; in others it is cheaper. Clothing costs a good deal more, but staple foodstuffs such as meat, fruit and vegetables are much less in price and infinitely better in quality. There is no frozen or chilled meat eaten in Australian cities. Middle-class restaurants give better quantity and quality at a lower price in an ordinary three-course meal than they do in London. While there are no penny sections on trams or buses, fares over a distance are on a par with or lower than those in London. In Sydney, from Darling Harbour to Watsons Bay the distance is seven miles and the fare is fivepence by tram. Generally speaking, the middle classes call the tune in Australia. The " man with two bob " demands more—and he gets more. One wonders what he would say—or do—if, at a cricket match, he were asked to stand all day on concrete, rent a cushion to sit on, or buy a scoring card!

The Australian educational system is compulsory, secular and free. It is taken to the most isolated children in the most outlying places. In some sparsely-settled districts there are half-time schools where the teacher divides his time between two; in others there are subsidized teachers who are engaged by parents but whose salaries are partly paid by the Department of Education. One of its most striking activities is its Correspondence School. From Sydney alone, over 6000 children living in remote parts of the State are dealt with by a staff of several hundred skilled teachers. Pupils who have never been inside an official schoolroom have been taken by them from their alphabet stages to the standard of university matriculation. The man who takes a young family to Australia need have no fears with regard to its education.

CHAPTER VI

How Success is Won

There is romance as well as success in the story of a boy who goes overseas with nothing and who returns twenty-four years later with his wife on a twelve-months holiday to see the old people and a King's coronation. This chapter describes with faithful accuracy the career of an Englishman who has made good on the land in New South Wales. He began with little capital and less experience. He worked hard and constantly, and at the start he lived very roughly. He met with heart-breaking reverses, but he took the knocks under his chin, looked ahead and carried on. To-day, he and his wife are reaping part of their reward. What they have done, can be done again by others with the same main qualifications—youth, health, intelligence—and *grit*.

In 1913, a Northampton boy of eighteen—let us call him Robinson [1]—was faced with the problem of deciding on a career. His early years had been spent on a farm, but, for all practical purposes, he was a typical town boy with a public school education. He could not ride or drive a horse, or milk a cow. He knew nothing of farming implements or the use of tools. So far as the land was concerned, he was, in Australian parlance, a representative " new chum ".

Robinson wrote to friends in Australia asking their advice about going there. Their reply was that, if he did not mind hard work, to come along, and they offered to find him his first job. He landed in Sydney in June, 1913, and went at once to his friends, who owned a sheep property of 3000 acres on the central western slopes of New South Wales, over 300 miles from Sydney.

Since Robinson had everything to learn, his pay was five shillings a week and keep, but he had a comfortable home and was treated as one of the family, a big consideration to a boy of eighteen 12,000

[1] Mr. "Robinson" substantiates the complete accuracy of the facts and figures in this narrative.—ED.

miles from his people. At the end of six months he had learned to ride, drive, milk, butcher a sheep and use an axe—the A B C of life on an Australian farm or station. No other permanent labour was employed, so he had opportunities of learning something about merino sheep, but nothing of agriculture, since the property was devoted solely to grazing. Early in 1914 he went—at his employer's suggestion—to a larger property. There he learned to fence and ring-bark—his first acquaintance with the technique of " improving " country in its virgin state. His wage on this job was fifteen shillings a week and his keep, and he stayed on it nearly a year.

Early in 1915 Robinson enlisted in Sydney.

On a Soldier Settlement.

After the War, all Australian Governments were making efforts to place returned soldiers on farms. One procedure was to buy large grazing estates, and to subdivide them into small holdings, thus placing numbers of ex-servicemen in groups. To finance the new settlers in their early stages, the Repatriation Department arranged to advance each man a loan of £625. This amount had to be spent in approved ways, and it had to be repaid by annual instalments plus interest. Capital indebtedness on account of the land was dealt with in a similar way. It will be seen from this that the man without money of his own was up against a difficult proposition. He had to make his farm pay for itself and for all necessary improvements, and provide him with a living—all from well behind scratch!

Robinson applied for a block on a Soldier Settlement on the central-western slopes of New South Wales. He had saved what he could of his army pay, and his War gratuity brought his total capital to £350. In addition the Departmental loan of £625 was available to him on application. In May, 1920, a holding of 448 acres was allotted to him provisionally and his tenancy was confirmed in due course.

The area resumed for settlement had been a sheep station, but 2000 acres of it had been cleared for wheat and cropped by men on the shares system. On the remainder, the green timber originally covering it had been killed by ring-barking, water had been pro-

vided by wells or storages in surface excavations, and it had been fenced and subdivided into paddocks. Its soil and annual rainfall of 23 in. made it a reasonably safe proposition for mixed farming. The capital value of Robinson's block of 448 acres was fixed at £4, 8*s*. per acre—a total indebtedness of £1971, 4*s*. This amount had to be repaid over a period of thirty years, but to give the settlers a chance during their early struggles, payments were suspended during the first three years, and carried over to the end of the term free of interest. Robinson's annual instalment was £128, which included interest on the unpaid capital balance at 5½%.

Robinson's country was slightly undulating, and its soil varied from a light sandy loam to a dark and heavy clay. Apart from the killing of the original green timber, the only improvement on it of any assistance to him was a wire and netting fence, 50 chains in length, on one boundary. There was no water, no dwelling of any kind, and the whole area was swarming with rabbits. No crops could be grown unless they were protected by a substantial netting fence. Before an acre could be ploughed, it had to be cleared of dead timber. Logs had to be burnt, and trees and stumps " grubbed " to a depth which would enable a ploughshare to clear their roots. (That means digging round them with a shovel—and a pick also if the ground is dry.) In summer when the thermometer registers over 100 deg. in the shade, it is exhausting work. Fortunately for the pioneer farmer, most of the timbers of the wheat areas burn readily.

The First Crops.

Robinson established himself in a tent and began to clear land for wheat, hoping to be able to crop a small area that winter. He bought six draught-horses, a six-furrow plough, a combined cultivator and seed-sower, and other gear, the whole outfit costing him £160. During the winter he cleared and fenced 20 acres—his first cultivation paddock—and netted it against rabbits. In 1920, the price of netting was ruinously high. Robinson was able to get what he wanted for his boundaries and crop fences from a local Board on terms, but even with this concession, this first blow in the campaign against rabbits made a large hole in the remainder of his slender capital.

He was unable to get his clearing finished in time to sow wheat, so he decided on a summer fodder crop, Sudan grass. He wanted to be sure of having horse-feed during the ploughing season of the following autumn. The summer was wet, and the Sudan grass grew abnormally. Having no reaping machinery Robinson was compelled to employ a contractor to cut it, but he lost nearly all of the first mowing in exactly the circumstances which so often afflict an English hay harvest. Through inexperience he also lost heavily here in another way: had he allowed the crop to ripen for seed, the 20 acres would have yielded a handsome return. He was more successful with a second cutting, and he put by 20 tons of hay which proved invaluable to him during subsequent drought years.

During 1921 Robinson cleared another 50 acres, and fenced and netted it—single-handed. Still working alone, he ploughed, cultivated and sowed the 70 acres available with wheat by the end of July. He had had no harvesting experience, nor had he any harvesting machinery, so he lent his horses to a neighbour, helped him to take off his crop and in return was given the use of the neighbour's harvester. This delay in getting in his own crop was nearly fatal. Heavy rains in January bleached a large percentage of the grain badly. Had Robinson had his own machinery, his wheat would have been safely in the bag before the rains came. As it was, he lost a third of its value. This disheartening experience is common enough to men starting with insufficient capital. They lose money because they have none to spend. From his 70 acres, Robinson harvested 280 3-bushel bags. He kept 40 for seed and sold the balance early in 1922 for £159—his first cash return after two years of effort and expenditure.

Making a Home.

Some time previously Robinson had applied for, and been granted, the Departmental loan of £625. He spent part of it in getting a well sunk and in the erection of a cottage. In April, 1922, he married. This step was the best he had ever taken. Without the help of his wife, the struggle of the next few years, their reverses and disappointments, would have been too much even for

him. Their first home was a two-roomed weatherboard cottage—unlined, with a veranda on one side and a brick chimney at one end. From the small iron roof came their supply of drinking water, conserved in a 2000-gall. tank. Any attempts at gardening came to a compulsory end with the first dry spell. The nearest town was 10 miles away, and without a car it was impossible to take part in the social life of the district. On Saturday nights they drove by horse and " sulky " to the township for stores, and on every second Sunday, to church. These outings and an occasional week-end spent with friends 10 miles away were all the relaxations they could look forward to for many a long day.

Such a prospect did not daunt Robinson's wife. She did more than merely keep up the domestic end, and she got to work on the cottage soon after her homecoming. She lined the inner walls, first with hessian and then with paper. She saved hours of her husband's time by taking his lunch to him wherever he was working, and each afternoon she penned up the calves of the cows they were milking. She helped him in the actual burning of timber when he was clearing land, and later on when he acquired a tractor, she worked the seed-sower while he did the driving. If his determination not to be beaten needed strengthening, her own spirit provided the example. Together they were the embodiment of cheerful courage.

New South Wales experienced a disastrous wheat year in 1922. Between them, Robinson and his wife cleared an additional 50 acres, but drought conditions made the breaking up of new land impossible, so he had to be content with cropping his existing 70 acres. His return was practically nil. By the time he had equipped his well with a windmill and supply tank—the drought compelled this expenditure—Robinson had come to the end of his financial resources and was heavily in debt to his store-keepers. In addition, he was unable to meet his commitments to the Department. Practically all his neighbours on the Settlement were in a similar plight, and many of them forfeited their farms and walked away.

Holding On.

Robinson hung on. He satisfied his creditors that he was a trier, and he cropped 100 acres in 1923. When he could see reasonable prospects of a harvest he bought a second-hand harvester and had the satisfaction of taking off the whole of his crop—500 bags—with the assistance of a bag-sewer only. His return—the first for two years, was £300, and he supplemented this to the extent of £40 by doing contract harvesting as soon as his own wheat was safely in the bag. These amounts only remained to his credit in the bank until he could write cheques for their dispersal. He paid off every penny of debt he could.

By 1924 Robinson's experiences had made him fully confident in himself as a farmer and in the future value of the Settlement area. He was one of the first to try lucerne—on the original 20 acres he had cleared—and its success was encouraging. He decided that lucerne and fat lamb raising offered the best prospects, so he applied for an adjoining block—one which had been forfeited—as an additional area. The Department had realized that many of the original blocks were too small for mixed farming, and Robinson's application was granted. This new block was valued at £4, 12*s*. per acre, and 80 acres of it had been cleared and fenced by the first tenant. It brought the total of Robinson's holding to 924 acres.

In 1924 Robinson cropped 200 acres single-handed with eight horses and his six-furrow plough. He harvested 120 acres of it himself, the balance being taken off by contract. His crop averaged fifteen bushels to the acre, and brought him in a cheque for £765. It enabled him to pay off part of his arrears to the Department, and, in 1925, to buy his first small flock of merino ewes.

For the next few years Robinson's fortunes fluctuated violently. 1925 was another very dry year, and a poor wheat yield resulted. He was about to harvest what he had, when his wife's serious illness took him to Sydney. He was unable to leave her for several weeks, but his " digger " neighbours stuck to him. They pooled their harvesting plants and took off the crop in his absence. Fortunately wool was booming in price and the returns from his little

flock made Robinson decide to rely less on wheat in the future. He bought an additional 350 ewes on a bill and from the sale of their wool and lambs was able to meet it when it fell due and to show a small surplus. During the next three years his sheep saved the situation, as either the price or the yield of wheat was poor. In 1926, what promised to be a record crop was damaged by grasshoppers to the estimated amount of £400. He was fortunate, however, in selling all his sheep just before the beginning of the disastrous wool slump of 1929.

Success Attained.

Meanwhile he had been steadily clearing more land for the plough, his objective being lucerne, and by 1930 he had 520 acres ready. Two-thirds of this area had been cleared by his own labour with the help of his devoted wife. He bought a caterpillar tractor on terms, and with this and his original six-furrow plough he cropped 300 acres with wheat, and 200 of them with lucerne as well, using the wheat as a cover crop. The wheat promised well almost up to harvesting, but unprecedented early summer rains brought rust and pinched the grain badly. Prices for wheat were extremely low. Robinson sold his inferior sample for one shilling and eightpence per bushel, and his return from the 300 acres was the poor figure of £194. However, the rain which spoilt the wheat suited the young lucerne admirably, and by 1932 the combination of wool, wheat, fat lambs and lucerne had put him on the crest of the wave of success. In spite of the depression he had been able to meet his liabilities to the Department in full, and in this respect he was helped considerably by the reappraisement of the Settlement area. All the capital values of the farms were reduced, and in Robinson's case they were lowered by approximately eighteen shillings per acre. Interest also came back to the more equitable figure of 4%.

Lucerne soon proved Robinson's most profitable crop—in one year alone he harvested seed to the value of £600 from 60 acres. It enabled him to graze up to 1000 sheep, and to fatten lambs at an early age. He was also in a position to make money frequently by dealing in outside flocks. Since 1932, seasons have been mainly favourable, and land values have risen steadily.

In 1920 Robinson's farm was part of a sheep station paddock, to-day it is a home. It carries a comfortable cottage, and it is fenced and subdivided into seventeen paddocks, each netted and free from rabbits. 520 acres have been cleared, and lucerne has been established on 330 acres. Two wells, both equipped with windmills, supply it with abundant and permanent water. Its farming plant is adequate and its value is high as a result of the improvements put on it by the steady labour of its owners. Two years ago, Robinson was offered £10 per acre for his property. He values it to-day at considerably more, and estimates that if he realized his full equity in land, plant and stock, he could put £7000 cash into his pocket. In seventeen years his capital has multiplied twentyfold! Before leaving for England he leased his farm for twelve months at a rental of £600, and since then he has been offered £850 for a second year's tenancy.

The friend who advised Robinson to go out twenty-four years ago did him a good turn and Australia a better one. Robinson and his wife—their early trials and their final success, their championship of their adopted country and its people, are proofs enough that opportunities *do* exist in Australia. The advice of Robinson's friend still holds good: " If you have *grit*, Australia will suit you, and *you* will suit Australia."

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THE COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA

GENERAL INFORMATION AND STATISTICS

The Australian Commonwealth consists of the states of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia, the Northern Territory, Tasmania, and some dependencies. Its area is 2,974,581 sq. miles. Its greatest length is 2400 miles, and the greatest breadth 1900 miles. The area of Australia is almost as great as that of the U.S.A. and about 35 times as large as that of Great Britain and Ireland. Of the total area of Australia nearly 40 per cent lies within the tropics (see *Climate*, p. 162).

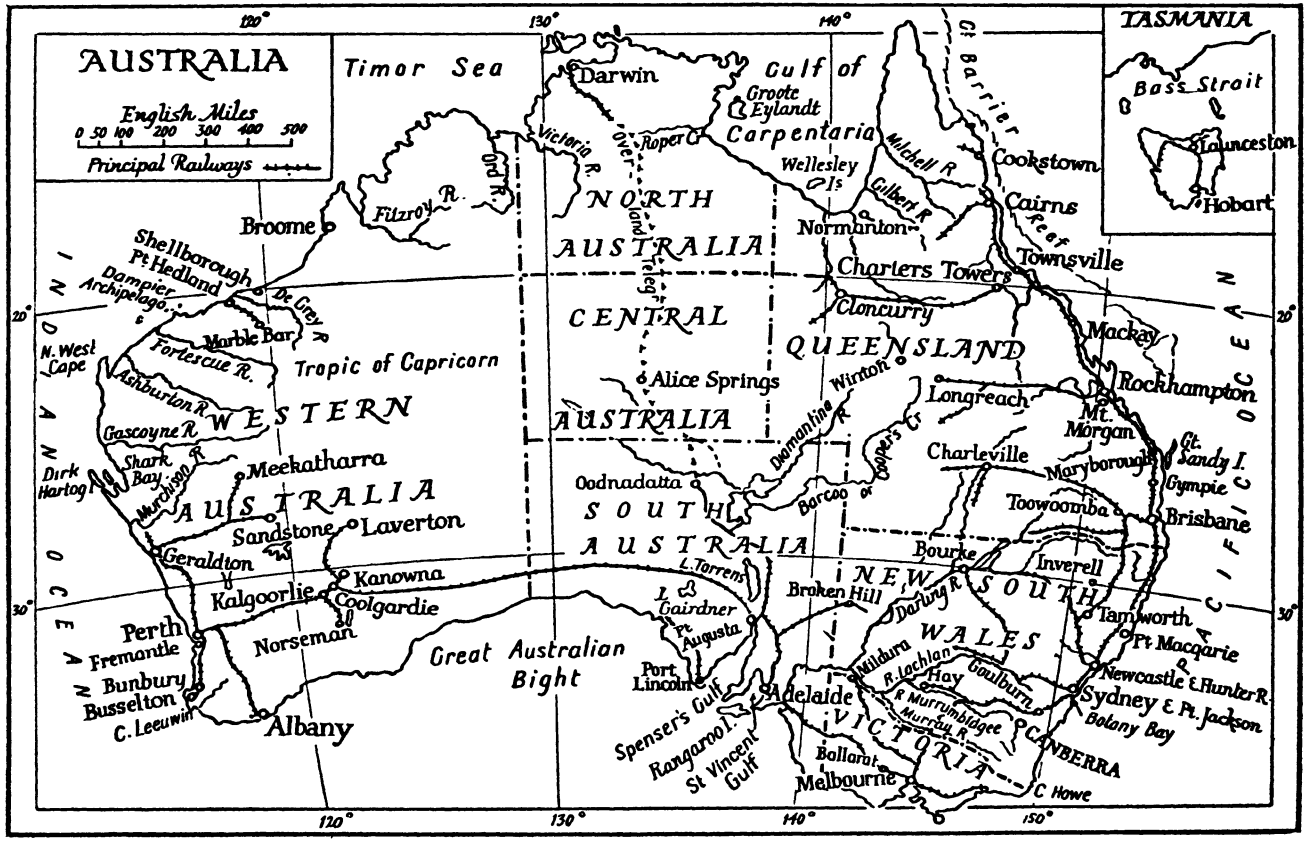
The continent consists of an immense upland plain, highest in the east and lowest in the centre. The most extensive mountain system is a belt about 150 miles wide skirting the east and south-east of the continent and called the Great Dividing Range. The highest mountains are about 7000 ft. West of the Great Dividing Range are extensive plains admirably adapted for pasture purposes. Generally speaking, however, the interior of Australia is largely desert or scrub. In the arid regions *spinifex* or porcupine grass covers great areas and makes travelling difficult, since it wounds the feet of horses and cannot be eaten by them.

The flora and fauna of Australia are very remarkable. The plants are specially adapted to the dryness of the climate, having sparse, leathery foliage. The most widespread type of Australian vegetation is the gum tree (*Eucalyptus*), of which there are many species, some—such as the red gum and the jarrah—being timber trees of great value. The main feature of Australian animals is the almost entire absence of forms of mammalia found elsewhere in the world and the great variety of the forms known as marsupial, in which the young are carried in a pouch.

Government.

Australia is a federation of six States, in which all the powers not expressly delegated in the written Constitution to the Federal Government are reserved to the Governments of the component States. In general, both as regards the Commonwealth and the States Legislatures, the forms of government have been founded on their prototypes in the Imperial Government, and the relations established between the Ministry and the people are in accordance with those prevailing in Great Britain. The executive powers in the Commonwealth are vested in the Governor-General-in-Council and in the States Governments in the Governor-in-Council. The Executive Council in the Commonwealth and the States is practically co-extensive with a group of departmental chiefs who are usually spoken of as the Cabinet, and who change with the rise and fall of party majorities.

The Federal Government.—The Federal Government consists of the Senate and the House of Representatives. The former consists of 36 members, six being returned by each of the original federating States. Members of this Chamber are elected for a term of six years, but half the members retire at the end of every third year, though they are eligible for re-election. The total number of the House of Representatives must be as nearly as possible double that of the Senate. In the House of Representatives the States are represented on a population basis, each State being


AUSTRALIA
English Miles
0 50 100 200 300 400 500
Principal Railways
Timor Sea
Darwin
Gulf of Carpentaria
Groote Eylandt
Victoria R.
Roper R.
Wellesley Is.
Mitchell R.
Gilbert R.
Great Barrier Reef
Cookstown
Cairns
Townsville
Normanton
Charters Towers
Broome
Fitzroy R.
Ord R.
NORTH AUSTRALIA
Overland Telegraph
CENTRAL QUEENSLAND
Cloncurry
Mackay
Rockhampton
Mt. Morgan
Gt. Sandy I.
Gympie
Brisbane
Shellborough
Pt. Hedland
Dampier Archipelago
De Grey R.
Marble Bar
N. West Cape
Fortescue R.
Tropic of Capricorn
Ashburton R.
Gascoyne R.
Shark Bay
Dirk Hartog
Murchison R.
WESTERN AUSTRALIA
Meekatharra
Sandstone
Laverton
Geraldton
Kanowna
Kalgoorlie
Coolgardie
Perth
Fremantle
Bunbury
Busselton
C. Leeuwin
Norseman
Albany
Great Australian Bight
Alice Springs
Wirrton
Longreach
Charleville
Barcoo R.
Cooper's Cr.
Diamantina R.
Oodnadatta
SOUTH AUSTRALIA
L. Torrens
L. Gairdner
Pt. Augusta
Port Lincoln
Spencer's Gulf
Kangaroo I.
St Vincent Gulf
Adelaide
Broken Hill
Darling R.
NEW SOUTH WALES
Bourke
Inverell
Tamworth
Pt. Macquarie
Newcastle & Hunter R.
Sydney & Pt. Jackson
Botany Bay
Wilcannia
R. Lachlan
Hay
Goulburn
R. Murrumbidgee
Murray R.
CANBERRA
VICTORIA
Ballarat
Melbourne
C. Howe
Toowoomba
Maryborough
TASMANIA
Bass Strait
Launceston
Hobart
INDIAN OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
120°
130°
140°
150°
20°
30°

divided into a number of electorates corresponding with the number of members to which the State is entitled. Any proposed law for the alteration of the Constitution must, in addition to being passed by an absolute majority of each House of Parliament, be submitted to a referendum of the electors in each State, and must further be approved by a majority of the States and of the electors who voted before it can be presented for the Royal Assent.

The States Governments.—The States Governments are in their main principles alike, though in some details they differ. They are all based broadly upon the system prevailing in Great Britain.

Local Government.—The States are divided into various local units—municipalities, boroughs, shires, &c., which are responsible for certain functions of Government. Generally speaking, local government is similar to that in Great Britain.

The States of the Commonwealth.

The six States with their included territories were federated under the name " Commonwealth of Australia " on 1st January, 1901.

State or Territory	Area, sq. m.	Population [1]
New South Wales	309,432	2,663,360
Victoria	87,884	1,846,962
Queensland	670,500	973,905
South Australia	380,070	587,206
Western Australia	975,920	448,969
Tasmania	26,215	231,209
Northern Territory	523,620	5,153
Federal Capital Territory ..	940	9,681
Total ..	2,974,581	6,766,445

[1] Estimated 31st March, 1936, and excluding full-blooded aboriginals.

New South Wales, the oldest state of the Commonwealth, was first colonized as a British possession in 1788. It is more than five times the size of England and Wales. The eastern portion of the state is mountainous and contains the highest peaks in Australia—Mt. Kosciusko, 7328 ft. and Mt. Townsend, 7266 ft. The mountains of the Great Dividing Range form the chief watershed, and owing to their proximity to the coast (average 60 miles), the rivers flowing to the Pacific are many but comparatively short. The western plains are not so well watered, but vast irrigation works have been constructed. The climate is equable and healthy. Capital, Sydney. Pop. 1,254,000.

Victoria, which became a separate colony in 1851, has an area slightly smaller than England, Scotland and Wales. Mountain ranges cross the country from east to west, and it is well watered. The area under cultivation exceeds 6,700,000 acres, more than a third of it being under wheat. Victoria produces great quantities of wine, wool, and dairy products. Capital, Melbourne. Pop. over 1,000,000—more than half the total population of the state.

Queensland occupies the whole north-eastern portion of Australia, and is more than 5½ times as large as the United Kingdom. It became

a colony in 1859. As in N.S.W., the Great Dividing Range gives the eastern portion of the state a rugged character, but elsewhere the country is flat or undulating. More than half of Queensland lies within the tropics and there is thus a great diversity of temperature and rainfall. In consequence, almost every kind of crop and fruit can grow in Queensland. The chief crops include sugar, maize, wheat and cotton in the south, and in the north, tobacco, coffee and rubber. The Darling Downs area is famous for its pasture. Great quantities of wool, frozen meat, and dairy products are produced. There are vast natural forests and great mineral wealth. Capital, Brisbane. Pop. 306,000.

South Australia, more than four times as large as Great Britain, became a colony in 1834. In the eastern portion of the state the country is mountainous and fertile, but the west is chiefly plateau with desert-like country and salt lakes. The Murray is the only river of any consequence, but there is much irrigated land. The climate is healthy, but dry and hot in the interior. The chief products are wheat, wine and wool. South Australia is rich in minerals and mining is important. Capital, Adelaide. Pop. 315,000—more than half the total population of the state.

Western Australia occupies all that portion of the continent west of 129° E. long. Its greatest length north and south is 1500 miles and greatest breadth 1000 miles. The state is larger than the combined areas of Great Britain and Ireland, France, Germany, Italy and Czechoslovakia. It became a British colony in 1829. The physical features of the country consist in the main of a gigantic tableland, from 1000 ft. to 2000 ft. in altitude, rising somewhat abruptly from the west coast and more gradually from the south coast. Much of this tableland is undulating sandy desert. Parallel to the coast is a broad hilly region, mountainous in the N.W. and the S.W. The climate is delightfully temperate, particularly in the south-west. There are great pastoral areas, devoted to cattle- and sheep-rearing, and large forests, but the chief wealth of Western Australia is its minerals. The Kalgoorlie district is the chief gold-producing centre in Australia. Capital, Perth. Pop. 214,000.

Tasmania is an island separated by Bass Straits, about 140 miles wide, from the south-east extremity of Australia. It became a British colony in 1825. Tasmania has an area roughly equal to the size of Ireland. It is a beautiful, mountainous country, well watered and well wooded, and enjoying a delightful climate. The rainfall varies from 100 in. in some regions to 20 in. at places on the east coast. There are valuable minerals and large areas of good timber. Fruit and vegetable growing and preserving are largely carried on. Cheap power made available by the completion of a large hydro-electric scheme has greatly stimulated Tasmanian industries. Capital, Hobart. Pop. 62,740.

The Northern Territory comprises all land lying between the meridians of 129° and 138° E. long., and north of the line of 26° S. lat., which divides it from South Australia. It is almost entirely in the Torrid Zone. It is a continuation of the plateau structure of Western Australia and South Australia. Some 20,000 aboriginals live in reserves. Agriculture is undeveloped, but many tropical products can be raised. Gold, tin, and other metals are found. Much of the country is good grassland, but absence of communications and access to markets greatly handicaps settlement. Capital, Darwin.

The Federal Capital Territory (Canberra) was acquired in 1911 from the state of New South Wales. It consists of a territory, about 200

miles by rail from Sydney, on which an expenditure of about £12,000,000 has already been made. The city of Canberra contains the Federal Parliament House, the administrative buildings, and a university, not yet completed. Pop. 7300.

BIRTHS, MARRIAGES AND DEATHS

Rate per 1000 of Mean Population

Births	Marriages	Deaths	Natural Increase
16·35	8·45	9·46	7·09

POPULATION OF PRINCIPAL CITIES AND TOWNS IN AUSTRALIA—CENSUS, 1933

(Exclusive of Capital Cities for which see under "States" above)

City or Town	State	Population
Newcastle and Suburbs ..	N.S.W.	104,485
Geelong and Suburbs ..	Vic.	39,223
Ballarat and Suburbs ..	Vic.	37,411
Launceston and Suburbs ..	Tas.	32,833
Rockhampton	Qld.	29,369
Bendigo and Suburbs ..	Vic.	29,131
Broken Hill	N.S.W.	26,925
Toowoomba	Qld.	26,423
Townsville	Qld.	25,876
Ipswich	Qld.	22,498
Kalgoorlie and Suburbs ..	W.A.	17,326
Goulburn	N.S.W.	14,849
Cessnock	N.S.W.	14,385
Lithgow	N.S.W.	13,444
Cairns	Qld.	11,993
Lismore	N.S.W.	11,762
Port Pirie	S.A.	11,677
Wagga Wagga	N.S.W.	11,631
Bundaberg	Qld.	11,466
Maryborough	Qld.	11,415
Wollongong	N.S.W.	11,403
Mackay	Qld.	10,665
Albury	N.S.W.	10,543
Bathurst	N.S.W.	10,413

Climate.

A considerable portion of three divisions of Australia is north of the Tropic of Capricorn—that is to say, within the states of Queensland and Western Australia and the Northern Territory no less than 1,149,320 sq. miles belong to the tropical zone and 1,020,720 sq. miles to the temperate zone. By reason of its insular position and the absence of any striking physical features, Australia is on the whole less subject to extremes of climate than are regions of a similar area in other parts of the globe.

The eastern coast is washed by a warm current flowing southward; consequently the winds that blow ashore come in as moist winds, and as they are forced to rise over the Australian Highlands, they drop their moisture there as abundant rains. The western and south-western coasts

are subject to winds coming from a cold sea to a warmer land; the air is warmed as it crosses the land, so its capacity for moisture is increased instead of being lowered, and it sweeps inland as a dry and parching wind. Hence the shores of the Great Australian Bight are arid, with a 10-in. rainfall, while the eastern coast on the same latitude has a rainfall of 60 in.

RAINFALL AND TEMPERATURE—CAPITAL CITIES

Capital	Height above Mean Sea Level	Annual Rainfall		
		Average	Highest on record	Lowest on record
	Feet	Inches	Inches	Inches
Sydney ..	138	47·32	82·76	23·01
Melbourne ..	115	25·72	38·04	15·61
Brisbane ..	137	45 31	88·26	16·17
Adelaide ..	140	21 17	30·87	11·39
Perth ..	197	34·88	49·22	20·21
Hobart ..	177	24·06	43·39	13 43
Canberra ..	1920	23·03	33·71	16·31

Capital	Temperature			
	Mean Summer	Mean Winter	Highest on record	Lowest on record
	Fah.	Fah.	Fah.	Fah.
Sydney ..	70·9	54·3	108·5	35·7
Melbourne ..	66 6	50·1	111·2	27·0
Brisbane ..	76·7	59·8	108·9	36·1
Adelaide ..	72·9	53·1	116·3	32 0
Perth ..	73 2	56·0	112·2	34·2
Hobart ..	61·4	46·9	105·2	27·0
Canberra ..	67·7	43·9	104·2	14·0

Education.

Education is under the control of the States. In all States it is secular, free, and compulsory between certain ages, which vary from State to State. There are also State secondary schools, and there are Government facilities for children to proceed from the primary schools via secondary schools to training colleges and universities. There are also a number of private schools, many of which are maintained by the various religious denominations under State inspection. There are over 32,000 teachers in 10,400 State schools in the Commonwealth, in addition to 10,300 teachers in 1800 private schools.

Universities.—The Australian universities are: Sydney (48 professors, 181 lecturers, 3000 students); Melbourne (34 professors, 204 lecturers, 2900 students); Queensland (Brisbane) (14 professors, 76 lecturers, 1000 students); Adelaide (17 professors, 113 lecturers, 2000 students); Western Australia (Perth) (14 professors, 39 lecturers, 800 students); Tasmania (Hobart) (9 professors, 22 lecturers, 330 students).

Training for Farming.

In most of the States there have been established agricultural colleges and experimental farms for the promotion of more scientific methods of agriculture and pastoral farming. The colleges and some of the farms take pupils for practical and theoretical instruction. There are also the Fairbridge Schools (see p. 263).

Military Training.

Since 1929 there has been no compulsory military training in Australia. There is a Permanent Force (Naval, Military and Air), and various voluntary forces attached to it for each of its three component parts. In addition there are a number of rifle clubs which form a reserve to the voluntary militia.

Taxation.

Taxes in Australia are levied by three bodies: the Federal Government, the States Government, and by local Authorities. In general, they are on the same lines as in the United Kingdom, but not so heavy. This is especially so with regard to income tax which is of a somewhat complicated nature but considerably lighter than in Great Britain. There is in existence a Sales Tax, which was imposed first of all in August, 1930. This tax is, as its name implies, a means of raising wealth from sales transactions. At present it stands at 5 per cent, but certain goods are exempt.

TAXATION—COMMONWEALTH AND STATE

Year ended 30th June	Taxation by Commonwealth Government		Taxation by State Governments	Total Taxation
	Customs and Excise	Other		
	£	£	£	£
1933	32,992,443	[1]23,153,593	37,325,609	93,471,645
1934	34,254,842	[2]22,153,886	34,401,001	90,809,729
1935	37,869,486	[2]20,885,038	36,434,720	95,189,244
1936	41,437,717	[2]22,179,407		
Amount per Head				
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1933	4 19 11	[1]3 10 1	5 13 3	14 3 1
1934	5 2 11	[2]3 6 7	5 3 7	13 12 11
1935	5 13 0	[2]3 2 4	5 8 11	14 4 1
1936	6 2 9	[2]3 5 8		

[1] Sales Tax included under "Other". [2] Sales and Flour Taxes included under "Other".

Revenue and Expenditure.

The following is an abstract of the Commonwealth Consolidated Revenue Fund, 1935–6:

Receipts from taxation ..	£63,617,000	Expenditure	£78,641,000
Receipts from other sources (posts, railways, &c.) ..	18,586,000		
Total ..	£82,203,000		
Per head of population ..	£12, 3*s.* 6*d.*	Per head of population ..	£11, 13*s.*

Agricultural Production.

Wheat is by far the most important of Australian crops. The total gross value of agricultural production in 1935–6 was £75,200,000; the total acreage under cultivation being 19,974,042 acres. The average value of crops per acre was £3, 7*s.* 2*d.*, and the average value per head of population £10, 4*s.* 8*d.*

The chief crops (acreage and yield) in 1935–6 were as follows: Wheat, 11,956,966 acres; 144,217,769 bushels. Oats, 1,564,000 acres; 18,721,000 bushels. Maize, 298,000 acres; 7,468,000 bushels. Hay, 3,007,000 acres; 3,498,000 tons. Sugar, 335,000 acres; 646,541 tons.

Pastoral Production.—Sheep, and the accompanying products of wool, skins and tallow, are the leading items in Australia's pastoral production, but beef, from the food standpoint only, is of rival importance. The value of pastoral productions in 1935–6 was £89,700,000, the value per head of population being £11, 2*s.* 6*d.* The total exports of Australian pastoral products, 1933–6, were as follows: 1933–4, £68,941,000; 1934–5, £52,257,000; 1935–6, £60,000,000.

Exports of wool for the five years ending 1935–6 averaged £44,000,000.

Dairy Products.—The total gross value of dairy production (butter, cheese, eggs and poultry, milk, bacon and ham) in 1935–6 amounted to £48,500,000. The exports of dairy products totalled £11,105,000.

Minerals and Mining.

Australia is rich in minerals, especially in gold. Western Australia is the chief seat of the gold-mining industry, though New South Wales, Queensland and Victoria are also productive. In 1935 in Western Australia there were 2180 gold-mining leases. 14,277 men were employed in the gold mines, which had an output valued at £5,702,149.

The value of the mineral production in 1935 was £23,546,000, equal to £3, 10*s.* per head of population. The mines employ 67,000 workmen.

The chief mineral products are: gold, 910,000 fine oz.; silver, 11,982,000 oz.; lead, 229,000 tons; zinc, 122,000 tons; copper, 13,000 tons; coal, 10,888 tons.

Manufactures.

In recent years there has been a great increase in industrial activity in Australia and manufacturing now accounts for a large proportion of the wealth of the country. There are now more than 24,000 factories in the Commonwealth, employing nearly half a million people. The chief manufactures, arranged according to number of employees, are as follows:

Industrial metals; machinery, &c.; food, drink and tobacco; clothing; textiles; paper-making; printing; wood-working; furniture; chemicals, dyes, paints; bricks, pottery, glass; skins and leather.

WEEKLY RATES OF WAGE FOR A FULL WEEK'S WORK, 31st MARCH, 1936

(The rates specified are in most cases the minimum rates payable under Awards and Industrial Agreements. See footnote.)

Occupation	Sydney	Melbourne	Brisbane	Adelaide	Perth	Hobart
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Bakers	105*a* 6 110*a* 6	100 10 110 10	92*a* 0 104*a* 6	88 0 93 0	94*a* 6 104*a* 6	87 6 100 0
Blacksmiths	96*a* 6	94*a* 0	101*a* 4	95*a* 0	94*a* 6	94*a* 0
Bricklayers	103*a* 8	112*a* 9	99*c* 7	101*a* 0	105*a* 6	99*a* 0
Carpenters	111*a* 0	98*a* 6	99*c* 7	99*a* 6	104*a* 6	101*a* 6
Compositors	92*a* 0	92*a* 0	101*a* 0	92*a* 0	90*a* 0	92*a* 0
Fitters	97*a* 0	90 0	97*a* 8	94*a* 0	94*a* 6	93*a* 0
Painters	101*a* 10	97*a* 2	99*c* 7	93*a* 2	104*a* 6	95*a* 6
Plasterers	103*a* 8	106*a* 4	99*c* 7	101*a* 0	106*a* 4	95*a* 6
Plumbers	112*a* 10	101*a* 9	99*c* 7	99 11	106*a* 4	92*a* 8 114*a* 8
Tailors	88*a* 0	88*a* 0	88*a* 0	88*a* 0	89*a* 6	88*a* 0
Tailoresses	49*a* 6	47*a* 0	47*a* 0	47*a* 0	56*a* 0	47*a* 0
Wharf labourers (*b*)	2 6	2 6	2 6 to 2 11	2 6	2 6	2 6

The hours of labour constituting a full week's work are 48, with the following exceptions: (*a*) 44 hours per week. (*b*) Rate per hour. (*c*) 40 hours per week.

Transport.

Railways.—The railway system of Australia is part Federal-owned, part State, and part private. The gauges vary in different parts of the country, and although the principle of a uniform gauge of 4 ft. 8½ in. has been accepted, the cost of unification has so far prevented it from being put into effect. In the more populous parts Australia is well served with railways, which are of a high standard. The Federal railways act as a link for the various State railways, but owing to the break of gauge inter-state journeys involve changes and the speed is somewhat slow.

Roads.—Roads are fairly well maintained in the settled part of the Commonwealth, and in and around the cities they compare favourably with those in Europe and America. There is a system of highways for inter-state communication. Motor omnibus services have much developed in recent years.

The motor vehicles (including cycles) licensed in the Commonwealth number approximately 650,000—nearly one in ten per head of the population. The revenue from motor taxation is over £5,000,000.

Civil Aviation.—Civil aviation in the Commonwealth is under the control of the Federal Government. Flying has made great progress in Australia, where it is particularly valuable on account of the long distances to be covered. There are both Government-subsidized and unsubsidized services carrying mails and passengers and freight. The approximate mileage flown in 1935 was 3,713,718 miles, 57,234 passengers and 248,396 lb. of goods (exclusive of mails) were carried, the number of journeys being 114,886.

Cost of Living.

The cost of living in Australia varies from State to State. Generally speaking, although it has increased in recent years it is still favourable compared with Great Britain, especially in the rural districts. Owing to the great production of essential foodstuffs, and fruit and vegetables, such things are cheap and help to make living an easier matter than it is in the United Kingdom Houses are moderately priced and there is much in the way of sport and outdoor entertainment which costs very little.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES—CAPITAL CITIES—QUARTER ENDED 30th JUNE, 1936

Commodity	Sydney	Melbourne	Brisbane	Adelaide	Perth	Hobart
	d.	*d.*	*d.*	*d.*	*d.*	*d.*
Bread .. .. 2 lb.	5	4½	5	4½	5	4½
Flour, ordinary .. 25 lb.	46½	37	44½	36½	41¾	37½
Tea .. .. 1 lb.	26¼	26½	25¼	27½	27¾	27½
Sugar .. .. 1 lb.	4	4	4	4	4	4
Rice .. .. 1 lb.	3	3½	3	3	3½	3½
Jam .. .. 1½ lb.	10	8¾	8½	8¾	9	9¾
Oatmeal .. .. 1 lb.	2½	2½	2¼	2¼	3	3¼
Salmon, in tins .. 1 lb.	14	16	13½	12	13½	13½
Potatoes .. .. 14 lb.	18½	16¼	18¼	17	17	17¾
Onions .. .. 1 lb.	2	1½	1¾	1¾	2¼	2
Soap .. .. 1 lb.	4½	5	3½	4½	4½	5
Candles .. .. 1 lb.	11¼	11½	10½	10½	11½	11½
Kerosene .. .. 1 gall.	17½	19¾	16½	16¾	19½	27½
Milk, fresh .. .. 1 qt.	7¼	6½	5¼	5¾	7	5½
Butter .. .. 1 lb.	16½	17	16	18	18½	15
Cheese .. .. 1 lb.	12½	12½	11¾	11½	13½	11
Eggs .. .. 1 doz.	22½	21¾	21¼	19	26½	23¾
Bacon, rashers .. 1 lb.	13½	15½	11	14½	14½	12½
Beef, sirloin .. 1 lb.	9½	8½	7½	8	8½	7¾
Steak, stewing .. 1 lb.	6	5½	4¾	7	7½	6½
Sausages .. .. 1 lb.	5½	5¾	5¼	5½	5¾	6
Mutton, leg .. 1 lb.	7	6¾	7½	7¾	7½	7¾
,, shoulder .. 1 lb.	5½	4½	5	6	5½	5½
Pork, leg .. .. 1 lb.	10½	9¾	8¾	9½	10	9½
,, loin .. .. 1 lb.	11	9¾	9	9½	9½	9¾

AVERAGE RENTS (4 AND 5 ROOMS ONLY)—CAPITAL CITIES—QUARTER ENDED JUNE, 1936

City	4 Rooms		5 Rooms		Weighted Average 4 and 5 Rooms
	Wood	Brick	Wood	Brick	
	s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
Sydney ..	15 7	19 0	19 10	22 9	20 5
Melbourne	15 7	18 5	20 2	22 11	19 5
Brisbane ..	13 10	—	17 8	—	16 3
Adelaide ..	—	14 5	—	19 0	16 11
Perth ..	14 4	17 5	16 10	21 8	18 1
Hobart ..	17 4	18 4	20 10	23 1	20 0

Immigration Regulations.

Any British subject of good health and character may emigrate to Australia provided that in the opinion of the authorities there he is not likely to become a public charge. The interpretation of the latter phrase is very wide, and depends upon a number of factors. The possession of a comparatively small sum of money, of friends and relatives, or the knowledge of a trade, are all taken into account in determining a person's suitability. Generally speaking, there is much less opportunity for the unskilled (whether labourer or clerical) than for the skilled to enter.

Radio.

Radio in Australia is controlled by the Australian Broadcasting Commission, which is somewhat similar to the British Broadcasting Corporation. It has nine stations throughout the States, which broadcast varied programmes nationally and also relay the Empire programmes of the B.B.C.

In addition, there are a number of commercial stations which broadcast programmes sponsored by advertisers. A fee of 21*s.* is charged for a listeners' licence within 250 miles from a National broadcasting station, and 15*s.* beyond.

Offices in London.

All information regarding Australia can be obtained from the office of the High Commissioner for Australia, Australia House, Strand, London, W.C.2. Information on a particular State may be obtained from the appropriate Agency-General:

The Agent-General for New South Wales, 125 Strand, London, W.C.2.

The Agent-General for Queensland, Strand, London, W.C.2.

The Agent-General for South Australia, British Industries House, Marble Arch, London, W.1.

The Agent-General for Tasmania, Australia House, Strand, London, W.C.2.

The Agent-General for Victoria, Victoria House, Melbourne Place, Strand, London, W.C.2.

The Agent-General for Western Australia, Savoy House, Strand, London, W.C.2.

V. NEW ZEALAND

By

A. J. HARROP, M.A.(N.Z.), Ph.D.(Camb.)

Author of *England and New Zealand*, &c.

CHAPTER I

The Land and the People

> Very near to Australia there is a country which all testimony concurs in describing as the fittest country in the world for colonization, as the most beautiful country with the finest climate and the most productive soil; I mean New Zealand. It will be said that New Zealand does not belong to the British Crown, and that is true, but Englishmen are beginning to colonize New Zealand. New Zealand is coming under the dominion of the British Crown.

These words of Edward Gibbon Wakefield, apostle of systematic colonization, are among the most significant in the whole history of New Zealand. They were spoken in June, 1836, little more than a century ago, before a Select Committee of the House of Commons set up to inquire into methods of disposing of lands in the colonies. It was characteristic of Wakefield's restless energy that once his interest in a subject was aroused he would not stop until he had completely mastered it. New Zealand became the dominating idea in his mind, and he was determined that it should be a real testing place of his theory of colonization, already partially applied in South Australia. That the British Government did not want to have New Zealand on its hands meant nothing to Wakefield. That the country was inhabited by Maori tribes whose national sport was war meant little more to him. He held that they were " not savages properly speaking, but a people capable of civilization ". His view was right, though the Maoris were to be a sore trial to some of the Wakefield settlements and his own brother was to perish at their hands.

What was the system of colonization which Wakefield wished to apply to New Zealand? He himself set out his chief requirements for the disposal of land as follows: (1) sale at a sufficient price; (2) whole or some large fixed proportion of proceeds to be devoted to immigration; (3) sale at a uniform price; (4) liberty

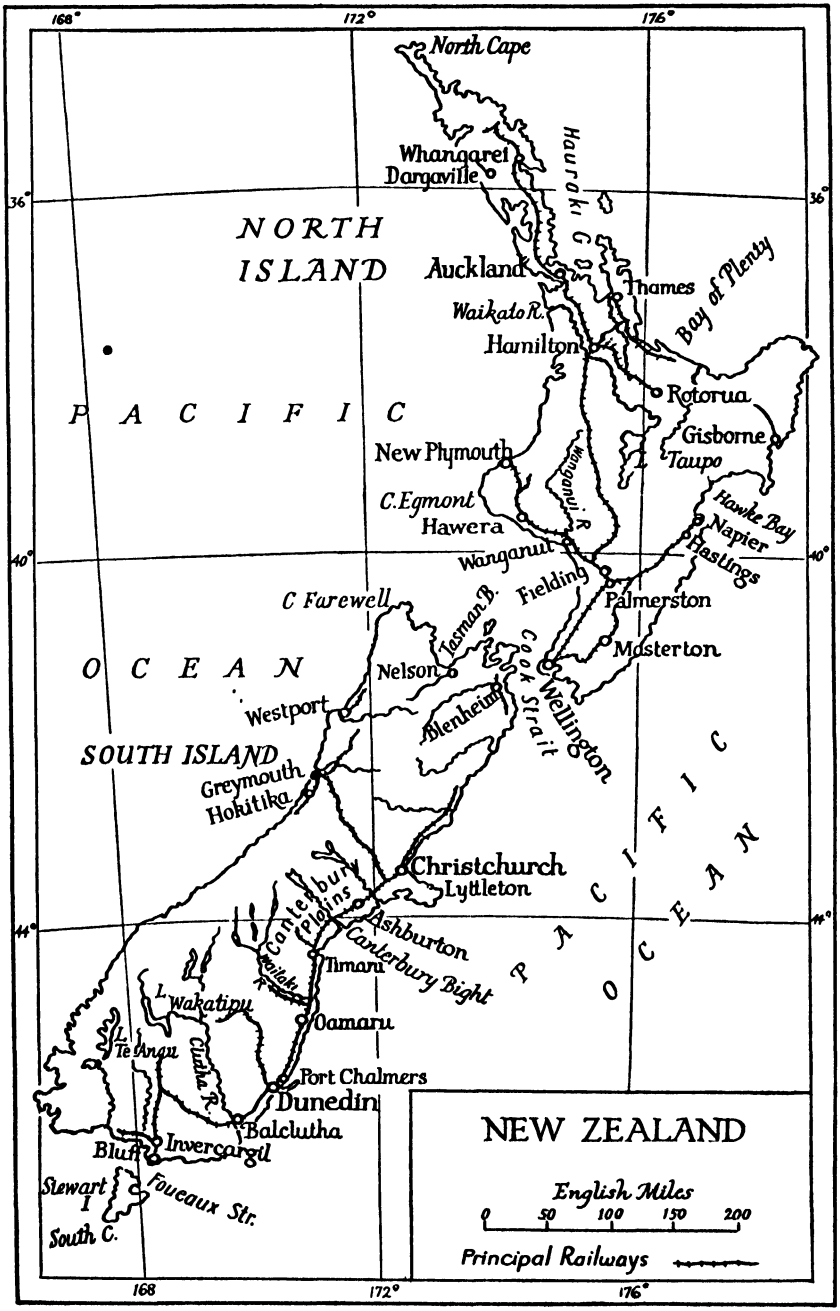
and facility in the selection of land; (5) uniform application of the system throughout the colony and its group; (6) funds for immediate immigration might be raised on the security of future sales of land; (7) the whole system should be fixed.

Gibbon Wakefield's System.

We have no space to discuss all the implications of the " sufficient " price doctrine, but it may be said that the great virtue of the Wakefield System was the very fact that it *was a system*. Until Wakefield, Buller, Durham and the other reformers of 1830 began their work, the only method of peopling the colonies was by the " shovelling out of paupers " or convicts. Pember Reeves has justly said that Wakefield " found colonization a by-word, and left it a branch of statesmanship ". By his careful selection of settlers, his emphatic rejection of convict colonization, and his emphasis on self-government, he set new standards for which we may well be grateful to-day. The tradition he established of systematic settlement has been maintained almost consistently to this day, as an expert writing in the comprehensive survey, *Agricultural Organization in New Zealand*,[1] testifies. His summary of New Zealand land policy is of interest to potential settlers:

" The Provincial Councils were consciously and competitively actuated by the motive of placing their shares of the Public Domain as quickly as possible in the hands of as many people as possible. After the Central Government resumed control of Crown lands in the 'seventies, thirty years were devoted to experimentation in State leaseholds and to the policy of closer settlement. To Massey the problem of land utilization in New Zealand could find its solution in a universal application of a liberal freehold policy. Since the War the dominant ideas in land settlement policy have been close settlement, improved access, improvement in tenurial conditions and better finance both for the acquisition and development of the land. At all stages in our land history, except the most recent, settlement policies have been associated with an active encouragement of immigration. The development of public works as a necessary part of a scheme of immigration and land settlement,

[1] Oxford University Press, 1936. The writer referred to is D. O. Williams.


168°
172°
176°
North Cape
Whangaret
Dargaville
Hauraki G.
NORTH
ISLAND
Auckland
Thames
Bay of Plenty
Waikato R.
Hamilton
Rotorua
Gisborne
Taupo
P A C I F I C
New Plymouth
Wanganui R.
C. Egmont
Hawera
Hawke Bay
Napier
Hastings
Wanganui
Fielding
Palmerston
C Farewell
Tasman B.
Cook Strait
Masterton
O C E A N
Nelson
Wellington
Westport
Blenheim
SOUTH ISLAND
Greymouth
Hokitika
Christchurch
Lyttleton
Canterbury Plains
Ashburton
Canterbury Bight
Waitaki R.
Timaru
L. Wakatipu
Oamaru
L. Te Anau
Clutha R.
Port Chalmers
Dunedin
Balclutha
Bluff
Invercargill
Stewart I.
Foveaux Str.
South C.
NEW ZEALAND
English Miles
0 50 100 150 200
Principal Railways
36°
40°
44°
168
172°
176°

first enunciated by Wakefield, achieved a spectacular place in Vogel's programme and after the outbreak of war in 1914 became part of the working politico-economic faith of the country."

Family Ownership.

How is the land of New Zealand utilized to-day? The total area is 66,000,000 acres, of which 43,000,000 is occupied. Half of the remainder is mountainous country and the other half too poor to be of any value. Of the occupied land nearly 70%, about 30,000,000 acres, is devoted to sheep-farming, the number of sheep being approximately the same as the number of acres. Dairy farm holdings occupy 3½ million acres, and mixed farming of various kinds the remainder of the occupied land. "About 90% of the freehold land is farmed by the owners, either with family or hired labour. The typical nature of the family farm is shown by the fact that occupiers and their families actually engaged in farm work comprise about 75% of the total working rural population other than seasonal workers. Apart from special seasonal labour requirements, New Zealand farming is therefore conducted on the basis of three-fourths family, one-fourth employee labour. . . . Our main farming production is for overseas markets. The local market absorbs a negligible amount of wool, lamb and cheese and about 20% of the butter produced." [1]

Dependence on overseas markets, mainly in Britain, ensures that New Zealand's total trade per head is very high, large quantities of manufactured goods coming in to supply needs not met by the relatively undeveloped secondary industries of the Dominion. It seems clear that as there is not much room for expansion of farming operations, partly owing to the threat of quota restrictions on exports, an increase of population through immigration must depend largely on the development of secondary industries. Such development will require to be carefully planned to conflict as little as possible with Britain's export trade to New Zealand; otherwise serious difficulties, political and financial, may arise.

Why should anyone desire to migrate to New Zealand to-day? The days of rapidly acquired wealth are gone. Some of the glamour

[1] *Agricultural Organization in New Zealand.*

and most of the gamble has gone from farming. Health and unemployment insurance have given the workers of Britain better conditions than prevailed during last century, when hundreds of thousands of men and women left for distant lands. To-day has its own motives. Many men are not satisfied with the cramping conditions of British towns. Even when they have steady employment, they feel the appeal of a new land free from class distinctions where their children can grow up in healthy surroundings and rise, if they have the ability, to the highest positions in the land—positions largely reserved in Britain for those whose parents can afford expensive schools and the older Universities. In New Zealand the most expensive schools have very moderate fees and there is only one university, with its constituent colleges all of equal status.

A Britain of the South.

New Zealand is a Britain of the south in more ways than one. There is no great change of environment, physical or mental, to make the new settler feel that he is in an alien land. The most obvious change is the absence of the grey English winter. The late Lord Jellicoe, Governor-General from 1920 to 1925, thus wrote of the climate:

" New Zealand is a country blessed with much sunshine. The daily average during the whole year over the whole Dominion is about six hours. In some districts it is considerably more, in some rather less. This is at least one-third more sunshine than that enjoyed by the British Isles, and about equal to that of Italy. There is an abundant rainfall spread over the entire year. It is not equally divided, the west coast having very much more rain than the east coast, portions of which occasionally suffer from drought. The rain, when it comes, is, as a rule, heavy; consequently there are far fewer rainy days than in England. The climate is far more equable than that of the Mother Country, and in most parts of the Dominion horses, sheep and cattle live in the open all the year round." [1]

In New Zealand are to be found most of the amenities of life in Britain, and not so many of the complications. Taxation is heavy,

[1] Introduction to *England and New Zealand* by A. J. Harrop.

but no heavier than in Britain. The amount exempt from tax is £210. The general standard of living is very high, and with a 40-hour week New Zealand has many claims to be considered a paradise for those who have to earn their living. The social legislation of the Labour Government has naturally created problems for employers, but, with good-will on both sides, these seem already to be well on the way to solution. Whether abundant leisure, short hours of work and high wages will tend to undermine the high reputation of New Zealand workers for enterprise and initiative and reduce the country's ability to compete against other lands remains to be seen. If leisure is rightly used, physical and mental capacity to work harder during limited hours of work should be greatly increased. High wages mean a large increase in the purchasing power of the people and a greater demand for labour. How does this affect the problem of migration which we have to consider?

CHAPTER II

Population and Migration Problems

There is to-day in New Zealand a keen interest in the question of immigration and a wide-spread search for a wise policy to promote it. It is almost universally agreed that wholesale assisted immigration will never be adopted again, and that the chief requirement of any scheme is careful planning. The Hon. W. E. Barnard, Speaker of the House of Representatives, has been prominent in the formation of the New Zealand Five Million Club, whose object is " to increase the Dominion's population (*a*) by methods designed to raise the rate of natural increase within New Zealand, and (*b*) by immigration with special reference to planning so as to avoid any social or economic dislocation within the Dominion, and to after-care so that new citizens from abroad may be sooner absorbed into the communal life of New Zealand ".

The birth-rate of New Zealand has declined at an alarming rate.

Twenty years ago there was one baby to every four women between the ages of twenty and forty-five; to-day there is only one to every eleven women between those ages. Nearly a quarter of New Zealand marriages are childless, a fifth have one child and another fifth two children. The rate of natural increase per 1000 of population has fallen from 14·4 in 1922 to 7·91 in 1935. Instead of marching steadily on to a population of three or more millions, which her resources should be able to support with ease, there is grave danger that by 1960 it will become stationary. A new land will gradually become full of old people, and more than ever a source of envy to crowded countries. " A stationary or declining population, quietly and undramatically, but surely and steadily will undermine and lower that which men and women value most highly—their standard of life," contends Mr. Barnard. " No raising of wage levels, no shortening of hours of labour, no basic wage—nothing that can be done by legislation will stay the onset of the final rot."

The question of population is linked closely with that of defence, and the present Prime Minister of New Zealand has said that he regards a virile population as the country's best defence. With 1200 miles of sea as a bulwark and a growing Air Force as an additional deterrent to any enemy, New Zealand's problem of defence is perhaps not so immediately urgent as that of Britain, but we have only to look at the consequences of even a temporary loss of command of the sea by the British Navy to realize that every possible precaution against war should be taken by New Zealand. An empty land is a constant temptation, and a fertile and beautiful country like New Zealand would be a rich prize.

The Government Attitude.

This the Government realizes, and the Minister of Labour and Immigration, Mr. H. T. Armstrong, during and before his visit to Europe in the summer of 1937, has given the subject of planned immigration considerable thought. He informed the writer that the Labour Government, although kept very busy by its legislative programme since coming into office late in 1935, had considered the general problem of increasing the country's population and was disposed to consider definite schemes of planned immigration to

meet the shortage of skilled labour in many trades. The country was now almost back to normal conditions after the slump, the number of unemployed having been reduced to about 30,000. Many of these men are not physically capable of hard manual labour, and their chance of employment would be greatly increased by a development of secondary industries requiring lighter types of work. A considerable amount of New Zealand unemployment is seasonal, and schemes were in hand for employing men on afforestation and other projects when harvesting, shearing and other similar seasonal activities are not being carried on. The Government's housing survey revealed a shortage of 20,000 houses, and to make this up the Government intended to build several thousand houses a year. By means of the Reserve Bank it was possible to finance the building schemes at an interest rate of 2% and accordingly to make the houses available for letting at a lower rate than was possible for private builders. This had some effect on private building and increased the number of houses that the Government would have to build.

Development of the iron resources of New Zealand by the Government was a possible outcome of the position brought about by Britain's rearmament. There was iron ore in plenty, but it has not been developed in the past because all needs were readily supplied by Britain. But to-day the Mother Country would be glad to be relieved of some of the pressure on her iron and steel industries, and it was possible that a New Zealand industry employing thousands of men might be founded.

Mr. Armstrong said that there was no unemployment among women in New Zealand at all, and there was a shortage of domestic and factory workers. Conditions in industry were now so good that domestic workers were very hard to get, especially in the country, and it might soon be necessary to regulate the conditions of domestic service so as to redress the position.

The problem of unemployment had eased considerably in nearly all countries to-day, and this made for less interest in migration. It might be thought that New Zealand's liberal wage standards and 40-hour week would attract settlers of themselves, but the full effect of these would probably not be felt until a General Election

had shown the country's verdict on the Government's record. After the election of 1938 there might very well be a wave of migration to the Dominion.

CHAPTER III

Fields for Settlers

Dairy Farming.

This type of farming has reached a high pitch of efficiency in New Zealand, and mechanization has proceeded to such an extent that, while output has doubled in ten years, the number of men employed in it has diminished. All the best dairying land of New Zealand is occupied and prices are high. To be successful, a new settler would require to gain experience on a farm, possibly followed by a course at one of the two Agricultural Colleges, before buying land. He would require a capital of at least £1000, which would be sufficient to pay part of the cost of a property, the remainder being borrowed on mortgage at a reasonable rate of interest—probably not more than 4¼%.

Any able-bodied young man willing to take work on a farm is not likely to have much difficulty in securing employment. The following minimum weekly wages are paid under the terms of the Agricultural Workers Act, 1936: 16 to 17 years, 17*s.* 6*d.*; 17 to 18, £1, 2*s.* 6*d.*; 18 to 19, £1, 7*s.* 6*d.*; 19 to 20, £1, 12*s.* 6*d.*; 20 to 21, £1, 17*s.* 6*d.*, and 21 and over, £2, 2*s.* 6*d*—in all cases with board and lodging. Where this is not provided an additional 17*s.* 6*d.* a week is payable. The Act also provides for holidays with pay for farm workers, amounting to four weeks a year if a weekly half-holiday is not given, and 14 days where a half-holiday is allowed.

Married men with families will find it more difficult than single men to get work on farms, owing to the lack of suitable accommodation on many of them. Married men and others wishing to take up farms of their own can often obtain useful experience of farm management by securing positions as share-milkers. The share-

milker and his family relieve the dairy farmer of a great deal of the work of the farm and earn more than ordinary farm workers.

The Government, by introducing a guaranteed price scheme for butter and cheese, has introduced an element of certainty into what was a somewhat speculative industry. The result of the first year's operations of the scheme under which the Government becomes the owner of all dairy produce before it is exported and markets it through recognized channels in London has proved satisfactory, and unfavourable reactions on the prices realized in Britain have not occurred. Dairy farmers, though for the most part grateful for the security afforded by the guaranteed price, are critical of the price itself, though it has been raised for the second season. The Government is turning its attention to ways and means of reducing costs in the industry, so that a continual rise in the guaranteed price may not be necessary. Some redundant factories are being closed and other economies effected. The present boom in employment in Britain has exercised a marked effect on the dairying industry of New Zealand, raising hundreds of thousands of people above the margarine level and placing New Zealand butter within their reach. The effect of this on the nation's health must be considerable, for the fine produce of New Zealand has been scientifically proved and acclaimed by doctors as rich in the essential vitamins. An important factor in ensuring a market for New Zealand butter is its valuable keeping qualities, which make it suitable for storing against war emergencies. Nobody who embarks on dairy farming in New Zealand need have any undue fears about the disposal of his produce at the present time, or in the immediate future.

Sheep-farming.

For settlers with capital, sheep-farming in New Zealand has been a popular occupation almost since the beginning of systematic colonization. Did not Samuel Butler immortalize his run on the head-waters of the Rangitata in *Erewhon*—and, what is perhaps more to the point in the present connexion, make some thousands of pounds from his New Zealand sheep-farm in the '60's? To become a sheep-farmer more capital is necessary than for dairy farming, and a reasonable minimum is probably £3000. Experience

is best obtained by actual work on a farm, and there is no difficulty in securing this. Some of the high mountain runs are being closed down, as snow losses are difficult to replace when prices for stock are six or seven times as high as when these back-country stations —small kingdoms in themselves, isolated for months in the year— flourished. But for the most part the industry is prospering and is unlikely to seek guaranteed prices. New Zealand wool has been in great demand at recent sales and the statistical position is very sound. The high price of wool has caused the number of sheep in the Dominion to rise to a record figure, with some consequent diminution in the number of carcasses exported. The meat industry of the Dominion, thanks largely to efficient marketing, has achieved a fairly steady standard of prices even through the years of depression in Britain, and the premium for quality maintained at Smithfield for many years by New Zealand lamb is the best possible augury for the future of the industry. Chilled beef and pork are becoming increasingly important exports. The latter is a by-product of the dairy industry, and the utilization of skimmed milk, which formerly went to waste, has meant much to many farmers during periods of depressed prices.

Fruit and other Farming.

The climate of many districts of New Zealand is very favourable for fruit production, and exports of apples to Britain and other countries are of considerable economic importance. The high rates of pay for agricultural workers seemed to threaten disaster to the industry, but the Government has come to the rescue with a guaranteed price of 10*s.* 6*d.* a case for apples sold locally or exported. The citrus fruit industry in North Auckland, Tauranga and other districts is finding its feet after early troubles, due partly to inadequate marketing arrangements. For men retiring at a comparatively early age on pension after service in hot countries, there are many opportunities for pleasant and profitable small farming in New Zealand, where education at good schools is far cheaper than in England.

Poultry Farming.

On scientific lines poultry farming can be made to pay in New Zealand, and young women with some practical training in England have found conditions very suitable for them. Protection of the Canterbury wheat industry, with the consequent raising of the cost of feeding, is a sore point with poultry farmers.

CHAPTER IV

Secondary Industries

Skilled workers in a great many trades can readily get work in New Zealand to-day. It is unlikely, however, that any general scheme of assisted immigration will be adopted to induce them to come to the Dominion. What may happen is an arrangement between employers in certain districts and the Government, under which the Government will select men in Britain for definite positions in New Zealand. If Auckland requires a dozen carpenters who cannot be found locally, the Government may arrange for that number to go out from this country, guaranteeing the men employment. Private advertisements in Britain for carpenters to go to New Zealand have been appearing and have caused some criticism in the Dominion.

What are the prospects for skilled workmen in the chief centres? The latest survey of business activity gives grounds for thinking that the further economic recovery of the Dominion and the re-employment of many unskilled men in industry will be retarded unless some steps are taken to introduce skilled men. Let us consider the four centres in turn.

Auckland.—The wholesale trade is exceptionally busy and factory outputs are increasing. All engineering concerns visited have been working to capacity and additional men have been employed. Boot and shoe manufacturers report an acute shortage of suitable female workers. The motor industry reports a mild boom, with

all mechanics fully occupied. Labour is at a premium in the clothing industry, with factories unable to meet orders by delivery dates. Increased output and staff is the rule in the furniture and cabinet-making industry; several factories are extending their space. The brick-manufacturing industry is in a healthy state, the various Government and private building enterprises being reflected in the number of bricks sold.

Wellington.—In nearly all cases manufacturers report that they are working to capacity, and are having difficulty in filling orders on time. The shortage of suitable labour in several industries is acute.

Woollen mills show a remarkable increase in the production of some lines and prospects are good. Manufacturers of plumbers' supplies report exceptional business; additions to plant have been made and more men taken on. Engineering firms report a difficulty in securing suitable qualified tradesmen to meet the demand for their products. Plants have been greatly extended. Box-manufacturing and the paper-bag industry, which give a reliable indication of trading conditions, both report considerable increases in production. The demand for hosiery is taxing the capacity of factories, and there is a shortage of labour to work the machines at full capacity. In the motor industry a new assembling factory for one popular car has provided employment for a large number of workers. Good mechanics are receiving considerably more than award rates of pay.

Christchurch.—Reorganization to secure greater efficiency and offset the rise in costs due to wages increases and the 40-hour week has been successfully carried through in several industries.

Brushware factories report substantial increases in production. Most of the clothing manufacturers have been working at extreme pressure to cope with orders. A shortage of suitable labour has impeded production to a certain extent. Confectionery manufacturers have experienced the benefit of the increased purchasing power of the community. Engineering works are fully employed, and manufacturers of agricultural implements have felt the benefit of the greater certainty introduced into the dairy industry by guaranteed prices. Satisfactory conditions prevail in the footwear

and furniture industries. Motor-body building firms have shown substantial increases in business. Certain industries requiring skilled labour have experienced difficulty in securing enough men. New industries in the process of development in the Canterbury industrial area are the processing of flax fibre at Temuka, production of sugar-beet in South Canterbury, and extraction of oil from coal on the West Coast.

Dunedin.—Most factories have been kept fully employed. Woollen mills have been very busy, orders in some cases having to be refused. There has been a distinct shortage of skilled workers for clothing factories. Production and sales of biscuits and confectionery have reached what is possibly a record level. Footwear factories report satisfactory business and tanneries are fully occupied.

Conclusion.

To sum up, it may be said with confidence that the secondary industries of New Zealand could absorb at the present time a large number of skilled men, and that any man of good character and physique, with experience in any of the industries in which a shortage of labour has been indicated, would run no risk in going to New Zealand.

The basic rate of wages for men in industries covered by awards or industrial agreements is £3, 16*s*. a week, which, it is calculated, is the amount necessary for a man to maintain a wife and three children in a fair and reasonable standard of comfort. The basic rate for women is £1, 16*s*. a week. Maximum working hours in awards are not to exceed 40 per week and Saturday work is to be eliminated where practicable.

Opportunities there undoubtedly are for settlers of many kinds in New Zealand, if they are healthy, adaptable and not expectant of sudden wealth. The land offers them sunshine and space, freedom from European preoccupation with wars and rumours of wars, health for their children, and means of training them for any profession or trade. We may never see again the great flow of colonists who made New Zealand a second Britain in the nineteenth century, but there is no reason why tributary streams should not continue and justify British occupation of one of the fair places of the earth.

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THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

GENERAL INFORMATION AND STATISTICS

The Dominion of New Zealand consists of two large and several small islands in the South Pacific, with a total area of 103,415 sq. miles—rather larger than Great Britain and Northern Ireland. It is a very picturesque country, being very mountainous. In the North Island the higher mountains occupy roughly one-tenth of the surface, and the South Island is even more mountainous. There are several volcanoes, and closely connected with the volcanic system are the numerous hot springs and geysers for which the country is famous. The latter extend over a large area of the North Island, but the principal district is in the neighbourhood of Lake Rotorua. There are also some less famous springs in the South Island; some of them have remarkable curative properties.

New Zealand is well watered by a large number of rivers and lakes.

The geological history of New Zealand is complex and ancient. It is susceptible to earthquakes. In the period 1848–1935 the number of deaths recorded in New Zealand as being directly or indirectly due to earthquakes was 284. Of these 255 were due to the Hawke's Bay earthquake of 1931.

Government.

A Governor-General represents the King. There is a popularly elected House of Representatives (the equivalent of the United Kingdom House of Commons) and there is a Legislative Council, which is appointed by the Governor-General and is the Parliamentary Second Chamber. The Governor-General is advised by an Executive Council, which resembles the British Cabinet.

Local Government, as in the United Kingdom, is in the hands of various local authorities, counties and municipalities.

Vital Statistics.

The population of New Zealand proper in 1936 was 1,573,810, including 82,326 Maoris. The population movement is one of unbroken growth, though the average annual increase declined from 2·05% in 1926 to 1·05% in 1936. Since 1932 there has been a decline in migration, the excess of departures over arrivals being 1114 in 1936 compared with 3150 in 1935.

BIRTHS, MARRIAGES AND DEATHS, 1936

Birth rate per 1000	16·54
Death „ „	8·76
Marriage „ „	8·04
Infant mortality (per 1000 live births)	31·29

Climate.

New Zealand is situated wholly within the Temperate Zone, and it is also entirely and at all seasons within the zone of the westerly winds. The climate is extremely pleasant and somewhat resembles that of England, but is warmer and wetter. It has a very high rainfall, but it also enjoys a high percentage of sunshine. The climate can best be described as cool-temperate-moist, without marked seasonal variations in temperature or precipitation.

There are three types of rainfall in New Zealand. The first type is the region where there is a dry summer and a wet winter season. The second is where there is the heaviest rainfall in the spring, a decrease in late summer, an increase in the autumn, and a decrease to a minimum in the winter. The third is where there is a wet summer and a dry winter. All of these are found in different parts of the country and play a big part in determining the type of farming which can be carried on in the parts where they occur. There is little fog in New Zealand and little snow save in the interior and at high altitudes. Hail, however, is rather more frequent.

The excellence of New Zealand's climate, particularly for the growth of pasture, is undoubtedly due to the abundance of sunshine combined with a high rainfall and an absence of extreme temperature.

Towns.

The capital of the Dominion is **Wellington,** in North Island, a fine city and seaport, with a population of 150,000. The largest city is **Auckland** (pop. 212,000), also in North Island. **Christchurch** (pop. 132,500) is the chief city and seaport of South Island. Other large towns are **Dunedin** (S. Is., 82,000); **Wanganui** (S. Is., 25,760); **Invercargill** (S. Is., 25,760); **Palmerston** (N. Is., 24,000); **Hamilton** (N. Is, 19,580); **Timaru** (S. Is., 18,840); **Napier** (N. Is., 18,700); **New Plymouth** (N. Is., 18,500); **Hastings** (N. Is., 18,000); **Gisborne** (N. Is., 16,000); **Nelson** (S. Is., 13,500).

Education.

Education in New Zealand is free, secular and compulsory between the ages of 7 and 14. For those who wish to continue beyond this age

there are post-primary schools, in which, for suitable children, the Government allots a number of free places (both junior and senior). The curriculum includes handwork and physical training. The Government assists by free passes those who live near a railway but removed from a school, and also by other means of conveyance where possible and necessary. In addition, there are correspondence courses for children living in districts remote from schools. There are also a number of private schools, both primary and secondary, which are open to Government inspection and have to conform to certain regulations and standards. A large number of these (of the primary stage) are Roman Catholic. There are also technical high schools and technical colleges offering varied courses of technical instruction. A number of scholarships are available in the University Colleges. The University of New Zealand consists of the University Colleges of Auckland, Victoria (Wellington), Canterbury, and the University of Otago (Dunedin).

Military Service.

New Zealand has a Regular Army, Air Force, and a "New Zealand Division of the Royal Navy". There are attached to these Volunteer Forces. In addition under the Defence Act of 1909, there is provision for compulsory service in peace time, in the Cadets for boys from 14 to 18 years old, and for men from 18 to 25 in the Territorial Force. Since 1930 the compulsory service has not been enforced, but the Government could enforce it without new legislation.

Taxation.

The taxation system in New Zealand resembles that in the United Kingdom, taxes being levied in a similar manner. Generally speaking, taxation is no heavier than in the United Kingdom. As in Australia there is a tax on sales which at present stands at 5 per cent of the sale value of the goods to which it applies, but numerous classes of goods are exempt.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, 1936

Revenue, £26,172,368. Expenditure, £25,890,568.

Farming Conditions.

The Dominion of New Zealand is a country specially favoured for primary production. The soil is varied in character, a considerable portion being of high fertility; but even the poorer soils are largely capable of profitable utilization by reason of the comparatively mild and equable weather conditions. The best grasses and fodder plants flourish in the congenial environment, and the country has gained a world-wide reputation for the quality of its pastures. Cheap hydro-electric power is available, most farming districts having been served in recent years.

New Zealand is primarily a grazing country, and, while more of the land is every year being given up to the cultivation of fodder crops, its

future will, no doubt, be inseparably associated with stock-raising, principally of dairy cattle and of sheep. A great proportion of the crops grown in the Dominion are for the production of such commodities as meat, wool, and dairy produce.

In the North Island the chief industries are dairying and sheep-farming. There is probably no finer sheep-country in the world than the limestone downs of Hawke's Bay. It may be claimed that there is more butterfat produced to the acre on many farms in the North Island than on any other area in the world.

In various parts of the Island fruit-growing, principally apples, pears, and peaches, is being placed on a sound commercial basis. In the northern portion citrus fruits can be successfully produced, and, with the adoption of better storage and marketing methods, lemons in particular are being cultivated on a considerable scale. Outdoor grapes are freely grown. Both the North and the South Islands have established an export trade in apples, and to a lesser extent in pears.

The South Island is the portion of the Dominion where agriculture proper was first established, the settlement of the land being greatly facilitated by the fact that large fertile plains, rolling downs, and hills were available, devoid of the forests which in a very large portion of the North Island had to be cleared before the land could be utilized by the farmer. The growing of the finer wools, and the raising of fat lambs for the frozen-meat industry, are features of primary production in the South Island, while the dairy industry is also well represented, especially in Otago and Southland.

While the climate in the southern districts of the South Island is not so genial as that in the northern, there are only a few portions where the winter is at all rigorous. The Nelson Provincial District, in the north-west corner of the Island is noted for its climate. The district is specially suitable for fruit-growing, which has been developed extensively on commercial lines, and the culture of tobacco-leaf is well established. At the other end of the Island, in Central Otago, a peculiar configuration of the country enables fruit-growing to be prosecuted with great success. The winter is comparatively severe, but the warm summer sun and the absence of wind make it an ideal environment for fruit-growing.

In some sections, particularly in Canterbury, Otago, Southland, and Marlborough, grain-growing is prosecuted on a considerable scale. The Canterbury Plains, extending 150 miles north and south and running inland for 40 miles from the sea, represent an area of over 3,000,000 acres. This region contains the principal grain-growing areas. Wheat, oats and barley are cultivated to a large extent. In Otago and Southland oats is the grain principally produced.

Training for Farming.

Training for those who wish to take up farming or to find employment in the Agricultural Department of the Government is available at two Agricultural Colleges (Lincoln and Massey) affiliated to the University of New Zealand. There are also experimental farms, which issue bulletins for farmers.

Classified Holdings.

The table below gives the number of holdings in the Dominion classified according to the purpose for which they are used. These figures do not include borough holdings or those under one acre in extent.

Class of Holding	Area 1929–30 (latest available)		Number of Holdings
	Acres.	Per cent	1935–6
Dairy farming	3,484,646	8·04	40,067
Sheep farming	29,673,226	68·42	15,589
Mixed agricultural and sheep	1,992,023	4·59	5,479
Mixed dairy and sheep ..	2,801,162	6·46	7,017
General mixed farming ..	421,431	0·97	4,274
Fruit-growing	37,279	0·08	1,375
Market gardening	10,580	0 03	957
Poultry farming	2,894	0·01	287
Nurseries and seed gardens	3,364	—	80
Timber growing	322,316	0·74	131
Flax growing	45,976	0·11	25
Idle and unused	1,898,715	4·38	2,950
Other and unspecified ..	2,676,762	6·17	6,316
Totals	43,368,653	100·00	84,547

Sheep.

The Dominion is eminently suited for sheep-breeding, practically every description of sheep finding a favourable local habitat. In the hilly and down country of the South Island the Merino has been bred for very many years, and was the original sheep depastured. In fact, the Merino ewe furnished the foundation of the crossbred stock which has made Canterbury mutton famous on British meat-markets. In the early days of the Canterbury meat trade the English Leicester of the original type was the favourite ram for putting to the Merino ewe. Of later years the Lincoln has been largely employed to cross with the Merino, and black-faced rams have been further employed to put to the crossbred ewes. Systematic inbreeding of Merino-longwool half-bred sheep produced the now world-known Corriedale breed, which is the most numerous breed next to Romney Marsh. In the North Island the Romney Marsh sheep, which suits the conditions obtaining in this portion of the Dominion, has become the most popular sheep; it is also increasing in numbers in the South Island. Border Leicester, English Leicester, and Lincoln sheep, in that order, are other breeds of numerical importance.

The number of sheep reached its maximum (30,841,287) in 1930. An annual decline of about 1,000,000 then set in and continued until 1933; since then, however, successive increases have raised the total to 30,113,704 in 1936.

Mining.

In no other country of equal size are indications of a greater number of economic minerals to be found, yet, with the exception of iron-ore, the known mineral reserves are not great in comparison with those of many

other countries. The coal reserves, however, are considerable, and the gold-mining industry has of recent years again come into prominence.

The following table shows the output and value of the mines in 1935:

Mineral	Quantity	Value
		£
Gold and silver ..	603,244 oz.	1,300,046
Pig iron	4,902 tons	23,775
Stone	—	289,274
Pumice	3,300 tons	8,769
Coal	2,115,184 tons	2,115,184
Tungsten ore ..	39$\frac{7}{20}$ tons	4,719
Quicksilver ..	563 lb	132
	—	3,741,978

Manufactures.

There is a healthy growth in manufacturing industries in the Dominion. Relatively new industries, such as motor-assembling, hosiery, radio, confectionery, tobacco, &c., have considerably increased the range of factory employment. The total value of the output of the factories is now about £80,000,000. Auckland is the principal manufacturing centre.

The average weekly wage-rate paid to males fell from £4, 8*s.* 10*d.* in 1925 to £3, 10*s.* 11*d.* in 1935, while that for females declined from £1, 15*s.* 6*d.* to £1, 11*s.* 4*d.* In 1925, 74% of the total male wage-earners were paid £4 and over, but in 1935 the percentage had fallen to 48%.

Transport.

Railways.—In spite of the fact that the mountainous nature of the country has made railway construction difficult and expensive, the lines are well designed to serve the country, and the services are modern and well-operated. The railways are practically all State owned, and of 3 ft. 6 in. gauge. There are 1570 miles in North Island and 1750 miles in South Island. The railways also operate road motor services.

The following are the distances between the main cities of the Dominion, with the journey times and fares:

	Distance	Fares	Time
	miles	1st-class fare	hours
Auckland—Wellington (rail)	426	£2, 14*s.* 6*d.*	14
Wellington—Christchurch (sea)	173	£1, 17*s.* 6*d.*	11
Christchurch—Dunedin (rail)	230	£1, 9*s.* 7*d.*	8
Dunedin—Invercargill (rail)	139	17*s.* 11*d.*	4$\frac{1}{2}$

Second-class fares are about 70% of first-class.

Roads.—Particular care is given to the provision of good roads in New Zealand, for there is considerable motor traffic, and the nature of

the country makes both construction and upkeep matters of difficulty. The Government materially assists the local authorities in this matter and, generally speaking, the road system of New Zealand is modern and of a high standard.

Motor Vehicles.—The number of motor vehicles of all kinds (including motor-cycles) licensed in the Dominion was 189,090 in 1936, an increase of 20,790 on the total for 1935.

Registration fees are 10*s.* for a motor-cycle and 20*s.* for any other motor vehicle. Licence fees include 10*s.* for a motor-cycle, £2 for a motor-car, £3 for a motor-omnibus, and from £2 to £3 for a motor-lorry, according to weight and tyres. The driver's licence is 5*s.*

Commercial Flying.—Licences permitting the operation of regular scheduled services have been granted to four companies and commercial aviation is thoroughly well established in New Zealand. There are a number of regular services between certain parts of the country, some daily and some at longer intervals. There are also air-taxi services by certain lines, and some by the aero clubs, a number of the latter being subsidized by the Government. Plans for overseas services are also well advanced.

Cost of Living.

Generally speaking the cost of living in New Zealand is much the same as in the United Kingdom, for although food is cheaper and rents slightly so, such things as clothing are more expensive. Rents are more or less the same throughout the country, save in Wellington, where they are somewhat higher. In Auckland a 5-, 6- or 7-roomed house with about ¼ acre of ground would cost freehold from £850 to £1250 to purchase, or from 30*s.* per week (including rates) to rent.

A SAMPLE OF RETAIL PRICES

Wellington, June, 1937

		s.	*d.*
Milk	Quart		6½
Bread (cash delivered)	2 lb. loaf		6
Bacon roll	1 lb.	1	5½
Factory butter	1 lb.	1	3½
Cheese	1 lb.		9½
Potatoes	14 lb.	1	5½
Flour	25-lb. bag	4	2
Oatmeal	5 lb.	1	6½
Rice	1 lb.		3
Tea	1 lb.	2	4½
Sugar	1 lb.		3½
Jam, 1st grade	1 lb.		10½
Salt	1 lb.		1
Beef, sirloin	1 lb.		8½
Prime ribs	1 lb.		7
Rump steak	1 lb.		11½
Mutton, leg	1 lb.		8½
,, loin	1 lb.		7½
,, chops	1 lb.		7½
Pork, leg	1 lb.		8½
,, loin	1 lb.		9
,, chops	1 lb.		9½

Immigration Regulations.

Any British subject of good health and character is at liberty to enter New Zealand. The Government does not at the moment assist would-be settlers with passage money, but, on the other hand, it does not demand any financial qualification.

Broadcasting.

The Broadcasting Act of 1936 vested the control of the National Broadcasting Service in a Minister of the Crown. There are 8 national broadcasting stations and 22 private stations, some of which are assisted by the Government. The main stations transmit almost continuously on weekdays and with short intervals on Sundays. The Empire short-wave station at Daventry, England, now broadcasts programmes for this part of the southern hemisphere. The fee for a receiving licence in New Zealand is £1, 5*s*. per annum.

Offices in London.

The New Zealand Government Offices are at 415 Strand, W.C.2, where all information can be obtained.

VI. SOUTHERN RHODESIA

By

ERIC A. NOBBS, Ph.D., B.Sc.

CHAPTER I

A New Land of Promise

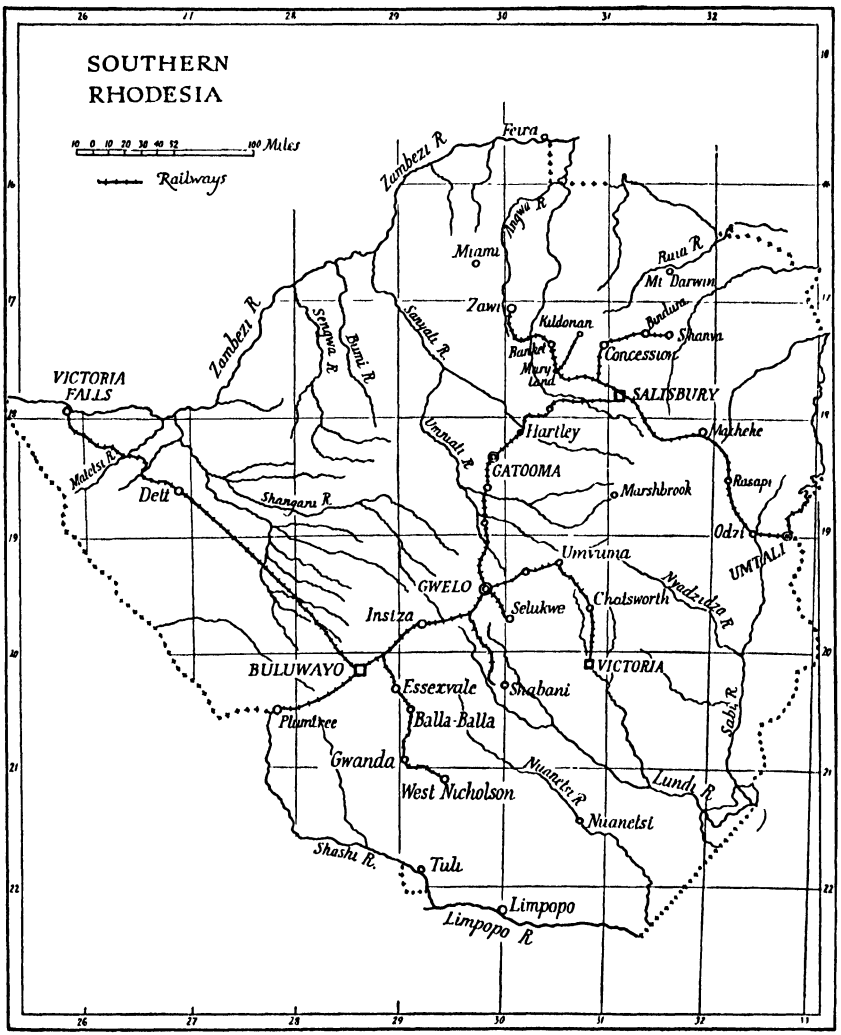
Well-known as a delightful and interesting country to visit, Southern Rhodesia warrants serious consideration as a country to live in. The prospects for the settler are favourable. The fundamental conditions for success are there in the way of mineral wealth, fertility, climate, labour, stable government, social amenities, transport and communications.

After nearly half a century, immigration is only at the rate of 2000 per annum, and a considerable portion of the migrants is drawn from other parts of South Africa. This emphatically is not the fault of Rhodesia, which eagerly desires and actively assists settlers from the Old Country wishing to go there.

The colony of Southern Rhodesia and the Union of South Africa are two separate portions of the Empire, and in no way to be confused. Southern Rhodesia has its own boundaries and laws, its own administration, coinage, judiciary, its separate customs, post, and railways; also even its own problems and politics. Rhodesia also makes an entirely distinct appeal and offers inducements all her own.

Throughout the whole sub-continent there is similarity in such matters as climate and natural resources, careers open and certain of the economic and social conditions. There are common ties of Commonwealth, culture and history and the younger has drawn much from the older.

Southern Rhodesia, a country three times the size of England, lies half-way between the equator and the southern end of Africa, just within the tropics, but tempered by altitude. The main part is plateau, with ranges of hills rising to 6000 ft. and 8000 ft., with many isolated peaks and mountains. Only that portion below 3000 ft. over sea-level is hot. By a fortunate provision of nature


SOUTHERN
RHODESIA
Railways
Zambezi R.
Feira
Angwa R.
Miami
Rusa R.
Mt Darwin
Zawi
Kildonan
Bandura
Shamva
Concession
Banket
Mary Land
SALISBURY
Sanyati R.
Sengwa R.
Bumi R.
VICTORIA FALLS
Hartley
Makheke
Umniati R.
GATOOMA
Marshbrook
Rasapi
Matetsi R.
Deli
Shangani R.
Odzi
Umvuma
UMTALI
Nyadzidzia R.
GWELO
Chalsworth
Selukwe
Insiza
BULUWAYO
VICTORIA
Essexvale
Shabani
Sabi R.
Plumtree
Balla-Balla
Gwanda
Nuanetsi R.
Lundi R.
West Nicholson
Nuanetsi
Shashi R.
Tuli
Limpopo
Limpopo R.

the lower country is drier and the higher has more rain. The population is found mostly on the cooler, higher and healthier uplands.

There are attractions both to the resident and to the tourist deserving mention, as they help to make the country what it is and add much to the pleasure of life there. The very air and climate in themselves stimulate an energy and *joie de vivre* which make even the ordinary workaday occupations more enjoyable.

A Land of Fascination.

The veld supplies a special setting for the life which is lived on it. The vegetation consists of tall grass and low forest, not scrub nor Karoo, neither deserts nor swamps. Park-like scenery is frequent with, often, wide open plains and great blocks of woodland, a rolling country of a very pleasing character, diversified by rocks, hills and smiling valleys.

The great stretches of uniform country are of much advantage in making possible certain rural industries on a big scale. Thus there has been room for the development of a maize industry of such dimensions that on the world's markets Rhodesian flat white maize is a standard commodity, the best of its kind in the world. A tobacco export trade has grown up on a similar scale, and with a potential acreage equal to the whole tobacco belt of the United States. The great grass-covered plains have space for millions of cattle, and a steady weekly supply to Smithfield is the forerunner of greater things to come.

The distance one can see is great. There are stupendous ranges of mountains along the eastern border affording immense vistas. On the central plateau are ridges affording surprising panoramas and most picturesque views, whilst from the granite bosses of the Matopos the view of the world below has become historic. Though the Victoria Falls are familiar to everyone from photographs and pictures, yet the feeling of wonder they arouse when actually seen and heard is forever new. At Zimbabwe and the many other unexplained ruins dotted about the country there is always a sense of mystery added to their archæological interest and their individual beauty. Of less well-known features, there is glory in the Melsetter and Inyanga mountains and the Pungwe Falls, an eerie glamour

in the strange lights in the caves at Sinoia. A fascination surrounds the ordinary things about the country, the turn of a road, the light and shade on the veld, the glimpse of a vanishing buck. Peculiar are the fantastic piles of granite boulders, the gorgeous gold and bronze and yellow and red tints on the expanding leaves of the forests in spring; the lacy silhouette of trees against sunset and night skies; all goes to delight exceedingly and to attract irresistibly.

The Great African Highway.

The obvious difficulties of a small population in so large a country are overcome by a system of communications far in excess of the present density of Europeans. Within the colony are 1356 miles of railway. They carry the traffic of three other territories and an area of three-quarters of a million square miles to and from the outside world. The trunk routes of Africa from the Congo to the Cape and from the east coast to the west pass through Bulawayo. Copper, coal and timber, grain and cattle, machinery and merchandise from oversea, tourists, travellers and settlers to and from British, Belgian and Portuguese possessions all give trade and traffic to the railways.

The country possesses 6000 miles of public road with public motor services operating on 1800 miles, so that rapid and safe transit is everywhere possible. It is almost needless to add that air-lines, radio, telegraphs and telephones are fully up to date.

Southern Rhodesia is, next now to Aden, the youngest colony, but may claim to be the most important, and is likely ere long to become a new great Dominion along with the adjacent British territories of Northern Rhodesia, Nyasaland and parts of Bechuanaland. Nothing is to be gained by delaying such a confederation, which would add to the political strength of the Empire in Africa and materially ease and economize the administration of the countries concerned. This very desirable consummation would be the logical and natural outcome of a process of civilization which commenced with Livingstone's explorations in this part of Africa between 1849 and 1873, and has been going on ever since. Cecil Rhodes in 1890 sent the pioneers in to possess the land—without

a shot fired, be it said. The Chartered Company then developed the land at its own risk till 1923, when it was annexed to the British Crown and given responsible government.

To-day, Southern Rhodesia has reached an interesting stage. It is a stable and self-supporting land with the dangers and much of, but not all, the romance of early days gone. There is still need of much taming of the country and room for fresh ventures and adventures, but its main aims to-day are in the direction of prosperity and expansion along lines well and truly laid in the past.

The Settlers and the Natives.

Without entering into detail it is interesting to note that, according to the latest available statistics of the white population of 56,000, three-quarters are of British blood, one-eighth are Dutch South Africans, also of course British, and only one-eighth are Alien Europeans, Asiatics and coloured people combined. Of the immigrants in 1936 only one-tenth were foreigners. This gives the white population an overwhelmingly British character, though the total is but a small figure beside the native population of about 1,000,000.

There are still alive natives who fought under Lobengula against the British and the kraal life is unchanged, though the power of the chiefs and with it, unfortunately, their influence for good is largely broken. In Southern Rhodesia there is not one native race but many, with different languages, habits and customs. The treatment of natives in the past has on the whole been wise and beneficent. They have had large reserves set aside for their use, and in addition regions in which they can buy farms. Under far-sighted guidance the process of evolution of the race rather than the conversion of single savages into educated individuals has been aimed at and with a large measure of success. General education is subsidized on a generous basis and the teaching of agriculture and handicrafts to adults and youths is carried on by the Government itself. Many missions have been established, where the teaching is usually excellent, coupled with a most confusing multiplicity of creeds. The record of the Chartered Company and the present government towards the natives is one to be proud of, resulting as it does in a mutual attitude of confidence and friendly respect.

Southern Rhodesia frankly wants more white inhabitants of the right kind. Help to the newcomer is traditional, both as the active policy of the Government and the practice of the old hands. The settler can be assured of a more than courteous, a kind and generous, reception, subject always to ready reciprocation of his welcome. A curious and admirable feature of social etiquette is the precedence and respect tacitly accorded to seniority of arrival rather than to subsequent success, and the regard shown to the actual members of the original pioneer columns and the early settlers and those who served the country in its younger days. The new arrival begins at the bottom of the class.

Social Conditions.

The cost of living is low as regards locally supplied commodities and services, but high as to rents and imported goods. For the past few years it has been steadily falling, and is now 9% below that of 1914, the basis usually adopted for such comparisons. The standard of comfort, security and enjoyment are at a high level and a low cost unless foreign luxuries for eating, drinking and wearing are demanded.

Settlement has admittedly been slow. That is the fault of the Old Country and of political causes rather than of Southern Rhodesia. Lack of markets has been a constant source of disappointment, and if the British settler is to succeed in the country his friends at home must buy and consume the fruits of his labour. Security of British markets for British settlers would go a long way to populate Southern Rhodesia, which is herself a shining instance of loyal preference to British markets.

In South Africa the language question always crops up. Southern Rhodesia is very definitely unilingual—that is, English-speaking—but it is tolerant and even allows Afrikaans as the medium of instruction in certain communities where the people predominantly use that language in their homes.

An enlightened policy of state-aid to education, coupled with the munificent bequests of Cecil Rhodes and Alfred Beit has provided Southern Rhodesia with excellent day-schools and boarding-

schools in the towns and in the country.[1] Compulsory education has been supported by ample provision of facilities. Different grades for different classes exist, but it is true that no one need send their children outside the country for the sake of an education suitable to their needs. The general health and vigour of children is a further proof that they do not require to go elsewhere. A change of air and scene for holidays is a different matter and a common need all over the world.

Native servants are plentiful, and employers usually get the service and servants they deserve from "boys" who are very tractable, civil and obliging. Such domestic labour is cheap, so that the home can be run without drudgery.

In the use of his leisure, both in town and country, the settler will find differences from what he is accustomed to only in so far as the reliability of the weather, the nature of the country and his own surroundings determine. He will be more impressed with similarities than differences. Though the rifle is often more used than the gun, and the tiger fish displaces the salmon, yet golf clubs and tennis rackets are the same, and all the usual sports are played. People are sociable and holidays numerous. Even in the country there are plenty of opportunities of coming together and enjoying life.

CHAPTER II

Openings for Settlers

After supplying her own needs the agricultural exports of Southern Rhodesia consist primarily of maize, tobacco, beef and pork, hides, citrus fruit and eggs. On the other hand, she imports slaughter sheep, wheat, fruit and other things from the south. The crops mainly grown, besides these mentioned, include ground nuts and sunflowers, potatoes and sweet potatoes, wheat, barley, oats, millets, cotton, legumes of many sorts and hay crops.

[1] See also pp. 209.

Southern Rhodesia is before everything else a cattle country, the number of cattle to-day approaching two and a half millions. Grazing is usually superabundant. Indeed, heavier stocking, with subdivision and fencing so that the pasture can be more heavily grazed and then completely rested, is the general need. Under existing conditions the spread of epizootics is easy and control correspondingly difficult, but with time and taming, more fencing and strict enforcement of preventive measures, the spread of contagion is being checked and protection rendered more effective. It is only in the remote and lower portions that tropical diseases of man and beast have retarded settlement.

Farming Prospects.

Crops are grown chiefly during the summer rainy season, winter being dry and cool with occasional light frosts. Irrigation is practised only exceptionally. The average soils, without being phenomenally rich, are generally fertile. Good crops are raised, the needs of each having been ascertained by scientific research over many years. The problems remaining for solution to-day are the best use and realization of the crops when grown.

To enable the agricultural settler to form an estimate of his prospects, it is necessary to refer him to works mentioned in the accompanying bibliography, as the subject is altogether too large for adequate treatment here. It must suffice to say that Southern Rhodesia is essentially an agricultural country with pastoral farming as the mainstay and arable farming essential and important. There are many large and small ranches, but the majority of farmers can best be described as following a balanced system with the larger portion of the land under permanent natural grass and a smaller part under intensive cultivation. Entirely arable farms, fruit farms and other specialities do, of course, also occur. There are only something over four thousand farmers in Southern Rhodesia, so that there is plenty of room for more.

Considered purely from the business point of view, the prospects for the man taking up farming in Southern Rhodesia are essentially that of the permanent settler—making a home, making a farm and making a living, all from the grass roots. His aim must

be a fixed life with all his profits going back into the land; a somewhat rough start, a gradual increase in comforts and possessions, responsibilities and rewards, a good life and towards the end of it —if earned—perhaps a time of peace with honour. Great fortune is not to be expected, but good fortune should follow hard work. Prophecy is unsafe; there are some who begin and later on give up. The fault is not always their own, though more often than the failures admit. On the other hand, there are very many who have done well, probably far better than they would have done in any other career.

The traveller through Southern Rhodesia will be impressed by the comfortable homesteads he passes and will notice generally the good condition of buildings, fences, machinery, stock and crops, as he goes by. This is a good criterion of a flourishing farming community. The prosperous far outweigh the failures, who may be judged by dilapidated and neglected farms. There are instances also of extravagance in living. Cars and clothing may give a false impression of prosperity, but such farmers do not last long, and are soon replaced by the more level-headed.

Southern Rhodesia is better suited for the land-owning farmer than for the tenant, and it is not a country for the European farm labourer, the native supplying all the sinew and muscle required and the white man the direction and control, to which end he needs both training and experience.

Acquiring Land.

There are three channels through which the new settler can acquire his land. First, he can buy a ready-made farm or one partially developed, including in the price sufficient reward to the previous owner for his years of work and waiting. Naturally, this means paying a higher price, but on the other hand, such a farm is a going concern and income ought to be immediate. Moreover, it will be in a settled neighbourhood and can be run on tried lines.

Next, the settler will find many land companies or absentee landowners willing to sell vacant farms, probably on deferred terms of payment. This cutting-up process is an indication of progress, and some of the best land in the country was acquired long ago

and held for the increment in value it must ultimately command.

In the third place, there are still some 17,000,000 acres of Crown Land for sale, none in the more settled districts, most, but not all, in the outlying parts. It is of all descriptions, and is to be had on very liberal terms, the object of the Government being to attract increased population rather than to sell at a commercial price. Occupation, either by the owner or by an approved substitute, is therefore a condition of title. Very rarely has this land been in any way improved, though it must be added that the Land Bank usually has a number of partially developed farms for disposal. Besides implying outlay of capital on breaking in new land, erecting buildings as well as purchasing equipment and stock, paying labour, maintaining a household and waiting some years for returns, the life involved is that of a backwoodsman. Even if the price of the land is nominal and payment postponed, yet some capital is required if success is to be achieved. It is by this process that a great many of the successful farmers of to-day have made good, which says much for the soil and climate, the liberality of a sympathetic government, the wise patience of creditors and the sterling quality of the settlers.

To create and maintain a farm until it reaches a productive state demands not only time and brains but also initial capital which must be measured, not in hundreds, but in thousands of pounds; £3000 or £4000—perhaps £5000 or even £10,000. For large ranches even higher capitalization is necessary. It is impossible to be more precise where the possibilities are so wide and so much depends on the individual. It is true that some men have begun with the proverbial sixpence and done well, but it is also certain that with a more adequate start even these prodigies would have done better, whilst many who began with too little lost what they had. Southern Rhodesia is not a place for the peasant but rather for the small capitalist aided by some ability and grit as well.

It is perhaps only right to remind anyone contemplating taking up farming—and this applies not only to Southern Rhodesia—that the present is a critical period for the primary producer in view of low prices of commodities and high costs of requisites. This need not deter him, however, for the obvious fact remains that farmers the world over are going on farming and are being helped to tide

over their difficulties by benevolent governments through the aid of subsidies, relief measures, loans, quotas and other expedients, in the sure belief that recovery must come and that the successful farmer is an essential member of society.

Mining and Industry.

The prosperity of Rhodesia to-day rests principally on gold. Mining in most countries is an affair of companies. That is also the case in Rhodesia, but in addition there is a large class of people, known as the small workers, owning and operating mines which no company could profitably exploit. This gives good openings to men of enterprise, and with the necessary knowledge and means, and for persons in their employment as miners, mechanics and assayers. These small mines scattered over the country also provide ready markets to local farmers. The annual output of minerals including gold, silver, chrome, coal, asbestos, mica and certain rarer metals is in the region of £7,000,000, and engages some 3000 Europeans and 90,000 natives, whilst the total past mineral production of the country approximates £120,000,000, so that the industry may be regarded as important and established.

Enormous as has been the past development in the direction of mining, farming and communications and in the building of half a dozen slumless towns, there still remains scope for the actual pioneer, the prospector and for men in every walk of life. Herein lies much of the attraction of the country for those with the requisite courage and enterprise. This is a land of no unemployment —except voluntarily.

Business and Professional Openings.

There are always openings for those with a knowledge of business, manufactures or trades. The shopkeeper has in the past done extraordinarily well for himself, and there seems no good reason why this should not continue, both in the small retail and native store trade at the one end, or in great departmental stores at the other. Soft goods, hardware, foodstuffs, both solid and liquid, building materials, agricultural requirements and mining plant are all needed, also the luxuries and ornaments desired both by the

white inhabitant and the black. There is still very great room for further development of towns, mines and farms and a demand for the necessities of life as well as the luxuries.

Local industries are as yet limited to those that can reap advantage from proximity to native and European local markets. The interior of Africa lies at the door. Though exports are mainly of mineral or agricultural character, it is interesting to find amongst them manufactures of textiles, earthenware, ales, cement and cigarettes. Trade is expanding by leaps and bounds, and the very great bulk of it is within the Empire, chiefly with the United Kingdom and the Union of South Africa, but also with Australia and Canada. Returns every year show new records, an attractive argument to all who have to make their way in the world.

The professional man of good education and address should have no difficulty in finding occupation, but is well advised to make inquiries in advance as to procedure in his particular line.

The trained man or woman with a definite calling and ability to follow it, whether it be in a black coat or dungarees, is likely to succeed, but here again assurance of a definite post or adequate resources until a post is found is only expedient. The competent craftsman or specialist, however humble, has little to fear from this warning.

It may come as a surprise to be told that Southern Rhodesia has definite attractions for the man of private means, the pensioned or retired class. Yet that such is the case is shown by the presence of a number both of those who have spent their active lives in the country and of those who have come either from the British Isles, or from the tropics to make their homes there, finding the conditions and the climate more congenial than elsewhere.

To any who feel drawn by the idea of settling in Southern Rhodesia the best course is to communicate with the High Commissioner for Southern Rhodesia at Rhodesia House, Strand, London, W.C. Practical frank advice, even if adverse, can be relied on. The position in so young a country is constantly changing, so that it might be misleading to furnish here particulars of the regulations, facilities and the special rates that apply to settlers on first proceeding to Southern Rhodesia.

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SOUTHERN RHODESIA

GENERAL INFORMATION AND STATISTICS

Southern Rhodesia consists of Mashonaland and Matabeleland, and lies between the rivers Limpopo and Zambesi. The area is 150,344 sq. miles. It is part of a vast elevated plateau (3000–6000 ft.). Though lying wholly within the tropics, owing to its elevated situation the climate is healthy everywhere except in some of the low-lying valleys. The climate may be described as temperate for localities over 4000 ft., ranging to sub-tropical for localities under 3000 ft. The mean annual temperature of the central Rhodesian plateau is 66° F., the mean annual maximum being 78° F., and the mean annual minimum 54° F. There are six rainfall zones, with rainfall varying from 21·3 in. to 53·6 in.

Population.—The population (1936) comprises 55,425 Europeans and 1,228,650 natives.

Salisbury is the capital of the colony and is a growing city with substantial buildings and wide streets (pop. 32,784, including 11,386 Europeans). **Bulawayo** (pop. 29,482, including 12,329 Europeans) is the only other large town.

Southern Rhodesia is a great grazing and agricultural region eminently suitable for European occupation. After liberal provision for settlement and land purchases by the natives (amounting to a total of 29,000,000 acres) there remains an area of Crown land unalienated and available for sale equal to 34,966,000 acres.

Government.

Southern Rhodesia up to 1923 was administered by the British South Africa Company. The country having voted for responsible government, it was erected into a Crown Colony, with a Governor and Legislature. The franchise extends to all British subjects over 21 with certain qualifications. Certain subjects are reserved from the scope of the Legislature.

Production and Industry.

Ranching (i.e. the raising of beef cattle) and agriculture are the chief forms of primary production. Cattle fattening for the export trade in chilled beef has made rapid strides since 1933, aided by a subsidy. Maize is the chief crop (266,426 acres), the next in order of acreage being legumes and fodder (88,220), tobacco (41,000), ground nuts (6806). Wheat production shows a steady expansion.

Nearly all kinds of fruit do well and the cultivation of oranges and lemons is very flourishing, 88,700 boxes of citrus fruits being exported in 1936. The dairy industry is of growing importance. In 1936 there were sold 1,656,000 lb. of butter, 1,960,000 gallons of milk, and 430,931 lb. cheese.

Mining and Manufactures.

There are rich mineral deposits in the colony, the rights in which now belong to the Government. Gold is the most important mineral.

A considerable number of local industries have been established. Apart from the large creameries where the dairy products brought in over wide areas are dealt with, there are cotton ginneries, bacon factories, oil and soap works and candle factories, cement works and others.

EXPORTS, 1936

Raw gold	£3,427,715
Tobacco	714,961
Asbestos	959,290
Chrome ore	465,030
Coal	185,662
Maize and maize meal	329,725
Meat	159,770

Communications.

The Rhodesian railway system is a continuation of the Union of South Africa system, and provides communication from Capetown to the Belgian Congo and the port of Beira in Portuguese East Africa. There are several branch railway lines and a good system of road motor services in connexion with the railways. There has been great development of roads and bridges in recent years. There is probably no country in the world with more motor-cars per inhabitant than Southern Rhodesia, where there is one car to every three people.

Cost of Living.

The cost of living is about the same as in England, possibly a little cheaper. Taxation is very low.

Education.

For a small community in a large country education is extremely well provided for. In the towns there are first-rate schools, with boarding houses conducted by the Government. In the rural districts there has been in operation since 1930 a system of country school boarding houses, with the object of enabling parents of small means resident in rural areas to educate their children between 7 and 13 years of age. In these schools the boarding fees vary from a maximum of £30 to a minimum of £15 a year. "Farm schools" and correspondence classes are other means for educating children in outlying districts. Technical and farm training are now well developed.

Training in Local Farming Methods.

The varying conditions of soil, climate, crops, and other matters peculiar to the country, make local knowledge a factor of prime importance in successful farming. The policy of the Department of Lands is to advise all prospective settlers (irrespective of their age or previous experience) to give themselves time thoroughly to learn local conditions before taking any serious steps towards investing their capital. The Department is prepared to arrange for training with well-known established farmers on very reasonable terms, which, as a rule, do not exceed £5 or £6 a month and are merely intended to cover the bare cost of board and lodging. Very often when the prospective settler has learnt enough to be useful, board and lodging are given free, but the Department is not able to guarantee this as it depends entirely on current circumstances. The payment of this small premium is regarded as justifiable, since, until the new settler has learnt something of the management of native labour and the handling of Rhodesian crops, he is a liability rather than a help to the farmer with whom he is placed.

Settlers are generally advised to undergo training for a period of at least twelve months, and in many cases a good deal longer period is advisable.

In many cases no grant of Crown land will be made until the Department is satisfied that the settler has received sufficient training and is capable of satisfactorily developing land with a reasonable prospect of success.

Assisted Passages.

Under the Empire Settlement Act of 1922, the Government of Southern Rhodesia are prepared to give assisted passages to suitable men from Great Britain and Northern Ireland nominated for the purpose of taking up employment on the land.

Office in London.

Particulars of the foregoing scheme, and of all other matters relating to settlement can be obtained from: The Official Secretary, Office of the High Commissioner for Southern Rhodesia, Rhodesia House, 429 Strand, London, W.C.2.

VII. EAST AFRICA

NYASALAND, NORTHERN RHODESIA, KENYA, AND TANGANYIKA

By

MAJOR W. J. CAWTHORN

CHAPTER I

General Survey of Opportunities

In this and the following chapters, the extent to which the territories of Nyasaland, Northern Rhodesia and Kenya lend themselves at the present time to further settlement from the United Kingdom is discussed. The opinions expressed are personal ones, based on a detailed tour of these countries, carried out between April and September, 1935, to assess the prospects they offered for settlement by retrenched officers of the Indian Army. All centres of European settlement were visited, and every opportunity was afforded by both the official and the settler communities for a thorough appraisal of conditions. Subsequently an effort has been made to keep in touch by correspondence and by periodical perusal of the principal East African newspapers.

At the time of the visit, these Colonies were in the depths of the world-wide economic depression from which other countries were then beginning to emerge. There were, however, indications that there also the worst had passed. The signs of improvement then just perceptible have since fully borne out the individual optimism, and confounded the collective pessimism, which were so apparent during the tour. These countries have now begun to share in varying degrees in the general era of prosperity, although their dependence on agricultural production, especially in Kenya and Nyasaland, means that great leeway has still to be made up by many individual settlers.

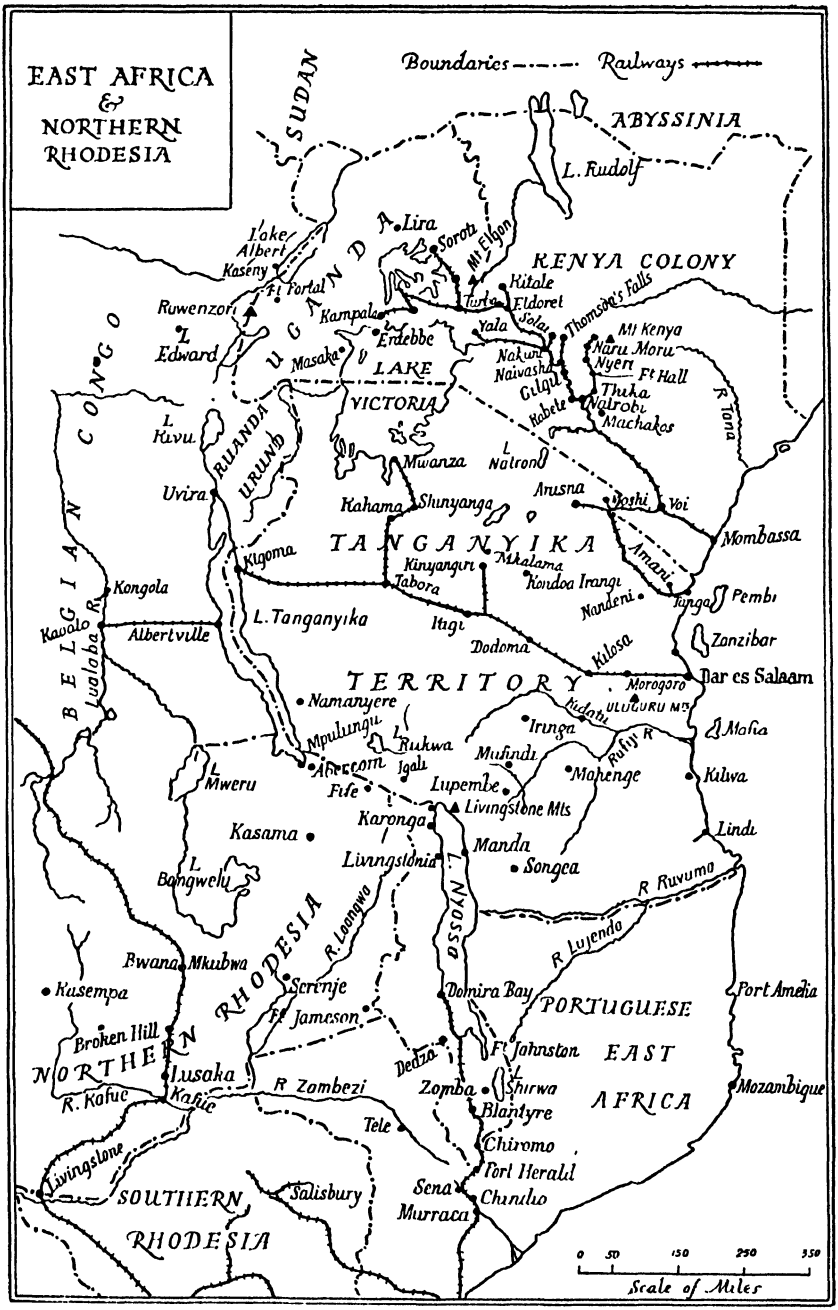
These Colonies have many characteristics in common which make them suitable for further European settlement, but some of which limit both the number of settlers that could be absorbed and their type. In none of them (except possibly in the mining areas referred to in the chapter on Northern Rhodesia) is there any

opening for the migrant without fairly considerable financial resources, nor is there scope for the skilled or unskilled workman or tradesman. Definite openings seem to be limited to some form of agricultural production. The minimum initial resources necessary for reasonable security and a modicum of comfort to start with are, for Kenya and Northern Rhodesia, in the case of a bachelor an income of £200 a year, with about £1000 capital, and for a married man £450 per annum with from £1500 to £2000 capital, or alternatively in each case, sufficient capital to meet living expenses at these rates for at least the first four years. For Nyasaland, where the opportunities for augmenting income are less at present, and which is more suitable for residential settlement on a semi-self-supporting basis, an extra £75 a year for a bachelor and £150 for a married man would be advisable.

Openings Requiring Capital.

Except for the individual with very large capital resources the prospects of making more than a reasonable living or of eventually augmenting an existing income on the above scale by more than £300 to £400 a year are not promising at present. Given the above initial resources and the right personal characteristics, discussed later on, it can be confidently stated that a higher standard of living is possible in any of these countries than the same resources would permit at home, together with a much wider, freer life. Amenities beyond one's financial capacity in the older countries can either be enjoyed or are not there to tantalize with their inaccessibility. The majority of settlers do not feel any lack in this respect.

These countries therefore provide excellent opportunities for members of the professional and middle classes who, on retirement, or with fixed or limited resources, find it increasingly difficult to maintain a certain standard of living in Great Britain or elsewhere. Practically all the present non-official European population is drawn from these classes, either from home or from the older Dominions, while an increasing number of officials stay on as settlers after retirement. There is scope either for purely residential settlement, or for those who wish to augment an existing income and to whom, for this purpose, some form of agricultural production would be


EAST AFRICA & NORTHERN RHODESIA
Boundaries
Railways
SUDAN
ABYSSINIA
L. Rudolf
Lake Albert
Lira
Soroti
Mt Elgon
KENYA COLONY
Kaseny
Ft Portal
Kitale
Eldoret
Turbo
Thomson's Falls
Ruwenzori
Kampala
Jinja
Yala
Mt Kenya
Nakuru
Naivasha
Nyeri
Ft Hall
Gilgil
Thika
Nairobi
Machakos
Masaka
Entebbe
L. Edward
UGANDA
LAKE VICTORIA
Kabete
R. Tana
L. Kivu
RUANDA URUNDI
BELGIAN CONGO
Mwanza
L. Natron
Uvira
Kahama
Shinyanga
Arusha
Voi
Moshi
Mombassa
Kigoma
TANGANYIKA
Kinyangiri
Mkalama
Kondoa Irangi
Amani
Tabora
Nandeni
Tanga
Pemba
Kongola
Kavalo R.
Lualaba R.
L. Tanganyika
Albertville
Itigi
Dodoma
Kilosa
Zanzibar
TERRITORY
Morogoro
Dar es Salaam
Namanyere
Kidodi
ULUGURU MTS
Iringa
Mafia
Mpulungu
L. Rukwa
Rufiji R.
Mufindi
Abercorn
Igali
Mahenge
Kilwa
L. Mweru
Fife
Lupembe
Livingstone Mts
Karonga
Kasama
Manda
Lindi
Livingstonia
Songea
L. Bangweulu
R. Ruvuma
R. Luangwa
NYASSA
R. Lujenda
Bwana Mkubwa
Kasempa
Serenje
Domira Bay
Port Amelia
RHODESIA
Ft Jameson
PORTUGUESE
Broken Hill
NORTHERN
Ft Johnston
EAST
Dedza
Lusaka
R. Zambezi
Zomba
Shirwa
AFRICA
Mozambique
R. Kafue
Kafue
Blantyre
Tete
Chiromo
Livingstone
Port Herald
Salisbury
Sena
Chindio
SOUTHERN RHODESIA
Murraca
0 50 150 250 350
Scale of Miles

congenial. Even residential settlers are able to make themselves self-supporting in many of the essentials of life to an extent not possible on the same income in England, and in this way reduce actual living expenses.

Chances for Young Men.

The scope which these countries offer for the younger man is more difficult to assess. Many of the settlers who were most successful in weathering the depression were men who had settled there at from thirty to forty-five years of age after engaging in other callings elsewhere. Apart from openings in agriculture, nothing very definite can be suggested. In all countries such as these which are in their infancy as regards development, opportunities will occur which can only be seized by the man on the spot. A young man without ties, with no definite opening available for him at home, and with just enough to live on in the meantime, stands a better chance of finding employment than might at first be apparent if he is prepared to go out and seek it. In the Copper Belt in Northern Rhodesia, for instance, even during the depression posts had to be filled from a distance. In none of these countries is any reserve of young men of education, integrity and intelligence available. Without suggesting that there is an immediate opportunity for any numbers in this way, increasing prosperity and expansion, especially in the mining areas, offer possibilities to the enterprising man with the qualities mentioned above. As regards the professions, any increase in settlement or development will obviously present opportunities, but under existing conditions these are limited, the supply having practically filled the demand.

CHAPTER II

Considerations Affecting New Settlement

Nyasaland, Northern Rhodesia and the European Highlands of Kenya lie far from the coast, and all suffer the disability of a long unremunerative rail haul to and from the ports which serve

them. The variety of their products, the fertility of the soil, the high-grade crops, and the cheapness of labour discount this to some extent. Another disadvantage inherent in their geographical position is the lack of any major market nearer than Europe. This involves either a long sea haul round the Cape or expensive dues through the Suez Canal. At present the internal market for primary products is small. Except in the case of supplies to the Belgian Congo mines from Northern Rhodesia, and to Abyssinia from Kenya, there is little scope for export trade elsewhere in Africa. Overhead expenses are heavy in view of the smallness of the export trade and of individual consignments, though recent developments in co-operative handling and marketing, especially in Kenya, are remedying this. The well-established competition of the older Dominions has also to be faced in finding markets abroad.

Both Nyasaland and Kenya possess relatively well-developed systems of internal communications, well ahead of their present economic development. The rates on these and the burden of interest under present financial arrangements tend to hamper the primary producer. In Northern Rhodesia communications and economic development seem to be better balanced from the point of view of present needs.

So far, practically no secondary industries have been developed, though the native population offers a potential market and raw materials abound. Kenya and Nyasaland, and most of Northern Rhodesia, lie within the area covered by the Congo Basin Treaties, under which there can be no customs discrimination against any signatory. In consequence no British preference can be given nor can any benefit be obtained from Customs agreements with adjoining British territories. As Japan is a member of the Convention her competition would have to be faced in starting secondary industries. In spite of these handicaps there appears to be a potential opening for enterprise in developing such industries which might repay investigation by prospective settlers with sufficient capital.

Conditions of Living.

Direct taxation is low, but fairly heavy customs duties combined with high freight charges make imported goods expensive. Local

resources, climatic conditions, and the standard of living are such that it is possible for the settler to keep purchases of imported foodstuffs, building material, &c., to a minimum. Although settlers complain of high indirect taxation, they are undoubtedly much better off in this respect than they would be in almost any other part of the Empire.

Plenty of native labour, both agricultural and domestic, is forthcoming at very cheap rates. With proper handling, supervision and training, it proves economical and on the whole satisfactory. Generally speaking, the domestic servant problem need not present much difficulty once the newcomer grasps the best method of handling servants. This may be summed up as being fair to both sides without being either harsh or weak. It will be many years before the development of the native and the present rate of increase (especially in Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland) bring to a head the question of the ultimate economic, social and political relations between the two races. In view of the native predominance in numbers and the tendency already evident in some of the Colonies for suggestions for legislation to prevent economic competition by them, the new settler should take this factor into consideration.

These countries lie wholly in the tropics, but the conditions usually associated with tropical latitude by no means obtain in the European settled areas. In all cases, altitude and the absence of tropical forests are sufficient to ensure climatic conditions approximating to those of Southern France or Italy, and quite suitable for people of British stock. Children seem to thrive, and statistics indicate that the European population is remarkably healthy. Both medical and lay opinions differ as to the necessity for periodical journeys home or to temperate latitudes at sea-level. There is no doubt that an occasional change of this nature is an advantage and should be taken where possible, especially by children. There are not, however, sufficient grounds for dogmatic statements on this question. Numbers of settlers of all ages who have lived in these countries for very long periods deny the necessity for such changes.

Education.

Considering the paucity of the European population and its dispersion, medical and hospital facilities are sufficient and satisfactory. Tropical diseases such as malaria and other fevers show a decided decrease and need never be acquired provided normal routine precautions are taken and the usual rules of health are followed.

With regard to educational facilities, in Kenya, these are excellent either in Government or private schools up to the secondary standards. In Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia these are available up to the primary standard only, and it is necessary to send children for further education to Southern Rhodesia. There the facilities are both cheap and superlatively good, and it does not cost more than £80 a year, including all fees, clothing and travelling expenses, to educate a child from either of these adjoining Colonies. It is no exaggeration to say that children can be given the equivalent of an English public school education in East Africa for about one-third to one-half the cost entailed at home. A most generous system of scholarships and bursaries at Southern Rhodesian schools is open to pupils from Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia. There are no University or Higher Educational facilities, and for these it is necessary to send students home or to the Union of South Africa. Higher technical education is available in Southern Rhodesia.

It is difficult to dogmatize about the local opportunities for children on completing their education. So far it has been found possible to absorb the comparatively few children who have reached an employable age, but there are indications that, except in an extension of farming, future prospects are not at present very promising in this respect. Considerable increase of population and further economic development are needed to provide adequate opportunity outside farming for the younger generation.

Problems of Government.

It should be remembered by the intending settler that all these territories are subject to some form of Crown Colony Government. While personal relations between settlers and officials are

excellent, there has been much friction between the European communities and the Administrations, especially in Kenya. In all these countries, the Government's primary task under the present system is naturally and rightly the fulfilment of trusteeship for the native inhabitants. This does not always permit the settlers' interests to be considered to the extent the latter would like or that would be feasible with a purely European community. For this reason the Imperial Government is not disposed to concede the settlers' demands for a greater control in local affairs. It is difficult to visualize the settlers' aim of complete self-government ever being realized under present conditions.

With regard to personal characteristics, it is essential that the new settler and his family be adaptable, and prepared, not for hardships or privation, but for a type of life and living conditions different in many respects from those which obtain at home. The differences are not so much material, or matters of physical comfort, as intangible ones which defy definition. An open mind and a willingness to learn from the experience of others are qualities essential to success both in material and social matters. Social distinctions are not pronounced, and financial considerations have but little effect on social status. Settlers are accepted socially for what they are rather than for what they have. Smallness of numbers and evenness as regards social status tend to produce communities closely knit by social ties though fairly widely scattered geographically in large or small groups. There is no feeling of isolation within the groups themselves. Newcomers can count on a hearty welcome and the maximum of assistance.

Recreation and Home Life.

The social and recreational opportunities in general are all that any reasonable man of limited means could wish for and can be utilized very cheaply. Most of the centres have golf-courses and gymkhana clubs to meet both social and recreational needs. From the woman's point of view life is in some respects restricted. Cultural and other amenities available in more advanced countries are lacking, although the advent of wireless and air mail has already led to an improvement. Most settlers' wives seem happy and con-

tent. Native labour removes the drudgery from housekeeping, while the opportunities for gardening are almost unlimited.

The settlers' homes in all these Colonies have an air of permanency and comfort which strikes the visitor at once. The standard of housing and furnishing in places normally considered completely off the beaten track is extremely satisfying. It is difficult to realize that in most cases these homes are the product of local materials (except glass and sanitary fittings, &c.) and native labour, supervised, not by skilled white workmen, but by the settlers themselves, mostly with no previous experience to guide them, beyond advice from established neighbours. It has been amply proved that for £300 to £400 a comfortable and attractive house can be built and furnished anywhere except within the municipal areas of the larger towns.

CHAPTER III

Agricultural Prospects

As already indicated, engagement in some form of primary production seems to be the only definite opening that can be suggested for new settlers in any of these countries. During recent discussions in the Press regarding oversea settlement, the opinion was expressed that the days of profitable agriculture on a small scale in any part of the world are now over. If by " profitable " the making of large sums is implied—or even an income sufficient for the complete maintenance of a family on middle-class standards —then it may be difficult to dispute this statement under present world-economic conditions. If, on the other hand, the object is, at least for a start, merely to augment an existing income by, say, £150 to £300 per annum, this statement requires qualification in the case of Kenya and Northern Rhodesia, and to a lesser extent, Nyasaland. They all appear to offer, in varying degrees and in different ways, opportunities of the above nature. It is not suggested that an income can be augmented at once, or regardless of

certain factors, the principal of which are the personal ones of some natural aptitude for farming and sufficient patience to spend time acquiring knowledge of local conditions. It is proposed to give briefly some of the reasons underlying this opinion.

The following factors all favour to a greater or lesser extent the newcomer interested in farming in any of the areas of European settlement in the East African Territories:

(*a*) Land values, the price of stock, implements, labour are still below normal as a result of the depression. It is fair to say as a generalization that £1000 judiciously expended now would purchase as much as £2000 would have covered ten years ago. (It is also fair to note that the discrepancy is lessening as prosperity returns.)

(*b*) Many settlers failed to survive the long period of depression. Their properties have either reverted to the Crown through the Land Banks, or else have fallen into the hands of the Proprietary Banks or the large Land Companies. In other cases farmers have given up operations, either through lack of further working capital or else to take up mining, &c., and are willing to dispose of their properties for what they can get. Here again it must be noted that the opportunities suggested above are decreasing with the return of prosperity.

(*c*) As a direct result of the depression, improvements in farming methods have led to big cuts in the costs of production.

(*d*) The depression led to rationalization in the agricultural industry in general throughout East Africa. Much closer co-operation has been brought about and the industry tends more and more to organize itself to meet changed economic conditions. Co-operative bulk handling, grading and marketing have all been introduced and have been made compulsory in some cases. Efforts to stimulate Empire consumption of certain crops, e.g. tobacco, coffee, and pyrethrum, have been made with some success. The result is that agriculture in general is in a better position than before to take full advantage of the upward tendency in world markets.

(*e*) Pioneering to discover the agricultural peculiarities of all these territories has been very largely completed by those already there. The newcomer still has a unique opportunity to profit by other people's experience and mistakes.

(*f*) Land Bank and other financial facilities are available to-day on more generous terms and at lower rates of interest than many farmers are paying on capital borrowed in the past from private sources.

(*g*) Agricultural research both in connexion with plants and animals has made great progress in recent years. The farming community rely on and obtain a great deal of technical assistance from the various government departments.

(*h*) A supply of labour that is becoming increasingly experienced and reliable, but which so far is receiving wages far below the comparative economic value of its work, is an asset the importance of which can hardly be overestimated.

(*i*) Natural conditions, soil, climate, &c., produce great agricultural fertility and also allow a very wide range of products to be grown. Many of these products are high-grade ones of which even a small acreage will bring in a fair return for the purposes under discussion. These conditions, combined with a unique labour supply, allow the farmer much more flexibility than is the case in many other agricultural countries. They enable him to switch more readily from one crop to another to meet changes in marketing conditions, &c.

Risks to be Faced.

Against these favourable factors must be set lack of experience, in many cases lack of capital, and in all cases the risks inseparable from agriculture. With regard to risks, the main ones in East Africa are variations in rainfall, insect pests such as locusts, and cattle and plant diseases. Failure of rainfall is not a universal risk as many districts show a remarkable constancy in the amount and distribution of rainfall. Nothing approaching the drought conditions of, say, Australia, seems to be experienced. Locusts come in cycles at long intervals, but research and preventive measures have not only already reduced the danger from such visitations, but offer great possibilities of practically removing the menace altogether. The position as regards plant pests and cattle diseases has improved very much of late years, and it is fair to say that already in many

districts farmers no longer look on them as a constant threat to their operations.

Reference has been made above to the factor of experience. Practical knowledge of agricultural principles is undoubtedly a great asset. Farming conditions and methods in these countries are, however, very different from those obtaining at home or in the older and more temperate Dominions. Many of the crops grown are strange to the farmer from other countries. It seems therefore to be just as necessary for the new settler with previous experience of farming, as for the absolute novice, to spend time acquiring local knowledge. Organization, administration and supervision play a very big part in successful farming operations with native labour. This explains why so high a proportion of the farmers who are still carrying on were not farmers by origin but took up the industry after following other walks in life. Lack of previous experience of farming is not therefore so great a handicap as may appear at first sight. Steps *must*, however, be taken to acquire local experience. Organized arrangements exist whereby the Agricultural Department in Kenya in conjunction with the Kenya Association will place newcomers who wish to gain such experience in touch with suitable farmers. Similar arrangements can be made in Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland through the Agricultural Department in the former and through that Department and the Publicity Association in the latter, or through the East African Dependencies Office in London. Many farmers are willing to take pupils at a small premium *plus* boarding expenses. If possible, the latter portion of the time should be put in as a paid assistant at a nominal wage, as there is no doubt that, beyond a certain stage, more experience is to be gained in that way than as a pupil. Assuming that no time is wasted, at least a year would be required to gain sufficient practical knowledge of local methods and conditions and of the way in which labour is handled, in connexion with any of the forms of agriculture practised. Good powers of organization, ability to handle labour smoothly and with economy, and an open mind, are characteristics even more important, in the first instance, than special knowledge of farming.

Mixed Farming.

Experience in all these countries confirms that for the small farmer some form of mixed farming, in which entire reliance is not placed on one crop or product, is best. The acreage should be enough to allow a certain amount of flexibility and to ensure adequate water and timber supplies, but otherwise should be restricted to the minimum. It is an indication of the basic similarity between all these countries that opinion everywhere agreed regarding the acreage and capital required to fulfil the aim referred to in Chapter I. A farm of between 200 and 700 acres (depending on locality, soil, wood and water, type of crops to be grown, &c.) with capital expenditure of £1500 to £2000 over the first two years was considered to meet requirements. These figures took into account the possession of an income on the scale already mentioned and allowed for interest charges for the first two or three years. Various suggestions as to types of agriculture that might be followed are made in later chapters, and in some cases details have been given as to how the above figures have been arrived at.

Disinterested technical advice is essential before purchase, and the Agricultural Departments, or the Land Bank officials where such banks exist, are only too ready to assist in this way. Each of these Colonies in itself contains so many varieties of country with varying agricultural potentialities and social and recreational facilities, that any intending settler would be well advised to spend some time in visiting each centre of settlement before deciding where to purchase or settle. Arrangements can be made through the various Agricultural Departments, or the Kenya Association in the case of Kenya, for prospective settlers to be accommodated as paying guests at very reasonable rates in each district and for them to be shown round and given full information. For £60 to £80 a second-hand farm truck (Ford or Chevrolet Coupé with a box body) can be purchased; this makes an ideal form of transport for such a tour, which, by avoiding hotels, can be carried out quite cheaply.

CHAPTER IV

Northern Rhodesia

This territory of some 290,000 square miles consists of a table-land varying from 3000 to 4500 ft. in height, except in the Abercorn district near Lake Tanganyika, where the altitude varies from 5000 to 6000 ft. The total European population is about 12,000, and the African natives number about 1,370,000.

The main areas of European settlement are:

(i) Along the railway line from Livingstone to Ndola, as far north as Broken Hill. This is a narrow belt of country running north and south through the centre of the Territory and commonly known as the " Line ". It is the main agricultural area for mixed farming and stock raising. It contains about 260 occupied farms more or less concentrated in various small districts that have grown up around the various railway stations. Each centre has an hotel, one or more stores, some have schools, and all have some recreational facilities. Lusaka is the biggest, and is no longer a village, having become the site of the capital of the Colony, which was transferred from Livingstone in 1935. It includes the nucleus of a very fine city, with ample room for expansion. Broken Hill is mainly a mining centre with very few farms in the vicinity.

(ii) The Ndola district, commonly known as the " Copper Belt ", close to the Belgian Congo Border. This is a mining and commercial district and contains half the European population of the country. Settlement is concentrated in four townships of which three are near the copper mines they serve. The fourth—Ndola—is the commercial and distributing centre. These townships are exceedingly well developed for their age and situation, possess good hotels, banks, shops, cinemas, and have electric light, piped water supply, and automatic telephones. Recreational facilities are well catered for.

(iii) The Abercorn district, which is 993 miles from Livingstone and 526 miles from the railway. This is the highest settled area in

the country. The European population is about 80 adults, the settlers being engaged in coffee growing.

(iv) The Fort Jameson district, which is about 390 miles by road from the railway. It was originally the head-quarters of the British South Africa Company's administration. The total European population is almost 320, most of the settlers being tobacco growers.

As regards the cost of living, foodstuffs that one cannot grow for oneself, and all imported articles of food, clothing, and other personal necessities, are about 50% dearer than in England. On the whole, however, living is cheaper and money goes further than at home. In towns or where there are no facilities for home production of milk, butter, eggs, &c., the average budget for a household of three to four persons, including servants' wages, and a moderate amount of drinks and smokes, is about £300 to £360 a year, the corresponding figures in the country being £200 to £250. Income-tax is very low, a married man paying none on the first £720 of his income per annum.

Prosperity Increasing.

The years of depression very adversely affected the Territory as a whole, and especially the agricultural and pastoral industries. While radical improvement has not yet set in, those settlers who managed to keep going are now reaping the benefit of increased prosperity. The Colony in general is again relatively prosperous, but this is mainly due to the mining industry.

In Northern Rhodesia the Empire possesses what appears, in extent and richness, to be the most valuable known deposits of copper. Exploitation of this wealth has only begun within the past twelve years, and the industry is capable of great expansion. It has played and will play a big part in the settlement and development of the Colony as a whole. This mining area and the adjoining one in the Belgian Congo provide an excellent local market for Northern Rhodesian agricultural produce. Local production does not meet the needs of that market. In 1936, over £70,000 worth of dairy produce, grain, meat, vegetables, &c., all of which could be produced

locally, were imported. This indicates that there is still room for more farmers or for more production from the existing farmers. The margin is, however, not very great. It is improbable that it will ever be an economical proposition to export overseas staple low-grade agricultural products such as maize, wheat or even dairy produce or beef. Export of high-grade crops such as coffee, tobacco, or cotton is, however, a much more feasible proposition.

Apart from agriculture, the only other possible opportunities for employment seem to lie in the Copper Belt. In 1935, in the worst of the depression, when development was at a standstill, there were still occasional vacancies in the mines for European workers. European employees in the mines are well paid, and are employed mainly in supervising and technical work. The average "miner" earns from £60 to £100 a month. Promotion to more responsible and better paid posts goes by merit and practical experience. There is at present no system of theoretical examination for licences. With the recent increase in the market for copper, further development is taking place.[1]

Agricultural Openings.

With regard to openings in agriculture, mixed farming on a small scale along the "Line", tobacco combined possibly with cotton growing at Fort Jameson, or coffee growing at Abercorn are well worth considering by the man who would not at first be entirely dependent for a livelihood on the results of his farming. Notes on the two latter districts, which are considered to offer the best prospects, appear on pp. 240, 243.

The best of the agricultural and pastoral land suitable for European occupation is already alienated. Of the freehold alienated land the bulk of that along the Line belongs to private individuals. That in the Abercorn and Fort Jameson districts, where not already sold by them to settlers, belongs to the British South Africa and North Charterland Companies respectively. In all areas at the present time, land, either developed or undeveloped, could be purchased at very reasonable rates and from these companies on easy terms.

[1] The President of the Chamber of Commerce, Dr. Watson Smith, African General Explosives Ltd., Ndola, N. Rhodesia, would be glad to give information as to local conditions and prospects.

Prices along the Line would be from 5*s.* to £1, 10*s.* an acre, depending among other things on the amount of development already carried out by the vendor.

The only export possibilities are in tobacco from Fort Jameson and coffee from Abercorn, with a potential extra in cotton at the former place. There is a tendency for the market in all three to improve and especially in coffee there appears to be room for expansion. In tobacco there is room for the man who will produce a high-grade product—this demands hard work and constant attention.

Communities already existing are widely separated, but within themselves they are closely knit *socially*. Air and road communications are rapidly breaking down the isolation between communities. Agricultural co-operation is not well co-ordinated on a central basis, and much requires to be done to improve marketing facilities.

The ultimate prosperity of the country, excluding at present Abercorn and Fort Jameson, depends on the mines. If the base metal market improvement continues, the present upward trend in general prosperity will continue. If that market remains stationary, agricultural development will remain stationary too.

Further detailed information can be obtained from the official pamphlet *Northern Rhodesia for the Settler, Sportsman, and Traveller*, which can be obtained from H.M. East African Dependencies Trade and Information Office, Grand Buildings, Trafalgar Square, London, W.C.2. Full information can be obtained by a personal call at this office. Two other publications which, although published some years ago, give a very accurate account of the agricultural conditions are:

Report on the present position of the Agricultural Industry and the necessity or otherwise of encouraging further European settlement in Agricultural Areas. 2*s.*, published 1931.
The Agricultural Survey Commission Report, 1930–2. 7*s.* 6*d.*

Both are obtainable from the Government Printer, Livingstone, Northern Rhodesia.

Intending settlers are advised to get into touch, in the first instance, before their arrival, with

The Commissioner for Land, Mines, and Local Government,
Livingstone,
Northern Rhodesia.

The officials of the Department of Agriculture in Northern Rhodesia are prepared to assist new settlers with advice and information after arrival.

CHAPTER V

Nyasaland

Nyasaland is very fully, accurately, and fairly described in the book *Nyasaland Calling*, issued under government auspices by the Nyasaland Advisory Committee on Publicity in 1935. *A Handbook of Nyasaland* is another official publication which gives a more technical description. Both these are obtainable from the Crown Agent for the Colonies, 4, Millbank, London, S.W.1, or the East African Dependencies Office, Grand Buildings, Trafalgar Square, London, W.C.2, and are well worthy of study by anyone contemplating settlement in the Protectorate.

Neither of these books deals with the opportunities for new settlers who wish to make a living or augment an existing income. In 1935, when the economic depression was at its worst in Nyasaland, the Publicity Committee advised the Government that the Protectorate offered very little, if any, scope at that time for this type of settler. They suggested that existing conditions and the economic outlook made it more suitable for " residential " settlers who had sufficient to live on and who did not want to augment their income. The minimum income required by this type was placed at £650 per annum for a married couple.[1] For such people it is obvious that the Territory is almost ideal.

As regards the other category, it is true that the local or adjoining markets for farm produce are very limited, the European population being only 1800, and that there are no secondary industries. But an examination of present economic tendencies shows that, in spite of the setbacks due to the recent economic depression, and the incubus of railway debt and high railway rates, Nyasaland is capable of agricultural development on an extensive scale. It also suggests that, in spite of the Committee's opinion of 1935, there are now opportunities for some increase in the number of white settlers desirous of augmenting their resources. This conclusion

[1] It may be added that a Nyasaland Officer of 17 years' residence considers this figure to be unduly high.

arises from a number of apparently contradictory factors which will now be briefly mentioned.

Nyasaland differs markedly from Northern Rhodesia and Kenya in the density of the native population on the one hand, and the paucity of the Europeans on the other. The relatively small area and steadily increasing native population make it obvious that the Protectorate will never become a white man's country of the type of the Union of South Africa or even of Southern Rhodesia. There does not seem to be any tendency such as is becoming evident in neighbouring territories, for economic competition between the two races to develop. It is recognized that a high-grade European population, mainly consisting of planters, is essential in the interests of the country as a whole.

Cotton and Tobacco.

It is in cotton and tobacco and in the production of other high-grade crops such as essential oils, tung oil or citrus fruits, that opportunities for the newcomer lie. The Government's policy is to increase native production of exportable crops, mainly tobacco and cotton, as a means of increasing native wealth. Partly owing to this and partly through economic stress, the existing European planters tended to become middlemen, buying, grading or ginning in the case of tobacco or cotton respectively, and ultimately shipping, the natives' produce. There has been an increasing tendency for the planter to reduce his own direct production and to increase that of his native tenant farmers. In most cases the landowner provides the seed, supervises the operations of his tenants, and buys their produce at rates which, while they give a satisfactory return to the native, are much below the average cost of direct production by Europeans.

For the disposal of tobacco and cotton grown on Crown lands or native holdings (the source of the great majority of that exported), Government has established markets in each district. European buyers attend and purchase the crops, either on their own behalf or on commission for exporting firms. This system is as yet in its infancy, and there will be increased scope as native production increases.

At the same time the market for high-grade flue-cured tobacco, which native production cannot fill, is improving. This can be produced in Nyasaland under almost ideal conditions by European planters. It is thus possible for a planter in a small way to run his own estate (say of 500 acres), producing small acreages of two or perhaps three of the export crops already mentioned, be self-supporting in farm produce, and to take part-time employment in connexion with the purchase and disposal of native crops as described above.

Although no more land may be alienated by Government to Europeans on either long leasehold or freehold terms, considerable areas were alienated in the past, by the Crown, as freehold, mainly to large companies. It is from these companies, or from private landowners willing to sell, that the newcomer desirous of securing freehold land, or of leasing on long terms, must obtain his requirements.[1]

Cost of Land.

Estates of about 500 acres, complete with tobacco barns or other suitable outbuildings, could be leased at from £100 to £175 per annum, or purchased freehold for £1250 to £1500. Houses on these estates can be leased with any desired acreage. The following quotations give some idea of current rates:

On a rental basis:

Dwelling house with 1 acre ..	.. £50 per annum.
Single tobacco barn	.. £5 per annum.
Land as required per acre ..	.. 1*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* per annum.

[1] Two companies still trading in Nyasaland and having land available are The British Central Africa Company Ltd. (General Manager J. Kay Nicol, Esq., Limbe), and Blantyre and East Africa Ltd. (General Manager W. Tait Bowie, Esq., Blantyre).

A large number of vacant estates in various localities and in various stages of development are available for lease or purchase. Many of these have been idle for some time, so that, although the buildings may require considerable renovation in some cases, the land has been properly rested. The major repairs to buildings would probably be done by the vendors if freehold purchase or lease for more than 5 years was intended. These estates are suitable for various purposes, depending on locality, &c., and there is a very wide choice available. Many of them are very conveniently situated as regards nearness to Blantyre or Zomba, and to communications from the point of view of disposal of produce.

Purchase freehold

500 acres, with dwelling house, 16 barns and grading shed, 13 miles from railway £1000
(A private vendor, tobacco).

As a rough guide, freehold land varies from £1 to £3 per acre, according to situation and acreage. Fifty acres, selected primarily as a residential plot, with water and timber can be purchased in the Cholo district for £3 per acre (10 to 12 miles from Limbe).

Many people think that the pendulum is beginning to swing in the direction of an increase in direct production by Europeans, as suggested above, and that now is the opportunity to bring many of these estates again into cultivation.

Openings for large numbers do not exist, and certain natural qualifications and aptitude cannot be dispensed with. Given these, prospects in Nyasaland are as good as they would be anywhere else without some definite employment for a man with just enough to live on while he becomes established on an estate of this type. As an indication of the working capital required, to plant and prepare for marketing 60 acres of flue-cured tobacco on one of the leased farms referred to would cost about £500 including rent. Details approximate very closely to those given in the notes on the Fort Jameson area in Northern Rhodesia (p. 240). It would be essential here, as elsewhere, first to gain practical experience and some knowledge of local conditions and the handling of labour.

The Protectorate offers scope for making a home in a very pleasant and attractive countryside, with good and cheap social and recreational facilities. The climate on the whole is healthy and suits people of British stock. Living conditions are easy and pleasant, and relatively low in cost. Children can live healthily and be educated up to the age of ten or eleven. To complete their education they must be sent out of the country. This can be done efficiently and cheaply by utilizing the facilities offered by the neighbouring colony of Southern Rhodesia. Economically there are prospects for a limited number of new settlers to augment an income.

CHAPTER VI

Kenya

The attractions of Kenya and the opportunities it offers have been widely advertised for many years, with the result that the Colony is much better known to the general public than either Nyasaland or Northern Rhodesia. It has a bigger white population (about 18,000) which is distributed throughout the relatively small area known as the White Highlands. Apart from a native population of some 3,000,000, there are about 34,000 inhabitants who are of Indian birth or descent, and who, from the point of view of the European settler, the native, and the administration, add to the complexity of the political, economic and social problems which beset Kenya. Indians provide the bulk of the clerical and skilled labour and of the retail shopkeepers. They occupy economically an intermediate position between the African native and the European. European competition with the Indian is slowly increasing, especially in mechanical and motor engineering and in retail trade in the towns. Opportunities for Europeans in this respect are, however, still very limited.

The African native provides all the unskilled labour. Although the bulk of them are perhaps more backward than in the other two colonies, there is a bigger sprinkling of " politically minded " natives in Kenya, where there is in consequence somewhat more of a " native problem ", both actual and potential. It is not at present in any way a serious one.

Climatically and from the point of view of healthiness for Europeans, the Colony needs no recommendation. Socially the European population is more highly organized, and there are perhaps more amenities than in Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia. Publicity of the wrong sort, as harmful as it is untrue and malicious, has given rise to the impression that Kenya is a rich man's country. Actually it is no different from any of the other newer colonies in the capacity for work and normality of life of the settler community

as a whole. People work hard and those who have time play hard.

In Kenya as elsewhere expenditure on petrol and drinks is the factor that really determines the individual cost of living. Living can be very cheap, but on the other hand, there are more facilities for spending money on social activities than in the neighbouring colonies. Living expenses in Nairobi are about the same as they would be at home. By living outside the towns, either on a farm or an allotment big enough to support them in milk, butter, eggs, vegetables, &c., a married couple should be able to keep household expenditure, including servants and garden, with a reasonable amount of petrol, drinks and social activities, at about £250 per annum. In some cases married people live simply but quite well on £150 a year and still enjoy life.

Opportunities in Industry.

As regards its economic position, Kenya is essentially an agricultural country, with a gold-mining industry of uncertain potentialities in process of development, but not yet influencing the economic position of the country to any marked extent. Although hit very severely indeed by the world depression, Kenya is now well on the way to recovery with the rise in the prices of the many and varied primary products it produces.

There are very few secondary industries. There seem to be considerable openings for the development of manufactures of local raw material. A recent Committee on Economic Development drew attention to the following possibilities:

Canning of fruit, vegetables and meat.
Manufacture of leather, shoes and sandals, belting.
Egg and milk preparations.
Manufacture of rope, string, matting and sacks.
Preparation of insecticides.

Quite a fair-sized industry could be built up in providing local needs for some of these articles.

As regards opportunities in the gold-fields, in Kenya, as in other young colonies with a mining industry undergoing development, there are openings for the right man if he is on the spot.

Mining companies in some cases hold exclusive prospecting licences over large areas still to be examined. They sometimes have difficulty in finding suitable men of education, intelligence and some topographical knowledge. Such men can rapidly acquire enough practical geological knowledge to make them useful as prospectors. Other mining companies occasionally need men for secretarial or administrative posts.

Crops for Export or Local Markets.

Agricultural opportunities are as good as, if not better than, in Northern Rhodesia and certainly better than in Nyasaland, if only because of the bigger local market and the better state of organization as regards marketing and export. Some form of mixed farming on a small but intensive scale with dairying as a basis is generally recommended. In the higher altitudes more and more attention is being paid to the production of essential oils and to the growing of pyrethrum (a plant whose flowers form the most important ingredient of many insecticides and sprays and which grows exceptionally well in Kenya). Both these crops are of particular interest to the settler who is desirous of augmenting an income without the responsibility and risk of farming on a larger scale.

Full details of the farming prospects in each district are given in the various pamphlets referred to at the end of this chapter. These can be relied on as accurate and devoid of exaggeration. There is very little to choose between the districts in which settlement is possible. They are, however, sufficiently varied in every way to meet all tastes and requirements. An intending settler should see them all before he decides where to settle, and should then spend at least a year gaining practical experience as close as possible to the farm he chooses. Kenya is a land of such variety that literally each farm needs individual study and adaptation of methods to a much greater extent than in other agricultural countries.

As an alternative to taking up farming on a serious scale, small holdings of from 10 to 50 acres in the vicinity of a town or in a settled district offer possibilities. On these a settler could become self-supporting and grow produce for the local market or a small

acreage of some export crop. Notes on the financial outlay required for both these types of settlement are given on p. 247.

With regard to land, most of that suitable for settlement has already been alienated by Government. Large areas are in the hands of private owners or companies some of whom are merely speculators holding for appreciation, while others are actually farming parts of their property. Many farmers who find they have too much land wish to dispose of small or large holdings. In addition, many farms have fallen into the hands of the Banks, who are keeping some of them on a care-and-maintenance basis and are working others through managers. There are plenty of developed and undeveloped farms for sale. Recent experience shows that by negotiation prices asked can usually be reduced by at least 25%, or more if cash is offered. Should private purchase be contemplated, independent advice should be sought before a decision is arrived at. Officials of the Agricultural Department or of the Land Bank can be relied on for this, and the Kenya Association can also assist. Although there is, comparatively speaking, not much good Crown land still available, there are attractive portions suitable for small mixed farming, especially in the Thompsons Falls, Gilgil and Kitale districts. Details of land available and the terms on which it can be acquired and also of the facilities provided by the Government Land Bank can be obtained on reference to the Kenya Association in Nairobi and the Kenya Agent in London, whose address is given below.

The Kenya Association.

No account of opportunities in Kenya, however brief, would be complete without reference to the Kenya Association (1932) and the work it is doing. This is best explained by the following extract from a recent annual report. The Association is recognized by and works in close co-operation with the Kenya Government, which has, practically speaking, delegated to it the task of increasing white settlement in Kenya. The virility and optimism of the existing settlers, the natural and potential economic advantages of the country and the congeniality of climate and people are all factors which weigh heavily in favour of such settlement.

"We are an organization of persons who, believing in the country, give our time freely and gratuitously to assist in introducing men and women of the right type into Kenya. We do not buy or sell land. We try and encourage people to come and see our country for themselves by letting them know what we have to offer. We give them a hand of welcome on arrival at the coast. We help them to visit districts, and we guarantee them disinterested advice."

The Association is represented in Mombasa by the Express Transport Company, who make all arrangements regarding clearing baggage and onward dispatch at reduced rates for settlers or visitors who come out under the ægis of the Association.[1] At Nairobi visitors are met by the Secretary and given every assistance, whether they are intending settlers or tourists.

CHAPTER VII

Tanganyika

Although unable to speak from first-hand knowledge, the writer has no doubt that as regards suitability for white settlement, there is a great similarity in natural characteristics and resources between the Highlands of Tanganyika and the Highlands of the other East African territories. Tanganyika, though less well-known in Great Britain, and not perhaps commonly regarded as suitable for permanent British settlement, seems to offer, on a more limited scale at present, similar opportunities. These have been very well described and appreciated in a pamphlet called *Tanganyika*, issued by Southern Highlands Estates Ltd., of which Lord Chesham is Chairman. In the various chapters of this article, reference has been made to the drawbacks affecting white settlement in the other territories—

[1] The Association is represented in London by Colonel C. F. Knaggs, Kenya Agent in England, C/o H.M. Eastern African Trade and Information Office, Trafalgar Square, London, W.C.2. The address of the office of the Association in Nairobi is P. O. B. 825, Sadler Street. The Secretary will welcome any inquiries from individuals who are thinking of visiting Kenya in any capacity.

lack of markets, possible glut of production, lack of capital for development, difficulties of gaining experience and need of expert advice. Lord Chesham's scheme aims at eliminating these by co-operative methods, without hampering individual effort, and by limiting the number of settlers to the economic absorptive capacity of the estate. His scheme is well worth consideration. The introductory article on " White Settlement in Africa " in the pamphlet corroborates the impressions that a visit to East Africa gave the writer of the advantages offered to the retired man, or to the younger man with a small income and some capital. *Tanganyika Guide*, published in 1936 by the Government of the territory, gives very detailed information about conditions of living and resources.

Inquiries may be addressed to H.M. Eastern African Dependencies, Grand Buildings, Trafalgar Square, London, W.C.2.

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* North Kenya District Pamphlet.
* *Kenya the Land to live in.* Nairobi Pamphlet.
* *Land and Land Conditions in the Colony and Protectorate of Kenya* (an official publication).
* *Retirement, why not in Kenya?* (published by the East Indian Association of Kenya).

* Obtainable also from Kenya Association 1932, P.O. Box 825, Sadler St., Nairobi, Kenya.

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3. List of useful books.

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GENERAL INFORMATION AND STATISTICS

NORTHERN RHODESIA

NOTES ON THE FORT JAMESON DISTRICT

Situation and Access.

Fort Jameson is the centre of a district about 50 miles across in the S.E. corner of Northern Rhodesia. Both in characteristics and economically it pertains to Nyasaland rather than to Northern Rhodesia, from the remainder of which it is very isolated, being about 400 miles from the nearest railhead (Lusaka). It is a well laid out township with wide and good roads and substantial brick houses. There is a fully equipped hospital, a small private (elementary) school, several stores, a bank, and a club and golf course.

The commercial outlet is by road to Selima in Nyasaland (165 miles of good road with a lorry service for passengers and goods twice weekly), thence by rail to Beira (500 miles). The present rate for tobacco from Fort Jameson via Beira to London is £22, 4*s.* a ton. The district is well served by good earth roads, and an airport is in process of construction.

Climate and Living Conditions.

The district appears to be a healthy one. The rainfall varies from 30 to 40 in. The mean maximum temperature in the hot months is 92° F.

and the mean minimum 67° F., the corresponding figures for the cold months being 77° and 52°. The average altitude is about 3500 ft. Lake Nyasa is about 170 miles away by good road, and offers excellent holiday facilities in the form of fishing, bathing, boating.

Most settlers are self-supporting in milk, butter, fruit, eggs and vegetables. The cost of living on farms seems to be very low—the average figure quoted for household expenses for a married couple was £200.

Labour is plentiful and cheap and with supervision fairly efficient. Unskilled labour gets 7*s.* to 9*s.* per month, including rations, semi-skilled and skilled from 10*s.* to 30*s.*

Tobacco Estates.

Estates vary in size from 1000 acres upwards. The economic acreage of tobacco for one man appears to be about 60 acres. Allowing for rotation, resting land, and for wood supplies for curing tobacco, about 1000 to 1500 acres seems to be ample for the small grower. There are many estates available for sale or lease, in varying stages of development and repair, at prices varying from 5*s.* to £1 an acre. Some of these estates are privately owned, but many belong to the North Charterland Exploration Co. (1910), Ltd. The company also has estates which have been worked and are now unoccupied, and others which are still being worked, which they would sell or lease.

Most of the private estates are being offered at very low prices indeed, and as a generalization one should be able to purchase a suitable property, with house and buildings in fair order, for from £600 to £1200, depending on size and location. Disinterested advice before purchase would be essential: such advice is available locally. There is an officer of the Agricultural Department stationed at Fort Jameson, who is willing to advise intending settlers, while reference may also be made to:

E. TAYLOR, Esq.,
Kapara, Fort Jameson.

The latter is a retired civil servant and one of the most successful local settlers. He has been twenty-three years in the district and has offered to give every assistance in the choice of land, &c. The manager of the North Charterland Co. (J. V. Bruce, Esq., Fort Jameson) and his estate manager (Mr. R. Taylor) are also prepared to assist.

Capital Required.

Estimates of the capital required to make a reasonable start on new land indicate that with an income of £500 a year, about £700 additional would be required for the first year, apart from the cost or rent of land. If the latter is bought on easy terms an extra £80, say, would be required. The North Charterland Co. supply animals, farm plant, &c., and are prepared to allow easy terms for their purchase.

The following estimate was based on actuals. Cultivation figures are

higher than the average (about £4, 10s. per acre), but the grower who gave the figures stressed the wisdom of spending generously on this item:

	£
Building brick house with thatched roof	250
Furnishing house	75
20 bullocks at £4	80
Plough, cultivators, &c.	60
Four tobacco barns at £40	160
Grading and bulking shed	80
Stumping and clearing 50 acres at £1	50
Hoes and other tools	30
Cultivation, harvesting and curing, &c., for 40 acres of tobacco at £5, 10s.	220
Living expenses (man and wife)	200
Total	£1205

By leasing a property much of the above capital expenditure would be avoided and expenses might be:

	£
Rent	100
Cultivation, &c.	220
Living expenses	200
Repairs, &c., say	100
Total	£620

Average Tobacco Yield.

Average yields with good cultivation seem to be about 450 lb. of saleable tobacco per acre. Prices are low. In 1935 one of the best growers in the district sold his crop ungraded at 7½*d*. per lb. on the estate. Allowing for grading this represents 8*d*. Probably the average price realized that year was about 7*d*. In 1936 the average was about 9½*d*. per lb. On the above basis (bed-rock selling prices and outside figures in costs) 40 acres would bring in about £150 to £200 a year profit to augment income.

Quota Agreement.

Under customs agreements with the Union and Southern Rhodesia, the district is allowed an annual quota of 500,000 lb. which finds an assured market in those territories. This quota is divided equally among the growers in the district who at present number 62, as against some 200 in 1929–30. The balance of the crop either goes to London and takes its chance on the market, or, as has happened in some cases recently, is bought up on the spot by brokers who have again begun to come out annually from home to purchase in this district.

Good Leaf Required.

To maintain the market, and to improve prospects for the grower, over-production of inferior leaf must be avoided. Local growers stressed the fact that they thought there was room for more production of good leaf, and that depends—apart from the chances of the season—on personal care and supervision. Thus they want settlers who will take trouble, and are willing to work. I was asked to stress this particularly, as, without

this factor and a realization that tobacco, while a pleasant crop to grow, is an exacting crop, failure is certain under present conditions.

Prospective settlers are advised to arrive in July or August and to live with an established grower during at least one growing season to learn the work.

NOTES ON THE ABERCORN AREA

Situation and Climate.

This district is situated at the S.E. end of Lake Tanganyika, the town itself being 26 miles from the Lake by a good motor road. The commercial outlet is by road (26 miles) to Port Mpulunga on the Lake, thence by Lake steamer to Kigoma (fortnightly service), thence by rail to Dar-es-Salaam. All-in costs to London average 1*d.* per lb. on coffee consignments of over one ton.

The altitude varies from 2500 ft. (the lowest coffee estates) to 6000 ft., the bulk of settlement being from 4000 to 5000 ft. The country is very well watered by perennial streams and there are good facilities for irrigation. Scenically the district is very attractive, while the proximity of the Lake offers unique facilities for fishing, boating, &c. The town, though very small, is provided with the usual amenities. The rainfall averages 41 in. per annum. There are two seasons:

Wet: October to April, with the bulk of the rain December to March.
Dry: May to September.

In the hottest months (October and November) maximum temperatures rarely go beyond 90° F., the average maximum being 80°, with minimum ranging from 50° to 60°. In the coldest months (June and July) the maximum ranges from 60° to 80°, and the minimum from 44° to 56°.

Living Conditions.

All the settlers have their own vegetable gardens and orchards, and mostly produce their own milk, butter, eggs, &c. English vegetables do very well and all varieties including celery can be grown. The usual tropical and sub-tropical fruits, including bananas, mangoes, grenadillas, paw-paws and citrus are successfully grown. Stone fruits and apples and pears grow well in some localities on the higher parts of the plateau. Berry fruits, especially strawberries, do very well.

It is advisable to keep a herd of cows both for one's own dairy requirements and to ensure a supply of manure which is used in making the compost which is essential to successful coffee growing in this area.

Cost of Labour.

Labour is plentiful and cheap, but requires supervision for efficient results. Monthly wages vary from 8*s.* to 10*s.* per month for ordinary labourers, including ration allowance. Skilled and semi-skilled labour for building, carpentry, making furniture, &c., is easily procurable, rates varying from 15*s.* to 50*s.* per month. House servants total about five and should not cost more than £3 a month.

Land for Coffee Estates.

The average estate is of about 500 acres. This allows up to 50 to 60 acres of coffee, the rest being utilized for grazing, firewood, &c. It is not economical to buy more than this acreage as a rule. Land can be purchased freehold from the British South Africa Company, who quote prices varying from 7*s.* 6*d.* to 22*s.* 6*d.* per acre according to quality, situation, water supply, &c. The company will sell on easy terms, usually twelve years, but this is a matter of negotiation, as is also the price per acre. I gather that it is usually feasible to come to a satisfactory arrangement about both price and terms. The company have surveyed a large area and split it up into farms, and have had them reported on and valued.

Advice to Settlers.

An officer of the Agricultural Department is stationed at Abercorn and runs an Experimental Station. He is most willing to advise settlers. New settlers can also rely on the maximum of assistance and advice from other residents. Coffee being a single crop, and taking some three to four years to mature, it is easier perhaps to learn the essentials as one goes along than is the case with other branches of agriculture, where results are more immediate. Disinterested advice is essential in the preliminaries—selection of land, site for plantation, house, &c., method of irrigation, planting, and so on.

Working Costs.

The following estimate has been worked out to indicate roughly the capital and recurring expenditure involved in setting up a plantation of 30 acres. It was worked out by the Agricultural Officer, who has had several years' experience of Abercorn, and I have confirmed his figures by reference to actual settlers. The figures are based on actuals, but have in most cases been put at the maximum or even overestimated to allow for lack of experience, &c.

The estimate has been limited to planting a total of 30 acres, as it is felt that this will meet the requirements of the settler who does not wish to tie himself down to a full-time job, but at the same time wants a serious hobby which will pay for all his living expenses and possibly supplement his private income or pension. The working of such an estate will allow for a certain amount of leisure for social life and for recreation available locally—boating, fishing, shooting, golf, tennis, &c. It should also allow a saving to be made each year, after the estate is established, so that a holiday trip of six months or so could be taken every three or four years, the estate being left in charge of a competent native *capitao* under the supervision of a neighbour. On the other hand, if after the second or third year the settler thinks it worth while, and wishes to make a commercial proposition of his estate, he can do so, the experience gained during the first two or three years with a small acreage standing him in good stead.

It must be remembered that coffee in the Abercorn area is still to some extent in the experimental stage. The estates opened in 1931 to 1933 are now showing returns, but there is no data on which to base a forecast as to how long trees will continue in full bearing. In 1934 the two

biggest consignments were sold at an all-over average of £91 and £84 per ton respectively, whereas two smaller lots on the open market realized only £83 to £70 per ton. With increased shipments and organized marketing better and more constant prices should be obtained. Yields in 1935 varied from 500 to 1000 lb. per acre.

ESTIMATE FOR A SMALL COFFEE PLANTATION OF 30 ACRES

	£	£
1st Year—		
Cost of land [1]		500
Buildings, &c.—		
House and furniture [2]		400
Farm buildings—		
Store and office	50	
Compound and kraal	30	
Roads	10	
Irrigation	30	120
Cattle—		
8 cows and 1 bull		50
Implements and tools—		
Hoes, axes, building tools		60
Motor-car		220
Preparation of land—		
Stumping, clearing, and holing 15 acres at £2 per acre	30	
Marking and anti-erosion	15	
Preparing lands for shelter belts	15	
Nurseries, vegetable garden and orchard	22	
Seeds and trees	13	
Miscellaneous	5	100
Total first year		£1450
2nd Year—		£
Implements and tools		15
Labour:		
Planting 10 acres.		
Weeding.		
Irrigating.[3]		
Mulching.		
Compost.		
Herding		150
Stumping and preparation of 10 acres		20
Nurseries, vegetable garden and orchard		20
Total second year		£205
3rd Year—		£
Implements		15
Repairs to buildings, &c.		10
Labour as per second year, planting 10 acres and stumping 5 acres		150
Nurseries and garden		15
Total third year		£190

[1] Land can be bought on 12 years terms.

[2] A very comfortable 5-roomed house, thatched or tiled, with cement floors, can be built for this sum with veranda, bathroom, pantry, stores, &c. If a tin roof, add £100.

[3] 15 to 20 men at 8*s*. to 10*s*. per month.

4th Year—

	£
Implements, including coffee pulper and plant	45
Labour for planting 10 acres, mulching and weeding 20 acres	165
Garden	15
Fertilizers	30
Miscellaneous	5
Total fourth year	£260

5th Year—

	£
Labour as in fourth year plus an extra ten acres mulching and picking	200
Fertilizers	30
Total fifth year	£230

Income fifth year—
10 acres, say 1½ tons.
10 acres, say ½ ton.
Say 2 tons at £50 per ton = 100.[1]

6th Year—

	£
Labour as in fifth year	200
Extension to coffee factory	30
Fertilizers	30
Repairs, &c.	20
Total sixth year	£280

Income sixth year—
10 acres, say 2½ tons.
10 acres, say 1½ tons.
Say 4 tons at £50 a ton = £200.

7th Year—

	£
Labour as in fifth year	200
Fertilizer	50
Total seventh year	£250

Income seventh year—
20 acres, say 5 tons.
10 acres, say 1½ tons.
Say 6½ tons at £50 a ton = £325.

By buying land on easy terms and utilizing quite comfortable huts of sun-dried brick as temporary quarters, the first year's outlay could be reduced to about £410, exclusive of a motor-car.

[1] Price of coffee taken at £50 on farm, equal to £66 in London. This is a very low figure. Average for Abercorn coffee over last five years has been £84 in London.

KENYA

Examples of Costs, etc., in connexion with Land Settlement

EXPENDITURE REQUIRED FOR A MIXED FARM, WITH DAIRYING AS A BASIS IN A SUITABLE DISTRICT WITH GOOD RAINFALL

	£
Land (say 500 acres at £1 per acre or smaller area of better land at higher cost)	500
Cattle dip	80
Fencing	100
Buildings (barns, milking shed, dairy, &c.)	100
Tools and implements	120
Twenty oxen	60
Forty cows (grade cows of good average quality)	200
Bull	50
Poultry	25
Sundries	100
Labour (on development)	150
House	300
Furniture	100
Total	£1885

The above could be reduced by starting with a smaller herd and gradually building up a dairy herd for oneself.

ESTIMATE BASED ON ACTUALS AT RECENT PRICES OF ANNUAL RETURN FROM 10 COWS

	£
Cream (an average of 100 lb. per cow at 60 cents. Five heifers. Bulls destroyed or sold for veal)	30
Calves	15
Gross Total Return	£45

Expenses—	£	s.	d.
Depreciation	5	0	0
Labour	5	0	0
Dipping	1	10	0
Medicines, &c.	1	10	0
Transport for cream	1	5	0
Cattle licks	1	5	0
Extras	2	5	0
Total expenses	£17	10	0
Net profit	£27	10	0
	on 10 cows.		

By paddocking and intensive farming, up to 100 cows and their heifers could be maintained in a year of average rainfall on a farm of the scale mentioned, but the average would probably be about 80.

ESTIMATE OF EXPENDITURE REQUIRED FOR A SMALL HOLDING

(Based on figures in the Transnzoia district near Kitale where land is perhaps cheaper than near other centres)

	£
Land (about 50 acres)	200
House (brick or stone, 6 rooms with extras)	500
Furniture	100
Garden and orchard (3 to 4 acres well fenced)	25
Fencing for paddocks	10
Eight cows for home supply	40
Poultry and appliances	10
Tools and implements	60
Outhouses	30
Stabling and labour huts	20
Sundries	25
Total	£1020

Both the National Bank of India, and the Standard Bank of South Africa, Ltd. (the two banks operating in Kenya) have some excellent properties for disposal. The Nairobi managers of both these banks would be pleased to give any inquirers who call on them information regarding these properties and would arrange for them to inspect them.

Office in London.

All information on matters relating to Nyasaland, Northern Rhodesia, Kenya and Tanganyika can be obtained from H.M. Eastern African Dependencies' Trade and Information Office, Grand Buildings, Trafalgar Square, London, W.C.2.

VIII. OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN

By

Commissioner DAVID C. LAMB, C.M.G., LL.D.,
The Salvation Army

Opportunities for Women

Early in 1937 arrangements were made for a survey to be undertaken by a number of experienced Salvation Army officers throughout the Dominions of the British Empire to ascertain the possibilities in regard to migration and settlement. The surveys have now been completed, and the Reports are being carefully studied here in London. In due course the gist will be submitted to the Government authorities. The Reports are voluminous, totalling over 3000 foolscap pages, reporting interviews with over 2000 persons, and representing over 25,000 miles of travel.

From a preliminary examination of these Reports as they affect women one thing emerges, and that is that the opportunities for women are not unlike those existing in pre-War days. Following the economic blizzard which struck the world a few years ago, the tide of migration ceased; indeed, the number of migrants returning to the Old Land exceeded for the first time in history the number emigrating. Curiously enough, however, in the thousands thus affected the number of single women returning appeared to be negligible, and those who did return came home for family reasons. It was in order that we should be up-to-date and well-informed in framing our policy for the future that the exhaustive survey to which I have referred was undertaken.

Women's Place in the Empire.

Two important factors face the women in the British Isles today when they contemplate seriously their own future and consider the responsibilities of Empire. It does not matter what may be their walk in life, they must face the questions which arise. I will propound the questions and then try to answer them:

Firstly and generally. There are now over 2,000,000 more women than men in the United Kingdom. This is not a condition

calculated to promote the best interests of the sex. It means desperate competition in social life and industrial effort, especially as there are now more women workers in this country than ever before. Will their opportunities of employment or marriage be as favourable as under the old conditions?

In many parts of the Overseas Dominions a different problem arises. It is an undisputed fact that the progress of Canada, Australia, New Zealand and other parts of the British Empire has been hindered by lack of an adequate female population. The great need of the Dominions is homes—thousands of homes: Christian homes, and these can only appear when women are there in sufficient numbers to take their proper place in the shaping of the Empire's destiny. Look, for instance, at the beautiful State of Queensland—much of it sub-tropical and rich in natural resources of all kinds. The white population is less than 1,000,000, and the men outnumber the women by nearly 50,000. We can never hope to hold or develop the Empire with such a maldistribution of the population.

Secondly, and more personally: What am *I* to do? asks many a woman when she looks forward to her future. She is confronted with a dual question which she herself raises and which cannot be answered lightly. (It applies equally to men.) Here it is: in the Homeland, though I have to face the competition which arises from the conditions existing here, I have social amenities and State social services which give me assurance of considerable security. Shall I give up this security and adventure overseas to a life which will call for increasing sacrifice and courage, and in which I shall have to undertake risks and face probably disappointment and loneliness? Is it worth while? What ought I to do? Will it add to my happiness and usefulness? Will it tend to make the Empire stronger in peace and righteousness? Will it help to make the world better?

What opportunities are there for women?

Guidance Needed.

There are many opportunities overseas, but they must be approached under careful guidance. Fortunately there are several organizations with experience and "machinery" at the disposal

of any intelligent woman who would avail herself of the services thus offered.

For over fifty years the Salvation Army has been in all the King's Oversea Dominions, and its officers are to be found there directing work which is firmly established. Its social work is carried on without respect to creed or nationality. The flag of our Organization waves benevolently and ensures a warm welcome to new arrivals in all the Dominions, where we have excellent women's hostels; and in Australia and New Zealand we have, in most cities, under the sign of "The People's Palace", some of the largest and best-equipped temperance hotels in Australasia.

Apart from the recent special survey to which I have referred, special emissaries have frequently been sent from this country to study social conditions overseas. Their reports give us reliable data with respect to the countries visited. I have myself visited Canada over a score of times, crossing and recrossing that great Dominion from coast to coast—a distance of some 3000 miles—and I have made several visits to the other Dominions. For nearly forty years I have carefully studied the question of Empire migration and settlement, and I can confidently say that no woman who is seeking for wider outlook need have any regrets if "the great adventure" of settling in a new land be taken under reliable guidance.

Agricultural pursuits do not offer many openings for women, except those with capital and accompanied by husband or some male relative. Fruit- and poultry-farming can be successfully followed by single young women in most of the Dominions, but experience and knowledge of local conditions are desirable before investing any money in such ventures, in which there is considerable competition.

Demand for Professional Women.

There is a steady and an increasing demand for professional women—teachers, hospital nurses, children's nurses, governesses—chiefly in our Colonial Empire. Opportunities arise for workers in other professions, but inquiries about possible openings should be made beforehand through one or other of the recognized societies; and then the risks—so far as they can be ascertained—having been

faced, the would-be migrant can adventure to prove as others have done that the venture has been fully justified. If such are wholly dependent upon their earnings, they must not expect employment awaiting them on arrival in the Dominions or in the Colonies. It will be understood that local certificates involving examinations are necessary in many such cases. This takes time, and their funds should be sufficient to provide for them during the interim period.

It has to be remembered, of course, that conditions vary from time to time, and it is important that up-to-date information should be obtained before setting out for any part of the British Empire. Forms of government, social conditions and climate vary in different countries, and in all parts of Africa the presence of a large native population must always be remembered. The recognized societies are always ready to make specific inquiries for their clients about any part of the Empire and to furnish them with introductions to their accredited representatives. No arrival from the Old Land need be without a friend.

Several of the societies maintain reception hotels in oversea cities, and these are available for reunion meetings, when recent arrivals come together for social and spiritual intercourse. I have known many marriages celebrated at the Salvation Army hostels in Canada, Australia and New Zealand.

The Home Help.

The eminently useful character of the work done by newcomers who are engaged in professional occupations is frankly recognized, but while fully admitting the value to the community of the work being done by nurses, teachers and others, it is realized that the home help is very definitely one of the Dominions' most essential and vital workers. By this it will be understood that the status of the young woman who trains herself for domestic duties stands higher overseas than in Britain. The term " domestic servant " is not used overseas. Instead, the perhaps more dignified term " home help " or " home assistant " takes its place.

The practical yet kindly eye of the would-be employer when she inquires for the helper she is seeking says—pretty much as a lady living in Western Canada said the other day—" I want a girl

who can do the work. To the one who suits me I will give a salary that cannot be beaten in this district. But I would rather be without a help than have a girl who is not clean and tidy and methodical, or at least capable of learning to work with method. Send us the right girl and we will give her a good home and make her happy. She will have three evenings a week, a day a month, and every Sunday morning, afternoon or evening, as is most convenient to me." This reference will, I hope, make plain to the intelligent woman worker the attitude of mind manifested by those in search of a home help.

Speaking of the home, perhaps I should make it clear that in the Dominions the homes range from the primitive to the refined and even luxurious. We gladly pay tribute to the small beginnings in newly-opened areas where of necessity there must be more of that spirit of give-and-take characteristic of the pioneering phase: that phase has passed or is passing. Bacon has said that " prosperity is the blessing of the Old Testament ", and that " adversity is the blessing of the New, which carried the greater benediction ". Be that as it may for blessing or bane, the period of adversity is passing, and prosperity is coming on apace, and one characteristic of prosperity is the increasing number of beautiful and peaceful homes which help to adorn the restful sweep of the countryside. Thousands of well-equipped homes which blend exterior beauty with interior refinements are to be found in every State and Province. Such homes add charm to the lovely spots situated here and there by the sea or at the lakeside, amid the grandeur of the mountains, or amid the sylvan emerald slopes where nature has delighted to create a fairyland of beauty.

Labour-saving Appliances.

Of one thing the intending woman migrant who decides to concentrate upon home employment may be sure, viz. she will not be hindered and fatigued by the antiquated character of the domestic appliances, for the housewives of the Dominions can boast that by the application of common sense and the employment of labour-saving appliances, they have reduced housework to a minimum. The girl from the British Isles taking her first situation overseas

will probably find all the up-to-date labour-saving devices necessary to aid her in her work.

During a visit to the Dominions I found a strong call for women to take their share in the management and eventually in the establishment of homes. People went so far as to write pointing out the wisdom of urging the migration and settlement of suitable women equally with men, and there is everything to be said for such advice. We met at reunion meetings many women, young and old, who had emigrated through the Army, and we were especially gratified with their obvious happiness, healthy appearance, and prosperous circumstances. It was a thought-provoking revelation to realize the very definite progress most of these women had made, considered in the light of the progress they would have made had they remained in the Homeland. I recall that when reviewing a period of our work in one of the Dominions I found that over 60% of a total of 800 women had married within three years of the day of their arrival.

My wife observes that: "I was much impressed throughout the whole of our tour through the Dominions by the abounding opportunities there were for women; indeed, in some districts, by the urgent need for the wholesome and mothering influences of women. I noted, with great satisfaction too, the way the women enjoyed themselves in their wide freedom overseas, and their quick response to their new environment. It surpassed anything I had hitherto experienced."

Throughout our surveys, emphasis is laid by those interviewed on the necessity for women migrants being of the right type. In this connexion the safeguards adopted by the experienced societies have proved to be of considerable value, with the result that there are very few failures. A glance, for instance, at the arrangements for selection, transportation, reception and welfare made by the Salvation Army—arrangements which have proved to be highly successful—is to be convinced of the reliability of the above statement.

In the matter of repayment of loans advanced for passages the women generally show up better than men. Married people have refunded 66% of the money advanced, but less than 50% has been recovered from single men. During one period the Army advanced

to single women £25,000, and of these loans over 90% was refunded. This would seem to indicate that women are more faithful in discharging their obligations than men, or that they have profited more through emigrating.

Improved Conditions for Domestic Workers.

As in the past, there is at present a demand for women equipped to undertake domestic duties who seek wage-earning employment in happy and hopeful overseas surroundings. For the encouragement of those who are considering the question and who yet are hesitating to decide, we can say we know from long experience and wide observation that many young women who fought shy of undertaking household duties in the Homeland have developed into excellent helps in oversea homes. With the return of prosperity in the Dominions the engagement of household helps will increase rapidly. During the depression domestic assistants have been regarded by many as more or less in the " luxury " class, the housewife herself undertaking the household duties without outside help. The hours for rest and leisure are longer, the wages higher, and the freedom greater than in Great Britain. Consultations with many women who had migrated have revealed that conditions of household service are more pleasant and profitable in the Dominions than in Great Britain, despite the fact that the duties are more varied and strenuous. Many of the women mentioned are now happily married.

Methods of work are somewhat different from those employed in Great Britain. Ways of laying a table, and bed-making, for example, are different. The British girl in her new post will do well to make a careful note of the differences and act accordingly. Of course it must be realized that inexperienced women cannot expect the higher wages paid to more capable women who can undertake cooking, laundry-work and so on, but those with willingness to learn will find oversea employers ready to teach and encourage the newcomers. I pay tribute to such help conscientiously and ungrudgingly given. It should be kept in mind that there are vacancies not only for home helps but for children's nurses and for kindred employments.

Dressmakers and Typists.

The wages paid to the home help place her, financially, in a position that can hardly be rivalled by other spheres of women's work. The one who takes the highest wages must give the most efficient and experienced service, and it is often better for the less experienced to begin in a home where the demands are not so great.

The earnings of factory workers, waitresses, and shop-girls may appear to be high, but when rooming expenses, laundry charges, clothing and car-fares have been met, the margin left is comparatively small. We advise all such workers not to cross the ocean unless they have friends or relatives there who offer them homes.

The experienced dressmaker, if she is what is termed in the Dominions a " good mixer ", is likely to find plenty of work in the smaller towns or rural districts, but she must have enough money in hand to carry her over the early weeks after arrival.

Indifferent or only moderately efficient shorthand typists are not wanted. They will receive poor pay, often, in fact, barely sufficient for living expenses. The expert shorthand typist, with a good all round first-class education, and a capacity for taking intelligent interest in her employer's business, is likely to command a salary according to capacity, although she may have to wait to be appreciated.

The newcomer who decides to go up-country may at first find the life a lonely one, but she will probably find that the charm of " the bush " will grow upon her. Near the railway station there is usually a general store, post office, bank, and useful shops, also a church or two in the vicinity. Few houses may be seen and apparently only trees and fields lie in every direction, but neighbours manage to meet now and then for social intercourse. The modern adjuncts of day-to-day life, such as telephone, radio, electric light, motor-car, &c., are generally considered indispensable. Life is perhaps simpler for the home help who accepts general work in the small townships and villages, where she will experience more of that freedom and spirit of social equality typical of life in the Dominions.

Perhaps it is well to emphasize the point that upon overseas

farms the home help need not suffer from loneliness or isolation, since, as a rule, the farms impinge upon each other and upon the towns, and the telephone and the wireless are installed. Dairy-work and poultry feeding, as well as housework, usually fall to the share of the home help who chooses a farm situation, and this kind of work is often appreciated as a diversion from the ordinary domestic routine.

Where Women are Wanted.

To sum up: in Africa (south of the Zambesi), in the Rhodesias, and in the Colonies (Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika and Nyasaland) on the east side of the continent the large native and coloured populations govern the opportunities for British migrants: natives practically fill the domestic posts, except that there seems to be an unsatisfied call for experienced cooks. The chief openings for women are for those of the professional classes—nurses, teachers, family and nursery governesses, and home helps; wages varying in different parts from £50 to £100 per annum, and occasionally a higher wage can be secured. Southern Rhodesia offers special opportunities.

In Australia the position may be summarized thus:

(1) Wage-earning women are needed in many of the normal occupations for women, but there is little or no demand for clerks or typists or shop-assistants.

(2) The greatest demand is for women for household service and every kind of domestic work.

(3) There are openings available for women in manufacturing industries, e.g. as skilled machinists and in various trades.

(4) Teachers are not required by the Education Departments for the State Schools, as the numbers being trained are considered equal to the demand. Teachers for secondary or private schools would probably find employment.

Hours of labour, rates of pay and certain standards of living and comfort for home helps and waitresses, &c. (chiefly in the towns), are regulated by Acts of Parliament, and are generally in advance of anything known in the Old Land.

In New Zealand, while little or no immigration is taking place at the present time, we have it on good authority that the Dominion could do with hundreds of domestic assistants right away.

In Canada, as in Australia, the wages vary from £1 to £2 per week, and the amenities are much the same. In some cities of the Province of Ontario, Training Homes have been set up in order to give a short limited training to inexperienced young women, so as to familiarize them with many of the household electrical labour-saving appliances in common use, and with some of the more common duties of the Canadian home. In Ontario the demand for inexperienced help and experienced cooks and cook-generals is in excess of the supply. This is true, also, of British Columbia. In the Maritime Provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island there is only a slight call for domestic assistants, with wages somewhat below rates prevailing in other parts. In Quebec, where French is the predominant language, the vacancies of any kind are negligible, and in the Prairie Provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta the local supply meets the need.

IX. TRAINING AND ASSISTING SETTLERS

Training and Assisting Settlers

Organizations exist both in Great Britain and in the Dominions for training children and young men and women to fit them for farm life overseas. The following paragraphs summarize the activities, in this direction, of the most important of such organizations.

Fairbridge Farm Schools.

The Fairbridge Farm Schools Incorporated (Savoy House, Strand, London, W.C.2) exist " to promote the settlement within the Oversea Dominions of poorer children of both sexes, born in the United Kingdom ". The children are placed in Fairbridge Farm Schools in Australia and Canada. They are housed in cottages on the Farm and are in the care of carefully selected " cottage-mothers ". Only children between the ages of 6 and 12 (with a possible extension to 13) are accepted because in children younger than 6 it is not always possible to detect inherent disabilities and children older than 12 are not so likely to profit by Fairbridge training for rural life and work. After training, the children are placed on farms by the Society, whose officers continue the " after-care " of the child. The Society expects no reimbursement from the children, but by arrangement with the employers, half the child's wages are remitted to Fairbridge to be paid into a savings bank account which becomes his own property when he reaches the age of 21.

The Salvation Army.

The Salvation Army Emigration and Settlement Department (103 Queen Victoria St., London, E.C.4) is always prepared to advise prospective applicants for emigration as to the chances they are likely to have overseas. The fullest information regarding opportunities, cost of travelling, &c., is always available.

Three essential conditions governing this enterprise have been followed throughout, being those laid down by the Founder: (1) It must be advantageous to the country which the migrant leaves; (2) must be acceptable to the country receiving the migrant; (3) must be beneficial to the migrant and his family.

While encouraging the spirit of self-reliance and independence in its migrants, the Army at the same time gives common-sense after-care to them, and its officers overseas are ready to guide and direct, especially in times of difficulty and stress.

Dr. Barnardo's Homes.

Dr. Barnardo's Homes (18–26 Stepney Causeway, London, E.1) send children to their own farm schools overseas for training. They have such

a school at Picton, near Sydney, N.S.W., for boys and girls. They also send children to the Kingsley Fairbridge Farm School Society's Settlement at Pinjarra. These children are between the ages of 8 and 11. A large number of children have also been sent to Canada.

Society for the Oversea Settlement of British Women.

The Society for the Oversea Settlement of British Women (Craven House, 16 Northumberland Avenue, Charing Cross, W.C.2) has for its objects: (1) To give information to women who desire to settle overseas, to receive applications, and to ensure the welfare of women while travelling and their welcome on arrival. (2) To make known to the women of Great Britain the conditions of life and the openings for employment in the Oversea Dominions and Colonies. (3) To assist women and girls of good character and capabilities to obtain posts and to settle overseas.

Loans of part of the passage money are made in approved cases.

Mr. Fegan's Homes.

Mr. Fegan's Homes Incorp. (64 Horseferry Road, London, S.W.1), which are Evangelical and undenominational, were established in 1870 for the reception of orphan and needy boys between the ages of 6 and 16 years. Boys under 14 are received at the Orphanage, Stony Stratford, Bucks. Boys over 14 are received at the Training Farm, Goudhurst, Kent (344 acres), where they are given a thorough training in dairy and general farming.

Since 1884, boys from the Homes have been sent to Canada, where they have been settled on the land and have done remarkably well. It is found that the training and testing received by the boys before leaving the care of the Homes enables them to be of immediate service to the farmer, and thus able to demand good wages from the start.

Mr. Fegan's Homes maintain a home in Toronto and a Canadian staff who are charged with the care and guidance of all the Homes' wards in Canada.

The 1820 Memorial Settlers' Association.

The 1820 Memorial Settlers' Association (199 Piccadilly, London, W.1) deals with every class of settler which South Africa can absorb. Over 7000 settlers, who, with their dependants, number some 15,000 individuals, have been assisted by the Association since its inception in 1920. Each case is dealt with, advised and assisted on its individual merits and requirements. The Association having no land, stock, or property of its own for sale, is in a position to give advice which is free from bias. It endeavours to place each settler in the environment best suited to his particular aptitude, preference, qualifications and capacity. The Association's affairs are administered by executive bodies in Great Britain and South Africa, under the direction of influential committees. The Great Britain Committee selects such settlers as can be taken in South Africa on the terms and conditions which the South African Executive announces from time to time as suitable to the requirements of settlement. Reasons for non-acceptance of applications are not given. Inquiries are many more than the number of ultimately enrolled settlers, for many have to be discouraged or become so. The process is one not of recruitment but of careful selection by the Association.

The Scottish Immigrant Aid Society.

The Scottish Immigrant Aid Society (65 Trafalgar Square, London, W.C.2) was formed by the Rev. Andrew MacDonell, O.S.B., M.C., M.B.E. (see below), its object being to take over a large tract of land in Canada and settle on it a number of families from the British Isles. The underlying idea of the scheme is the settling of families in "loose groups"—in other words, alongside and between old-timers. The settlers obtain from these people local knowledge and payment in various ways for the odd days' work they give.

The Catholic Emigration Society.

The Rev. Andrew MacDonell, O.S.B., M.C., M.B.E., General Manager (in Canada) of the Scottish Immigrant Aid Society, is also Canadian Manager of the Catholic Emigration Society (65 Trafalgar Square, London, W.C.2), the official organization of the Catholic Church for emigration purposes.