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**PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL
RELATIONS**

DECEMBER, 1928

Published Under the General Supervision of the
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of the
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LOS ANGELES UNIVERSITY OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS
LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
INSTITUTE OF
INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

FOURTH SESSION

MISSION INN, RIVERSIDE, CALIFORNIA
DECEMBER 9 TO 13, 1928

AND AT THE

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA
LOS ANGELES
DECEMBER 14, 1928

Edited by

RUFUS B. VON KLEINSMID

and

HERBERT WYNFORD HILL

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1929

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Mission Inn



P R E F A C E

The organization of material for the present issue of the Proceedings of the Fourth Session of the Institute of International Relations follows subject divisions rather than a sequence of lectures and conferences. Lectures, conferences, round-table discussions, and luncheon and dinner addresses are assembled under the following headings: the United States; Latin America; the Orient; Europe; the Near East; and General International Problems.

The Fourth Session of the Institute, in many ways the most successful, was a notable one. It dealt with international problems in three new directions. One such direction was a consideration of vital problems of international politics and administration which are present-day issues and which affect vitally the existing international order. These included the Kellogg Peace Pact, the Reorganization of the Department of State, the Foreign Policies of our Political Parties, the Civil Revival in Italy, and the Renunciation of War. The Institute passes no resolutions and takes no affirmative or negative action on any of these controversial questions, but it discusses them all. The impact and effect of these discussions are reflected through the many appropriate channels of public opinion and policy determination. Another direction was along the line of international ethics and aesthetics. Such subjects included India's Contribution to Religion and its International Effect, Christian Ethics and Race Relations, the Spiritual Forces of Internationalism, the International Aspects of the Fine Arts, and the Place of World Literature in International Relations. These papers and discussions establish a philosophy and an art of peace, less spectacular and challenging, but even more effective than the foregoing political subjects. Finally, a larger share of attention was given to international technique, and included such subjects as the United States Department of Commerce, the United States Chamber of Commerce, the Tariff, Business Policies in Latin America, and many others. The Institute, therefore, considers practical problems of importance to the workaday world. The Institute of International Relations may now be said to be a permanent institution.

GENERAL PROGRAM

GENERAL PROGRAM

SPECIAL EVENING LECTURES

8:00 P. M.

Sunday, December the Ninth

CHRISTIAN ETHICS AND RACE RELATIONS.

Reverend James E. Crowther, Pastor, University Temple, Seattle.

THE SPIRITUAL INFLUENCES IN INTERNATIONALISM.

Chester H. Rowell, Editor and Publicist.

Monday, December the Tenth

OUR LATIN AMERICAN NEIGHBORS.

Harry Thomas Collings, Professor of Economics, University of Pennsylvania.

INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED STATES CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

David A. Skinner, Secretary of the United States Chamber of Commerce.

Tuesday, December the Eleventh

THE RENUNCIATION OF WAR.

Charles E. Martin, Professor of Political Science and Dean of the Faculty of Social Science, University of Washington.

THE INTERNATIONAL ASPECTS OF THE FINE ARTS.

Henry Purmort Eames, Professor of Musical Art and Aesthetics, Scripps College.

Wednesday, December the Twelfth

THE CIVIL REVIVAL IN ITALY.

Contessa Maria A. Loschi of Rome.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF TURKEY TO INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING.

George H. Huntington, Vice-President and Dean of Robert College, Constantinople.

Thursday, December the Thirteenth

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE MOTION PICTURE INDUSTRY IN INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

Colonel Jason Joy, Director of Industrial Relations, Association of Motion Picture Producers, Hollywood.

THE REORGANIZATION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE.

Frederick M. Davenport, Formerly Professor of Law and Politics, Hamilton College, and United States Congressman from the State of New York.

GENERAL CONFERENCES

2:00 P. M.

Monday, December the Tenth

INDIA'S CONTRIBUTION TO RELIGION IN ITS EFFECT ON INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

S. G. Pandit, Attorney-at-Law, Los Angeles.

THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH OF NATIONS.

Linden A. Mander, Assistant Professor of Political Science, University of Washington.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEMS OF WORLD WAR.

Chester H. Rowell, Editor and Publicist.

Tuesday, December the Eleventh

AMERICAN INDUSTRIAL EFFICIENCY AND THE TARIFF.

Henry F. Grady, Dean of the College of Commerce, University of California, Berkeley.

THE PLACE OF WOMEN'S ORGANIZATIONS IN INTERNATIONAL PEACE.

Mrs. Thomas Winter, Past President of the General Federation of Women's Clubs.

THE KELLOGG PEACE PACTS.

Karl C. Leebrick, Professor of International Relations, Syracuse University.

Wednesday, December the Twelfth

THE UNITED STATES NAVY AND THE PROBLEMS OF INTERNATIONAL PEACE.

A. H. Robertson, Rear Admiral, U. S. Navy, Commandant Eleventh Naval District.

SOME PROBLEMS OF THE PHILIPPINES.

O. W. E. Cook, Assistant Professor of Political Science, University of Southern California.

HISTORICAL ASPECTS OF RUSSIA'S RELATIONS WITH THE WEST.

Waldemar Westergaard, Professor of History, University of California, Los Angeles.

THE RISE OF NATIONALISM IN CHINA.

Charles K. Edmunds, President of Pomona College.

Thursday, December the Thirteenth

THE THREE INTERNATIONALISMS.

Tully C. Knoles, President of the College of the Pacific.

THE POSITION OF COLOMBIA IN SOUTH AMERICAN AFFAIRS.

Samuel H. Piles, Sometime Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to Colombia.

THE PLACE OF WORLD LITERATURE IN INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

Mildred C. Struble, Professor of Comparative Literature, University of Southern California.

SPECIAL FEATURES OF THE WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

James H. Smiley, District Manager, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Los Angeles.

ROUND TABLES

Those indicated by *A* met daily from 9:00 to 10:30; those indicated by *B* met daily from 10:40 to 12:10.

A

THE NEW CHINA

Edwin Landon, Associate Professor of Politics, University of California, Berkeley.

Obed E. Johnson, Professor of History, Mills College.

Macy M. Skinner, Professor of Foreign Trade, University of Washington.

THE RESIDENT ALIEN PROBLEM IN THE SOUTHWEST

Glenn E. Hoover, Professor of Economics and Sociology, Mills College.

Emory S. Bogardus, Professor of Sociology and Director of the School of Social Welfare, University of Southern California.

OUR LATIN AMERICAN POLICY

Harry Thomas Collings, Professor of Economics, University of Pennsylvania.

Linden A. Mander, Assistant Professor of Political Science, University of Washington.

INTERNATIONAL COMMERCE AND FINANCE

Henry F. Grady, Dean of the College of Commerce, University of California, Berkeley.

John Parke Young, Professor of Economics, Occidental College.

THE FOREIGN STUDENT

Allen Blaisdell, Director of the International House, University of California, Berkeley.

Ben M. Cherrington, Executive Secretary, Foundation for the Advancement of the Social Sciences, University of Denver.

REORGANIZATION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE

Frederick Morgan Davenport, Formerly Professor of Law and Politics, Hamilton College, and United States Congressman from the State of New York.

Graham H. Stuart, Professor of Political Science, Stanford University.

B

JAPAN

Roy Hidenichi Akagi, General Secretary of the Japanese Students' Christian Association in North America.

George Gleason, President, Council on International Relations, Los Angeles.

THE NEAR EAST

Robert J. Kerner, Professor of Modern European History, University of California, Berkeley.

George H. Huntington, Vice-President and Dean of Robert College, Constantinople.

THE KELLOGG PEACE PACTS

Karl C. Leebriek, Professor of International Relations, Syracuse University.

Charles E. Martin, Professor of Political Science and Dean of the Faculty of Social Science, University of Washington.

PROBLEMS OF FOOD AND POPULATION

Carl O. Sauer, Professor of Geography, University of California, Berkeley.

Thomas J. Orbison, M.D., former Chief of the Latvian Section of the Baltic Mission of the American Relief Administration.

FOREIGN POLICIES OF AMERICAN POLITICAL PARTIES

Edgar E. Robinson, Professor of American History and Director of Citizenship, Stanford University.

INTERNATIONAL ASPECTS OF THE FINE ARTS

Henry Purmort Eames, Professor of Musical Art and Aesthetics, Scripps College.

SPECIAL FEATURES

DINNER MEETINGS

Monday Evening, December the Tenth

Dinner in Honor of the Foreign Consuls of Southern California and the Visiting Foreign Professors of the Southern California Colleges.

Tuesday Evening, December the Eleventh

Dinner sponsored by the Los Angeles Council of International Relations.

Wednesday Evening, December the Twelfth

Dinner sponsored by the Japanese Chamber of Commerce.

Thursday Evening, December the Thirteenth

Dinner sponsored by Delta Phi Epsilon, Professional Foreign Service and Foreign Trade Fraternity.

Friday Evening, December the Fourteenth

Dinner sponsored by the Los Angeles University of International Relations.

SPECIAL EVENING LECTURES

The Special Lectures were open to the public without admission charge. First consideration as to seats, however, was given to members and regularly appointed delegates.

GENERAL AFTERNOON CONFERENCES

The General Conferences were held each afternoon, at which time selected speakers covered some of the outstanding items of discussion growing out of the work of the Round Tables. The General Conferences were open to the public upon the payment of the registration fee. Members of the Institute and delegates were admitted by registration card.

MORNING ROUND TABLES

Round Table conferences met each morning from Monday to Thursday, inclusive. Attendance at these discussions was limited to members and delegates. Upon registration each person was assigned to the Round Tables of his choice, to the work of which he was expected to make some contribution.

SESSION AT LOS ANGELES

On Friday morning the entire Institute repaired to the campus of the University of Southern California at Los Angeles, where luncheon was served to all members and delegates. At 2:00 p. m., a general conference was held. In the evening there was a dinner session celebrating the signing of the Pacts of Paris.

MEMBERSHIP

Membership is by invitation extended to those whose interest and experience have fitted them to take a constructive part in some of the Round Table discussions. Universities, Colleges, Learned Societies, and other selected organizations are invited to send such delegates as will in the opinion of the organizations best represent them and make the largest contribution to the work of the Institute.

The invitation list is controlled by the character of the Round Table discussions. An invitation can be accepted for that year only in which it is received. Friends of the Institute who desire that invitations be extended to certain persons known by them to be qualified to participate in the program will confer a favor by sending names to the Executive Office, University of Southern California, Los Angeles.

A registration fee of \$10.00 is charged each member and delegate, which entitles him to attend all sessions of the conference. College and University student membership is \$5.00.

HOTEL ACCOMMODATIONS

All Riverside sessions of the Institute are held at the famous Mission Inn, and its owner, Mr. Frank A. Miller, a member of the Advisory Board of the Institute graciously provides accommodations for members, delegates, and guests at greatly reduced rates for the period. Reservations are made through the Executive Office of the Institute, University of Southern California, Los Angeles.

PART 1



✓ ADDRESS OF WELCOME ✓

CHANCELLOR R. B. VON KLEINSMID

Members, delegates to the Fourth Session of the Institute of International Relations, distinguished guests, good friends: It would be very difficult to express the joy and satisfaction we have in coming back to this Inn for the Fourth Session of the Institute of International Relations. We were here just a year ago for the Second Session. The Third Session was held last summer at the University of Washington in Seattle in conjunction with the Carnegie Endowment of International Peace and the University of Washington. It seems like coming home again to come to Riverside for this, the Fourth Session.

We call your attention to the program and particularly to the fact that the evening sessions are open to the public. The round tables in the morning and the conferences in the afternoons are for members and delegates only, for we are a study group; but we have brought together men and women who have given a great deal of time and study to international problems of general interest, and we want to share them as far as may be possible with those who are interested in America's position in world affairs. At the close of this session I shall ask the Director to make such announcements as may be of interest to members and delegates.

THE UNITED STATES

INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED STATES
CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

D. A. SKINNER

Secretary of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States

We hear much today about coöperation and about self-government in business and industry as a substitute for government regulation and control. We hear what national and trade associations are doing for their particular industries, what Chambers of Commerce are doing for their communities, and how State Chambers of Commerce are operating.

It is well to have these activities. Trade associations should handle problems peculiar to the industries represented. It has been found, however, that a Chamber of Commerce is a most valuable asset because it represents the entire community. When a question comes up affecting the community, it should be handled by the local Chamber, and there should be teamwork, teamplay, and coöperation by all the business and industry in the community. Members of trade associations should belong to and support the Chamber of Commerce and through that body participate in the solution of general community problems.

The State Chamber represents the State on questions of statewide importance. And, here again, business men of the entire State should belong to and support the State Chamber, and thereby participate in the solution of these problems.

There also comes into the picture the National Chamber, which occupies the national field and coöperates not only with local Chambers of Commerce, but with State Chambers and national and trade associations. I desire to outline in some detail the field of the National Chamber, its relationship to these organizations, their relationship to it, and the important place occupied by Chambers of Commerce, State associations, and national and trade bodies, in this great national fabric of organization effort.

Prior to 1912, when Congress or the executive departments desired the opinion of business men on a national question affecting commerce and industry, the Chamber of Commerce of a certain city might advise in favor of a proposition, while the Merchants' Association in that same city would advise in opposition. As a result, Congress, members of the Cabinet, and others could not ascertain what business men desired. President Taft and Mr. Nagel, then Secretary of Commerce and Labor, decided after conference with business leaders that the time was oppor-

tune to call a conference of representatives of Chambers of Commerce and trade associations to consider organizing an association to serve as a clearing house of the opinions of business men.

A conference held April 23 and 24, 1912, was attended by representatives from 500 organizations, and The Chamber of Commerce of the United States was organized. This is a federation of commercial and trade associations, absolutely non-partisan in character, whose primary function is concentrating the opinion of business men on national questions affecting commerce and industry, and making that opinion available to Congress, the Executive, and the public.

This Chamber is governed by a Board of 34 Directors, 17 elected each year for a two-year term, and 12 Officers, including the President, Chairman of the Board, Vice-Presidents, and the Treasurer. The Board of Directors cannot commit the National Chamber. It is an administrative body. It can only act when the organization membership has advised its opinion. While its headquarters are physically located in Washington, in reality they are scattered over the entire country. Why? Because the headquarters are the Chambers of Commerce and trade associations enrolled in the National Chamber membership. These number over 1600 with an underlying membership of over 900,000 corporations, firms, and individuals.

The National Chamber can be committed only through a referendum submitted to the organization membership, or through a resolution adopted at an annual meeting. The Chamber prefers the referendum system, because it gives time for mature consideration, while the adoption of a resolution at an annual meeting is very apt to be on snap judgment.

How does a proposition come before the National Chamber? It may originate with the Board of Directors or with an organization member. If an organization member desires that a national question be considered it ordinarily adopts a resolution. When the resolution reaches the National Chamber the Board of Directors determines whether the subject is national in character, general in application to business and industry, and timely in importance. If the proposition meets these tests the Board of Directors orders that it be investigated by a representative committee and a report presented to the Board. The Board can only receive the report and order it prepared for submission to the organization membership.

How is a report prepared for submission? Arguments in opposition to the propositions submitted in the committee's report are formulated. There is then printed a referendum pamphlet. The recommendations of the committee appear on the left-hand pages and the arguments in

opposition on the right-hand pages. The pamphlet also contains a ballot setting forth the propositions to be acted upon.

The referendum pamphlet is transmitted to the membership of the Chamber. Organizations have forty-five days to consider the propositions and file their votes. When the vote is completed it is canvassed. The result is presented in a printed pamphlet indicating just how each organization voted on each proposition submitted. The referendum pamphlet, and the report of the vote, are transmitted to the proper committees in Congress, perhaps to each member of the Senate and the House, to members of the Cabinet and others, and released to the public.

A Resolutions and Referenda Department of the National Chamber follows all questions to which the National Chamber is committed and uses every legitimate effort to make them effective. Since the inception of the National Chamber in 1912, there have been submitted to the membership 52 referenda, and there have been adopted more than 300 resolutions. To date over 75% of those matters to which the Chamber has been committed have been written into law, or made effective through rules and regulations issued by the different Federal Departments, Bureaus, and Divisions.

I know of no better way in which a local or State Chamber of Commerce or a trade association can serve its membership than by seeing to it that every referendum submitted by the National Chamber is considered and acted upon. It gets the business men and the people to thinking nationally. It broadens their vision.

Senators and representatives in Congress are competent men. We have found through experience that these men desire facts. If, as a result of fact investigations, you indicate to them what you desire, nine times out of ten you will be heard. It is interesting to know that the average session of Congress has before it over 20,000 bills; that state legislatures have before them over 100,000 bills; that today there are on the statute books over 1,900,000 laws. This number is constantly growing. Yet the records indicate that only about one law is repealed each year.

How can you expect a Senator or representative in Congress to be intelligently informed on 20,000 bills? Yet that is what you are asking him to do. When he votes on any bill you expect him to represent you. Have you discharged your responsibility if you have not kept him informed on those national business matters which affect commerce and industry? I do not believe you have. And do you have an excuse? I do not believe you have. Business men have efficient machinery—local, state, and National Chambers—through which to express their opinions,

and keep their representatives in Congress advised. They should use that machinery.

May I say a word about the *Business Man's Responsibility to His Government*. The tendency is for Government to enter into those fields in which it is more proper to carry on by private enterprise. The National Chamber believes it is time to call each encroachment to the attention of the people in the belief that the evil once recognized will be condemned. Recently, government agencies coöperating with business conducted with proper regard for the public interest have contributed much toward the present era of prosperity. If we are going to progress, business men must give serious attention to *Self-Regulation in Business* and to the *responsibilities of business*. The National Chamber declares that chief among the responsibilities of business is that of purging business of all those who indulge in commercial and political corruption and who through resort to unclean or unworthy practices bring business into disrepute.

Each year the National Chamber determines upon a legislative program which is placed before the President of the United States and kept before Congress and its committees. Let's take a glimpse at what will be before that body at its present session.

Muscle Shoals. At the Government power plant at Muscle Shoals, the War Department is manufacturing power for sale. The question at issue is that of the Government going into the power business in order to block what it fears is a menacing power trust.

Legislation before the last Congress provided for the continuance of the Government in the hydroelectric business at Muscle Shoals, and authorized the manufacturing and sale of fertilizer from a Government-controlled-and-operated plant. A bill embodying these principles was passed and sent to the President, where it received a pocket veto. In the present Congress this question will come up. The National Chamber recommends the Government should get out of the power business and that it should make no further attempt to get into the fertilizer business.

Boulder Dam. Another project involving the Government in business is that of the Boulder Dam. In legislation passed by the House and before the Senate at its present session regarding the Boulder Dam project are involved the problems of the elimination of the flood menaces to the Imperial Valley, assistance to a great irrigation project, domestic water supply for millions of people, and finally water power. The whole project is made to rest on the unsound theory that power should pay for it all. Engineers seriously doubt some of the features of this project. They doubt its feasibility from the standpoint of construction; the

adequacy of basic information; the cost estimates and the necessity of building this particular dam to secure the objectives of the people of the southwest. Here again, the National Chamber is opposed to the Government encroaching in business which can well be undertaken by private initiative.

Merchant Marine. The Shipping Board has declared its belief that only through Government operation can a successful Merchant Marine be maintained. The National Chamber is opposed to such government operation.

Eight years ago Congress ordered the disposal of the ships. Since that time some three hundred million dollars have been spent in operating expenses.

The Shipping Board was organized in 1917 with five members, which number was increased to seven in 1920. In ten years thirty members have served and departed, the average tenure being less than two years. The Fleet Corporation in ten years had eleven presidents. Compare this record with the average tenure of executives in private shipping which ranges from fifteen to twenty-five years. What private corporation could be successful with such an executive turnover?

Legislation enacted at the last session of Congress provides for promotion of private ownership and operation through favorable contracts for the carriage of mails, loans for ship construction at low interest rates, provisions for payments by the Government to officers and men of the Merchant Marine enlisting in the Naval Reserves, and by provision for the sale of vessels by vote of 5 out of 7 members of the Shipping Board. In the enactment of this legislation the more important principles worked for by the National Chamber ever since the World War have been realized.

The National Chamber is committed to a definite program of peacetime taxation. Inequalities should be eliminated, and excise taxes should be done away with. The corporation income tax should be reduced to at least 10%. There should also be a thorough revision of the rulings and practices with respect to the administration of the Federal taxes.

The tax bill enacted by the last session of Congress reduced the corporation tax from 13½% to 12%, and repealed the 3% automobile sales tax. No action was taken on the inheritance tax. The National Chamber will continue to advocate a further reduction in the Corporation Tax, abolishment of the remaining excise taxes, and the making of the Federal Estate Tax entirely as a source of revenue for the States.

Some 55 countries have ratified commercial treaties with Turkey. Commercial, educational, religious, and other institutions are in agree-

ment as to the necessity of ratification. The National Chamber has urged prompt action, but the Senate has not acted. The State Department arranged an agreement with Turkey to conduct business until May, 1928. This means that American products imported into Turkey pay an additional tariff duty of 60% as compared with other countries.

The Senate failed to ratify during the last session a parcel post convention with Cuba. Here again, the Department of State arranged a temporary agreement until March 1, 1928. The question is the importation by parcel post of cigars in lots of less than 3000. In 1866 the United States adopted regulations restricting such importation. It is believed that conditions today do not justify these restrictions, and the National Chamber urges their removal.

The National Chamber believes that Congress should authorize the Interstate Commerce Commission to approve proper railroad consolidations and thus assure effective and reasonable railroad transportation. Under present laws there are serious obstacles to these consolidations. The Parker bill, reported to the House during the last Congress, embodies the principles advocated by the National Chamber. The National Chamber will advocate action at this session of Congress.

The National Chamber is for agricultural relief. The National Chamber feels that certain of the provisions of the McNary-Haugen bill or similar bills mean that the Government is injecting itself into business. The National Chamber is unalterably opposed to such a course.

Experience has indicated that the agricultural situation cannot be remedied by a federal law applying to the entire country. The National Chamber believes that agriculture must be broken up into its component parts and must be dealt with upon a fact basis. With this end in view, Agricultural Conferences have been held by the Chamber in different parts of the country, and data which have been helpful to the solution of the agricultural problem have been assembled.

The Business Men's Agricultural Commission—a body created by the National Chamber and the National Industrial Conference Board—but absolutely independent of either organization made a comprehensive investigation and issued a report.

For more than five years the National Chamber has been studying through its Agricultural Department and Committee the agricultural situation. It presented to the Board of Directors a report which the Board ordered submitted to a referendum vote of the organization membership.

The vote closed on October 15. As a result of this referendum, the Chamber is now committed to a definite program, which includes:

- (1) Strict coördination of land, reclamation, and reforestation policies of the Federal Government.
- (2) Delay in bringing into cultivation of additional agricultural areas at public expense until such additional production of agricultural commodities as would result therefrom can be demonstrated to be an economic need.
- (3) Reasonable protection for American industries subject to destructive competition from abroad.
- (4) Support of coöperative marketing of agricultural products and encouragement of producers of agricultural commodities to form coöperative marketing associations along sound economic lines.
- (5) That agricultural credit requirements should be met by full development and adaptation of existing facilities.
- (6) Creation of a Federal Farm Board to report its recommendations to Congress.
- (7) Adequate Federal appropriations for economic and scientific agricultural research by the Department of Agriculture.

I have given you a view of how the National Chamber represents American business on national questions. That is our primary function. On the other hand, we have the service function, and in this connection we have eleven service departments, a cross section of American business. These eleven departments are headed by experienced business men. Each of these departments has an Advisory Committee of not less than nine and not more than fifteen.

The Agricultural Department will give you fact information on current developments in the agricultural field in all its different phases, and will tell you how to proceed in formulating a constructive and comprehensive program for agricultural development.

The Civic Development Department has to do with community building, city planning, zoning, housing, immigration, citizenship, recreation, Americanization, public health, and education.

The Commercial Organization Department is a clearing house for the activities of Chambers of Commerce. From that Department you can secure information regarding the proper functions of Officers, Directors, Committees, and memberships of organizations, their membership maintenance and increase, dues rates, and budgets.

The Domestic Distribution Department is concerned with all classes of distributors, wholesalers, brokers, jobbers, retailers, or manufacturers, and with improved methods of distribution, wider collection of trade facts, elimination of waste, trade relations, installment selling, retail services, and house-to-house canvassing. The information at the com-

mand of this department is of greatest importance to manufacturers, wholesalers, jobbers, and retailers.

The Finance Department has as its function that of fostering sound financial policies and practices in business and government. This Department will give you advice and counsel on: federal, state, and local taxation; banking legislation; the Federal Reserve System; foreign investments; and allied subjects.

In this department is a Bureau on State and Local Taxation, the function of which is to furnish Chambers of Commerce with up-to-date information regarding the questions involved in state and local taxation.

The Foreign Commerce Department renders expert service in all phases of foreign trade, including such matters as trade barriers and tariffs, new markets, trade promotion of agencies abroad, and foreign trade facts.

The Insurance Department works to secure a more enlightened public attitude toward the insurance institutions, its ideals, service, problems, and methods of operation. It demonstrates how insurance can aid employers, analyzes Federal legislation and national tendencies of state legislation, keeps insurance carriers informed on rulings and decisions of federal agencies, and reports on insurance conditions abroad, workmen's compensation insurance, and special insurance taxes.

The Department of Manufacture has to do with accounting, simplification and standardization, production statistics, employers-employee relations. Its efforts are directed towards the setting up of standards by the industry rather than by legislation.

The Natural Resources Production Department is concerned with industries producing basic raw materials, coal, lumber, oil, natural gas, iron, copper, cement, and water power. It deals with such matters as hydroelectric power, forestry, and flood control, and coöperates with the natural resources industries to resist threats of Government control.

The Trade Association Department serves as a clearing house of the activities of trade associations. Increasing competition among industrial groups has led trade associations into new fields such as self-regulation by business groups, elimination of economic waste, formulation of trade practices, and coöperation with the Federal Trade Commission and other Government agencies.

The Transportation and Communication Department has to do with railroads, electric railways, motor transport, highways, waterways, port terminals, merchant marine, telephone, telegraph, cable, radio, aeronautics, postal and express service.

This Department promotes a national policy that enables carriers to furnish adequate transportation and coöperates with transportation

agencies to promote a better public understanding of all branches of transportation.

The Research Department conducts legislative, legal, and economic research for Chamber members, Chamber committees, and Chamber Departments. This Department is equipped to serve and aid business men on any matter concerning which they desire assistance.

The Nation's Business, the official publication of the National Chamber, is operated on a strict cost accounting basis, and is self sustaining. Its policy is to create a national viewpoint for American business, to break down provincialism, to stimulate community development, to emphasize the value of organization team work, and to promote a better understanding between Government, business, and the public, and to interpret each to the other.

Each year the National Chamber appoints from thirty to fifty committees with an average total membership of from three hundred to five hundred business men coming from all parts of the country and representing every phase of business and industry. Under our By-Laws, members of committees can only be reimbursed for actual travel expenses. Less than 50% of committee members submit statements. What I want to impress upon you is: Here, you have outstanding business men serving without charge, men whose services you cannot buy under any consideration. The value of such service not only to American business but to the public, cannot be estimated.

You may ask—How are the accomplishments of the National Chamber looked upon by Federal officials?

President Coolidge has stated, "I have been greatly pleased to observe the many evidences which come here indicating that the attitude of the Chamber very accurately reflects that of public opinion generally."

President Taft has said, "I am confident that with the sound principles you have established your organization will be one of the real non-official factors in the progress of our country."

Theodore Roosevelt said: "The National Chamber would pay for the energy and money expended many times over if it did nothing more than focus the attention of business once a year on a single national question."

President Wilson said: "The essential reason for the success of the National Chamber is the fact that it is absolutely non-partisan."

A very considerable percentage of organizations throughout the country use the services available to them through the National Chamber, and this percentage is increasing. There are a considerable number

who only partially use the service, and there are those who do not even make an attempt to use the service.

What is the answer? To a very great extent I believe it lies with the business men. The modern association executive should be a man trained for a definite task. How many business men realize that the executive management of a commercial or trade organization is a profession calling for special knowledge and for expert training?

The truth is that many of our business leaders, leaders, that is, of their own business, are blind leaders of the blind when the question of an association executive comes up. They are indifferent to the applicant's knowledge of organization financing, of organization, and of work planning. The records indicate that the percentage of trained men being appointed is increasing, that business men are rapidly coming to the conclusion that if their support is to be continued to organization work they must insist upon the appointment of trained men.

The secretary of an organization may be 100% competent, but unless he has the backing of the officers and members of the organization he cannot be 100% efficient. Too many business men accept office without accepting the responsibility of the office. When a business man accepts office in an organization he accepts a responsibility not only to the organization, but to the community or industry which that organization represents. If business men will support and back commercial and trade organizations throughout the entire country there will be accomplishments.

After all, these United States constitute the best place in the world to live—to do business—to rear and educate our children. We have a population of over 115 million—7% of the total world population. During the last year that 7% consumed 48% of the world's total production of coffee; 53% of all the tin; 56% of all crude rubber; 21% of all sugar; 72% of all the raw silk; 36% of all the coal; 42% of all the pig iron; 47% of all copper and 69% of all the crude petroleum produced in the world. That 7% owns 23 million of the 30 million automobiles of the world, one for each five persons as compared with 1 to each 40 persons in France and 1 to each 148 persons in Germany. During the last year we imported over 4 billion dollars of merchandise, 65% of which was entirely free of duty, and our export trade is growing by leaps and bounds. These figures amply demonstrate that we have right here in the United States the biggest consuming market in the world.

There is every reason to believe that this general prosperity will continue. Much, however, depends upon business men. If in all business there shall be adequate self regulation in the public interest there will be no incentive on the part of Government to go into business com-

petition with private enterprise. There will be coöperation, teamplay, and teamwork between Government and business. The United States will continue to lead the world. Prosperity will continue, high standards of living will be within reach of all of our people, and above all, there will be equal opportunity for all.

The National Chamber is housed in a building in Washington, located directly opposite the White House. Carved in the marble around its court are these words by Daniel Webster:

Let us develop the resources of our land, call forth its powers, build up its institutions, promote all its great interests, to see whether we also, in our day and generation, may not perform something worthy to be remembered.

May I suggest that the Chamber of Commerce is to the community what the State Chamber is to the State, and what the National Chamber is to the Nation. May I urge that each of us place our shoulder to the wheel, familiarize ourselves with the problems of our local Chamber, the State Chamber, and the National Chamber, and see that each of us contributes our share through teamwork, teamplay, and coöperation that we may conscientiously aspire to say that we are at least making an honest endeavor to perform something worthy to be remembered.

THE UNITED STATES NAVY AND THE PROBLEMS OF
INTERNATIONAL PEACE. ✓

A. H. ROBERTSON

Rear Admiral, U. S. Navy, Commandant of the Eleventh Naval District

I esteem it a great honor to have the privilege of addressing this distinguished gathering. I appreciate, especially, the courtesy shown me by your Executive Secretary in assigning as my subject "The United States Navy and the Problems of International Peace." The United States Navy has been my life work, covering a period of forty-four years. I love the United States Navy and believe in it and its ideals. I never grow tired of extolling its virtues. The problems of international peace have always been the primary concern of the Navy and of every officer who has ever worn its uniform. Today, those problems have taken a prominent position in the hearts and thoughts of the civilized world, and especially in the hearts and thoughts of the thinking and patriotic men and women of these United States. It is a hopeful sign of the times that, through the educational efforts of this Institute and of many other similar organizations that have sprung up in this country during the past few years, the man on the street is coming to abandon his historical attitude of not looking beyond our own borders and is beginning to realize that this country is an integral part of the great family of nations and to think in international terms. In the course of this address I hope to be able to show you that the United States Navy has always thought in those terms and to convince you that the Navy is delighted that such a habit is becoming more general on the part of our fellow citizens. In doing so, I may talk too much about the United States Navy and too little about the problems of international peace. But I shall try to present the two subjects in their proper proportions and if I err on either side, I ask your indulgence at the outset.

Out of the haze of the controversy and circumlocutions incident to the many conferences, plenary sessions, debates, congresses, conventions, and what not, which have taken place throughout the world during the period since the World War, one significant fact emerges as clear as crystal; and that fact is that the best and most advanced thought in all civilized countries is definitely concentrated in an attempt to evolve some plan by which wars may be averted. Call them what you will,—leagues to enforce peace, treaties outlawing war, compulsory arbitration arrangements, international courts of justice, limitations of

naval and military armaments, Hague Tribunals, and so on down through the long list of movements proposed for preserving the peace of the world,—they all serve very potently to indicate to thinking people that a state of mind is gradually developing among the masses in the interest of the cause, a general moral awakening against the crime of *aggressive* war. And, whether or not we approve or subscribe to any or all of the various plans and movements mentioned, or can detect any meritorious or constructive features in them, the fact remains that the outstanding highlight of the times, the history of the moment, so to speak, is that civilized humanity,—it matters not what the race or creed,—is groping for some means of preventing armed conflict between nations.

Moreover, in sharp contrast with the preachments of pacifists, communists, and other emotional theorists, and their peace-at-any-price doctrines, which, unfortunately, are present to a considerable degree in every country, and who, whether they know it or not, are guided and led by the machinery created by the Third Internationale, it must in justice be said that the best minds, and the leaders of the larger movements for preserving the peace of the world, duly recognize the supreme importance of armament and armed forces. Armed forces not for aggression, but adequate for national defense and amply commensurate with the particular requirements of each individual sovereign state, are necessary adjuncts in consummating any plan for definitely averting war. This view, in the opinion of the United States Navy, is a healthy and practical fundamental premise. It was the basic idea of the nations which were parties to the treaties arising from the Washington Conference for the limitation of Naval armaments and is still, I believe, the guiding principle of all the more recent and the present discussions for the limitation of armaments.

The greatest force today which opposes what I believe to be this reasonable idea of limited armaments as the best and most practicable method of avoiding international wars, is the organization known as the Third Internationale and all the conscious and unconscious proponents of its doctrines. It is unnecessary for me to remind you that that Organization avowedly and openly is bending all its efforts to bring about what it terms a world revolution, and that it equally avowedly and openly sponsors total disarmament and the overthrow of present systems of government of the United States and Great Britain, in particular, as conditions precedent to be accomplished before it can attain its dream of a world revolution. It desires the rest of the world to disarm while it builds up its military power.

The Navy of the United States is nationalistic rather than internationalistic in its point of view. We believe that the people of this nation have the best form of government existing on earth today, or that ever has existed. We believe our form of government best suited to the genius and to the

historical background of the great majority of our people. We do not believe it would be suitable for all or any other nation of the world at this or any other discernible time in the future, and we have no ambition and much less desire to impose our own institutions upon any other nation. We feel that the people of this country, under our present system of government, modified, it may be, as the result of natural evolution, are better qualified to govern and develop this broad land of ours in the interest of the happiness, culture, and liberty of all its people and in the interest of international peace, than is the people or the governmental system of any other nation or group of nations. We know that today we are the richest and most prosperous nation on Earth with a great destiny before us. We are of the opinion, based on much data and our familiarity with other peoples, that outside the confines of our borders there are peoples, nations, and, perhaps, groups of nations observing us with envious eyes, who would not only welcome, but would grasp the opportunity to come in and run our country for us. We flatter ourselves that the United States Navy is a powerful, if not one of the most powerful factors that stands in the way of such an experiment on the part of those who would wish to displace us or govern us. Unfortunately, there are also many within our borders, who have come to our hospitable shores and become citizens of the nation, to say nothing of the hordes of foreign agitators sent here to spread their alien propaganda, who do not believe in our ideals, institutions, or destiny, and who are laboring unceasingly to change them to their liking. The problem of combating this class is not a naval one, of course, but I mention it here as being germane to the general question of nationalism as opposed to internationalism. And, in this connection, if you will bear with me, I should like to quote with approval from an address of Mr. John E. Edgerton, President, National Association of Manufacturers, and Chairman, National Industrial Council, delivered in New York City on October 24, 1928. Speaking of the many grave problems and dangers that confront the American people at what he characterized "this feverish moment," he stated that the chief of them undoubtedly lie in the moral and political realms of our national life. He said:

Our industrial and economic structures have been builded through the one hundred and forty years of our national existence upon the moral and political foundations laid by the clean and capable hands of our fathers. We have paid too little attention to these foundations as we have proceeded with the building of our material temples. We have been prone to leave their guardianship and conservation to the professionally moral and political forces, and to excuse ourselves from the task of common defense except in the emergencies of threatened invasion of our own domains of effort. It is not surprising, therefore, that the moral and spiritual ideals fashioned and set up by our forefathers have been crumbling under the increasing pressures of inflowing alien influences, and that under the same pressures we have been receding

from the political standards and philosophies of the creators of our unprecedented type of political architecture.

In the matter of the preservation of these ideals and standards by which our progenitors undertook to found a nation of eternal character, we have become a nation of compromisers and concessionists. In the name of tolerance and liberalism we have permitted until within very recent years, the almost unrestricted invasion of our national household by foreign hordes, many of whom have been bringing and keeping their inferior moral and political conceptions, ideals, and habits. By the millions they have come to our hospitable shores through the last half century, and while many of the sturdier elements have made valuable contributions to our progress, an infinitely larger number have been a continuous liability.

Drunk upon the wine of a freedom which they had never before tasted, they have attempted, with menacing success, to teach us new and strange lessons in tolerance, liberalism, and personal liberty. As fast as they have complained at any of our moral or political conceptions and practices, we have in the pride of our good sportsmanship compromised with them.

They have not liked the way that we once observed the Sabbath Day of our Fathers, and in our larger cities it has been almost abandoned to the uncultured and uncontrolled uses of irreverence.

They did not like to see the Holy Bible in our public schools, and as good liberals we gave it up to placate their dissatisfaction. They did not admire our Constitution and laws, and we have been doing our level best for many years to adjust them to their liking.

The courts of our land have been irksome to them, and have interfered too much with their conception of personal liberty and freedom, and there are many Americans now who want to compromise in this vital matter.

Then, after explaining that he did not wish to be understood as charging against foreign elements all the crimes that have been committed against our institutions, and paying graceful tribute to those of foreign birth who have illuminated and embellished almost every page of our history, such as Steinmetz, Straus, Bok, Pupin, and hundreds of others, Mr. Edgerton went on to say:

. . . . I am daring to bring to your attention at this reckless hour these matters which seem to me to be of primary importance. By no intemperate word or incautious act would I encourage snobbishness or intolerance of such invidious nature as would deny to any citizen all of the rights and opportunities promised by our Constitution and written indelibly into every truly American Institution. But I am one of those who believe that these rights and opportunities and all of the liberties established by our forefathers are safest while kept under the guardianship and control of the most competent of their descendants. We can serve best the ends of civilization and all the peoples of the earth by retaining at all necessary cost the uncontaminated identity of that nationally distinctive political, social, moral and spiritual character by the power of which we have become the greatest nation on earth. As fast as we fall under the spell of any seductive idea or catchword coined and put in circulation by alien minds and, at the behest of expediency, compromise the principles underlying our tower of national greatness, it will surely crumble as did others which have preceded it. It

should, therefore, be a matter of first concern to every worthy citizen to so conduct his business and order his individual conduct as to conserve these certain essentials to assured progress.

There is a book on the subject of military warfare which was written by a Chinese about seventy-five years before Christ was born when the civilization of that part of the world was, relatively speaking, as far ahead of the rest of the world as we deem ours now to be ahead of the Chinese. Since that time many other civilizations have been born, grown to maturity, and perished from the Earth. The author's name is S'suma Ch'ien. In his book he wrote:

What, then, can be said for the scholars of our age, blind to all great issues and without appreciation of the relative values, who can only bark out their stale formulas about "virtue" and "civilization," condemning the use of military weapons? They will surely bring our country to impotence and discord and the loss of her rightful heritage, or at the very least they will bring about the invasion and sacrifices of territory and general development.

No truer prophesy than this has been handed down to man; four thousand years of Chinese history proves it; the present chaotic plight of China is its dire fulfillment. History reeks with similar prophecies, with similar pacifism in high places, and with similar direful results. Yet movements are under way which make it apparent that with the whole gamut of written history before us, and the impressive examples of latter-day world experience still a part of our memories, we Americans are recoiling from the bogey "armed force." There are those today, in "high places" who would put America on the toboggan for the same destiny that befell China. Without commenting upon the reasons or the motives or the interests behind the remarkable incident, I will, with your permission, invite your attention to a modern American example of the state of mind under discussion. On Calendar Day, April 23, 1926, before the Senate of the 69th Congress, Senator Lynn J. Frazier, of North Dakota, introduced a proposed amendment to the Constitution of the United States, reading as follows:

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled (two-thirds of each House concurring therein), That the following article is proposed as an amendment to the Constitution when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several States:

ARTICLE

Section 1. War for any purpose shall be illegal, and neither the United States nor any state, territory, association, or person subject to its jurisdiction shall prepare for, declare, engage in, or carry on war or other armed conflict, expedition, invasion, or undertaking within or without the United States, nor shall any funds be raised, appropriated, or expended for such purpose.

Section 2. All provisions of the Constitution and of the articles in addition thereto and amendments thereof which are in conflict with or inconsistent with this article are hereby rendered null and void and of no effect.

Section 3. The Congress shall have power to enact appropriate legislation to give effect to this article.

I leave it to you to form your own opinion as to whether the passage of the proposed constitutional amendment would have dissolved the Federal Union and accomplished by simple legislative enactment that which was attempted and prevented by four years of bloody, fratricidal strife. I leave it to you also to decide how Congress could enforce the "appropriate legislation" referred to in Section 3 of the proposed Article. And, by the same process of reasoning, I propose the query as to what would be the practical value of a treaty of import similar to Senator Frazier's amendment if one such were negotiated between all the nations of the world.

The Navy of the United States abhors war. It wants none of it. Its experience throughout all the years of our history and its study of wars, past and prospective, teaches it how horrible they are. The brunt of the next international war in which this country may be engaged, when and if it comes, must be borne in the initial stages, at least, by the Navy. That is a heavy responsibility on the successful shouldering of which will depend the whole future destiny of our beloved land, if not the preservation of the civilization of the present world. That is why we of the Navy ask and expect our people and our public opinion to support the Navy in all its reasonable demands in order that we may bear our responsibility or, better still, in order that we may not have to take upon ourselves the burden of bearing that responsibility. We do not want a navy for aggression. We want one adequate to the needs of our defense only. And that, I may add, is a Navy equal in strength of personnel and material, to that of any other nation in the world. Give us that, to which we are entitled by reason of the responsibility placed upon us as well as by the position of this country as a world power, and we will see to it that its training, morale, and actions are all that they should be. We will not pick a fight with anyone, and, I venture to say, no one will pick a fight with us. At the same time, aside from the question of a force *for National Defense*, which we of the Navy regard as of paramount importance, by providing us with an adequate Navy, equal to that of any other power, the world will possess the most stabilizing force of which I can think for the preservation of *International Peace*.

While, as I have stated, the Navy abhors war, it does not believe that the millennium has yet come and the possibility of future wars removed. Neither does it believe that human nature has undergone any radical change within the last few years. It feels that the same human traits of self preser-

vation, the desire for gain, greed, and jealousy still stalk upon the face of this Earth among individuals and among nations as they have in the ages gone by. For these reasons it believes in being *adequately* prepared for the emergency when it comes, while at the same time entertaining malice and aggressive designs towards none. It admires more the attitude of the eagle, soaring above its nest guarding and protecting its young than it does the attitude of the ostrich, with its head buried in the sand, thus surrendering its main means of defense—its legs.

The Navy is not, and never has been, militaristic. From the nature of things, it cannot be. Its strength is controlled by public opinion and by the laws of Congress enacted pursuant thereto. Its policy, its operations, and the movements of every single one of its units, are controlled by the President of the United States and his civilian Secretary of the Navy. Those two officials are the Alpha and Omega in the conduct of the life of every Naval officer and man. Neither does the Navy of the United States come in contact with our people in their daily lives to any appreciable degree. Instead it stands guard upon the bosom of the two mighty oceans that wash our shores watching over the interests of the Nation, its outlying possessions, and the lines of communication so vital to the orderly continuance of our National interests.

It may not be amiss at this point to make a few remarks concerning that much abused word "militarism"—the bogey that pacifists and their propagandists are so fond of parading before the public. Militarism is not power; it is not force. It is but the system, the *motive*, which would employ power. Organized force in the hands of one nation may constitute militarism, while the same force in the hands of another sort of nation does not. Thus militarism is a thing of the *soul*. It is hateful to every true American, and to none more than to the personnel of our Navy. It is hateful to us because it represents despotic leadership by bloodthirsty character forcing its iron will upon the weak and the powerless. Non-militarism has been the policy of the United States throughout all the years of its existence. But non-militarism is not synonymous with and has no bearing upon preparedness. Unfortunately, non-preparedness and non-militarism have, all too often, been confused, and, I regret to say, non-preparedness has also been the policy of the United States throughout all the years of our existence. Any student of all the wars in which we have engaged, from the War of the Revolution up to and including the World War, can testify eloquently to that statement and to the tremendous cost in blood and treasure that it has entailed.

I shall now present for your consideration a few of the more specific aspects of the United States Navy in its relations to the problems of International Peace. It is needless for me to point out to an audience of this

distinction that the Navy of the United States has no part in the formulation of national policies. Those policies are formulated by the President, the State Department, and the Congress, and, presumably, reflect the majority of national public opinion, both in cases of policies having a purely domestic aspect, such as our present prohibition policy, and in those having an international aspect, such as the Monroe Doctrine, or the Immigration Laws. In the latter class of national policies, however, the Navy takes a lively interest and it is its duty so to do. When such policies are being formulated, the Navy can act in a purely advisory capacity, only, and its advice can then be given only when it is invited. After national policies having a national aspect have been formulated and adopted, it then becomes the duty of the Navy to formulate *naval* policy in accord with the adopted *national* policies and to take the initiative in pressing upon the public, and the Government the adoption of the naval policies considered essential for the support of the adopted national policies.

Bearing the above in mind, I shall now proceed to examine some of the principal features of our present officially sanctioned naval policies which were promulgated by the Navy Department, bearing the approval of the President and the Secretary of the Navy as recently as October 6, 1928.

The *fundamental* naval policy of the United States is promulgated by the Government as follows:

The Navy of the United States should be maintained in sufficient strength to support its policies and its commerce, and to guard its continental and overseas possessions.

The Washington Treaty Limiting Naval Armament has been for some time, and is now, the subject of lively discussion in naval circles, the public press, and in international conferences and diplomatic exchanges, particularly in the matter of light cruiser and minor naval craft tonnage as between the United States, Great Britain, and Japan. As is well known, the Washington Treaty Limiting Naval Armament, provided that the United States, Great Britain, and Japan should be allowed capital ship and aircraft carrier tonnage in the ratio of 5-5-3. The spirit of the Treaty and all the discussions which led up to its adoption, recognize that the same proportions should be observed by the contracting powers in building tonnage of other naval craft not restricted by the specific terms of the treaty. With reference to this question of applying the 5-5-3 ratio to all types of naval craft, which was proposed for adoption as a part of the Treaty by the United States, Lord Balfour, speaking on behalf of the British delegation at Washington, said:

We have considered it with admiration and approval. We agree with it in spirit and in principle. We look to it as being the basis of one of the greatest reforms in the

matter of armaments and preparations for war that has ever been conceived or carried out by the courage and patriotism of statesmen . . . we think it should be accepted; we firmly believe that it will be accepted.

Admiral Kato spoke to the same effect in behalf of the Japanese delegation.

The present naval policy promulgated by the Government, with reference to the Washington Conference, reads:

Should any power undertake a program of expansion in unrestricted classes of naval vessels or in personnel not consistent with the Treaty ratio of capital ships, a new competition in naval strengths would thereby be initiated. Until such time . . . the Navy of the United States may be governed in naval strengths by the spirit of the capital ship ratios. Otherwise it will be necessary appropriately to readjust our naval policy.

Since the signing of the Treaty, both Great Britain and Japan have proceeded to build tonnage in the unrestricted classes far in excess of the capital ship ratios and have far outstripped the United States in tonnage, built and building. They have done exactly what is referred to as a contingency in the statement of our naval policy last quoted. The Geneva Conference failed because of Great Britain's stand. It is around this question of parity in all types of naval craft—naval equality with Great Britain, in other words—that all the present naval argument between the two countries center. This is, in my opinion, a serious, though not a menacing, present irritant in international relations as they bear upon the problems of international peace.

And why, it may be asked, do we desire naval parity with Great Britain? Is it because we are preparing to go to war with her? Is it because we have fear of Great Britain attacking us? The answer is no to both queries.

In 1916, after careful study as to the situation this country would face at the end of the World War, regardless of which side won, Congress passed a naval building program designed to make our Navy equal in strength to that of Great Britain and Japan combined. There existed then a treaty between Great Britain and Japan which provided in substance that either would go to the defense of the other in the event of attack by a third power. Furthermore, up to that time several irritating and menacing issues had occurred between this country and Japan. The general situation did not appear at all encouraging. In addition, we had serious differences with Great Britain regarding the treatment of neutral shipping by her as a belligerent and about violations of existing International Maritime Law. When the War ended, the situation had materially changed. We had gone in as one of the Allies, and the Allies had come out victors. The 1916 building program was well on the way towards completion when the Washington Conference was called. We would soon be so far superior to Great Britain as a naval power that it is doubtful if she could have ever equaled us. By

the terms of the Washington Treaty, we scrapped our tremendously superior naval program in the interest of international security and agreed that this country and England should have equal naval strength in capital ship and aircraft tonnage. The same principle was agreed upon in spirit by the British negotiators as to other naval types. Now that spirit has been denied by Great Britain formally at the Geneva Conference.

Our ocean-borne commerce is now superior to that of Great Britain. Our lines of communication are long and our overseas possessions far-flung. We are under treaty obligations to defend the neutrality of the Panama Canal. We possess no outlying naval bases worthy of the name. Great Britain possesses adequate naval bases the world over. The potential naval bases which we do possess in the Far East have been emasculated by the terms of one of the treaties negotiated by the Washington Conference. The Anglo-Japanese treaty is, of course, abrogated. We are far below our allotted 5-5-3 ratio of naval strength. If war should unhappily occur between us and either of the other two powers, we would be practically helpless on the high seas. Our economic life could not continue at anything like its present rate, if indeed, it did not cease altogether, insofar as foreign trade is concerned. We do not believe we are going to war with either Great Britain or Japan at any time within the discernible future. It is inconceivable that we shall ever go to war with Great Britain. It is much more probable that the navies of the United States and Great Britain will fight side by side as allies in any future war. However, the irritant of British Naval superiority does actually exist,—after we voluntarily surrendered our own overwhelming superiority,—and in violation of the spirit of the Washington Treaty Limiting Naval Armaments. That constitutes a cloud on the horizon of international peace. We feel that we are entitled to naval parity with Great Britain from the point of view of privilege, right, equity, justice, and our own national interests. And last and most important, we feel that if the United States and Great Britain are on exactly equal terms as regards naval strength, the remote possibility of the two countries ever going to war with each other will be made more remote, if not impossible, and that the two equal navies will maintain international peace the world over while, at the same time, avoiding all possibility of competition in naval armaments. That, gentlemen, is, in substance, the reason we of the Navy desire naval parity with Great Britain. I venture to say that this view is concurred in by all well informed opinion in this country.

I shall refer now, briefly, to another of the subsidiary naval policies as promulgated by the Government which has a bearing on the problems of international peace. It is one of eleven subsidiary policies under the heading "General Naval Policy" and reads: "To cultivate friendly and sympathetic relations with the whole world by foreign cruises."

The practice of making foreign cruises has long been a policy of our Navy, and I can testify from personal experience that they have been of the utmost benefit not only to our country as a whole in engendering international good feeling, but also to the personnel of our own service and the training of the fleet. It is the general practice to make such cruises once annually. The combined United States Fleet is usually the emissary sent to represent our country in foreign lands. On all occasions, and everywhere the fleet has gone, we have been received with cordiality. We have always left with a better feeling of understanding on both sides than before we arrived. The effect is broadening on all of our naval personnel. They come away with a better understanding of the other fellow, his point of view, his ideals, his problems, and his ambitions. This cannot fail to have a beneficial influence for the cause of peace so far as our Navy is concerned. It cannot fail to counteract any thought of "militarism" in the minds of our officers and men should there be any tendency for that thought to arise.

I think I can state, without fear of successful contradiction, that the greatest psychological cause of dispute between human beings is ignorance of the other fellow, his problems and ideals. There are other causes in other realms, of course, such as self preservation and economic causes. When they exist, and the psychological cause has not been removed or reduced by a mutual knowledge and understanding on the part of the disputants, then the stage is set for a conflagration. I think I can also say, without fear of successful contradiction, that naval officers, as a class, especially those of a few years' service, are the most widely traveled class in our country. They are familiar with every one of the principal nations of the earth; with their people, their country, and with most of their problems. When they cruise abroad or travel abroad or are stationed abroad, it is their duty to study the country in which they may be and its people. This experience, and the further requirements of Navy regulations that they must, at all times, keep themselves posted in international law and the international relations of their own and other principal powers, cannot fail to reduce in their own minds, and by reflection through the medium of their official reports, in the minds of their fellow countrymen, the "psychological cause for dispute." In this way, too, then, the United States Navy exerts its influence for international peace.

I hope I have made it clear: That the problems of international peace are, and always have been, of primary concern to the Navy; that the Navy is fully alive to, and in entire sympathy with, the general move now so much in the forefront throughout the civilized world to find a practical means to prevent the crime of aggressive wars; and to make the possibility of armed conflict between nations as remote as possible; that it is entirely out of accord with pacifists, communists, and peace-at-any-price advocates and theorists;

that it believes the continued existence of adequate armed forces for defense essential to the practical realization of any plan which may be adopted to secure international peace; that the Navy's point of view is nationalistic rather than internationalistic; that our form of government is thought the best—for us—and that our people are better able to administer it and continue to develop under it than any other people, nation, group, or super-nation; that forces from without and within stand ready and willing to take over our stewardship; that written history and all human experience to date prove the fatuous mistake of abandoning the maintenance and employment, when necessary, of armed forces for defense; and that this ancient and discredited doctrine still has its proponents in modern times among those in high as well as in low places. I have also tried to point out that the Navy abhors war, that it is not militaristic from any point of view, if that term be employed in its true meaning, and that, owing to the responsibility placed upon the Navy and the position of this country in the family of nations, the Navy is entitled to the support of American public opinion and good will to the end that it be maintained in strength of personnel and material second to none. This, in substance, represents what we of the Navy believe to be the best safeguard to our national integrity against the designs of possible hostile powers and the most stabilizing influence for International Peace.

In conclusion: It is my strong conviction that the most powerful influence for the maintenance of international peace in the world, as we see it today, is the desire of the masses of the peoples of all the civilized world, led by the best thought of the times, to refrain from *aggressive war* as an instrument of national policy. The best thought of the times must attempt to educate the masses from a knowledge based on *facts* and on conditions as they *actually exist* and not upon questionable theories or fatuous hopes.

Gentlemen: At the same time that you are educating the masses in the problems of peace, insist that your Navy be maintained in absolute accord with treaty stipulations, and you will have no cause to fear a Service commanded and controlled by such men as I have tried to depict. By so doing you will reduce the probability of war and advance the cause of International Peace.

THE REORGANIZATION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE

FREDERICK M. DAVENPORT

Formerly Professor of Law and Politics at ~~Hamilton College~~; Member of the New York Senate in 1909, 1910, and from 1919 to 1925; Member of the 69th and 70th Congresses.

The world has become one. The problems called foreign are every whit as vast in their national import as any purely domestic matter or policy possibly could be: How to avoid misunderstanding, ill will, aggression, war, personal suffering, vast economic loss; how to gain good will, good understanding, friendly coöperation, prosperity, peace—these questions are so close to us now that international affairs have become national in a sense in which they never were before in our history.

The day when Assistant Secretary Adeo could carry the historical continuity of the State Department under his hat is gone by never to return. Foreign nations are all our next-door neighbors, and we are suddenly the greatest economic and political entity that the world ever saw. We are developing a vast reservoir of capital. We are financing the world. We have fourteen billions invested in foreign countries now and are adding to it at the rate of a billion a year. A billion in the last few years has gone into a reviving and hard-working Germany. Capital is flowing into South America, which is normally our field, at a terrific rate. And nothing can stop it anywhere.

Citizens go with it. International law and order and sound and free international relations and highly intelligent international leadership in Washington are the breath of life to American Business. Business associations are coming to see that, while it is important to work with the Department of Commerce, continuing prosperity and safety in the international field depend fundamentally upon the Department of State. When the shipper gets into trouble, when cargoes are seized, when foreign governments undertake to lay down rules and to countenance practices which cause forfeiture of the rights of our people or encroach upon ordinary privileges, the Department of State is the place to which the troubled victim goes for relief. The Department of State furnishes the approach to the foreign government, and upon the intelligence and skill and good spirit with which the case is presented depends the likelihood of a remedy; and this entirely aside from the use of force and in an entirely different arena. The French Government alters its tariff relations with the United States. Instantly the Department of State is the center upon which all lines converge. Everybody hastens there to see what is to be done about it, what representations can be made to France. And, as the result of the immediate and energetic work of the Department of State, the French Government changes its position, and agrees

to enter into negotiations for a friendly commercial treaty, giving advantageous rates to American business in the meantime, being persuaded by the Department of State that in the end this is best for the interests of both countries.

The Department of State occupies, or should occupy, in modern life the place of preëminence among departments. It holds a peculiar relation to the Executive. It is the right arm of the President in dealing with foreign countries. It is the only department which makes no report to Congress.

The Department of State is charged with maintaining peace, with keeping the boat from rocking, with getting rid of many strained relations which eventually may result in war. Its great function is to prevent war. War is the failure of diplomacy. The Department of State is the first line of defense. It is par excellence the department of peace. If this department is feebly organized, if it has deteriorated into a parlous condition, then the country is in danger as from the decline of no great department of government whatsoever.

Now, what are the facts? In the beginning we were alive as a nation to the great need of skillful leadership in foreign affairs, and we were not obliged to depend widely upon untrained diplomats or a white-spat corps. The experiences of the colonies with foreign countries had developed a keenness of international relation which was reflected in the ready minds of men like Franklin and Adams, when the time came for diplomatic service and decision of the first magnitude. Franklin went to France because there was nobody else in America so fitted to go to France, and Franklin was successful in France because he was an old salt at the business and knew all the sea lanes and reefs of diplomacy. For sixteen years before the Revolution he had handled in London by negotiation and persuasion the foreign affairs of Pennsylvania and New Jersey and Georgia and Massachusetts.

As the nineteenth century waxed and we became more and more free from the commercial as well as the political entanglements of the Old World, and more and more aloof in national mind, we lost to some degree, our keenness of interest and diplomatic edge in foreign affairs. Diplomatic and consular positions became the mere spoil of victorious parties. Edward Livingston, the great Secretary of State in President Jackson's day, was the first clear voice to be heard in the attempt to arouse the country from its lethargy and carelessness about its foreign affairs. The immediate effect of Livingston's demand for consular reorganization and reform appears to have been to invite attention more definitely to the jobs, to intensify the raid on the foreign service, and to multiply existing abuses and inefficiencies. It was not until nearly a quarter of a century had passed—in 1856—that an important act of Congress undertook the first real regulation of the diplomatic and consular systems of the United States. The act of 1856 estab-

lished the range of diplomatic stipends, put the highest grade of consular officers upon a salary basis, and prohibited them from engaging in private trade, established a system of accounting and bonding, and prepared the entering wedge for the merit system by creating a corps of consular pupils of peculiar fitness and qualifications to be certified to by the Secretary of State and the President. It also put the force of law behind orders and instructions of the President to diplomatic and consular officers, so far as these orders did not contravene the Constitution or any existing statute of the United States. And then came the Civil War, and, following it, a long period of indifference to international affairs, except when for a brief moment they might seem to be about to involve us; an attitude of the public mind reflected in Congress and continuing well up to the end of the century and the war with Spain. In 1895 President Cleveland issued an Executive order providing for a system of examination and transfer and promotion of consuls and commercial agents in order to produce a better qualified body of officials. The order died with Cleveland's administration, and the vision of a better day came again with Theodore Roosevelt in 1906. The new act of that year, grading and classifying the posts in the Consular Service, gave the President his opportunity. The merit system was established by Executive order with the punch of power, and inspection, bonding, and accounting rid the consular ranks of irregular practices which had been a shame upon our foreign relations for a hundred years.

Suddenly the business interests of the country rallied to the support of the Roosevelt consular order, and, following three years of successful operation, President Taft issued similar instructions for the diplomatic service below the grade of minister. The rising tide of public opinion, both in Congress and out, now began to demand the enactment of a still more flexible statute providing for greater mobility of personnel and the overt recognition in law of the merit principle inherent in the executive orders of Roosevelt and Taft. And so came the act of February 5, 1915, to fulfill these plain requirements of a better apprehension of the needs of the country in foreign affairs. Thereafter, men were not tied to positions, but could be transferred from post to post according to their qualifications and the interests of the service.

And then came the Great War and the recognition by all thoughtful men that, irrespective of the degree of our direct participation in any international organization, the foreign affairs of the world were creeping up very close to us and were increasing significantly in magnitude. Our foreign affairs are now full of economic questions such as never faced us before. And they have vast electrical-political factors and consequences. Whether we wish it or not, we are in the front rank of preëminence in foreign affairs, and we can not retire to the rear. We have no choice but to meet the new

responsibilities and obligations. We will meet them in our own way, but we must meet them.

The Rogers Act of 1924 laid for the first time in this country the foundation for new vigor and hope in the foreign service area of the Department of State. It is too early to estimate the good that will eventually be accomplished. A new scale of salaries ranging from \$1,500 to \$9,000 is ordered by the Rogers Act, in actual practice beginning at \$2,500. Before this, most consuls and diplomatic secretaries were unable to eke out an existence on the meager stipend of the statute. The inevitable result in embassies and legations was the reign of the white-spat corps, which is still a reality in the outer courts of a good many diplomatic offices of the United States; and this will continue until within a generation, under the new regulations of the Rogers Act, a more efficient type of young manhood, beginning between the ages of 21 and 35, shall become trained and experienced, and shall climb up into the responsible positions of the Nation in the purely foreign service. In the meantime the white-spat corps, with higher pay under the Rogers Act, in some cases disport themselves with what appears to be disdain for their countrymen and with a blasé inefficiency in their daily vocations. They are the same men for the most part who before the better salaries of the act of 1924 lived on a private income earned one or two generations back, whose lives were organized by their fathers before them, who were provided without labor with the equipment of their class, a trip through college, a coonskin coat, the establishment in business. This class, which we have hitherto had to dip into for the lesser diplomats, have never had to exert themselves. With them it is bad form to appear like the active salesmen of their fathers' business. They must not be too wide-awake or too earnest or too interested in anything. And that is the way they act when they get into the distinction of the diplomatic service. This I conceive to be the genesis of the spirit of the diplomatic white-spat corps.

The Rogers Act is not only slowly training a new and better body of diplomatic and consular officers but in the end it should greatly democratize our personal contacts with foreign affairs. There is no longer a hard and fast line between the diplomatic and consular office, but young men are moved from one to the other. They must take the training in consular hard knocks as well as in the soft, smooth ways of the social salon.

The Foreign Service of the country can not be made both efficient and democratic too soon, because we are no longer dealing with monarchs and dynasties but with peoples on the march. If our diplomats succeed in the future, it will be because they understand and appreciate and, in the right sense, sympathize with the human and economic and racial interests of the countries to which they are accredited, and are sincerely in earnest to carry the good will and good understanding of America to the peoples beyond

our borders. The only young men fit to represent us in foreign parts are those who are in sympathy with advancing democracy throughout the world and whose character and ability match the advancing prestige of the United States among the nations.

A great foreign office and its representatives abroad must now be expert in the psychology of other peoples. A very distinguished international statesman in this country once said to me that most of our troubles in South America had been the result of the lack of understanding on the part of our foreign representatives of the human nature of the people of the Southern Hemisphere.

Take the Latin-American field, in which we have so many perplexing and disquieting problems. We are interested there as no government on earth is. We are coming to see that the secret of successful relations with Latin America is the personal equation. Morrow is a diplomat par excellence because he is a master of the art of human nature. His sympathy is sincere; he wishes to impress upon the Mexican people and other Latin-American peoples the good understanding and good will of their countrymen. The Latin Americans are an entirely different race of people from ours. Their whole approach to government is diametrically opposed to ours. The Latin American will determine very much what he will do about a certain matter by whether he likes you or not. We determine what we will do mainly by what we think of the principle involved. A traveling salesman from the United States goes to Latin America and stops off between steamers and tries to sell, and frequently does not succeed. The French or German salesman stops off for two or three weeks, goes into the shop of the merchant, exchanges formal greetings, inquires about the wife and children, and goes out again. By and by he comes back and there are other pleasant expressions. Days go by before anything is said about selling merchandise, but when all conventionalities are finally met, the Latin American is ready to talk business.

The same principle of the sympathetic and understanding mind is applicable to ambassadors, ministers, and consuls;—to deal with foreign peoples as they want to be dealt with, time and patience are necessary, and good temper and kindness and the spending of some money. We have been niggardly about representation and entertainment allowances for our foreign representatives, and have frequently thereby lost in caste and influence in the foreign field. Under the statute of 1924 entertainment expenses may go to ambassadors and ministers, but they have never yet been provided. As a matter of fact, they are probably not so useful in the hands of ambassadors and ministers as the same sums would be in the hands of the lower range of officials.

The main difficulty seems to be with the Budget office. The Budget

office appears not to be able to look upon the Department of State as a producing organization. Keeping the world peace for America seems not a tangible thing to market. If a cut in the Department of Commerce appropriations is imminent, the Secretary is able to say, "All right. Which lighthouse will you have wink out tonight?" The shippers or their clients will wail before the throne. The bankers will support the Treasury demands, and the farmers will not listen to a decline in the agricultural appropriations. But the best things the Department of State may do for the country they cannot tell about; if they tell about them, they can never do them again. Any day here may be a decision of policy that involves millions. A mistake in the Department of State is more costly than anywhere else. It is only when we come to think of the leadership and activities of the Department of State as fraught with graver consequences to the American people for weal or woe than any other mere department whatever, it is only when we see that the decisions made there pave the way to war or peace, to prosperity and happiness, or to vast economic and personal loss, that we approach in the right way the subject of the care which Congress should exercise over the personnel and the needs of the foreign office of the United States. And from such inquiry as I have so far been able to make, I believe it to be the view of most well-informed people, inside the department and out, that the foreign office of the United States, in spite of the advance of the Rogers Act, is still a long way from sound organization and safe functioning for the American people.

In the first place, the Rogers Act applies only to representatives of our foreign affairs abroad. Whatever reorganization and better salary classification and democratization may ultimately do for the Foreign Service, the field of the Department of State at home in Washington is as yet untouched. And here is the brain center of our foreign affairs. Here they tell the Foreign Service what to think and what to do,—after being fed with the facts by the Foreign Service. But here men engaged upon foreign affairs are underpaid and overburdened because their offices are undermanned; in spite of all that a number of devoted and able men in the department can do, they are always sitting over dynamite, things being as they are, usually critical somewhere in the affairs of the world. Salaries in the department at home are still on the old-time basis. Young men are brought in from the higher schools of the country and started at \$1,320 a year. The natural tendency is for a bright young man to get a little experience at the expense of the Government and go out into private practice to profit by it. A few utterly devoted souls hang on, together with those who can do no better elsewhere, and in the course of 15 or 20 years of faithful or inefficient service, as the case may be, attain to the maximum salary of \$6,000 a year, and this in the city of Washington!

In the act of 1906 there is an absurd limitation of \$1,000 a year on the salaries of foreign clerks in the Department of State. The Department of Commerce is hampered by no such statute. The result is that the Department of Commerce is drawing these young men, who come to be good consular clerks, away from the Department of State.

The State Department at home has six chiefs of divisions, one for western Europe, one for eastern Europe, one for the Near East, one for the Far East, one for Latin America, and one for Mexico. Each one of them advises the Secretary of State about his particular geographic area, and it is upon his skill and wisdom in the interpretation of events that the Secretary relies. These chiefs for the most part are no longer bred at home. It has become very difficult in the department to develop a personnel from the lower to the higher offices. The human stuff does not stay there to be trained. It gets out to earn a sufficient amount of honest daily bread to feed its family. The turnover for the Department of State in Washington for the single fiscal year 1927 is 19 per cent.

It is necessary, therefore, to recruit these chiefs of division from the foreign service. For the year 1928 we have robbed the foreign service of 53 good men, taking them from their geographic areas abroad, and perhaps they do not go at all into the appropriate geographic division in which they are expert when they get to Washington. During the recent very troubled times with Mexico, we have had at the head of the Mexican division a man of good ability but little expert knowledge of Mexico. These men who are brought in from the foreign field to rejuvenate the department at home may remain, under the statute, only four years. Then they must get away again to some field which happens to be open. There is a man named Kelly in the Department of State right now who knows more about Russia than anybody in the United States. He is invaluable in an area which requires intimate knowledge and great skill, and the department can not replace him. If the department had not been able to impress him with the belief that he was needed in the home service within the State Department in Washington at a very considerable decrease of salary, he would have had to leave by the first of July, 1928, perhaps for Java or Bombay. When diplomacy fails and war comes, the buck passes from the Department of State to the Departments of War and the Navy, and their organization expenditures are vastly inflated, while those of the Department of State comparatively recede. When peace comes again, the War and the Navy are deflated; but it may very well be that the Department of State, with the tremendously enlarged foreign responsibilities of a peace time like the present, is seriously injured if the theory is that it should share in the deflation. There is something to be said for occasionally bringing home men from the foreign field, in order that Washington may feel the fresh vigor of their information and imagination,

but there is nothing to be said for the present frequently employed method of using them when they get here.

What shall we think of the good sense of a government which goes only half way with its plans for the reform of its foreign office, and permits men with relatively subordinate positions in the foreign service, with salaries of \$7,000 to \$9,000 a year, to be brought home to advise and assist their superior officers who have salaries of considerably less amount? Is it not a fair field for heartburnings and subconscious jealousies, and general decay of initiative and hope?

Above the chiefs of division, who are now necessarily and usually brought in from abroad, are the four Assistant Secretaries of State and the Undersecretary of State. They are the chief group of authoritative officers in the department, with salaries of \$7,500 a year and grave responsibilities. They make the decisions and issue the orders to the Foreign Service. And the system subjects them to constant demoralization. They are always getting out and getting into the larger salaries and larger freedom, each within his own domain, of the relatively subordinate Foreign Service. Wright, Harrison, Grew, Wilson, Phillips, Assistant Secretaries and heads of the information and trades division, not far apart, catapulted into the larger rewards of the Foreign Service. They themselves, having given orders and grown experienced in doing it, go out to take orders from the relative inexperience which in too many cases must fill their places. From the standpoint of efficient business organization the system in the State Department is as topsy-turvy as Alice ever found Wonderland.

The Solicitor of the Department of State is counsel for the American people in international affairs. His function is that of handling the claims of citizens of the United States against foreign governments and of nationals of foreign countries against the United States. He interprets the rights of the United States and of its nationals under all international agreements. He is the legal expert in international arbitrations, and is responsible for the drafting of treaties. I have heard those whose experience justified their opinion say that there are probably not more than half a dozen persons in the United States thoroughly competent for this position. The Solicitor should be the leading international lawyer in the Union. We have a good one now. He gets \$7,000 a year. He gets it because that is the way he is classified, along with other solicitors of other departments, where the making of sound contracts in ordinary matters is the daily pursuit of men who perhaps can be somewhat easily procured in the market for \$7,000 a year. A great corporation in New York City could not be made to believe that it was receiving wise advice unless, in the case of a man competent to attack such problems as those of the Solicitor in the State Department, the salary was at least fifty or one hundred thousand dollars a year. The Government

could probably have held the now famous John Bassett Moore if they could have paid him a living salary. He came to Washington as a \$1,200 clerk; then got \$1,800; then as Third Assistant Secretary, \$2,500. Then he left. Then he came back again as counselor for the State Department. Then he was out again.

The present solicitor has 22 assistants. His salary can not go any higher, because under the classification act the top salary is paid to Assistant Secretaries; that is, \$7,500. And so there the solicitor sticks, held to his office and the guidance of his 22 assistants. The British counsel, Sir Cecil Hurst, is always abroad on every important need, in constant touch with the chancelleries of the world.

And there is another great danger, it seems to me, that will let us in sooner or later for some real trouble; that is, the tendency on the part of other departments which have interests abroad to get as far into the field themselves as they can with their own foreign service. I dare say there should be Treasury agents abroad, and no doubt there should be reporting and investigating abroad by agents of the Department of Commerce. But the responsibility and the decisions should head up in one place—that is, the Department of State—and the general policy should be fixed there in advance.

On the evening of March 31, 1927, the Assistant Secretary of Labor sent over to the Department of State an order which the Department of Labor had issued, going into effect April 1, restraining all alien commuters coming across the Canadian border daily to work in the United States, unless they could produce immigration visés. This matter had been allowed to run along from July 1, 1924, when the new immigration law went into effect, with nothing said about it. Indeed, the Secretary of Labor wrote a letter to the Mayor of Windsor, Canada, that no change of policy was contemplated. Then out of the blue came this order. Legally the Secretary of Labor had a right to issue the order, but practically it brought a protest from the Canadian Government at once on the ground of injustice to a lot of innocent people. As a result several of the leading officers of the Department of State were occupied with this thing for two or three weeks, in intense effort, conferring and arguing with the Department of Labor. There was much unfavorable publicity, much feeling in Canada, and some danger of injuring our relations with a long-time friend. The matter was not settled until late in November.

As the result of the handicap which the department faces in developing adequate organization in its own staff the country is under the anomaly, and the large expense in the case of claims commissions, of having all the preliminaries in such cases farmed out to outsiders, who ultimately carry off into their own private practice the fruits of the evidence and the study,

leaving the department as poverty stricken as before and as unprepared for any future controversy. It seems to be a reasonable view that a well-organized department should furnish continuing ability for the preparation of these cases and the presentation to the Claims Commission, and continuing records of the results.

If any institution of government in this country needs leisure to think in the modern world since the war, it is the Department of State. Under the imperfect organization and the inadequate personnel, every-day questions must every day be put to important executive officers without the background of research which reasonably assures the man who makes the decision that he is doing it accurately. The executive official has not time for the research, and no thorough machinery for it appears anywhere. Men of long experience in these matters, inside the department and out, tell me that there is necessarily too much snap judgment in the foreign office of the United States. Foreign relations are too important for snap judgments, and under the existing order it is little short of miraculous that things have gone as well as they have. In the order of nature and chance we are likely in the future as in the past to have some good Secretaries of State and some who are not so good. But with the increasing magnitude and importance and complexity of foreign problems since the war, a capable Secretary might be led by an incapable organization into catastrophe, and an incapable Secretary might be led into disaster.

The disparity in expenditure between the departments of war and the fundamental department of peace, namely, the Department of State, is very striking. The United States spends about 600 millions on the Army and Navy, and 700 millions on the other departments. Of that sum the Interior Department gets 300 millions, the Department of Agriculture 150, the Treasury Department 27, the Postoffice Department 24, the Department of Justice 30, the Department of Labor 10, and the State Department and Foreign Service between 11 and 12. The consular fees are between 7 and 8 millions of dollars a year.

The American people are not niggardly about an adequate expenditure for defense, and if a three millions burden upon the taxpayer is sufficient to insure skillful international leadership, enough is enough. But if it shall appear that inadequate appropriations, in view of the vast interests at stake, are injurious to the functioning of the great department of peace, neither will the American people begrudge those additions which make for the skillful and unhampered leadership of foreign affairs. Necessary additions to present appropriations to put the Department of State at home on a sound basis would probably not total over one or two hundred thousand dollars, and to do the same for the Department of State throughout the world, probably less than a million dollars.

AMERICAN INDUSTRIAL EFFICIENCY AND THE TARIFF

HENRY F. GRADY

Dean of the College of Commerce, University of California

In the summary of industrial conditions in the 1926 "Commerce Year-book," the following statement is made:

One of the most important facts in regard to American industry is its ever increasing efficiency. During the first quarter of the present century the number of wage earners in our factories increased about 88%, while their quantitative output increased by 178%. As a result, production per wage earner in 1925 was 48% greater than in 1899. Even in the short period from 1919 to 1925 the output per wage earner in our factories increased about 40% as a consequence of the greater efficiency of the wage earners themselves, improved management, more scientific methods and waste elimination, and greater use of machinery and other forms of capital as an aid to human effort. The advance in educational standards and in scientific research are the fundamental causes of this progress in industry.

This striking statement, appearing in one of the standard publications issued by the Department of Commerce under Mr. Hoover's direction, merely reflects what is very generally understood in this country, namely, that the United States is making remarkable strides in the development of all phases of industrial efficiency. Moreover, this development of the last twenty-five years in the United States has so interested economists, engineers, and business men of Europe that they have been coming to this country in large numbers to study our methods and our industrial technique, to discover the secret of our great prosperity and industrial progress.

Even more interesting, probably, than the achievements already attained, are the prospects for the future. The great factors which have been the basis of our advance are continuing to operate with cumulative effect; and the Department of Commerce, which has been exercising a notable leadership in such important matters as the elimination of waste in industry and the development of simplified practice and standardization, has but little more than started in the bringing about of that transformation and improvement of industry as a whole which Mr. Hoover has envisioned. Through the experts in the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, the Bureau of Standards, and other bureaus of the Department of Commerce, and in his own statements, Mr. Hoover has been sponsoring the doctrine of a "rationalized" American industry, which means the improved coördination of all the factors of production, namely, raw material supply, fabrication, transportation, and distribution. This rationalization is taking the form of coöperation between all the agencies in the great national productive

machine; of research in the interest of all the factors; and of conferences and rapprochements between the divisions of industry which in the past have been wastefully competitive and individualistic in serving merely their own ends.

The cumulative effects of all these efforts must lead to the development of industrial efficiency in the future which will far surpass anything which has been accomplished up to the present time. It must mean steadily decreasing costs and steadily increasing competitive strength in the markets of the world. America has become, in recent years, the leading trading country of the world. The value of our trade exceeds even that of Great Britain, which was the world's leader for so long. We have not lost ground in our advance as a trading country even in the last two or three years, when competition from the newly rehabilitated industrial countries of Europe has become intense. The explanation is, of course, the industrial efficiency, increased per capita output, and lower unit costs of production which were described in the opening paragraph of this paper.

There are no adequate statistics available which show the comparison of costs for the production of industrial commodities in this country and abroad. Wage figures are available, and these show American wage scales higher than those of any other country, but, of course, wages are not a sole indicator of costs of production, particularly under conditions of mass production, for the highest wages may be paid with the lowest unit labor cost. A clear indication that our costs of production are relatively low, despite our high wages, is the large volume of our exports of manufactured goods to countries like Latin America and the Far East, where we have to compete with the industrial organizations of Europe. Two-thirds of our exports are manufactured articles, including manufactured foodstuffs. In 1927 American manufactures passed the three-million mark for the second consecutive year. The factors which have made for our efficiency and lowering costs during the past few years, and which are working, as I have pointed out, in the direction of still greater efficiency and still lower costs, will even further increase our advantage in competing abroad.

In contrast with the repeated demonstrations of industrial efficiency and low costs of production in this country, and despite the fact of our large export trade of over three billion dollars of manufactures, and even though we can sell successfully in Latin America and the Far East against European competitors, we seem unable to meet that same competition when it is within the boundaries of our own country. Even at a time when the indications are so clear that our efficiency is increasing, and even when the reports of our export trade are so encouraging, we are being urged to place still higher tariffs against foreign manufacturers, on the ground that we are unable to meet them on the basis of price and quality, and must be given the handicap

of high import duties if we are to maintain the volume of our sales in our domestic market.

There is something distinctly contradictory between the demonstrations of efficiency in American industry on the one hand and the claims of the protectionists on the other. If we can successfully compete abroad, why can we not do so at home? When we sell in Argentina we have no tariff to help us out. Why must we have it when the competition we are to meet happens to be in one of our own states? If our development in efficiency is not bringing us to the point where we can compete with foreign manufacturers in our own market, how much farther along the pathways of industrial efficiency will we have to go before the point is reached where our manufacturers will cease clamoring for increased tariffs, and will be prepared to concede that our progress is real, that our industrial efficiency means something, and that that reduction in costs which is going on has its influence on sales within the United States as well as on sales in Argentina and those other parts of the world where we do not have the cloak of protectionism spread over us?

✓
THE PART OF FOREIGN RELATIONS IN THE HOOVER
ADMINISTRATION ✓

MRS. ROBERT J. BURDETTE

Director of Food Conservation for California under the Federal Food Administration; Active in Women's Club Organizations and in Philanthropic Work; First President of the California Federation of Women's Clubs; Formerly first Vice-President of the California Federation of Women's Clubs; Correspondent for the Foreign and Territorial Clubs.

It would be very presumptuous for me to make any prediction as to the attitude of the Administration for the next four years if it rested upon the Cabinet, which is not selected, and the majority of Congress, for as we well know it is impossible to predict even what a majority will do. But there are two factors which we might hold responsible for the advancement of International Relations to a greater understanding. One is, we, the people, who are led by such a group as this, many times multiplied, to create an intelligent emphasis on the right public opinion and apply wise methods of pressure at the right time in the right way. The second factor is the President-elect, the leader of the Administration; and there has never come to the chair of the Chief Executive a better equipped, a more highly motivated soul, a proven translator of international relations, than Herbert Hoover. Not only is he equipped with practical idealism, but he adds to that the great asset of commanding coöperation on the part of all those who are associated with him. This has been illustrated by the personal loyalty he commanded during the War through the Food Administration, and later by those associated with him in the Department of Commerce and other organizations.

We, who have attended the conferences on the Cause and Cure of War, have had it revealed to us that sentiment will not cure war; intelligent education alone will not cure war; nor will the answer to over-population, nor the furnishing of raw material, nor more favorable economic conditions; but our hope lies in "foreign relationships which must mean ultimately world peace."

Mr. Hoover made one pronouncement on this during his campaign, when he said that the ultimate object of the foreign policy of the Republican Party is world peace. Dr. Collings stated in a round table discussion this morning that our foreign policy is the most important consideration of the next administration. If so, we have great hopes in the leader of the administration, who has the Quaker inheritance of a desire for righteousness and world peace, and who has by his past performances demonstrated his high ability in dominating conditions which will bring to us better understanding among the nations and in due time will help us to realize our desire for world peace.

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REORGANIZATION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE*Summary of Round Table*

GRAHAM H. STUART

Professor of Political Science, Stanford University
Student, Alliance Française, Paris, 1911; Student Ecole des Sciences Politiques, 1914;
Author of: *French Foreign Policy*; *Latin America and the United States*; *The Government System of Peru*; *The Tacna-Arica Dispute*.

The round table, under the leadership of Professor Stuart, first considered the historical development of the State Department and its constitutional basis. Note was taken of the lost duties of the department, and the gradual changes towards greater unification. A summary of the organization as it existed at the outbreak of the World War was discussed as a basis of comparison with the subsequent needs of the department.

The disorganization of the department brought about by the many new duties thrust upon it by the World War, and the continued increase in the department's activities since the war, was seen to be one of the principal problems which the department faced. The problem was rendered the greater by the failure of the government to provide adequate appropriations even for the elementary necessities of the department.

Congressman Davenport thereupon took over the leadership and directed the discussion of certain specific problems. It was pointed out that although the development of rapid international communication had transferred the essential responsibilities from the field service to the home service, nevertheless such reorganization as had occurred since the World War was under the Rogers Bill of 1924 and had been limited exclusively to the foreign service.

The first need seemed to be an increase in personnel. When the work in the years 1922-27 had grown 9.8% the personnel had increased only 1.1%. As specific examples of the increase in duties, it was shown that when in 1914 only 23,453 passports were issued, in 1926 the number had increased to 193,000. When in 1914 the index bureau had recorded 160,000 papers, in 1926 the number was 600,000. To perform their functions many of the officials were forced to work until six or seven instead of four-thirty.

The second problem was that of salaries. These were found to be both inadequate and unequal. The office of Under-Secretary of State paid \$7,500; and the assistant secretaries received \$6,000; and both amounts were conceded to be wholly inadequate. Furthermore, some chiefs of divisions subordinate to the assistant secretaries received as much as \$9,000, owing to the fact that they had been brought in from the foreign service. The solicitor, an expert in international law, with twenty-two assistants under him, received \$7,000, while outside experts were paid \$12,000. The results of these

wholly irrational salaries was a turnover of 19% in the State Department during 1927.

The third problem was promotion. At present a Bureau of Personnel made recommendations to a Board of Review, and then the Foreign Service Personnel Board made the promotions. It was found that the Board of Review brought biased and preconceived opinions to the task and that favoritism was prevalent. This favoritism worked in favor of those in the promotion services on the one hand and in favor of the diplomatic as against the consular service on the other. For instance, every member of the Personnel Board or its units had been promoted and 63% of the diplomatic service were promoted to 37% of the consular service.

The Porter Bill for the reorganization of the State Department was then discussed, special attention being given to the lengthy preamble which gives an excellent summary of the needs of the department. This bill remedies the salary situation by raising that of the under-secretary to \$13,500, and that of the assistant secretaries to \$12,000. It added also two additional assistant secretaries. It put all employees into a home service with the same classification as the foreign service officers under the Rogers Bill and gave them the benefit of the civil service retirement act. Improvements were made in the Personnel Board.

An interesting provision, which was discussed at length, was the creation of an advisory council on foreign affairs of the high executive officers of the State Department, which might invite the chairman and ranking minority members of the Senate and House Committees on Foreign Affairs to participate in the meetings. Another interesting requirement was the provision requiring five years in the consular service before obtaining a diplomatic position.

Brief consideration was also given to the provisions of the Moses Bill relating to promotions to fill in certain gaps in the Porter Bill. The round table also discussed the question of publications and was unanimously of the opinion that the department should be provided with such funds as should be necessary to provide for the speedier publications of the annual volumes on foreign relations, and also that, if possible, the hearings of committees be made a part of the Congressional set, and that the press releases be available in some form of official documents.

In conclusion, the round table felt that considering the present importance of the work of the State Department towards the maintenance of peace it might at least be given one-tenth of the appropriations granted to the war or navy departments, whose chief value was alleged to be for the same peaceful purposes. The session closed with a vote of appreciation for the work of Congressman Davenport, whose carefully documented speech in the Congress had brought the situation before the public.

✓ FOREIGN POLICIES OF AMERICAN POLITICAL PARTIES'

Summary of Round Table ✓

EDGAR E. ROBINSON

Professor of American History, and Director of Citizenship, Stanford University.

Author of: *The Foreign Political Policy of Woodrow Wilson and The Evolution of American Political Parties.*

It was agreed that this was not to be a study of the foreign policy of the United States government, nor was it to be a study of the foreign relations of the government. The round table began with four propositions: (1) Ours is a government by party; (2) These parties are intricately organized; (3) This type of organization has failed to deal effectively with foreign policies; (4) There appears to be no adequate party agency for formulating public opinion on foreign policy.

Foreign relations are in the hands of officials of the government, and programs may be developed and are developed by partisans in office. But policies must be handled, if at all, in advance of government action by parties or by agencies acting in place of parties. Bryce was quoted to the effect that in a democracy the people are entitled to determine the ends, or general aims, of foreign policy, and it was pointed out that Elihu Root had commented that people wishing to control foreign policy ought to know something about the subject.

There appeared to be three steps involving party action when it was active: (1) Direction of public interest, (2) aid in supplying the facts, and (3) attempts at formulation of programs. The position of parties might be determined by (a) platforms, (b) votes of representatives, (c) utterances of accepted leaders, (d) party caucus, (e) observance of tradition. It was pointed out that in the past sixteen years the democrats and the republicans had each had eight years of administrative control of the national government. Wilson, as president, had had a definite set of policies, but it was difficult to show that the democratic party had had such policies. It was pointed out that Presidents Harding and Coolidge had made definite proposals in foreign policy, and that a majority of the republican party had followed when republican senators had furnished important opposition to the Four Power Pact of the Washington Conference of 1921-22, and later a considerable opposition to American adherence to the World Court.

It was pointed out that the geographical factor might offer considerable explanation; that the country on the basis of votes taken in the Senate could be divided into three sections: the eastern area, that had an interest in the development of foreign policy; the Pacific area, a particular type of

interest; and the great interior, lacking in interest either in general policy or in particular measures.

The following general questions were raised and discussed under the head of possible objectives of the United States in foreign policy: (1) Is the United States to be a keeper of the peace; (2) How far shall we go in the maintenance of order among other peoples; (3) Do we believe in a democracy among nations; (4) How far can we be said to be interested in the physical well-being of other peoples?

The individual citizen, or a body of individual citizens, are helpless to affect foreign policy unless they can influence the officials in charge of the government, on such questions, for example, as American adherence to the World Court, ratification of the Kellogg treaties, appropriations for the development of the navy. Associations of citizens interested may play upon (a) the President, (b) the Senate, (c) party managers, (d) public opinion. Our experience shows three weaknesses: (a) the danger of division on lines of previous national allegiance; (b) the subordination of domestic questions; and (c) the elimination of productive criticism. Three possible conclusions were presented: (1) There is often need of an opportunity for division upon objectives as well as programs in foreign relationships. As a rule parties have not provided this opportunity. (2) There is, then, need for extra legal associations other than political parties for arousing interest, supplying facts, and formulating policies. (3) In some such fashion parties will not aid in formulating policies, nor will they provide such obstacles as have been evident in the past thirty years.

LATIN AMERICA

✓
OUR LATIN AMERICAN NEIGHBORS
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(Abbreviated Report)

DR. HARRY T. COLLINGS

Professor of Economics, University of Pennsylvania

Trade Adviser for Argentina and Uruguay as a representative of the War Trade Board, 1918; United States Trade Commissioner in Belgium, 1919; and Special Agent of the United States Department of Commerce, 1920; Investigator of international trade, Chile, Argentina, and Brazil, summer of 1924; Student in Germany, France, Belgium, and Mexico; Visiting Professor, University of Kiel, Germany, 1927; Delegate to the Congress of Panama in 1926 and to the International Chamber of Commerce meeting in Sweden in 1927.

The foreign policy of the United States is the most important question before this government for the next four years. Our attitude toward Latin America during these years is the touchstone of our whole foreign policy—President-elect Hoover has proved it. If this is true, it is timely to know something of the Latin American republics and their peoples.

There are two Americas—not North and South, for that is a minor distinction—but Anglo-Saxon and Latin America, and they look at life from different angles. From the point of view of foreign policy, it is not a question of which is right, but a question of the difference in attitude toward political, social, and business life on the part of the peoples of the United States and the republics to the south. With a view to appreciating these differences, this brief discussion considers Latin America from three points of view: (1) Political conditions, (2) social conditions, and (3) economic conditions.

Before turning to these special phases of present day life in Latin America, it may be well to point out the following facts. It is difficult to generalize accurately about the twenty republics to the south of us. One may not easily describe present day conditions in Uruguay, for example, and in Honduras in the same words. The economic advancement of Chile is much greater than that of Haiti. The capital of Argentina, Buenos Aires, is one of the finest cities in the world—a second Paris. One could hardly say the same thing of most of the Latin American capitals. Tegucigalpa, the capital of Honduras, for example, is a mere village compared to Rio de Janeiro. In spite of these facts, one may find enough similarities in Latin American political, social, and economic conditions to generalize with some degree of profit.

To understand political conditions in Latin America today, it is necessary to recall that these republics were colonies of Spain for some three hundred years (1525 to 1825), with the exception of Brazil, whose mother country was Portugal. During these three hundred years the Latin Ameri-

can colonies had no opportunities for self government. They were controlled entirely from Spain or Portugal and ruled by governors appointed by these mother countries. When the colonies, therefore, became free and independent republics during the first quarter of the nineteenth century, they knew nothing of national politics. During the century which has elapsed since they became independent, it is, therefore, not surprising that many of them have failed to establish a stable government of the democratic type, such as we know in our own country. This has been partly due to the different attitude taken by these peoples toward their political life. Politics in Latin America is a profession. Interest in political affairs is not widespread, as with us, and indeed cannot be because the electorate is made up of only a small percentage of the citizens. Illiteracy of from fifty to ninety per cent of the people, especially in the Caribbean area, makes it impossible to create public opinion through the press or periodicals. Throughout these areas business men take much less interest in politics than is the case in our own communities. Political affairs are controlled by a small group of professional politicians who make their livelihood out of this activity.

Moreover, political parties in these southern republics are on an entirely different basis. Voters seldom cast their ballots for a program as do we; they vote rather for a personality. Latin Americans seldom vote for parties or the principles which parties uphold, but rather for the candidate whom the party names as its leader. Americans vote for high tariff, sound money, or against the League of Nations, and with the exception in recent times of Theodore Roosevelt, Woodrow Wilson, and perhaps the two candidates in the presidential campaign of 1928, give little attention to the personal qualifications of candidates whom the parties put forward as office holders. Again, Latin Americans are idealists in government; we are "practicalists." They theorize too much about government; we theorize too little. Our interest is in the practical workings of government; theirs too much in the constitutional basis of it. Again, Church and State are entirely separate in our country; in Latin America there is a close connection between the two in most of the republics. So close is this connection in many of the countries that the Catholic Church participates extensively in the determination of national and international politics.

From a social point of view, the conditions which prevail in the two areas under consideration show even a greater difference. Latin American society is regularly made up of two strata, a small aristocratic upper class and the great mass of common people. The upper class, usually descendants of the Spanish and Portuguese colonists of three hundred years ago, owns the property (largely land), gives orders, and controls legislation. The mass of people, which constitutes the second stratum of society, is made up of the native Indian and the half breed (Mestizo, an intermingling of

Indian blood with that of the white colonist). This lower group is without property, education, or influence in social life. In individual characteristics they differ from us, too. Latin Americans are by nature courteous, and this quality is conspicuous in every phase of their life. The poorest peon has the manners of a gentleman. We in the United States, on the other hand, have been so occupied with economic development and material progress that we have sloughed off some of the external evidences of courtesy, however sincere we may be at heart. This makes it difficult for Latin Americans to understand, for instance, our brief and pithy business letters, our brusque greetings, and the curtness which we exhibit so frequently even in our social life. Our emphasis upon the accumulation of money as a criterion of business success is incomprehensible to them. Our whole social and political life being built upon different principles from theirs; they and we think in different terms.

It may be still further pointed out that Latin American character differs from our own. This difference is shown by the way in which the two approach a problem. The American does so by the most direct method; the Latin prefers a roundabout way. The Anglo-Saxon again is coöperative by nature; he works together with his fellows in clubs, singing societies, and business organizations, and they easily find common ground. The Latin American in contrast is less trustful; he is more individualistic. All peoples are more or less sensitive to criticism from abroad; the Latins, however, seem super-sensitive in this respect.

The two areas differ even more in respect to economic conditions. The Latin American republics are economically backward. In view of what was said regarding the political life, one may readily understand why they have not advanced in a business way. Wealth is most unevenly divided. The upper aristocratic group includes millionaires, but the vast group of poor people includes a large percentage who live below the poverty line. Land is held in large estates, one of eight million acres is known in northern Mexico. Many "haciendas," as they are called, have from two hundred to three hundred thousand acres. Workmen and their families on these estates constitute a separate community ruled by the owner of the farm. They have their own church and school, and many of the workers are attached to this ranch practically for life. These estates are not sold or divided at the death of the owner; consequently it is not possible to build up a small farm-owning class, which constitutes the backbone of a democracy. This has a very important bearing on immigration. Immigrants refuse to continue year after year as day laborers on the haciendas; they wish to buy small farms and become independent owners of land. Since this is not possible, Latin American republics have found it difficult to increase their productive power by bringing in desirable citizens from other countries.

Still greater differences exist between business life here and in these southern republics. American business is characterized by efficiency. We measure industrial and commercial success perhaps too much by output per unit of time and by annual profits. Our neighbors to the south too often show the opposite extreme in this matter—they place too little emphasis upon “bringing home the bacon.” Industry and commerce among them are viewed so largely from the theoretical side that the business man does not have time or interest to make his theory materialize. Americans want results, and they judge success by these results; Latin Americans have other standards. As a result of this difference in economic conditions, the people of the United States have the highest scale of living in the world; our neighbors to the south, on the other hand, have a low scale. The great difference between these two levels of living leads to jealousy and suspicion on their part, and to a tendency to accuse us of imperialism in national policy and of unfairness in private business.

It is important that we should keep in mind, in our relations with Latin America, the differences which have been pointed out in the political, social, and economic environment of the two areas. Satisfactory international relations are always the result of compromise. The abyss which exists, however, between the Anglo-Saxon of Latin America and the Latins of these southern republics, in temperament, in society, and in business, makes difficult any compromise. Each believes he is right because of the different standards and customs to which he has been subjected in the area where he lives. The problem still remaining is how to fuse these differences and bring from them a level of understanding that may be acceptable to both peoples.

In conclusion, it may be said that our Latin American neighbors live in a different environment from our own. They, therefore, reach different conclusions regarding life and its problems. It is not a question of which is right or wrong. When both peoples can come to understand their differences in attitude toward life and in living conditions, and can learn to make allowances for these differences, they will have gone a long way towards being able to attack international problems in such a way as to bring about mutually profitable settlement. In the matter of trade, we need their raw materials, while they need our capital and manufactured goods. We have long felt friendly toward Latin America; with better mutual understandings this feeling should become reciprocally stronger. The only wise Latin American policy on our part is one based on a sane understanding and sympathetic appreciation of these neighbors to the south.

THE POSITION OF COLOMBIA IN SOUTH AMERICAN
AFFAIRS ✓

SAMUEL H. PILES

Sometime Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to Colombia

In the moments that have been allotted to me, I shall speak briefly of Colombia's place in the affairs of South America. In order that you may clearly appreciate what her place is, and what the future holds in store for her, I will tell you something of that "Bright Land of the South." Colombia's shores are washed by the two great oceans; she has an Atlantic seaboard of about 700 miles, and a Pacific coastline of about 600 miles. While Colombia is old in years, she is young in development, a new west in the making, and presents, as we presented fifty years ago, unusual opportunities to intelligence, energy, enterprise, character, and capital.

Among South American countries, Colombia ranks third in area and population; first in production of gold, emeralds, and coffee; second in platinum; and third in bananas. It has large undeveloped resources in hard wood, water power, and oil.

I was very happy while Minister to Colombia to have Colonel Lindbergh as my guest. He told me that when flying from Cartagena to Bogotá, he saw numerous waterfalls with power possibilities, in addition to that from falls already utilized. One of the best known among the latter is Tequendama, an hour's ride from Bogotá, 560 feet high, famous, as it is said, for its beauty and suicides, as well as its tremendous water power.

The day of revolutions has passed in Colombia. The government is sound and stable and law is enforced throughout the Republic. Colombia, however, is not a poor man's country.

Let us imagine ourselves sailing on the Caribbean Sea and within sight of the Colombian coast. We land first at Cartagena, a historic and rapidly growing city, behind whose immense walls millions in gold were once stored against the depredation of the pirates and near-pirates, who formerly infested the Spanish Main. This city has a very picturesque harbor and is rich in tradition and folk-lore.

From Cartagena we go to Puerto; and then, on an English owned railway, seventeen miles to Barranquilla. Barranquilla is a very progressive city with a population of about 125,000 people. It had about 75,000 when I first saw it in 1922. It is situated not far from the mouth of the great Magdalena River, which is being dredged by an American company, so that

seagoing vessels will within a few years, it is hoped, discharge their cargoes at the piers of that city.

From Barranquilla we go to La Dorado, the practical head of navigation on the lower Magdalena, where another British owned railway line is taken across country for a distance of about eighty miles to Beltran on the Upper Magdalena to Giradot. At Giradot we are still in the tropics. If good luck has attended us, we reach the capital within ten or eleven days after leaving Barranquilla. Hydroplanes with a capacity of eight passengers now ply daily between Barranquilla and Giradot, making the trip from the Caribbean sea in two days.

Within two hours from Giradot, our train is climbing the beautiful, sunlit mountains of the eastern range of the massive Andes. We are at an altitude of about 4,000 feet. Here the air quickly changes, for at this altitude we are in perpetual spring. In all my travels, I have seen no land that offers greater contrast than does Colombia. Its mountains, while badly broken in places, have a fascination well nigh indescribable. We pursue our serpentine course, climbing the crags higher and higher until we reach our railway apex at an elevation of 9,000 feet, and then, slightly descending, we reach the great Bogotá Plain, 8,650 feet above the sea.

The coffee plantations of Colombia add unusual grace and charm to the landscape. Many of them are skirted by the old Spanish, stone-covered mule trails constructed by Indian slave labor more than three hundred years ago. The best yields come from the mountain sides, planted at an altitude of 2,300 to 5,000 feet. More than 500,000 acres are now planted in coffee; and public officials have stated that there are 10,000,000 acres of unplanted coffee lands in Colombia, which, if cultivated, would produce twice the amount of the world's present coffee consumption. More than \$80,000,000 is now invested in coffee plantations.

Silk production in Colombia is in an incipient stage, but its growth is advancing. No artificial heat is required in its production. The mulberry trees produce at least two or three crops per annum. Sugar and tobacco production is extensive and will, when transportation facilities shall be provided, increase considerably. The Lewisohns of New York have spent millions dredging the rivers for platinum. American capital has developed large banana areas at millions of dollars of expense, and has provided quick transportation to the markets of the United States and of Europe. About 50,000 acres of banana land is in cultivation, and the value of the product when exported is more than \$50,000,000 per annum.

It is estimated that more than 10,000,000 cattle roam the plains of Colombia, and that there are millions of acres in that country upon which great herds may yet feed. Perhaps the only large expanses of land in the world

suitable and available for cattle raising, now to be found at a low value, are the plains of Casanare. These plains comprise practically the whole of the northwestern part of Colombia.

The oil development in Colombia is also in its infancy when compared with what it is believed the production of that country will eventually be. The Tropical Oil Company is the owner of a concession of oil lands on the Magdalena River comprising more than 1,300,000 acres, and upon which, it is said, it spent more than \$30,000,000 before it began shipping. To the Tropical Oil Fields the Andean National Corporation has constructed a pipe line from Cartegena, a distance of about 300 miles, at a cost said to be in excess of \$30,000,000, to transport to Cartegena, the Tropical Oil Field productions, estimated at 30,000 barrels per day.

Bogotá is a pulsing city of 250,000 people. It has old, narrow streets, broad avenues skirting rare, semi-tropical parks, and quaint old Spanish houses with overhanging balconies and iron-grated windows, through which the beaux and belles whisper as in the days of old. Mountains encircle the city at an altitude ranging from 750 to 2,000 feet above the plain.

When sufficient railways, highways, and tourist hotels shall be constructed throughout the mountainous regions of the eastern range of the Andes, one can enjoy any climate desired within a few hours from Bogotá—perpetual spring, tropical summer, perpetual fall, or freezing winter.

Colombia's people are proud, sensitive, and fearless. They will submit to no dictation, nor will they ever attempt to dictate. They expect us to be, as we should be, firm in the protection of the life and property of our people; for I know of no nation that would be firmer in the protection of the life and property of its citizens than would Colombia.

I hope the members of this great Institute will do their best to discourage adverse criticism of our diplomats, for it is, I think, very unwise and often injurious for any American to belittle the foreign policy of his country until he is certain that his criticism is justified. We have faith in our country's foreign policy until we are positive that that policy is wrong, and when so convinced I think it would be much better to have such criticisms directed quietly and sincerely to the President of the United States. The diplomat has two duties to discharge, paramount in his mind,—the duty of protecting the rights of his countrymen, and being fair and just at all times towards the country to which he is accredited.

We have grown rich and great and powerful, but, notwithstanding this, we should be as simple and as generous as we were when we ourselves were struggling for our liberty. We should never forget that a truly great man will never be arrogant or unjust, and that a great and powerful nation can never afford to be arrogant or unjust. We must not forget that little nations

are apt to misunderstand us because of our great wealth, influence, and man power, and that we should, in consequence, go out of our way to be just to all.

I am a firm believer in treaties which make for peace. Yet there is but one treaty which, in my judgment, will under all conditions survive, and that is a treaty written in the hearts of men. Faith and confidence is what we must implant, especially in South and Central America.

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OUR LATIN AMERICAN POLICY;

Summary of Round Table ✓

PROFESSOR HARRY T. COLLINGS
University of Pennsylvania

The discussion presented by the leader at this first meeting of the Round Table dealt with "The Background of Our Latin American Policy." This first meeting aimed to introduce members of the Round Table to the situation with which we are dealing when we enter into political or economic relations with our Latin American neighbors. The leader outlined the four points:

1. Our historical relations with Latin America.
2. The Monroe Doctrine.
3. Pan-Americanism.
4. Present day commercial relations.

Under the first topic it was pointed out that for some three hundred years (1525 to 1825) the present Latin American republics were colonies of Spain, and in one case (Brazil), of Portugal. During this time these colonies had no part in their affairs, so that when they became free from Spain and Portugal, during the first quarter of the nineteenth century, they were entirely without experience in self-government. Although officially neutral, the United States was nevertheless a supporter of the Latin American colonies during their wars of independence against the mother countries.

In presenting the second point, the leader maintained that the Monroe Doctrine is the foundation of our Latin American policy, and deserves support, although there is much less need for it now than when promulgated in 1823. He also maintained that the Monroe Doctrine should be changed to a Pan-American doctrine; *i. e.*, several of the most important Latin American republic should be asked to join with the United States in maintaining it. This would remove opposition to its paternalism.

Pan-Americanism was defined as the movement by which all republics in the Americas were striving to promote their mutual interests. The movement was approved and declared to be worthy of complete support by both the United States and Latin America.

The last part of the discussion was given to a survey of the present-day commercial relations between our country and the republics to the south. It was pointed out that approximately three-quarters of the foreign trade in the Caribbean area (both exports and imports) came more or less naturally to the United States because she offers the best market for the sale of Carib-

bean exports, and because the raw materials and foodstuffs which this area produces can be sold to better advantage than elsewhere. The discussion further showed that the foreign trade of southern South America had naturally gone to European countries and would continue to do so, because trade relations of Argentina and Chile with Europe had been more advantageous than those with the United States. The leader concluded with a brief discussion of the importance of our commercial relations with Latin America and the necessity for close and courteous attention to business policies in those republics.

Members of the Round Table were invited to discuss the points presented by the leader, and active participation from the floor occupied the last quarter of the period. There was general agreement with the points presented except those concerning the Monroe Doctrine. Several members insisted that this principle was obsolete and should be given up. It was further argued from the floor that Pan-Latinism was a more natural movement than Pan-Americanism, although, as the discussion showed, Pan-Americanism had succeeded where Pan-Latinism had apparently failed.

At the second meeting of the Round Table the discussion dealt with "The Mexican Problem." After some introductory remarks pointing out that Mexico was a country with some fifteen million people, most of whom are Indians or Mestizos, the leader roughly sketched the four hundred years of history from 1528 to 1928. From this it appeared that Mexico's affairs for the last hundred years have been turbulent and often dominated by dictators, even though the country has been nominally a republic. The Diaz régime (1876 to 1911) was shown to be a benevolent despotism. President Diaz invited in foreign capital and developed the country economically, but, in so doing, neglected the education of his people, as well as the land problem,—the breaking up of the large estates into small farms. The revolution (1911-1920) was Mexico's effort to free the country from this foreign dominance and to solve her agrarian problem.

The discussion of the hour dealt with (1) the internal problem, and (2) the external problem. The former, it was pointed out, is purely a domestic question; Mexico must break up her large land holdings, extend suffrage more widely, establish a new system of taxation which shall be direct rather than indirect, separate church from state, and raise the level of living in the country by developing foreign trade. These features represent the essence of the internal problem. The external problem relates to the new constitution of 1917, especially to Article XXVII, which declares that subsoil properties belong to the Mexican Government and not to the owners of the surface. This provision of Article XXVII, if retroactive in character, would deprive oil and mineral companies of subsoil properties obtained by leases or in fee simple under Mexican law many years previous

to 1917. Our government maintained that American, as well as other foreign property rights, would be confiscated should Article XXVII be made retroactive, since the compensation offered by the Mexican Government for these subsoil properties was practically worthless. The leader maintained that the attitude of Secretary Hughes (June 7th, 1921) was defensible and deserved approval in maintaining the position stated above. The discussion brought out more in detail the temporary settlement made in 1923 by the two American commissioners in Mexico and the subsequent arrangement made by Ambassador Morrow during 1928 in bringing about better relations between the United States and Mexico with reference to the foreign ownership of subsoil properties in that republic.

The last half hour of the meeting was given to discussion of the Mexican problem by members of the Round Table. Several vigorously opposed the policy of the United States in the Mexican oil and mineral controversy, maintaining that Mexico had the right to confiscate these properties of foreigners, provided Mexican citizens were treated in the same way. It was argued by some that the leases and ownership rights to oil and minerals in Mexico were doubtless obtained in many cases by unfair means and consequently were not legally defensible. The Round Table concluded, however, that confiscating these properties was a second wrong which would not right the first one. Ambassador Morrow's masterly handling of the Mexican problem was highly approved by the Round Table.

The third session of the Round Table covered a discussion of "Caribbean Interest of the United States." The material was arranged under two topics: (1) Our general interest in this area, and (2) our policies in Cuba, Haiti, Santo Domingo, and in Central America. It was pointed out by the leader that our general interest in the Caribbean was increased by the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty of 1850, in accordance with which an Isthmian Canal would be constructed and controlled jointly by the United States and Great Britain. The Hay-Pauncefote Treaty of 1901, which abrogated the preceding one, authorized the United States to construct and control a canal across the Isthmus, thus enhancing our interests in the Caribbean. It was further shown that our general concern in this area was due to the fact that three-quarters of the foreign trade of the islands in the Caribbean and of the bordering republics, was more or less naturally carried on with the United States. The interest of the United States was further intensified by our investments in Cuban sugar lands, in Mexican oil, minerals, railroads, and land, in Central American plantations and banks, in oil developments of Venezuela and Colombia, and by our political as well as our economic interest in Haiti and Santo Domingo.

Under the second topic, the discussion made clear that our relations with Cuba have been on a special footing since the Spanish War. The Platt

Amendment creates a particular interest on our part in Cuba and makes us responsible for certain political and economic developments there. Our only reciprocity agreement at present is with Cuba. In accordance with this, Cuban exports to the United States are granted a 20 per cent reduction in our tariff duties as compared to other countries. In return, a reduction of from 20 to 40 per cent in Cuban tariff duties is granted to certain products of the United States exported to that island. Our interest in Haiti, Santo Domingo, and Central America springs from a participation in the political life of these republics, as well as from commercial and financial relations with them. Our marines have been stationed in their ports from time to time during the past twenty years and are still in Haiti and Nicaragua. We collect customs duties in several of the Caribbean republics and otherwise assist in their government through financial advisers or other officers. Our interest in Panama is self-evident. The discussion brought out the strategic importance of our control over the Panama Canal and the influence which this waterway had upon our foreign trade, our naval program, and our general foreign policy.

The leader, in general, supported the policies of the United States in the Caribbean, not because they are faultless, but because no better ones, in his estimation, could be carried out under the circumstances. The weak republics of the Caribbean, through unreasonable foreign debts and instability of government control, have during the past twenty-five years placed themselves in trying positions. Because of the failure to meet interest on foreign loans and to repay the principal at maturity, the lending nations (largely European before 1914) threatened to occupy Haiti, Santo Domingo, and some of the Central American republics. This situation necessitated action on the part of the American Government.

Discussion from the floor showed that several members of the Round Table disagreed with the Caribbean policy of the United States during recent years. Arguments were presented to show that our policy did not consider sufficiently the interests of citizens in these several republics, and that it was too much controlled by our financial interest or by our business men who desired to profit from international trade. Opponents of the present policy did not, however, present a constructive program of positive policies which should replace the present ones carried out by the United States.

The fourth session dealt with "Our Investments in Latin America." After a brief statement of the economic principles of foreign investments, the leader treated two topics in this Round Table: (1) Our foreign investment policy in Latin America, and (2) criticism of this policy. In the introduction it was pointed out that foreign investments are based upon economic principles; money goes where the return is consistent with safety. Bankers do not loan money; they simply invest the funds of others. Bankers

seldom hold bonds; they sell them to the public. Bankers get a commission for selling bonds; and, consequently, the easier the terms made by them, the greater the commission. Furthermore, the terms in any foreign loan are dictated by the circumstances under which the credit is extended. If interest rates of 8 to 12 per cent on the foreign loan seem high, it is largely because of comparison with our own rates of 6 per cent. These rates are, after all, not determined by the bankers themselves, but by the ultimate purchasers of the bonds, who buy them from bankers. Lastly, it was pointed out that if the terms imposed upon foreign borrowers are unreasonable, the foreign nation can refuse to accept them and borrow elsewhere. International finance is a highly competitive business. The acceptance of stringent terms by any foreign borrower must imply that terms offered by other lending nations were equally or more stringent.

In discussing our foreign investment policy, the leader showed that until 1914 the United States had been a debtor country. We had borrowed abroad some six and a half billion dollars, while our loans to foreign countries amounted to less than two billion. During the last fifteen years our position in international finance has entirely changed; we are now the greatest creditor nation in the world. Including the government loans to the Allies during the war (\$10,000,000,000), we have at present loaned abroad some twenty-five billion dollars. Five billions of this money is in Latin America, largely in the Caribbean area. In connection with these extensive loans, two principles have been worked out as the basis of our policy. The first requires supervision by the State Department of important loans made to foreign countries; the second requires the appointment, in weak and unstable governments, of financial advisers to supervise government receipts and expenditures. Under the first principle, the State Department asks to be informed when loans of any considerable extent are to be made to foreign countries. The Department does not approve any loan, much less guarantee it. The Department limits its supervision to a statement that there is no objection to the loan from a government point of view. The aim of this principle is to keep American money from exploiting questionable enterprises. The second principle in our policy—the appointment of financial advisers in countries with weak governments—applies more largely to the Caribbean area of Latin America than to any other part of the foreign field. In Haiti, Santo Domingo, and in Nicaragua, financial advisers appointed at the suggestion of the United States Government, have for some time collected revenues and controlled expenditures of these republics as a part of our foreign investment policy. The defense for this procedure is that the United States determined to keep these countries from contracting unreasonable debts abroad and to see to it that taxes and customs duties collected in the country were received by the national treasury.

In criticizing this policy under the second point, the leader pointed out that our investments in Latin America have been largely constructive in nature. We have advanced money to these countries to build factories rather than manufacture firearms. Our loans have built up the railroads, mining, meat packing, and the oil industry rather than armies and navies. It was further shown that Latin America sought investments from the United States; she did not accept them under pressure. By way of unfavorable criticism, the leader indicated that in many cases the terms under which investments were made, especially in the Caribbean, have been severe—more so than circumstances warranted. He was also of the opinion that on occasion our loans to the weaker republics were parts of a scheme for “economic penetration.”

In the discussion from members of the Round Table, emphasis was laid upon the fact that financial interests in the United States have too often dictated the policy of our State Department in Latin America, and that the economic development of the borrowing country was often not of primary interest when foreign loans were floated. There was also strong objection from the floor to participation by the United States Government and its marines in the affairs of Caribbean republics. However, no other method of settling the evident financial difficulties of these nations was proposed.

THE ORIENT

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THE RISE OF NATIONALISM IN CHINA ✓✓
CHARLES K. EDMUNDS

President of Pomona College

Vice-President, President and Director, Christian College, Canton, China, from
1907 to 1924.

Three fundamentals to any consideration of things Chinese are simply stated but hard to realize: China is very *large*, very *old*, and subject to a *peculiar process*.

The population is so vast that were the Chinese people to pass a given point single file at ordinary marching rate, the procession would never end, for by the time three hundred million had passed, a new generation would be born and on its feet at the other end of the line. In 1924 the Customs Administration's estimate was 444,653,000 total Chinese population.

Before Abraham left Ur of the Chaldees, China inaugurated a civil service examination system which was not modernized until A. D. 1905. It is impossible fully to realize the effects of a stereotyped education working on so large a mass for such a length of time. Naturally, it has taken over a century of modern contacts with the west to offset some of those effects.

But the immense inertia was finally overcome and the great body began to change. The motion has become more evident as it gained in speed, but actually it has been going on for 120 years. The peculiar process which has become more acute in the last twenty years, and most acute in the last twenty-five months is so fundamental that it is best described in anatomical terms: *China is growing a backbone*.

Three elements compose the spinal cord about which this Chinese backbone has been concreting itself: The modern student, the modern merchant, and the modern laborer. The most active of these is the modern student, who has often inspired the merchant as well as the laborer into action or attitude.

The growth of this backbone has been stimulated by foreign contacts. These have been of two kinds. First, with uncultured barbarians from the north, the Mongol and the Manchu, who overcame the Chinese by superior physical force, but whose culture was completely inferior to that of the Chinese. Then came "barbarians" from the West with superior physical powers based on the applications of modern science as part of a culture which was, in some respects, but by no means in all, superior to the culture of the Chinese. Naturally the results of these two types of contact have been different. The Chinese gradually absorbed their conquerors of the first type; but when brought into contact with the west, more highly organized

politically and economically, as well as in a military way, there has arisen primarily a conflict of cultures. That is the essence of the present relation of China and the so-called Powers.

These two kinds of foreign contacts overlapped during the Manchu Dynasty, which ruled China for nearly 300 years, 1614-1912. The contact between the Western Powers and China has involved three principal factors—the merchant, the missionary, and the minister (diplomat) corresponding respectively to commerce, culture, and control (regulation). They arrived in the order cited. The modern merchant and the missionary carried on for many decades without any treaty basis. But in 1842, as the result of armed conflict with Great Britain, China engaged in a treaty which opened the way for consular and diplomatic representatives.

Besides definitely ceding Hongkong to Great Britain and opening five ports to international trade, this treaty also introduced into China's contact with the west three new factors which gradually grew to be of paramount importance: Indemnity, tariff control, extraterritoriality. This last relates to the legal status of the individual foreign resident. A fourth factor, closely related in effect to extraterritoriality, but legally distinct, involves the partial alienation of the land of China in three different forms: Leased areas, concessions, and settlements.

As a result of the stimulation which these foreign contacts have given to the development of Chinese backbone, there have been several "surges" of the Chinese toward independence. The first, the Taiping Rebellion of 1850-64, involved fourteen years of conflict accompanied by enormous losses. Although owing its origin partly to ideals imported along with Christianity, it later became almost fanatical. The significant fact is that while directed against the Manchus, it was finally suppressed only with Western aid.

As a matter of fact, in spite of Manchu domination, the Chinese people enjoyed, as they had already done for centuries, a very high degree of local autonomy in every village, city, and province. They got along with the least possible amount of governmental machinery, and were content to leave to the Throne all responsibility for national integrity and dignity. They rather regarded the earlier encroachments of western powers as buccaneering exploits and something of a joke on the Throne. The Manchus had usurped it; let them look after it!

Even the conflict with Great Britain in 1841, and with France as well as Great Britain in 1850, and the serious consequences as expressed in the resulting treaties of Nanking and Tientsin, left the people generally indifferent to these actions by "barbarians" from the West—though of course many Chinese merchants were glad enough to trade with them.

But when, in 1895, "pigmy" Japan, who had received her culture from China, defeated her tutor and followed Western Powers in exacting conces-

sions of territory, money indemnities, more treaty ports, navigation rights on inland waters, and other special privileges, the Chinese people, and not only the Throne, were aroused to a sense of their weakness as a nation. That is when the Nationalist Movement really began.

The slumbering anti-Manchu feeling flared up anew and popular resentment grew strong against the Manchus, who, foreigners themselves, were selling China piecemeal to other foreigners in return for assistance in holding their Throne in China.

So rapid was the series of "forced sales" that within three years after the war with Japan there was not left to China on her whole 3,000 miles of coast a single worthwhile harbor in which she could assemble her own vessels without foreign consent.

Moreover, foreign merchant ships were allowed to ply on the Yangtze, and Foreign Powers talked much of their respective "spheres of influence." A distinguished British sea-lord even published a large book under the title, "The Break Up of China."

Small wonder then that the Empress Dowager had little difficulty in turning Chinese hatred from herself and her house against the foreigner—so that the second "surge" of the Chinese towards independence, as embodied in the original Boxer Rebellion of 1900 against the foreign Manchu Dynasty, almost at once became the Boxer Uprising against the foreigners from over seas.

The Boxer Protocol besides providing for a special area in Peking for the use and completely under the control of the Foreign Legations, with their own guards, and for foreign patrol of Peking's communications with the sea, also imposed on China a total indemnity of three hundred million dollars, so that for the first time in China history the revenues of the government were less than its expenses. Hence loans had to be contracted with the bankers of the very countries which had imposed the indemnities and by virtue of earlier treaties controlled China's tariff so that she could not increase her revenue by way of greater customs dues without the unanimous consent of some fourteen foreign powers.

But the results of the Boxer Uprising and of the Protocol with Foreign Powers were not all bad. For such was the shock to official China that educational reforms were immediately inaugurated to give the Chinese the knowledge which appeared to be the basis of western superiority.

The period 1900 to 1912 was one of intense educational activity not only in China, where a system ranging from kindergarten to university was developed with most remarkable speed and creditable results, but among the Chinese abroad Dr. Sun Yat Sen traveled about, preparing the movement which was to finish Manchu control and recover "China for the Chi-

nese." This movement threads its way steadily through all the internal and international complications from 1900 to date, and throughout that whole period has closely cultivated the mind and the heart of young China at school.

In this same period the Manchu Rulers added new fuel to the fires which were already being fanned by the movement just referred to. The Throne not only contracted enormous foreign loans, but dared to impair the autonomy of the provinces by pledging provincial revenues. The central government also granted railway concessions to foreigners and proposed a scheme to nationalize all the railroads, whereas hitherto the development of railways had been regarded as a provincial prerogative. Popular resentment expressed itself in student protests and strikes, merchants, through their organized guilds, refused to pay taxes, and open revolution in 1911 marked the third "surge" of the Chinese towards independence.

Such was the progress of this 1911 revolution in the far west and throughout the southern half of China that the Manchus were forced to abdicate. Yet the strong man among their Chinese henchmen, Yuan Shih Kai, backed by foreign recognition and finance, was able to secure such a compromise with the so-called "Southerners" that he was himself named President of the proposed Republic of China, replacing Dr. Sun Yat Sen, who, in turn, became the head of a newly formed bureau for the development of railways. Yuan, however, assumed virtual dictatorship. He ignored parliament, abolished provincial assemblies through military suppression, and even resorted to assassination of Kuo-min-tang leaders. He contracted further foreign loans of twenty-five million pounds sterling without the sanction of parliament; and in spite of the protests of chambers of commerce in such important cities as Shanghai and Canton, foreign bankers advanced the money. Thus strengthened, Yuan attempted to make himself Emperor; but popular protest was so widespread and so strong that most of his own generals refused to support him and he died discredited in 1916.

In 1915, taking advantage of the absorption of the other powers in the World War, Japan's aggressions in China reached a maximum, and found expression in the Twenty-one Demands, the granting of which in full would have made China a second Korea. As it was, the unveiling of these demands served to arouse the Chinese to a national consciousness, which was welded and made effective in spite of official weakness at Peking.

A nation-wide boycott of Japanese goods finally forced Japan out of Shantung and drove from power in Peking the governmental clique which was subservient to Japan.

The four years of Yuan Shih Kai's dictatorship were followed by a decade (1916-26) of "Military Adventuring" and rivalry between a dozen generals whom he had established in various parts of the country as his

agents of suppression. Even in this period of sectional strife, there was some progress in that the number of these warlords grew steadily smaller, while the power and the quality of the survivors improved.

Moreover, as soon as Yuan Shih Kai's treachery to a representative form of government became manifest (which was almost immediately after he assumed the title of "President of the Republic"), the Peoples Party (Kuo-min-tang), under the leadership of Dr. Sun Yat Sen, resumed its preparations for the overthrow of the form of government Yuan really stood for; and after Yuan's death this period of warfare between the Tuchuns at the expense of the people only served to strengthen Dr. Sun's program, and to bring forth younger men more able than he to achieve the end which he so ardently advocated. Dr. Sun's death in 1925 gave the opportunity to introduce into the Kuo-min-tang propaganda a characteristically Chinese combination of filial and patriotic piety in commemoration of his long years of devotion to the three-fold cause of nationalism, democracy, and economic improvement of the masses of China; for these are the so-called "Three Principles" of Sun Yat Sen now adopted as the slogan and aim of the Peoples Party.

The rapid spread of these doctrines throughout China, followed since 1925 by either military occupation, conversion, or conquest of practically the whole of China by the Nationalist Forces, has marked the latest "surge" of the Chinese people in their long struggle to establish a free government.

Having seen the last twenty-four years of that struggle at close range in every province of China, and having enjoyed the acquaintance of many of the leaders in it, I am convinced of the ultimate triumph of the Nationalist Party.

To my mind, the complete subordination of the military to the civil authority in China is bound to come, and is steadily on its way, many press reports to the contrary notwithstanding.

I am not unmindful of the difficulties nor of the dangers and uncertainties. Though the People's Party in its Communist section has indeed played with fire, its dependence on Russia has been exaggerated, and I believe the responsible party leaders have learned a salutary lesson.

The claim that Russia was at bottom of the entire movement is utter folly. The seeds were sown long ago; it was in the way of Soviet policy to water them. Russia was not the wave, she was rather the rider of its crest. Chinese leaders quickly came to rely less upon Russian support and more upon themselves.

American policy in China should have a three-fold aim: To develop Chinese confidence in us by the removal of all sources of irritation and distrust; to develop American trade under conditions which will lead to stability; and to secure for the United States a permanent influence in the

Far East, so that she can help to solve international disputes without recourse to war.

The only course open before us with reference to China is negotiation. Resentment at outrages suffered by some foreign residents, and fear that a policy of conciliation will be interpreted as weakness, have fortunately not kept us from such negotiations. We rule out the possibility of aggressive action except under extreme provocation, the chances for which, to my mind, are small.

True the disordered state of the country makes further concessions difficult. But a negative policy of "wait and see" will not reestablish lost prestige. It is sure to take China a long time to establish a permanent and strong central government. If the powers hesitate to proceed further in the matter of treaty revision, Chinese opinion will continue to be mobilized against the foreign powers, and boycotts will recur. Delay will give color to the propaganda that we, as well as the other powers concerned, are not sincere in our declarations of readiness to make adjustments.

The policy, which in common with many who know China well I have been advocating, is that of continued negotiation with the *de facto* Government of China, with the object of completely revising our treaty relationship with her and of surrendering all non-reciprocal rights that the present treaties afford. To be sure, such a policy can be carried out only by slow degrees, and only as the government of China is able to do its part. During a period of years there would have to be coöperation in such matters as the control of the Shanghai International Settlement and in the jurisdiction over foreigners.

There would be need for patience, but in the long run the Chinese would be convinced that we were absolutely sincere in our determination to treat China exactly as we treat other foreign powers, and to give up those privileges we do not enjoy in any other country. But, we are told, such a policy will destroy Western prestige in China; every concession will be made the occasion of fresh demands and even of fresh insults. Yet an enlightened and unselfish policy is always apt to be regarded as weakness until practice demonstrates its power. We must not, of course, forget the difficult position of our nationals, engaged in commerce in the treaty ports, who would naturally be apprehensive at the abandonment of what they have hitherto regarded as essential safeguards to trade. They will have to balance the risks and decide whether it is better to possess the present "safeguards" of concessions and extraterritoriality, a constant source of irritation to national sentiment and an opportunity for misrepresentation by agitators, or to make a fresh bid for Chinese goodwill by giving up these privileges. Some residents in the Far East with many years' experience of dealings with the Chinese maintain that American merchants can get on quite well in the open ports,

and think that they would be "infinitely better off if there were not a concession in the length and breadth of China." A Chinese with a sense of grievance is difficult to deal with; but, once you remove that grievance, he is a most reasonable being, with a strong sense of justice, and a respect for fair dealing.

Another difficulty which must be faced is the serious risk of the failure of China's credit if and when Customs pass out of the control of foreigners. We must not forget, however, that there are stable elements in China just as anxious to safeguard Chinese credit as we are. We admit that a policy of friendship and coöperation has its uncertainties, but it is a risk worth taking.

The present state of chaos and disunion makes action difficult, but a policy of drift is dangerous. Somewhat uncertain as the situation may appear to be, let us courageously make terms with these effective leaders of Chinese national opinion who have emerged and are competent to negotiate.

SOME PROBLEMS OF THE PHILIPPINES

ORWYN W. E. COOK

Assistant Professor of Political Science, University of Southern California
Formerly Professor, Union Theological Seminary, Philippine Islands

The Philippines presents one of the most interesting problems before the American people. It is of special interest because here we have the one large colonial move that has ever been attempted in our history. Furthermore, it has to do with the partial Americanization of a people very different from us in background, in race, and in a section of the world far from our shores. The opposition to the acquisition of the Philippines in 1898 was widespread. Probably the newness of the whole proposition was as largely the cause as any other. Naturally mistakes were made; some things were not done well; and, like Americans, we were at the time inappreciative of many of the difficulties and problems which the years would bring. This, however, did not daunt us in our idealistic and altruistic plan for the betterment of a promising but backward people.

A large element in the Philippine problem is that of race. The large majority of the people of the Philippines belong to the Malay race, and naturally the problems which we find throughout Malaysia are also the problems of the Islands. A fortunate element in the Philippines not found elsewhere in Malaysia is the fact that the Philippines have been in contact with European civilization for more than four hundred years. The dominating forces for centuries have been European.

The division of the eleven to twelve millions of people into five or six major tribal divisions constitutes in itself a difficult problem. The Tagologs, chiefly found about Manila, are probably the dominant, both in numbers and in personal qualities, though near them in numbers come the Vecisian, found in the islands to the south. North Luzon is largely peopled by the Illaquano. The non-Malays or Moros are found to the south on the Island of Mindanao. Out of the total population one finds less than a million non-Malays; so that the racial problem is fundamentally a Malay problem.

In the second place, we have a problem of languages. Those versed in linguistics tell us that there are eight major divisions, seventeen subdivisions, and more than eighty dialectical divisions among the peoples of these islands. There is no dominant or national language, and there is great difference of opinion, especially among the people themselves, as to what language might or ought to become dominant. The lack of a considerable literature in any

one of these languages and the absence of any great writer using any of the languages has made impossible the domination of any one. The greatest writer of the Philippines, Dr. Jose Rizal, wrote all of his works in Spanish, though he was a Tagalog.

The retarded development of the Philippines economically, the difficulty of communication between the islands—and there are thousands of them—the lack of popular education, for as yet we do not find a reading public of 200,000, all go to make the problem of the Philippines a very difficult one. Now let us turn to the effort on the part of the American people in the past thirty years to follow out a constructive program in the Islands.

In the first place, the most outstanding and successful of our efforts has been in the line of education. While many mistakes have been made, and much remains to be done in the Philippines, nevertheless, in public education some remarkable results have been achieved. There are in the schools in the Philippines at the present time more than 1,300,000 children. Practically every town has its well-built concrete school building, and the school is quite the center of local pride. As in the United States, so in the Philippines, education has become veritably a passion with the people. There are now more than twenty-five thousand Filipino teachers, many of them well trained and yet more in training. At the present time in the offices of the Bureau of Education and among the teaching staff of the Islands are found less than three hundred and fifty Americans. There has been a steady decrease in the number of Americans, markedly so, of course, following 1912, when, under Governor Harrison, "Filipinization" became the order of the day. We are sorry to say that the latest report shows but thirty-eight per cent of the children of school age in the Islands in school. This is because there are no more school houses in which to accommodate the students, and, as yet, not a sufficient number of trained teachers to take care of them. This grows largely out of the economic condition of the Islands, to which I shall make reference a little later. The criticism has been rightly made that American education in the Philippine Islands is academic where it ought to be more markedly vocational. This fact is recognized by all, but to remedy it is not an easy task. The influence of Spanish culture is still felt, and education is too frequently not thought of in terms of preparation for life or for labor, but as a means of avoiding the latter. Vice-Governor Gilmore has lately been in this country in quest of American teachers of vocational work with which to strengthen this phase of the educational system of the Islands. I have not heard up to date his success, but I know that better provision is being made for vocational and polytechnic education.

It is interesting to note that the system of educational supervision introduced into the Islands in 1898 was exactly the contrary of the system or systems of education which we know in the United States. Ours has been

from the first and still is a decentralized system; our unit is the local school board, enlarging to the town, the city, and the state. We have forty-eight different systems in as many states. We probably very unwisely look askance at educational centralization in the national government. In the Philippines, however, taking into consideration undoubtedly the Latin background, where true to their Roman psychology the centralized principle has been dominant, the founders centralized or insularized the system from the first. Everything works from the office of the Director of Education in Manila. The appointment of teachers, the appropriation for school buildings, the entire management, heads up in Manila. Fortunately politics has been kept out quite largely, although how long it can be permanently kept out is very much of a question. Whether this system has resulted in a development of local school interest, especially to the point, where if the central hand were released things would go on progressively by local initiative, is very much of a question. However, the results are truly great. I believe that no finer missionary effort has been put forth in any section of the world than is found in educational efforts even out in many of the barrios of the Islands, and oftentimes with a devotion equal to that of any religious workers.

A second very fine gift of America to the Philippines towards the solution of one of her most difficult problems is what has been done in sanitation. We can all remember that in 1898 the tropics were regarded as no land for the white man. Vera Cruz and Havana, near our own shores, were pest-ridden; plagues and fevers were the regular order at certain times of year; and, of course, Manila was no exception. American engineers and doctors in the army and outside took hold of this proposition, and the world knows the story of the conquest of disease in the tropics. Such great progress has been made that the tropics bid fair to become as healthful as any other section of the world. In the Philippines the task of providing a new water supply, of draining the stagnant places, of ridding the country of pests—especially the mosquito—of teaching the basic principles of clean, healthful living, of lowering the infant mortality, which was unspeakably high, and allied efforts, were carried forward with remarkable success. Today the fight is against tuberculosis and leprosy; cholera, the various devastating plagues, yellow fever, and the like have been practically banished. Response on the part of the people themselves to all this has made possible so great strides that at the head of the department of public health in the insular department today there remain but two or three Americans, while the work is carried on most successfully at the hands of Filipino doctors and public health officers. Manila has become one of the most healthful cities in the world; and other centers of population, even in the remote barrios and mountain fastnesses, among the so-called wild tribes, sanitary principles and new ideals of health are making a new people physically. It is said that the

Filipino of today is probably an inch taller than were his forebears, and physically he is oftentimes a fine example of training and good health. This, accomplished in the tropics in one generation, is no small achievement.

Another phase very important is the building of roads. Island peoples tend to become self-centered, and a fundamental need of the Philippines is the development of the national consciousness and sense of responsibility. Ways of communication, whether by road or by steamship line or by airplane, mean the development of a new spirit in the Philippines. Today one can go from north to south or east to west on the large islands over excellent roads, which means the spreading of all civilizing and energizing factors to the peoples even at long distances from the capital and provincial centers.

The next problem in the Philippines has to do with economic development. This is probably as difficult and urgent a problem as any which confronts the Islands. In fact, its ramifications reach into every other consideration;—school system, the road system, sanitation, and spiritual development all depend in part or have some definite relation to economic considerations.

The people themselves have as yet had little experience with business affairs on a large scale. Here again is evident the influence of Spain. The Spanish did not develop the nationals in lines of initiative, and the feudal system, which was fostered and furthered by the conquerors represented in church and state, aggravated the situation. The question whether or not the Filipinos have economic ability of an outstanding sort is a question very difficult to answer because sufficient time or opportunity has not yet been given for them to show what may be their aptitudes. The business of the country is and has been for years largely in the hands of others, especially the Chinese. Eighty to ninety per cent probably of the business of the country is in the hands of foreigners, and eighty per cent of that is in the hands of Chinese. The Chinese are probably the best business people in the world, and undoubtedly they are business leaders of Asia. Retail business in the Islands, especially outside of Manila, is chiefly in the hands of Chinese.

In agriculture there is still found remains of feudalism and feudalistic ideas. Unfortunately there is little opportunity for the small land owner or the small farmer in many sections of the Philippines. Lack of capital and of social approval prevails.

Taken in the large, the economic possibilities of the Philippine Islands are tremendous. Sugar, copra, woods, rice, and many other products of great importance in living and in world commerce, are produced; but up to very lately the Philippines have imported even rice and eggs. A point worthy of consideration is the comparison with Japan. Japan takes care of five times the population of the Philippines and does it as well, possibly sometimes better. Of course, industrialization has come, but even counting that

out, Japan has made better economic development than has the Philippines. A comparison of the Philippines with some of the other Latin-American Islands is interesting. The exports in 1926 amounted to \$141,000,000, or a per capita of \$13. Porto Rico, with a far lesser population, exported \$100,000,000; Cuba, with about a fourth of the population, more than \$200,000,000; and Hawaii, about \$100,000,000. If the resources of the Philippine Islands were developed to the same degree as those of Cuba, she would export at least five times what she does at the present time. Unfortunately there is a political element which enters. For the political leaders have made it appear that if foreign money, and especially American, is invested in the Islands, it will delay independence. This has caused uncertainty and has retarded economic affairs, especially foreign investment.

As fine a move as is being made at the present time in the Islands is that of the new Governor-General, Henry M. Stimson, in bringing frankly before the people of the Islands and before the Legislature the whole economic situation. The Governor-General is attacking the problem, not from a political angle nor from purely a financial standpoint, but attempting to present it as a problem involving the whole good of the Islands and the Island people *in toto*. He does not call for a rescinding of the laws which limit the ownership of land to 2,500 acres by any one person or company, but he calls for modification and for adjustments and assurances which will welcome investment and encourage development. No one questions that in this field there are some problems. We know the danger of investment of money simply for financial returns where the human element is forgotten, but at the same time safeguards through legislation are surely possible, especially in the Philippines, and are in keeping with the higher business ideals of American investors.

One other problem of special importance to the student of international affairs is that of the future of the Philippines. I am frankly pro-Filipino. While in 1898 we Americans were quite largely in ignorance of just what we were attempting, we took over the Philippine Islands with the definite idea of implanting the American governmental, social, and related ideals, of adapting American educational methods, and of developing the people in political affairs, having in mind ultimate independence. I think that we cannot fail to recognize a practical promise.

The management of affairs by our American representatives has been quite largely efficient and not costly, but sometimes we have lacked in tact, sometimes in kindness, and very often there has been a lack of patience and a superabundance of arrogance. We have many times demanded more than the people were prepared to give, due to immaturity, inexperience, and sometimes to the way in which our power was used. It undoubtedly was very unfortunate that the radical changes in 1912 in our national administration

brought about even more radical insular administration. While Filipinization before 1912 moved too slowly, after 1912 it probably moved too rapidly. The results of the Harrison régime—that is, from 1912 to 1920—were not unqualifiedly good. When President Harding sent General Leonard Wood to the Philippines as Governor-General in 1920 he entered upon a most difficult task. Lack of coöperation on the part of the political leaders made the success for which he worked almost impossible. I believe that General Wood was a sincere patriot, an outstanding Governor, and a truly great colonial administrator. I believe that he gave his life for what he conceived to be the best interests of the people of the Islands. One of the surest signs of a better day is the coöperation which was given his immediate successor in office, Vice-Governor E. A. Gilmore; and that has been carried even further since the coming of the new Governor-General, Henry M. Stimson. It is hard to prophesy or to tell when a final solution of the whole political situation may be possible.

Possibly some form of dominion government with practically absolute local autonomy could be worked out for the best interests of all. Should the United States become a member of the League of Nations, the Philippine Islands might become also a member with practically the same status as the several members now in the League representing the States of the British Commonwealth of Nations.

INDIA'S CONTRIBUTION TO RELIGION AND ITS EFFECT ON
INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS ✓

S. G. PANDIT

Attorney-at-Law, Los Angeles, California

The outstanding and unique contribution of the Hindus to religion has a very special significance for a real and uncoerced betterment of international relations. I shall, therefore, attempt to summarize as clearly as I may, the thought and attitude of the Hindus in this matter, as presented in their literature from the earliest times and as manifested in their daily life.

Almost every religion in the world is forced to hang its head in shame at the fact of the butchery and bloodshed that has been perpetrated by its followers, on numerous occasions, in the name of the love of God or in that of the service of man's eternal welfare. I need only mention as examples, the massacres of the Protestants by the "Bloody Mary," which were paralleled by the massacres of the Catholics effected by her sister whom the Protestants have called the "Good Queen Bess"; the Islamic practice of offering the Koran, and, if it were rejected, piously severing the infidels' heads; the horrors that devastated the populations of Mexico and Peru under the Spanish Christian conception of zeal for the service of God and for the salvation of man. Probably Hinduism is the only religion that has never, in all its history, spilled one drop of human blood with the fancied object of extending God's kingdom or saving other people's souls. It may, therefore, not be without some possible use for us to look into the genesis of this happy consummation in the sunshine of which at least one religion seems always to have basked. For therein may be found some hint of a method which can be employed to neutralize the sourness that, among nations, curdles effort into the shame and bestiality of war.

We all recognize that different kinds of food are required to supply the needs for growth of human bodies at different ages and in varying conditions of health, and that the forcing of a stereotyped diet on the infant, the child, the youth, the adult, the aged, the sick, and the well, would result in some sort of a slaughter of the innocents. Hinduism recognizes that a similar principle applies in feeding the souls of men, in supplying their intellectual and emotional, as well as their spiritual, wants. Hence the universality and all-inclusiveness of Hinduism: For the little ones, the worship of God as reflected in toy images,—the picture-books of religion; for others, the communion with the grandeur and beauty of God in the objects of Nature,—the sky, the wind, the mountains, the rivers, the sun, the moon, the

stars, and the trees; for still others, the strenuous effort to sublimate all dross so the human may become a fitter vessel for the Divine to shine through; and numerous other variations. Hinduism, then, includes in its technique for spiritual growth the rationale of idolatory, polytheism, monotheism, pantheism, atheism, agnosticism, and numerous variants. And each of them is regarded as a method suited to some particular stage of spiritual stature for its further growth and development.

In other words, the Hindu regards the different religions of the world, or the various aspects of his own religion, as different roads all leading to God from different stages or directions, corresponding to the varieties of spiritual growth. He regards each religion as most valuable for the individual adapted to it by birth, environment, and education. Hence, he considers any effort towards converting a man to another religion as futile, and even mischievous. The only conversion he believes in is of oneself and of no one else, and it has to come from within and is a continuing process. There is no such thing as a "one and only true religion"; and in the very nature of things such a notion is a product of provincialism and exaggerated egoism. The Hindu's view in this matter may be brought out more clearly by a story which was recently told by a Los Angeles teacher who had been giving lessons in biology and psychology for a considerable time to a devout Roman Catholic girl. One day he said to his pupil: "Now, you realize, don't you, that if you had been born to, and brought up by, devout Mohammedan parents in Arabia or Turkey, you would most likely have been a devout Mohammedan and would have come to believe in Mohammedanism as the one and only true religion as you now regard the Roman Catholic form of Christianity. And similarly, under appropriate other parentage and devotional environment, you could have been a devout Confucian in China, Taoist in Japan, Greek Catholic in Russia, or Protestant in Holland." "Yes, yes, I quite admit that," said the pupil. "But, professor, I thank God that He had me born in *the* one and only true religion, and that He saved me from the terrible misfortune of devoutly accepting, as I might have done, a false faith and being forever damned."

Dr. John B. Watson has shown pretty conclusively, in his studies in behaviorism, that most religious beliefs are acquired through conditioning, and have little to do with the intrinsic truth or falsity of such beliefs. Analytic psychology also points to a similar genesis of all unquestioned and unquestionable beliefs in "infantile fixations," which come to be regarded as self-evident and altogether above and beyond reason.

Hinduism seems to be particularly concerned in maintaining the fluidity of beliefs as opposed to their stagnation and crystallization, and insists that each belief is capable of proving itself useful to the appropriate individual; but that, after all, it is only a crutch which must be later transcended if one

is to travel onward and upward to the Truth which is God. For religious beliefs are merely means to an end. They are not, and cannot be, absolutely true. For Truth or God is infinite; while human language and human thought are, in their very nature, limited. The limited obviously cannot encompass the infinite. Therefore, everything that can be said, nay! everything that can be thought, is, in the strict sense of the term, untrue. All religions, therefore, are untrue, insofar as they lay claim to being *the* Truth; their function is merely to supply a technique whereby we may develop the power or faculty to make an ever closer approach to an understanding of the absolute Truth which is God, by using the ladders of religion and finally transcending them.

The search of the man of religion is for the absolute Truth of that Uncontained Unity which he calls God and which the man of science calls Nature. The method used by both is the method of all mundane knowledge; viz., the selecting of certain details and isolating those from the rest. But in so doing—in isolating such and such details—we practically beg the question we are in search of; and moreover in supposing such isolation we suppose what is false, and therefore vitiate our conclusion. This method has been spoken of as the method of ignorance or *avidyâ*; i. e., of ignoring that which is inconvenient or inexpedient; and it may be illustrated even from that most exact science, Mathematics, and in its most perfect branch, Astronomy. Mathematicians have assured us that the moon in its passage round the earth describes an ellipse. But does it in reality? We must remember that while the moon is moving around the earth the latter is circling round the sun at a terrific pace, which makes it impossible for the moon to finish any closed curve around the earth at any time. We may only say that the moon is always starting a new ellipse in its motion round the earth, but never gets the chance to complete one. But that is not all. There are perturbations produced in the path of the moon by its greater or less closeness to the earth in different periods of the month, and in the earth's orbit by its greater or less proximity to the sun in different seasons of the year, as also by the proximity to or distance from it of other heavenly bodies at different times. Moreover, astronomers tell us that the whole solar system, including the sun, earth, moon, and other members of the system, are moving at a tremendous rate of speed towards a distant point in space. What, then, becomes of the ellipse that the moon's orbit is held to describe around the earth? Why! It has no existence; it is not real. We may speak of it as merely a fiction, arrived at by the method of *avidyâ*, or ignorance, or ignoring. That is, granting the truth of the Newtonian law of gravitation (which Einstein has shaken up rather badly) and ignoring the existence of other bodies in space, and ignoring the rapid motion of the earth round the sun, and ignoring the stupendous motion of the solar system itself, if we merely

consider the gravitational force as acting between the moon and the earth—the former would describe an ellipse around the latter. But our assumptions are false; the assumed state of things never has, does not, and probably never will exist. Obviously the elliptical orbit of the moon has never existed, does not exist, and probably will never exist. It has an existence merely in the mind, and is a fiction.

However, it has been said that the elliptical orbit must be real because eclipses of the moon can be calculated on that theory. But eclipses of the moon were almost equally well calculated before the formulation of the elliptical theory, on the older epicyclical theory of Tycho Brahe. As John Stuart Mill, among others, has shown, the ability to predict does not prove the truth of the theory on which the prediction is based. It merely indicates that the theory is good enough for the purposes of that prediction.

The views of religion—in common with the views of science—are, therefore, like the views of a mountain; each is only possible as long as you limit yourself to a certain standpoint. Move your position and the view is changed.

It should, therefore, be the proud privilege of religion to seek to encompass the Truth from as many angles as possible, and to harmonize effort—not by coercion, nor even by toleration, but by loving acceptance of the different religions and beliefs as honest gropings of finite minds after the Infinite. A necessary corrective to the danger of stagnation and to the intrusion of fraud is supplied by the admission and encouragement of complete freedom of thought and its expression—no matter how critical of, or in opposition to, the generally accepted or established order of things.

A considerable stress is laid in Hinduism on the technique for the development of the faculty whereby Truth or God may be truly known; and we are told that in the exercise of this faculty, when developed, is realized the supernal fact that real knowing and being are one. The whole system of Yoga is devoted to the study and exposition of this technique. I shall content myself here by stating that, as pointed out by the great saint of modern India, Mahātmā Gāndhī—who literally practices what he preaches even in the turmoil of active political life—that for the generation of soul-force there must exist the actual practice of truthfulness, fearlessness, conscious and willing suffering for others,—all inspired by profound love. It is only by serving here and now our fellow man (no matter of what religion or belief), in ways suited to him, that limited as we are, we may attain to a glimpse and a foretaste of the serene majesty and unruffled joy of the Infinite. For, if we cannot love our fellow man whom we see, how shall we love God whom yet we cannot see?

Religion, to the Hindu mind, is not essentially a matter of the dead bones of formulated beliefs, but it is preëminently a living and dynamic

process of fundamental growth leading to ever greater heights of self-unfoldment and mellowness of spirit. The religious or spiritual status of a man is determinable not by the labels placed on him by himself or by others—such as Hindu, Buddhist, Christian, Mohammedan, atheist, agnostic,—nor by the burden of self-imposed religiosity under which he may be bowed to his misplaced satisfaction. It is to be determined rather by the natural simplicity of his living and by the measure in which there shines out through him, without the least affectation or self-consciousness the free radiance of the Deity, who “maketh His sun to rise on the evil and the good, and sendeth rain on the just and the unjust.”

THE NEW CHINA

Summary of Round Table

EDWIN LANDON

Associate Professor of Politics, University of California, Berkeley

Four meetings of this Round Table were held. The attendance averaged ten.

The subjects discussed at the first meeting were conditions in Manchuria and the probable new interests in the situation there which may develop for the United States. There was especially discussed the likelihood of the development of a large American investment interest in this region and the proper attitude of the United States government thereto.

The second meeting discussed economic progress under the new government régime, emphasizing the financial program.

The third meeting was devoted to a discussion of various problems of education in China. A growing tendency towards rapid and superficial acquisition of Western learning, at the expense of old Chinese cultural ideas, was noted. On the other hand, the wholesome influence of the earnest Chinese student who is equipped with the fundamentals of both Oriental and Occidental learning was emphasized.

The fourth meeting discussed a variety of subjects, political and cultural, including extraterritoriality, education, and the capacity of the Chinese language to adapt itself to present and future needs of Chinese modernization.

Besides the leaders appointed by the Institute, the discussion was shared most helpfully for all by W. B. Pettus of Peking, E. M. Hayes of Los Angeles, Rev. James H. Lash of Hollywood, Dr. Scudder of Pasadena, and Robert J. Kerner and Henry F. Grady of Berkeley.

✓ J A P A N ;
Summary of Round Table ✓

GEORGE GLEASON

Secretary, Young Men's Christian Association, Los Angeles, California

At the first session of the Round Table on Japan the group selected four main topics for discussion: (1) The economic situation in Japan, including population and food supply; (2) The relation of Japan to China, Korea, and Manchuria; (3) The development of democracy and democratic institutions; (4) The means whereby the people of the United States can be most helpful to Japan and to Japanese who are living in our country.

THE ECONOMIC SITUATION. In considering the economic situation, some basic facts should be remembered. The area of Japan is 8,000 square miles less than that of California. Sixty-five per cent is mountainous; only about 18 per cent can be cultivated. The 60,000,000 people of Japan proper must live from 15,000,000 acres of agricultural land, or one person on a quarter of an acre. Population also is increasing by 800,000 a year. There are several suggested solutions of the economic problem.

THE INCREASE OF THE FOOD SUPPLY. Between 1918 and 1925 Japan added nearly 200,000 acres of agricultural land. Because of the development of factories, roads, and the growth of cities, more than this amount of agricultural land was taken up for other purposes, thus actually decreasing the acreage under cultivation. Notwithstanding this, through scientific improvements, the production of rice has increased 36 per cent. There are still 15,000,000 people engaged in farming. The possibilities, however, of adequately increasing the food supply in Japan are remote.

MOVEMENTS OF THE PEOPLE. Efforts have been made to move the population to the northern island, Hokkaido, but the climate has prevented any large movement in that direction. It was expected that many Japanese would migrate to Korea and Manchuria. Korea, however, is already overcrowded, and into Manchuria are pouring a million or a million and a half Chinese each year. There are also more than a million Koreans living in Manchuria. Siberia does not provide an outlet, as the climate is too cold to attract Japanese. The emigration of people to other countries has caused so many problems that Japan is not encouraging it. The movement of population does not, therefore, provide a solution.

MANUFACTURE OF SYNTHETIC FOOD. Japanese laboratories are eagerly experimenting with chemical substitutes for ordinary food. Synthetic beef has been made and other foods which give some promise to a solution of the food problem.

INDUSTRIALIZATION. Sixty years ago the population of Japan was about 30,000,000. It has almost exactly doubled in that time, partly through the development of industries. Japan is now seeking under-industrialization to solve the problem which industrialization has partly caused. There is hope, however, that by bringing in foreign capital and raw material, and by increasing the already well developed factory system, Japan may, by manufacture and foreign trade, be able to meet part of her problem of feeding the people. There is, however, great competition in international trade. How far industry will settle the problem cannot be seen.

BIRTH CONTROL. This is likely to operate rather slowly. There is at present no law in Japan against dissemination of birth control information. In women's magazines much space is given in both reading matter and advertisements to devices which would check population increase. There is a committee of the Diet on population and food problems. In the coming session this question of birth control may be brought up.

Further points raised in the discussion showed that many Koreans were coming into Japan to provide cheap labor; thus the food problem is being made more acute. In 1927 it is estimated that this number amounted to 300,000. The Koreans came to Japan partly because Chinese laborers flowed into Korea from Manchuria. There seems also to be a return to Japan from Korea and Manchuria of the Japanese settlers over there.

There is a rapid increase in deep sea fishing, which may also prove a source of food supply.

Since November 10, 1926, foreigners in Japan have been on an equal footing with Japanese in the ownership of land. This fact was brought out in answer to a question.

RELATIONS OF JAPAN TO CHINA, KOREA, AND MANCHURIA

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND. The year of 1898 was a year of international terror for Japan. After the killing of two German missionaries in Shantung, Germany secured a seaport and concessions in that province. Russia followed by taking Port Arthur and the concessions in South Manchuria. England leased the naval port of Wei Hai Wei. France took Kwang Chow Bay. England added to her control of the shore opposite Hongkong. The United States, in the same year, annexed the Philippines, and Hawaii became a part of the United States. Japan, therefore, found the powerful military nations of Europe and America entrenched in eastern Asia.

In the fall of 1903, Russia began to extend her timber felling operations into Korea. Japan thus saw, as one writer has said, "the Cause-Way of Asia" being occupied by the enemy she feared the most. Japan offered to Russia, however, that she would make no opposition if Russia would remain

on the Manchurian side of the Yalu River. Russia would not agree. The war followed and, suffering a loss of 135,000 of her soldiers, Japan drove Russia into northern Manchuria and took the railroad concessions in Manchuria and the control of the foreign relations of Korea. Shortly after that the Koreans appealed to The Hague Tribunal for help against Japan. Japan followed this by annexing Korea in 1910.

There are about 25,000,000 people in Manchuria. Japanese investments there total nearly a billion dollars. The large Fushun coal mine covers an area of twenty-five square miles and comprises a vein ranging in thickness from 130 to 450 feet. The Russians were taking out 200 tons of coal a day. The Japanese by next year expect to be mining 25,000 tons a day. Manchuria has 6 per cent of the population of China, 30 per cent of her foreign trade, and 50 per cent of the total railway mileage, or 2,900 miles of railroads in the province. Of this mileage, 700 is controlled by Japan, 200 by a British group, about 1,000 each by China and Russia.

In the leased territory controlled by Japan, the population has increased from 384,000 in 1906 to 1,093,000 in 1926. Of these the Chinese number 834,000. The Southern Manchurian Railroad Company is spending one-fourth of its income on improvements in mining, agriculture, streets, sanitation, education, buildings, and experiment stations. The Chinese are slow to accept all of these benefits, but the annual inrush of more than a million people gives evidence of their appreciation of the opportunities offered by Japanese control and influence.

THE INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENT IN KOREA. Two members of the Round Table, both of whom have recently been in Korea, agreed that the Koreans are gradually accepting the situation as inevitable and that in the future the question of the independence of Korea will probably not be a pressing problem.

ARE THE TREATIES FORCED UPON CHINA IN HER WEAKNESS MORALLY BINDING? This refers to treaties made with European nations, and especially to the Japanese twenty-one demands of 1915. In these demands, the lease of the Southern Manchurian Railway, which was to expire in 1923, was extended to 1997. Regarding the twenty-one demands, it was noted that after this extension of the railroad lease there were only three other points remaining operative: the Sino-Japanese coöperative management of the Han Yeh Ping Iron Works in the Yangtze valley; the right to own and lease land in Manchuria; and the right to residence, travel, and trade in Manchuria. All of the other demands have been withdrawn.

The group concluded that there will probably be a gradual revision of most of the treaties forced upon China in the past year and that Japan will naturally share in these negotiations.

SHOULD CHINA PAY THE DEBTS INCURRED BY THE FORMER GOVERNMENT? It was reported that Japan has loaned 575 million yen to the old Peking government. Some of these are occasionally referred to as the Nishihara loans. It was reported that in Shanghai last June a Chinese financial commission recommended to the Nanking government that all foreign obligations of whatever character made by the former government should be recognized. It is believed, therefore, that China will pay these debts.

THE PROBLEM OF THE RELATIONS BETWEEN THE MANCHURIAN WAR LORD AND THE NATIONALIST GOVERNMENT. Japan has deliberately prevented any revolutionary fighting among the Chinese in Manchuria. Just what will be the relations between Chang Hsueh-Liang and the Nanking government is still unsettled.

QUESTIONS RAISED BY THE NEW RAILROADS IN MANCHURIA PRESENT ANOTHER PROBLEM. By a treaty in 1905 China agreed not to build a railroad paralleling the Southern Manchurian railroad without Japan's consent. Already a railroad up to Tsitsihar has been built by the Chinese, and since 1926 has been in operation. Japan is building another railroad from east to west through Changchun, one hundred and fifty miles south of the Russian railroad. Russia apparently is objecting to this as being a rival to her through Trans-Siberian line. The railroad rivalry, therefore, between the Chinese, Japanese, and Russian government roads in northern and western Manchuria seems to be growing more acute.

HOW LONG CAN JAPAN PROTECT HER INVESTMENTS IN MANCHURIA AND IN OTHER PARTS OF CHINA BY POLITICAL AND MILITARY INFLUENCE? The group believes that with increased stability in the Chinese government Japan will gradually withdraw her governmental activities and leave her economic development more and more to private enterprises.

THE PROBLEM OF SHANTUNG. At the time of the friction in Tsinan in July, 1927, there were 2,000 Japanese residing in this capital of the province. Japan sent, it is stated, 2,000 troops to Tsinan, where friction arose with the Chinese army. Civilians and soldiers on both sides were killed. This has aroused intense feeling in China and is still an unsettled problem.

TREATIES. The interpretation of the treaties between China and Japan in many instances remains unsettled and present a problem between the two countries.

The group expressed the hope that Japan, China, and Russia will show patience and sympathy in their developing relations and that the international problems of these three countries in northwestern Asia may be solved without undue friction.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF DEMOCRACY AND DEMOCRATIC INSTITUTIONS

1. Recent industrial growth in Japan has developed two new classes—a capitalist class and a wage class. Thus we have in Japan today four groups: Capitalists; wage earners, including teachers, clerks, etc.; industrial laborers, and farmers. Only four per cent of the Japanese belong to the capitalist class.

2. Education in Japan is highly developed. Ninety-nine and four-tenths per cent of the children of school age are in primary schools. Illiteracy is down to less than five per cent. Japan, next to Germany, leads the world in the amount of printed publications. The Japanese are reading widely.

3. Creeping into Japan are the ideas of democracy, which are being applied to various phases of Japanese life. There is thus a conflict between the collectivist idea of the family-nationhood and the individualistic ideas of the democracy.

4. Japanese people are studying and thinking socialism as one of the ways out of her modern ills. The workers, who number 96 per cent of the people, are interested in this economic theory. The present government has, however, labeled all such ideas as communism and is violently opposing any movement towards socialism.

5. Religion has not been forgotten in Japan. Its influence is still strong and its value deeply appreciated.

Political leaders are trying to meet present day conditions in Japan with a realization that the above facts are in the background. The following steps have been taken: (a) Under the leadership of the liberal statesmen Japan has moved from lone imperialism to international coöperation. This is a distinctive advance in democracy. (b) By the law of 1925, made operative at the election on May 10, 1928, the voters of Japan were increased from 3,000,000 to 12,500,000. More than 80 per cent took advantage of the privilege.

Besides the two large political parties, the Seiyukai, led by Premier Tanaka, and the Minseito, there have been formed four proletarian parties: The Japanese Labor Party, the Farmers' Party, the Social People's Party, and the Labor Farmers' Party. The last listed was so radical that the government dissolved it. The remaining three parties, however, have elected twenty-eight members to prefectural assemblies and eight to the national Diet. Ganjiro Sugiyama, a Christian dentist, is a leader of the farmers' movement. He was the first chairman of the first organized proletarian political party. Toyohiko Kagawa has opened schools to educate the farmers in their political responsibilities.

We thus have in the democratic political development in Japan three elements—the intelligentsia, the industrialist, and the farming population—all

being brought together in these political activities. Bunji Suzuki, who has been so prominent in the Japanese labor unions, is also a prominent leader in the social people's party. Mr. Isoo Abe is also another prominent leader.

The Seiyukai controls the prefectional assemblies, and through its influence over the governors has succeeded in electing a Seiyukai Diet. There is, however, an additional movement going on among the common people which in a few years promises to give them a growing influence in government affairs.

HOW CAN THE PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES BE MOST HELPFUL TO JAPAN AND TO JAPANESE WHO ARE LIVING IN OUR COUNTRY?

1. Americans and Japanese both should magnify the cultural elements in each country which might be valuable to the other and seek to understand each other's culture. This involves a broader understanding of the religions, the art, and other cultural interests of the two countries. Dr. H. H. Guy reported an interesting experience in a Zen temple at Kyoto, where, after a lecture on Christianity, a Buddhist priest, with tears in his eyes, thanked Dr. Guy for the opportunity of friendly conference on the Christian religion. To help in understanding the cultural side of Japan two books were especially suggested: "Bushido," by Dr. Nitobe, and "A Daughter of the Samurai," by Madam Sugimimoto.

2. We should enlarge the educational curriculum in American high schools and colleges to include Oriental civilizations as well as those of Europe.

3. We should establish in this country some sort of an oriental institute with sufficient endowment to secure a large library and to provide lecturers and teachers on the Orient. It was suggested that we support Dr. William Pettus' movement for the coöperation of the colleges and universities of California in the development of the North China Union Language School of Peking, where foreigners and Chinese are trained, and in providing for exchange professorships.

Mr. Tsunoda is working on a plan for a Japanese Cultural Institute in New York, where will be assembled a large library on Japan. He now has a room in Columbia University for the book collection already made. At Yale University, Professor Asakawa has the best library in America on Japan in the Japanese language.

4. Oriental libraries and courses in Oriental languages and institutions already being given in the American universities should be enlarged. It was suggested that we all should work through the World Federation of Education Association and coöperate with the Institute of Pacific Relations in the study which it is making of international relations education around the Pacific.

5. Encouragement should be given to round table discussions like this in fraternities and other university student groups.

6. We must seek to understand each other's point of view. There is great value in little groups in each country trying to understand each other thoroughly and attempting to do the little things that will show sympathy and will actually cope with the problems as we see them. "He that would do good, let him do it in minute particulars."

7. It was suggested that a law might be passed by Congress making it possible in some simple way for all aliens, legally in the United States at the time of the passing of the immigration act of 1924, to be naturalized. The following quotation from "This Freedom," by Hutchinson, applies to Japan today. Of the heroine, the author wrote: "She was intelligent and ardent and there are not boundaries to the distance one may go with this equipment."

A motto for the round table members: "The end of the conference is the beginning of the campaign."

EUROPE

✓
THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH OF NATIONS ✓

LINDEN A. MANDER

Assistant Professor of Political Science, University of Washington

Several writers have in various situations discussed the significance of the recent constitutional developments within the British Commonwealth, and have explained the reasons for, and the possible results of, the events leading up to the 1926 Conference. I propose in this article to deal briefly with another phase of Imperial affairs, one which is not so fully appreciated, but one which in the future may come to be recognized as contributing as much to the happiness and welfare of millions of people as that political phase which is more generally discussed at meetings and conferences. I intend, in other words, to indicate the main agencies within the British Commonwealth making for a higher standard of social and economic life; to show how the habit of coöperation, as distinct from centralization, is developing; and to demonstrate how much more effective action is being secured by such coöperation than would be possible in the case of any one Colony or Dominion acting as an isolated unit.

The new British Empire of the last fifty years arose because of European rivalries, the growth of Germany, the new protectionist policies of Europe and the United States after 1878, and the claims of the native races; but especially because of the influence of and the need for new markets and raw materials—quinine, cocoa, tea, rubber, and cocoanuts in Ceylon; tea, coffee, hides, jute, and oil seeds from India; tin and rubber from Malaya; cocoa, cloves, sisal hemp, and tobacco from East and West Africa; bananas from the West Indies; all these things and many others created a new factor and a new problem in British Imperial affairs.¹

I shall treat of the "Colonial" Empire first, leaving the question of the Dominions until later.

It is perhaps not appreciated how extraordinarily diversified and extensive is the Colonial empire under the administration of the Secretary of State for Colonies. The Western group in Africa (Nigeria, British Camerons, Gold Coast, British Togoland, Sierre Leone, The Gambia) has an area of 488,677 square miles, a population in 1919 of 21,822,793, and a total import and export trade of nearly 50 million pounds. Add to this group the Eastern group in Africa (The Sudan, Somaliland, Kenya, Uganda, Zanzibar, Tanganyika, Nysaland and Rhodesia) and we have an area of 2,628,498 square

¹See Knowles, *The Economic Development of the British Overseas Empire*.

miles (nearly twenty-two times the area of the United Kingdom), a population of nearly forty millions, and a trade of nearly 80 million pounds.² Add further to these colonies those in the East and West Indies, and in the Pacific, and others scattered in other parts, and it will be appreciated what must be the task of ruling over fifty million people of all colors and beliefs, of varying degrees of education, different densities of population, and of a bewildering complexity of local organization. On the whole, one may say that most of this colonial empire is tropical or sub-tropical, and that its economic and health problems are those of such a latitude. But having said that, one must hasten to add that, apart from this general geographic unit, there is little "structural or administrative unity." Said Mr. Amery, the Secretary of Colonies:

I deal in this office with some thirty-six different Governments each entirely separate from the rest, each administratively, financially, legislatively self-contained. Each, whether it deals with nearly twenty million people over an area as large as Central Europe, or with twenty thousand people, over a scattered handful of islands, has its own administrative service, its own medical service, its own agricultural public works, and other technical services, its own scale of pay, its own pensions.³

But the new problems of our new age have made this extreme individualism, as it were, exceedingly disadvantageous. The pressure of the modern world, the economic intensification, and the growth of population have brought to the front the need for the scientific production, transport, and marketing of goods, inviting research into many different problems. No longer does the haphazard method suffice. Equally vital are the problems of the health of the people both as producing units and as ends in themselves. And so it is not surprising that the thing stressed in Mr. Amery's speech was the problem of overcoming the disadvantages of the isolation of colonies, especially in matters "into which scientific method and scientific research enter, problems of agriculture, of veterinary science, of health, of transport.

. . . There is a real consciousness of the fact that we have immense undeveloped resources which science and science alone can bring to rapid development. Now it is just here where our system of watertight compartments fails most strikingly."⁴

The problem of the colonies is a two-fold one—political organization, and research organization. The outstanding fact of the former problem is the growth of the conference method. In 1927 the first general Colonial Conference was held, full of promise, we hope, for the future. The scope of the Conference is indicated by some of the problems here mentioned—recruitment and training of colonial civil servants, colonial pension legisla-

² See Lugard, *The Dual Mandate in British Tropical Africa*.

³&⁴ Opening Address at the Colonial Office Conference, 1927. See Report of Conference.

tion, nurses' retirement allowances, agricultural, and veterinary research, the relation of technical to administrative services, the form and material of Colonial annual reports, the procedure and conduct of business in Colonial legislatures, colonial trade agencies in London, civil air developments, relations of road transport to railway development, developments in mechanical transport, wireless communication, forestry, medical and public health questions, education, and cinematograph films. The Governors of various colonies by coming together are enabled to discuss these major problems and policies, and return enriched in experience by the interchange of ideas. In addition to this, there have been other more limited colonial gatherings, such as an Agricultural Conference in Jamaica in 1924, conferences between Canadian and West Indian representatives in 1920 and 1925, a West Africa Conference of Senior Medical officers in 1925, of Railway experts in 1926, of Agricultural Research Authorities, or East Africa Law Officers and Agricultural Officers, and an East African Governor's Conference. In 1926 a conference of the main West Indian Colonies met in London to consider setting up a standing body to deal with matters of common interest to them.⁵ The representatives set up a standing West Indian Conference, a purely advisory body, to meet alternately in London and in the West Indies; it is to have a permanent traveling secretariat; and any recommendations passed will be laid before the Legislatures of the different West Indian Colonies. In this way a certain amount of coöperative action will be made possible through common membership to the Empire. In some ways this has already borne fruit. The 1925 conference with Canada resulted in Canada's granting preference to West India in bananas, sugar, and cocoa in return for preference in other goods. Plans were under way for improving the shipping facilities of these islands; while as an outcome of the 1925 Economic Conference recommendations, telegraphic communications have been improved and costs lowered—this is an important matter, due to the problem of distances between the various islands. I shall deal with the results of coöperation in the matter of sugar production in a few minutes.

One may look, then, for a development of this conference machinery in the future in colonial matters in the attempt to obtain common action on many matters. There are, however, other agencies at work making for greater efficiency of administration and more useful development of resources.⁶ There are first, the Crown Agents for colonies who purchase stores and raise loans for the colonial governments. All requisitions for stores from the United Kingdom or from lands abroad must be sent to these agents, whose business since 1900 has very much expanded, especially on the

⁵ See 1926 Imperial Conference Reports; Appendix, pp. 116-121.

⁶ For a useful summary see Sir George V. Fiddes, *The Dominions and Colonial Offices*, 1926.

engineering side, where there exists a Drawing Office, an Engineering Contracts Branch, and an Engineering Inspection Branch for Testing, and an Engineering Designing Branch. These crown agents advise on 7,000 miles of railway owned by fifteen administrations; they manage fifty-seven colonial loans amounting to nearly 80 million pounds; they make about 600 technical appointments a year; and through the Director of Colonial scholars oversee sixty colonial government scholarships. Here we find advantages to the colonies—cheaper buying of materials, more economical raising of loans, and expert technical advice. The second agency is the colonial audit department, reorganized in 1910, which audits the accounts of some twenty-eight administrations; the service involved in this task is surely obvious. The third agency is the Colonial Survey Committee, appointed in 1905, to assist the colonies and protectorates, especially in tropical Africa, to get more rapid and methodical surveys made; in 1912 the scope was expanded to include geological surveys. The importance of such surveys in the development of communications is very great, for upon the development of roads, railways, and other methods of transport, depend the efficiency of administration, the suppression of tribal warfare and slavery, the relief of famine, the education of natives in interiors, the improvement of health, and the gaining of raw materials.⁷ (The Committee on Industry and Trade in 1925⁸ brought together much evidence to show that the decline in exports of British cotton goods was due to the shortage of raw cotton and its growth, and that if East Africa were to supply this shortage a great deal must be done in providing further transport facilities—especially railways.)

A further agency is the Colonial Research Committee, set up in 1919 to administer a parliamentary grant for the assistance of poorer colonies in research into matters of local importance. I have on hand the Report of the Committee for the year 1924 and 1925,⁹ and I summarize the main activities during that period in order to show the type of problem it is attacking. A grant was made to the Amani Institute in Tanganyika for agricultural research for the East African Colonies; coal investigations were continued in Nyasaland; money was provided to defray the salary of an entomologist “for the purpose of studying the principal insect pests of agriculture in the Colony (Sierra Leone), and of investigating the distribution of tsetse fly areas with the view of determining the regions most suitable for cattle farms”; investigations into the Panama disease of Panamas were con-

⁷ See excellent accounts in Knowles, *The Economic Development of the British Empire*, Book 2; Lugard, *The Dual Mandate in British Tropical Africa*, Chap. 23; McPhee, *The Economic Revolution in British West Africa*, 1926, Chap. 3.

⁸ Board of Trade; *Memorandum of Transport Development and Cotton Growing in East Africa*, 1925.

⁹ Colonial Research Committee: Report for 1924 and 1925.

tinued at the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture, Trinidad; for four years an expert conducted researches into the sponge industry of the Bahamas, which, with their 20,000 square miles of waters suited to the growth of sponges, are the chief sponge producing area in the Empire, but which have been suffering from depletion and have been producing sponges lacking in quality. These instances will illustrate the possibilities of coördinated effort in a wide variety of fields.

It is not my purpose to discuss the problems involved in the education and health of natives; this would necessitate another paper—it is sufficient to indicate that the problems exist, and that in addition to measures taken in each colony there have been set up coördinating and investigating machinery, including the Advisory Committee on Native Education in British Tropical Africa Dependencies with the Parliamentary Undersecretary of State for Colonies as chairman;¹⁰ the Colonial Advisory Medical and Sanitation Committee; and the Tropical Diseases Bureau,¹¹ the last of which is in charge of a salaried director, and which collects and collates information concerning tropical diseases and hygiene, and makes such information available for common benefit. Other machinery of research will be treated of later on, as its work applies equally to the Dominions and India, and it will therefore be more conveniently classified in another setting.

Something has been said, in concentrated form, I fear, to indicate the possibilities for future in colonial administration. With growth of communications, more thorough training of administrators as anthropological knowledge is deepened, more scientific appreciation of the problems of education gained after further study, and more intensive research into problems of economic production and human health, a finer page in man's conquest over nature and disease should be unfolded. I should like to suggest that progress is likely to be more rapid because of the existence of these colonies

¹⁰ See memorandum on the Advisory Committee by Mr. H. Vischer, C. B. E. Secretary of the Advisory Committee, Appendix 17, Colonial Office Conference 1927, appendices to the summary of proceedings. The Secretary assists in the matter of educational appointments, keeps in touch with the officials of the colonies and the missionaries, and sends minutes of meetings of the various African Dependencies. The committee has issued three memoranda, (1) on the policy of native education; (2) on British education staff; (3) on the use of the vernacular in native education, and in addition has worked on 14 other projects mentioned in the memorandum.

¹¹ See Memorandum on the Bureau, Dr. A. G. Bradshawe, C. M. G. Director of the Bureau, Appendix 16D. Colonial Office Conference 1927, appendices to the summary of proceedings. The Bureau publishes a monthly Bulletin of Hygiene, a monthly Imperial Disease Bulletin, and a quarterly Tropical Veterinary Bulletin. This involves "keeping watch" on over 500 Medical and Veterinary publications, of which summaries are made. It has built up a valuable library, and is thus well described as a "centralized intelligence service."

as part of a larger unit which has not only a framework of machinery to assist, but also a tradition which makes coöperation between those parts a much easier matter. That is, if it were not for their membership in some bigger group, and for the leadership shown by Great Britain, these colonies would have had to face the world less organized and equipped than they now are; and although it may be objected that in many parts the natives would have been happier had they been left to themselves, the answer is that the course of the world's economic development would have drawn them in any case (and in many cases had drawn them) into active relations with the white race, and that the choice then lay between an unorganized and an organized contact. Much perhaps has yet to be done, a good deal that might have been done in the past has been neglected, but on the whole I feel that the future holds promise in colonial administrations, and that those in charge have a bigness of conception which will ensure a wise handling of these problems upon the solution of which the welfare of so many millions of natives and whites depends.

I turn now to another phase which concerns, in addition to the colonies, the economic and social relations between the Dominions and Great Britain. It is particularly since the war that these relations have developed with rapidity. Before 1914, it is true, certain steps had been taken, but they did not involve anything like what is now being attempted. At the 1887 Colonial Conference a few minor trade questions were discussed;¹² the 1894 Colonial Conference debated preferential tariffs with the United Kingdom and with one another, and agreed on the advantages of cable communication. The 1897 Conference concerned itself with penny postage (arranged in a Postal Conference June-July, 1898); with a proposed cable (completed in 1902); and with the removal of restrictions on investments by trustees in colonial securities, which was effected by the Colonial Stock Act of 1900, thus enabling the Colonies to borrow at a lower rate of interest and saving them perhaps 10 million pounds a year.¹³ An advisory committee to the Board of Trade was set up, including representatives nominated by Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa, and in 1904 the first statistical abstract of the British Empire was published. The 1902 Conference concerned itself largely with the matter of inter-imperial trade, and some minor matters; the 1907 Conference did nothing interesting from the point of view of this paper, though it is to be noted that "Trade Commissioners were appointed to the Dominions, in order to perform functions in the way of promoting British trade similar to those of Consuls in foreign countries,"

¹² For a convenient short summary of the Conferences see Keith, *Responsible Governments in the Dominions* (1928) Pt. VIII, Cp. II.

¹³ For these and other details mentioned here see Knowles, *The Industrial and Commercial Revolutions in G. B. during the 19th C.* Part VI, 1924.

and that Dominion trade statistics were improved "in order to discriminate the countries of import."¹⁴ The 1911 Conference passed several resolutions, including the appointment of a Royal Commission to investigate the resources of the Empire, but on the whole, little of the activity that has characterized the post-war period was thus far in evidence. It is within the last ten years that a fuller appreciation of the Empire as a social and economic agency has come into being, and this consciousness is seen less perhaps in political measures of imperial preference (for in this field, though certain things have been done, serious difficulties remain) than in coöperative measures for the more efficient production, transport, and marketing of goods, the elimination of waste, and the scientific research necessary to achieve these ends.

As a result of the 1923 Imperial Economic Conference it was decided to set up an Imperial Economic Committee with ten representatives from the United Kingdom, two from each Dominion, two from the Colonies, and two from India. This body is an Advisory Committee, dealing with economic and commercial matters; it has no executive power, but it has been active, and its analysis of the situation of the Empire is worthy of summary since on the whole, its recommendations have been followed in the setting up of the Empire Marketing Board, which I shall describe presently.¹⁵

The committee's duty was first of all to bear in mind the interests of the producers in Great Britain, and then those of the Dominions; and it might suggest schemes on which the British Government might spend up to £1,000,000 a year. Three main divisions of this report may be indicated.

1. The mobilization of consumers by voluntary effort to buy Empire products; this involves the need of an easy identification of such products. "—The evidence of our witnesses leads us to believe that as between goods of the same quality and price the consumer would undoubtedly select Empire produce if he could recognize it." Difficulties were involved in the use of special symbols or colors; the Committee therefore recommended the attachment of certain prescribed words and suggested that British legislation might effect this change. To convert these legal requirements into accepted custom the committee went on, publicity on a national scale would be needed, and to be effective the publicity must be (1) continuous, (2) non-stereotyped, so as to avoid staleness of appeal, (3) of appeal to the young. On the supply side of the goods, quality and attractive presentation of goods, and regularity and continuity of supply, were essential.

In order to carry into effect the above ideas, the Committee recommended the appointment of an Executive Commission to supervise the expenditure of the money granted by the British Parliament.

2. The question of Research. It is important, the Committee went on, to have a scheme for 'coördinated research into the production and preservation of foodstuffs,' involving three classes; the overseas producer, the transporters by ship and railway,

¹⁴ Keith pp. 1183-4.

¹⁵ Report of Imperial Economic Committee on Marketing and Preparing for Market of Foodstuffs Produced in the Overseas Parts of the Empire. 1925.

and the distributor in the United Kingdom. Already experiments with fruits have been made in Australia and South Africa, on board vessels from Australia and New Zealand, and in cold storage in Britain. The researches carried on by the Low Temperature Research Station at Cambridge have suffered for lack of funds.

But in order for this type of research to expand adequately, provision must be made for the training of scientists; scholarships should be provided, and exchanges arranged for. 'Such a profession with its associated specialist schools and research stations would give not merely a paper scheme of coördination but a real unification and tradition in research and practice throughout the Empire. In each part of the Empire, organization would doubtless be adapted to local conditions, but the come and go of personnel would ensure identity of aim and of standards, and would tend to prevent useless repetition, since the expert advisers would everywhere be members of a single scientific corps.' The vision is certainly a fine one, and worthy of great effort to attain.

The Committee later on produced three special reports—on meat, fruits, and dairy produce—and has, I believe, since the time of the latest information I have on hand, issued others.

Largely through the Committee's recommendation of an Executive Commission to administer money voted by the British Parliament for the furtherance of marketing Empire produce, the Empire Marketing Board was constituted in May, 1926.¹⁶ This new Board had to be constituted in an interesting manner. Since it was to expend money voted by the British Parliament, it was desirable that the Board should be responsible to the British Parliament. It could therefore scarcely be an inter-Imperial Committee. On the other hand it was equally desirable to make it as coöperative with the Dominions' interests as possible. It was therefore decided that a representative of each of the Dominions and certain British representatives should attend the Board in a "consultative capacity," and that the responsibility for the expenditure of the grant should rest with the Secretary of State for Dominion Affairs.

The work of the Empire Marketing Board in its first period of nine months (July, 1926-May, 1927) (which is the only report I have been able to obtain) makes interesting reading, as showing somewhat in detail the aims and ideals in view. The Board expended, in those first nine months, £103,000, but doubtless as it becomes organized it will in the future account for the annual grant of the £1,000,000 provided for. Its work has been divided into four headings:

A. Grants to aid research into problems of production and marketing, given almost entirely to existing institutions. They include grants to tropical and sub-tropical agricultural research stations in Trinidad, the Amani Institute, Tanganyika, and a promise for assistance towards the establishment of one in Northern Australia;

¹⁶ See Statements by Secretary of State for Dominion Affairs, Imperial Conference 1926. Appendices to the Summary of Proceedings, pp. 43-53, and Empire Marketing Board, Report for July, 1926-May, 1927.

to the Low Temperature Research Station at Cambridge; a grant provisionally for the erection of a new station in Kent; for entomological research into the problem of 'controlling ravages of insect pests upon the crops by the artificial introduction of parasitic insects, their natural enemies'—these include advances toward setting up an entomological research laboratory under the Imperial Bureau of Entomology, towards the control of noxious weeds in New Zealand, and for research into the presence of insects in dried fruits; assistance for experimentation in animal husbandry (to study 'those causes which in widely separated pastoral areas of the Empire underlie persistent symptoms of malnutrition amongst flocks and herds') has been given to the Rowett Institute, Aberdeen, the Waite Institute in Australia, the New Zealand Government, and to a special committee investigating stock rearing problems in Palestine. Sums have been conditionally promised for research into the problems of animal breeding to the faculty of agriculture, Cambridge, and to the University of Edinburgh; money has been made available to stations in various parts which are dealing with problems of disease in fruit, of producing bananas free from Panama disease, and of the keeping quality of fruit and its relation to the nutrition of the tree and to soil conditions; grants have been made for dairy research, especially to overcome two faults in imported dairy produce—red spot in cheese, and 'fishiness' in dairy products; to the Medical Research Council for investigation of vitamins in fruit and dairy produce; and for research in Scotland and North Ireland into poultry nutrition and marketing. This program of research seems a not unpromising one to begin with; one is struck by the diversity of products involved as well as the number of places assisted: and it can be imagined how great may be the benefits accruing from a much more extended campaign of Empire research in the future.

B. The Board has encouraged economic investigation and intelligence plans. These included the publication of a weekly 'Fruit Intelligence Notes' so that those interested may have a reliable and up-to-date knowledge of market conditions, crop prospects, shipments, etc.; the bringing of people from overseas 'to study the actual needs of the home market and the best methods of packing and presentation'; and the appointment of a small staff working at the posts 'on the problem of deterioration of fruit in transit,' and of dairy produce, and the causes of the free fatty acid content of Indian groundnuts.

C. The Board has made other grants to encourage production and marketing, including a contribution towards the expenses of a mission to Australia to discuss questions of trade, sums to approved producers' organizations, to the Plunkett Foundation, and for the establishment of one or more quarantine stations for assisting the export of pedigree live stock to the overseas Empire.

D. Of the £103,000 expended thus far, £67,000 was spent on publicity with a view to preparing a background 'against which more specific efforts to press the sale of Empire produce, whether undertaken by the Board itself or by other agencies, can be thrown into relief.' Its activities in this direction include regular weekly advertisements, the erection of many posters dealing with Empire produce (I remember seeing several on my recent visit to England), the supply of pictures and other material to schools, the participation in exhibitions held throughout England, assistance in Empire shopping weeks, and the holding of cinema exhibits at the Imperial Institute.

I have done little more than make a precis of the Empire Marketing Board Report, because in this way I felt that I could best convey the purpose which the Board has in mind. Their many experiments will be watched

with interest, and should they develop as one hopes that they will develop, the future should see a great chain of research stations all animated by the deep desire to seek out solutions which will add to the health and the economic comfort of the masses of the Empire.

There are, however, other coöperative agencies, some of them already benefiting from the setting up of the Empire Marketing Board. These must be indicated in order to give anything like an adequate picture of what is being attempted.

The Imperial Bureau of Entomology¹⁷ was reorganized in 1913 to encourage and coördinate throughout the Empire, work on human and animal diseases. To its upkeep the Imperial Government, the governments of the self-governing Dominions, of India, the Colonies and other Dependencies, the Sudan, and the North Borneo Company contribute. The Bureau publishes both a monthly and a quarterly review, identifies insects for official entomologists all over the Empire, and now, with the aid of the Empire Marketing Board's grants mentioned above, it has set up a laboratory for the purpose of breeding beneficial parasites for export to the overseas Empire.

The Imperial Bureau of Mycology, founded in 1920, encourages and coördinates throughout the Empire research into plant diseases. It is supported by the Dominions, India, the Sudan, and the non-self-governing Colonies and Protectorates. Its functions are similar to those of the Bureau of Entomology, "distributing information in all matters connected with plant diseases, and undertaking the identification of specimens."

One may give here a few details only concerning the organization of medical work. It was in 1899 that the London and Liverpool schools of Tropical Medicine were founded, "primarily for the special training in tropical medicine of officers of the Colonial Medical services"; other universities followed the example thus provided by instituting courses and diplomas in the same subjects. Then Calcutta, in 1921, established its school of Tropical Medicine, and Australia built a similar institute in Townsville, Queensland. Other schools will doubtless follow. Schools for the training of a native medical staff have been founded in Ceylon (1870), Hong Kong (1887), and the Straits Settlements and Federated Malay States (1905), while certain other measures have, in this connection, been taken elsewhere. Although much still remains to be done, we may appreciate the statement so finely made by Mrs. Knowles:¹⁸ "Thus the whole Empire meets on a common scientific ground, and is mobilized against the insects which destroy man or render him less fit, and against the insects and fungi which destroy

¹⁷ Brief reference to these two bureaus are contained in Sir George V. Fiddes, *The Dominions and Colonial Offices*, and Imperial Agricultural Research Conference, 1927; Report and Summary of Proceedings, Appendix B.

¹⁸ Knowles, *The Economic Development of the British Overseas Empire*, p. 44.

the plants by which he lives and by which he gains not merely his food, but his raw materials." And that this battle is by no means a light one is evident from the statement of Dr. Marshall that something like 10 per cent of the world's crops are destroyed every year by insects. The loss in economic efficiency due to disease in human beings must be equally astounding, as the results of hookworm, malaria, and sleeping sickness, for example, would seem to indicate. It is, therefore, a noble work which these Imperial organizations and those previously mentioned are attempting and one which we may all wish greater and greater success.

I turn now to Empire machinery for coöperation in Agriculture. The Colonial office has a staff of 300 Europeans in the Agricultural Department of seventeen dependencies, of which ninety-one are research, and the rest, administrative officers. In order to provide the experts necessary, a system of agricultural scholarships to which sixteen colonies contribute was inaugurated, and also the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture at Trinidad was started. This College grew out of the West Indian Agricultural College, created by Lord Milner, who in turn utilized the Imperial Department of Agriculture formed late last century, after a royal commission in 1897 had investigated the causes of the sugar depression in that part. The results have been gratifying, despite the financial handicaps under which this Trinidad College has worked. Its work has improved the quality of sugar cane, combatted insect pests, stimulated research, reintroduced cotton growing, and it has sent its graduates all over the Empire. All candidates now accepting agricultural services in the Colonies will spend at least one year in the college, and officers in the Empire Cotton Growing Corporation will also have the college as their training center. Here, too, there are contained possibilities for further Empire coöperation.

Agriculture, however, is a vitally important part of the economic life of the Dominions as well, and it would be suprising if some need of closer relations had not been felt. Many of the problems of dairying, plant breeding, animal genetics, fruit growing, etc., are common to them all, and the British Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, feeling that coöperation would benefit workers in agricultural sciences, suggested to the 1923 Imperial Economic Conference the encouragement of interchange of views and information. The conference passed a favorable resolution which met with a gratifying reception from the Dominions and Colonies. As an outcome, there was held in London in 1927 the first Imperial Agricultural Research Conference,¹⁹ attended by almost 150 delegates from all parts of the Empire. It is impossible here to do justice to a Report some 250 pages in length, and I must content myself with noting one or two main points. The Chairman

¹⁹ Imperial Agricultural Research Conference, 1927. Report and Summary of Proceedings.

well remarked in a general review of the work of the Conference that it had been an eminently successful experiment, one which was "an important landmark in Imperial development," and perhaps "a harbinger of greater Imperial prosperity"; nor can one read the appreciative remarks of the Dominions and colonial delegates without feeling that they, too, realized the possibilities for the future in a great joint enterprise in the Empire's largest industry.

Briefly the Conference recommended:

1. The establishment of certain central tropical and sub-tropical research stations.
2. The foundation of new Imperial Bureaus and corresponding stations for the purpose of interchange of information—particularly in matters of soil science, animal nutrition, and animal health, animal genetics, agricultural parasitology, plant genetics, and fruit production. 'Such stations' at present 'are best established in conjunction with existing research institutions.'
3. Measures concerning the recruitment, training, and interchange of workers.
4. Measures concerning veterinary science, animal nutrition, animal genetics, dairying, soil and fertilizers, plant breeding, plant pathology, fruits, entomology, insecticides and fungicides, preservation and transport, and agricultural economics.

The Conference adjourned, to meet again in Australia in 1932, at the express invitation of the Commonwealth government, "so strongly did—(it)—recognize the value of the contact between scientific workers and administrators in agricultural science afforded by such conferences." New Zealand, following Australia's example, cordially invited delegates to visit that country, promising them a hearty welcome, and promising, moreover, to coöperate with Australia so as to make the next conference "in every way valuable and successful."

It is too early yet to speak of "results." One thing only is certain. The conference has shown what possibilities there are; has lighted the way, as it were, to bigger things; and given a vision of what may be accomplished if administrative capacity and skill in research can at all keep pace with conference insight and enthusiasm.

The British Empire contains approximately 1,837,000 square miles of forest, an area affording tremendous wealth, both actual and potential. The scientific use of the timbers and their by-products, the protection of forests, reforestation plans, and especially the marketing of timber, are all important questions, and demand coöperative treatment for the obtaining of the best results. Two Imperial Forestry Conferences were held, one in 1920, and the other in 1923; and at the 1926 Imperial Conference a special sub-committee was set up to report upon Empire forestry problems.²⁰ The third forestry conference has been scheduled to take place in New Zealand and Australia this year (1928), while South Africa has issued an invitation for the 1933 session to be held in that country.

²⁰ See Report of sub-committee, Imperial Conference, 1926. App. XIII.

In order to provide machinery to deal more effectively with the problems involved, the 1920 Conference recommended that there should be established in the United Kingdom an institution for the further training of forest officers for the Empire and for research into the formation, tending, and protection of forests. An interdepartmental committee set up to report on the location and organization of such an institution recommended that Oxford be chosen, and accordingly, in October, 1926, the Imperial Forestry Institute was established, as a University Institution, with the Professor of Forestry as its Director, "under the control of a Board of Governors representing the University, the Colonial Office, the Forestry Commission, and the Empire Forestry Association. It is supported mainly by funds provided by the various non-self-governing colonies and dependencies and the forestry commission."²¹ It is unnecessary here to specify the work being done; it is enough to say that enrollments have increased and that though money is needed for accommodations, staff, and equipment, a promising beginning has been made in a common Empire forestry education program. Mention should also be made of the Empire Forestry Association, incorporated by Royal Charter, November 1, 1921, for the object of diffusing information of, and encouraging interest in, forestry matters within the Empire. It is a body open to individuals, organizations, and business undertaking. In 1926 it had 374 professional and 261 other members. Its main work is in publishing its "Empire Forestry Journal" twice annually, and in developing better contacts. Further, the sub-committee of the Imperial Conference, 1926, has suggested the establishment of an Imperial Forestry Bureau, "to act as a clearing-house for information," and that this matter should be referred to the Empire Forestry Conference, 1928, for its consideration.

I make brief mention of the position of cotton. Partly due to the action of disease, and partly to the increasing demand for cotton goods, the British industry in the twentieth century was threatened with a serious situation. The British Cotton-growing Association, formed in 1902, made several costly experiments in Cambia, Sierre Leone, and the Gold Coast without success. In 1910, the British Government gave £10,000 a year for three years towards experiments in Empire cotton-growing, and colonial governments also contributed. A special committee set up in 1917 to investigate the situation developed into a permanent body, "The Empire Cotton Growing Corporation," "empowered in 1923 to levy sixpence on each bale of cotton purchased by spinners in this country to be devoted to cotton growing within the Empire." "Thus the supply of raw cotton has become to some extent an affair of the British Government." Egypt, Uganda, the Sudan, and the West Indies include parts that are being developed. Moreover, there appears to

²¹ Ibid. Annexe V.

have been a steady growth in the area cultivated within the Empire, and this in turn is stimulating research in Trinidad, with the further development of a chain of experimental stations in Africa to deal with specifically local problems. The problem is largely one of transport, as has been pointed out; if that is overcome, there is much to be said for the extension of cotton growing both from the point of view of welfare of natives (given adequate labor safeguards) and of the spinners in Great Britain.

In commerce and industry the interdependence of the Empire and mutual advantage, is also seen, although, as I shall have occasion to point out, there seems to be a limit beyond which it is not possible to organize "imperially."

It might be said that the problem of transport is the most vital of all problems to Dominions such as Australia and New Zealand, situated as they are so far from the center of the world's markets. The Pacific Cable, opened in 1902 and under the control of the Pacific Cable Board, on which the partner governments, Great Britain, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, are represented, meant a great deal to the Dominions in their external relations, for cable rates were materially lessened. Cheaper inter-Imperial postage also played its part. But modern shipping, making possible the transport of heavy and bulky goods, revolutionized the possibilities of the two Dominions in the Pacific. This fact is so evident that I need not wait to discuss illustrations, interesting as they may be. In order to make inter-Empire shipping as efficient as possible, an Imperial Shipping Board was set up, and began to function in 1920. Its importance "lies in the fact that it reports not merely to the Prime Minister of Great Britain, but to all the governments of the Empire. It is subject to no one part of the Empire, and to no one Parliament. It investigates imperial shipping grievances, settles inter-imperial shipping disputes, such as that about the deferred rebates, and it has initiated common action in the matter of liability for pilferage under bills of lading within the Empire. It has devised plans for more rapid communications between Australia and New Zealand by a combination of air and steamship services, and it has dealt with the question of the income tax to be levied on shipping earnings within the empire."²² The Board, according to the President of the Board of Trade in 1926, had within the last few years considered matters relating to the deepening of Colombo Harbor, Canadian Marine Insurance rates, rates of freight on Canadian flour in the North Atlantic, East Africa shipping services, aspects of Canadian cable trade, etc. This body may do an effective Imperial work, for cheaper freights and adequacy of communications are fundamentally necessary for the further development of inter-empire trade. I remember, while in Lon-

²² Knowles, *The Economic Development of the British Overseas Empire*; pp. 42-44.

don last summer, having a gentleman complain at the risk of loss to which he was exposed owing to shipping services between England and Australia not being sufficiently rapid to enable him to exchange communications and place tenders for contracts within the specified time. Whether that particular complaint, made in an Australian House, was well founded I am not in a position to judge, but the time factor in modern economic life is obviously a vital one.

Air communications are likely to play an important part in the future, and I here content myself with saying that several proposals came before the 1926 Imperial Conference, the most important perhaps being that of the Imperial Government, for the establishment of an air service from Egypt to India, and later from India, through Burma, to Singapore; also from Egypt to South Africa by way of Uganda; and finally from Britain to Canada. The Conference passed several resolutions, including a recommendation that an Imperial Air Conference be held in 1928 or 1929 at some suitable center, and noted with appreciation the invitation of Canada that the meeting take place in that Dominion. It is, of course, too early to say how much will be accomplished along these lines, but as Mr. Duncan Hall has earlier said: "It is difficult to overestimate the significance of these remarkable developments," in that these organizations are part of a developing network of bodies betokening "a vast laboratory of international government."²³

Other matters of coöperation include the 1919 agreement between Empire representatives that money invested by British subjects within the Empire should no longer be subject to double income tax, it being provided that the colony should take part of the one income tax and Great Britain the rest, on the condition that Britain's share would not be less than one-half of what it would have previously received. This step constitutes a "considerable preference" to capital invested within the Empire. New Zealand sentiment towards the Home Country is such that within limits government and local authorities have accepted British tenders even if higher in price than tenders from foreign lands.²⁴ There have been subsidized mail services between New Zealand and Canada, Canada and the West Indies, and Canada and South Africa, with the object of assisting trade in these directions. An Imperial Mineral Resources Bureau was founded in 1918, to investigate the mineral situation within the Empire; in 1923 a scheme was proposed for a modification of its administration in connection with the Imperial Institute. Other economic questions were discussed at the 1926 Imperial Conference,

²³ H. Duncan Hall. *The British Commonwealth of Nations*, 1920. A new edition of this volume will, it is hoped, make its appearance in the not distant future.

²⁴ See *Great Britain and the Dominions*, Harris Foundation Lectures, 1927, chapter on New Zealand, by J. B. Condliffe.

but I shall omit detailed reference to them here.²⁵ The matters of Imperial preference and overseas settlement I wish to defer for a moment, for they involve other factors which necessitate further consideration.

The survey made gives, I think, a fairly representative presentation of the main methods by which the various parts of the British Empire have been able to develop coöperatively in ways which would not have been possible had each section been independent and unanimated by the sentiment of devotion to the unity of the commonwealth. That attitude of mind, along with economic necessities, has made easier the working together of one-fifth of the human race along lines which I have indicated. Before passing to consider the two problems where very real, and at the present unsolved, difficulties have been met in this experiment of Imperial coöperation in social and economic matters, I shall like to show how the recent activities of one Dominion—Australia—in the realm of economic research and organization are being assisted by that Dominion's connection with the Empire.

In accordance with an Imperial scheme of settlement, presently to be described, the Commonwealth Government in 1926 passed an Act, "The Development and Migration Act, 1926," which set up a commission of four members whose powers included a consideration of the development of the resources of the commonwealth, investigation of the position of existing industries, the possibility of establishing new industries, and the examination of migration schemes likely to benefit Australia. This Commission has the assistance of the Tariff Board, the Department of Markets, and the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, and already has made several investigations and set forth a number of schemes.

On looking through the first annual report²⁶ we find in the midst of the above examples, several instances of help likely to be afforded by various Empire units:

a. Geophysical prospecting is defined as an attempt 'based on the electric, magnetic, physical, and other properties of the earth's crust' with the aim 'by the application of definite scientific processes to secure results more quickly and more surely than by the slow, haphazard methods of boring, diggin, and trenching.' The experts in Great Britain, feeling that Australia afforded an excellent field for testing geophysical methods in the general interests of Empire development recommended that an expert be tried for a period. The result has been that the British and the Australian governments have each contributed £16,000 for the next two years. It will be of interest to see if such methods will locate any great amount of mineral wealth in Australia.

b. Fishing and Allied Industries.

²⁵ See 1926 Report, Section XXI.

²⁶ Commonwealth of Australia. Development and Migration Commission First Annual Report for period ending 30th, June, 1927.

'Despite the abundance of fish in Australian waters' the Report asserts 'the condition of this industry is very unsatisfactory. . . . Prices are high, the supply is scarce and irregular, and general organization for development either neglected or inefficient. The industry presents an opportunity for effective work likely to be of real and direct benefit to the Australian people.' The very striking fact is that the Development and Migration Commission, after noting that a Conference had been held between the Commonwealth and State Governments, goes on to speak of the excellent report recently issued by the Imperial Economic Committee, remarks that it is keeping in close touch with the Empire Marketing Board, the Imperial Economic Committee, and the Australian Fisheries Conference; notes that the Imperial Economic Committee has recommended farther research into the whole question, the research being based 'on a Central Station at a fishery port in Great Britain; a specially constructed vessel; and a Canadian Station in the Maritime Provinces'; and points out that Australia should benefit a great deal from these researches.

c. The problem of mechanical transport is of great importance to Australia by reason of the great distances to be overcome. An Australian Committee has been constituted to report on the application of new mechanical transportation methods to Australia, including the coördination of road and rail transport and the use of mechanical transportation units of the best design which could act as pioneers of, and feeders to, railways. The fuel sub-committee whose business it is to investigate the question of fuels for the use of motor vehicles is maintaining a close connection with Britain, for the Empire Marketing Board is watching similar investigations being made in London: the correspondent of the Development and Migration Commission is the Representative of Australia on the Empire Marketing Board, and in this way, an excellent means of contact is ensured.

In the matter of production of fuels Australia wishes to free herself from over-dependence upon foreign products, and is attempting to meet the problem by the development of suitable Australian fuels, and by experimenting along the lines of introducing such machines as can with success utilize these products: for the purpose close touch is being maintained with the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research in London.

d. Forestry and Timber:

The Committee is carrying out investigations especially in Tasmania, and here hopes to gain help from the Imperial Forestry Institute and the Empire Forestry Association.

These instances will serve to show how, if the above plans are carried through, a great deal of assistance is looked for from Imperial Organizations.

From the foregoing accounts one might be tempted to wonder if the picture is not too rosy, whether the bride is not too beautiful, as some one has said of the present Hungarian Parliament. It may read as if the whole Empire had somehow since the war turned into a Mutual Service Club, the component parts of which were animated by a self-abnegating ideal, each trying to help nobody except the other. Such an impression would be erroneous. The Empire has its internal stresses and strains; there are divergencies of interest; and I should like to show how in the two matters of migration and imperial preference there appear to be very serious obstacles.

After the war, Great Britain found in her unemployment position a heavy burden, and in 1921 the Government invited Dominion Representatives to a Conference to consider "the possibilities of state aided settlement within the Empire." The conference recommended Imperial coöperation to secure a comprehensive policy of population settlement, especially in connection with land settlement. The Dominions possessed the land; the Home Country had the surplus population; the question remained, on paper, merely one of organizing transfer-machinery. The recommendations were considered favorably by the 1921 Imperial Conference; the British Government then passed our Empire Settlement Act in 1922, which gave it power to coöperate with any Dominion in mutually acceptable schemes. Britain was to be responsible for not more than one-half of the expense of any arrangement, which was not to exceed £1,500,000 for the first year nor £3,000,000 in any later year; nor was it to be liable for more than fifteen years after the passing of the Act.

The outstanding scheme under this agreement was the Western Australian group settlement scheme²⁷ under which, according to an agreement signed in 1923, the state proposed to settle 75,000 new immigrants, and to²⁸ establish 6,000 more selected from there on 6,000 additional farms in the southwest.

The first report was enthusiastic, but soon difficulties developed, due, according to Shann, to:

(1) failure to select as group members those only who had proved their aptitude for farming; (2) degeneration of group clearing under sustenance into 'government stroke' on day wages, virtually unchecked by fear of dismissal; and (3) the placing of a number of groups on unsuitable land, and (4) the attempt to do by mass action on the initiative of the State what has previously been done by individuals.

The result was disappointing; and while the group scheme might encourage newcomers to work together, there was much more to be said for the individual methods, with the result that the scheme was not energetically forwarded.

A new method of attack was evolved in the form of an agreement in April, 1925, between the Imperial and the Australian Commonwealth government by which £34,000,000 is to be loaned to the state governments at low interest rate for the purpose of furthering settlement on public works likely to assist in that direction: for each £75 advanced, one assisted migrant is

²⁷ For information on this scheme see E. Shann, *The Economic Research Rec.*, "Group Settlement of Immigrants in Western Australia," Nov., 1925: Report of Oversea Settlement Committee, 1926.

Australian Immigration Policy—A. H. Charteris, *International Conciliation*, Dec., 1927.

²⁸ Keith, *Responsible Government in the Dominions*, 1928, Vol. II, p. 1213, Part VIII, in its general treatment of the Colonial and Imperial Conferences, gives a summary of the migration problem as it developed at each conference.

to sail from the United Kingdom: and the scheme is intended to settle 450,000 people within a period of ten years. It was in furtherance of this plan that the Development and Migration Commission was formed in Australia in 1926, on the principle, as Mr. Bruce, the Australian Prime Minister, said, of the interdependence of development and migration. "We cannot develop unless we have more population, and we cannot absorb more migrants unless we develop." I have not the information at hand to form a judgment of the results of two years of the scheme, but I should judge that the recent economic depression in parts of Australia has made it difficult to go ahead as rapidly in settling migrants as might in theory be desired. Keith's judgment in this connection is worth quoting:

The success of the agreement rests on the efforts of the States to carry it out: and the dislike of assisted immigration expressed by Labour in Australia, and resentment at the assurances contained in the agreement that assisted migrants are to be secured work, render the future of the agreement in actual operation extremely dubious.

Whatever be the truth of this judgment, and time alone can tell, it does contain within its phrase "the dislike of assisted immigration expressed by labour in Australia" (and five years' residence in New Zealand suggest to me that the same remark may apply to that country), the fundamental problem in Imperial migration.

It is this: The Dominions, on the whole, need agricultural laborers and settlers on the land. Most, if not all, of the Dominions can do nothing to help the industrial unemployment in Britain because they themselves have a similar, though not so severe, unemployment situation; nor is Britain able to satisfy the Dominion needs for agricultural labor, for her supply for her own needs is "more limited than that of any other nation."²⁹ Indeed, Canon Pughe suggests that a process of home colonization on the great tracts of land in the United Kingdom itself is the most pressing need, and would be far more profitable investment of the £100,000,000 a year which unemployment is costing the country. In view then of the shortage of agricultural labor in Britain, the Dominions will remain for some time without the supply which they most need.

But apart from that, the absorptive capacity of the Dominions is severely limited,³⁰ by (1) the nature of the unoccupied lands (about 42 per cent of Australia is arid, 34 per cent is good pastoral country, 21 per cent is fair, temperate farming country, and 3 per cent is suited for tropical agriculture, according to Professor Griffith Taylor); (2) climatic conditions—whether

²⁹ Canon T. St. J. F. Pughe's Report, discussed in the *Adelaide (South Australia) Advertiser*, November 21, 1928.

³⁰ See J. B. Brigden, "The Limits of Australian Immigration," *The Economic Record*, Nov., 1925, pp. 145-8.

white settlement is possible in the Australian Tropics is a debated question, with many opinions on both sides; (3) the need of capital. I quote from Mr. Brigden's article noted below:

Experience shows that in the absence of unprecedented opportunities, Australian capacity is not likely to exceed 35,000 a year. In order to absorb this number we require an equivalent in flow of new capital such as accompanied our immigration before the war. The present capital per head of population is about £300. To equip 35,000 people . . . we need at least the same value per head, and we cannot do more than equip our own natural increase from our own savings. To absorb 35,000 a year we need at least £10,000,000 a year in new capital imports. The present unemployment in Australia cannot be disassociated from the fact that we have been accelerating our imports of men and retarding our imports of capital.

And perhaps it is doubtful if this "capital—per head" rate is maintained in the British Australian Agreement which provides for 10,000 a year in excess of the usual absorbing capacity of Australia; (4) since the best lands in Australia are already alienated, as Charteris points out, "the settlement of people on the land is not a question of unlocking new territory, but of subdividing and resettling existing occupied land," and this is a costly and not over-rapid process; (5) the finding of markets for increased agricultural produce resulting from increased settlement is by no means an easy task.

From these considerations, which only suggest in broad terms the difficulty of placing migrants on the land⁸¹ in Australia (and the same type of reasoning will hold for New Zealand, and in some measure for Canada⁸²) it will be seen that anything approaching "mass action" in Imperial Migration is out of the question, and this fact was definitely recognized by the special subcommittee on Overseas Settlement, set up by the 1926 Imperial Conference.⁸³ The committee especially wished to disassociate itself "from the idea that the mere transfer of large numbers of people from Great Britain to the open spaces of the Dominions would afford a solution of the problem of overseas settlement." It affirmed, however, "the importance of accelerating the distribution of population" in the interests of the Empire as a whole, and while recognizing the obstacles, indicated a determination to press forward with the existing machinery.

It is important to realize that a considerable amount of work has been done, despite the formidable difficulties mentioned above. In 1926 the number of settlers assisted under the 1922 Act was 66,103, the number in 1925 being 39,559. This activity has resulted in better opportunities for a

⁸¹Charlotte Whitton, "The Immigration Problem for Canada, 1924"; Griffith Taylor, "The Frontiers of Settlement in Australia." Reprinted from the *Geographical Review*, Jan., 1926.

⁸²The Union of South Africa, owing to its peculiar situation in reference to its colored population, of course, can give little or no openings to labour.

⁸³Imperial Conference 1926, Summary of Proceedings and Appendices, Section X.

fuller life for many people, especially as on the whole the various organizations in existence make the experience of travel and settlement in a new country much more pleasant than it otherwise would be. Lack of space forbids any detailed discussion of these organized schemes and groups. I shall merely take the following list from the Overseas Settlement Committee Report for 1926,⁸⁴ when there was in existence:

1. Assisted passage schemes: a large reduction in fares to those proceeding to the Dominions under these provisions.
2. Canada Land Settlement agreement, for the settlement of 3,000 British families on Canadian farms, with carefully thought out provisions in regard to livestock, equipment, housing, etc.
3. The Canadian Clan Donald Land Settlement: an agreement with the Canadian Pacific Railroad Company and the Scottish Immigrant Aid Society for the settlement of 100 families in North Alberta.
4. A scheme of training boys in Alberta Provincial Agricultural Schools.
5. The Commonwealth of Australia Settlement and Development Scheme discussed above.
6. The New Zealand Scheme for boys 17-20 from British public and secondary schools who receive training on farms and later may acquire land with help from the government.
7. Southern Rhodesia Land Settlement Scheme—involving joint contributions of the British and the South Rhodesia Governments for reduced passage money, free grants, and loans to approved migrants.
8. Agreements with such bodies as the Society for the Overseas Settlement of British Women, the Salvation Army, the British Dominions Emigrant Society, Child Migration Societies, the Craigielinon Boys' Training Farm, The Church Army Farm at Hempstead and the Church of Scotland, in the matter of loans, hostels (as at Cape Town), reception and after care of children, and 'testing' men and boys in order to select them for migration.
9. A number of scholarships and fellowships (for approximately 140 boys and 30 women) for the training of selected migrants in various parts of Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and South Africa.
10. The Dreadnaught Scheme, by which 1,000 boys a year for three years are to be trained in Australia for rural employment.
11. An agreement with the 1820 Memorial Settlers' Association for advances to approved settlers, and for the establishment of three training farms, in South Africa.

In surveying these activities, one is led to the conclusion that the careful selecting done in these fields is a far better contribution to common welfare than unregulated mass movements would be, and that, while migration is no major solution for the unemployment problem of Britain, the various societies made possible by their common British Commonwealth outlook are being instrumental in making a happier life for many who would otherwise find their energies restricted in the post-war situation in Britain; inter-

⁸⁴ Report of the Overseas Settlement Committee, 1926. Appendix III.

Imperial coöperation on migration therefore is to this extent affecting for the good the lives of thousands of people.⁸⁵

The other inter-Imperial question involving great difficulty is that of trade. The years of prosperity, 1850-70, and the promise of a universal free trade had both passed under a cloud. Great Britain experienced in 1879 and 1880 two very poor harvests; the year 1881 witnessed a great depression: agriculture faced the blast of cheap materials from abroad, due to the development of ocean transportation facilities; many of the high duties imposed by the United States in the period of the Civil War were retained: France and Germany after 1870 returned to Protection, and other nations followed their example: Britain, too, was experiencing the competition of nations whose own powers of manufacture had considerably developed during the nineteenth century. Under these influences a "Fair Trade" agitation was commenced combining the ideas of Imperial Preference, abandonment of commercial treaties, and development of capital investment and food growth within the Empire. The gradual trade revival after 1895 and the Home Rule question temporarily suspended the movement, but with Mr. Chamberlain's assumption of the colonial office secretaryship in 1895, the celebration of the Queen's Jubilee in 1887 and 1897, and the deeper growth of Empire sentiment within the colonies, the matter was again brought forward.

The preference movement tended to develop more effectively in the Overseas Empire than in Britain. The abolition of preference to colonial products in the period 1847-60 had caused depression in Canada; for several years in consequence the Dominions sought reciprocity with the United States but for various reasons the attempts were not successful and by 1891 the issue had lost importance. A revival of interest in Imperial Preference took place, and at the Colonial Conference held at Ottawa in 1894, resolutions favoring inter-imperial trade arrangements were passed. Canada opened the way by adopting in 1897 a "reciprocal tariff," designed to give preference to British goods along certain lines (leading, by the way, to a tariff struggle with Germany which was ended only in 1910). The preference to Britain was increased in 1900, but in 1906-7 partly through disappointment at the defeat of Tariff Reform in Britain, and partly in order to assist in

⁸⁵ I omit further reference to the problem of Indians settled in, and seeking admission to other parts of the Empire; merely saying that had South African-Indian relations over the position of Indians in the former Dominion been a matter for solution between two independent nations, and had there not been the elements of assistance afforded by their common allegiance to the Crown and by the mediation of the Imperial Government itself, a much more serious position would undoubtedly have arisen. The question of the immigration and treatment of colonial races within the Empire is conveniently summarized in Keith's *Imperial Unity and the Dominions*, and the same author's *Responsible Government in the Dominions* (1928 edition).

finding market for her agriculture, forest, and mineral products, she passed an intermediate tariff act, and by 1925 she had extended the most forward nation treatment to twelve countries; and in 1923 she "wrote into her tariff a standing offer of reciprocity with the United States." (Here we see, from the point of view of Imperial preference, a counter-tendency at work.) Australia extended preferential treatment to Great Britain in 1908, and by the 1920 Tariff Bill extended the margin of preference, but the same act also increased the protection afforded to Australian industries. (Here again we seem to see conflicting tendencies.) New Zealand in 1903 gave preference to Britain by the method of imposing a surcharge on foreign goods, a method which was extended in 1907, and designed in this form, perhaps, to protect New Zealand goods against British as well as foreign competition in certain cases. The 1921 Act tended to increase the amount of preference extended, and the number of articles affected. Preference, too, was given Britain by Nigeria and the Gold Coast in 1916, by Jamaica, and by Malta and Cyprus in 1920.

The above examples which are intended to be illustrative, and not exhaustive, show the desire of the colonies to afford some assistance to British industry, but it will be seen that the two big factors prevent a great extension of such a policy. The first factor is the desire of the Dominions to build their own manufactures, a desire which is likely to grow (it apparently has definitely weakened the preference policy in South Africa), and which will involve the wish to favor British goods where possible, but only to the extent of not curtailing the local Dominions' demand for Dominion-made goods. The second factor is the need of finding external markets for Dominion products, since the Empire demand for them is insufficient, and this is largely conditioned by favorable treaties, giving mutual concessions to foreign nations.³⁰

There have been instances of inter-Dominion preference arrangements (such as, for example, agreements between New Zealand and South Africa in 1907, renewed in 1922, and altered in 1925; and between New Zealand and Australia; between Canada and South Africa, 1904; South Africa and Australia; and others), but here too there have been difficulties, owing to conflicting interests, and one has heard of Canadian complaints concerning the Australian treatments of Canadian timber, and New Zealand expression of disappointment over other matters. The clearest example of difficulty, however, is that of British policy relating to preference. Great Britain until

³⁰ For this section see Knowles, cited above; Hirst, *From Adam Smith to Philip Snowden*; Egerton, *British Colonial Policy in the Twentieth Century*; Culbertson, *International Economic Policies*; Jabb, *The Empire in Eclipse*; and British Journals and Papers, October and November, 1923, for discussion on the 1923 tariff election issue.

the war had maintained her Free Trade program. Chamberlain's tariff reform campaign began in 1903, first split the cabinet, and then suffered a defeat in the 1906 elections, and from 1906-14 various proposals within the Unionist party failed to materialize. The war and the post-war situation, however, brought modifications. The McKenna Duties of 1915 imposed a $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent duty on clocks, watches, motor cars, and cycles, and other goods. The committee on commercial and industrial policy after the war favored in 1919 the principle of Imperial preference; in the same year there was a remission of duties (averaging perhaps 16 per cent) on certain imported Dominion goods. To counteract the flooding of British markets by foreign goods from countries with depreciated currencies, a $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent duty on such goods was imposed by the Safeguarding of Industries Act of 1921, which also placed a temporary duty on certain "key" industries.

The proposal, however, which roused the most intense discussion was that made by Mr. Baldwin, first at the 1923 Imperial Conference and then to the British electorate, to give the Dominions preference on certain goods, such as currants, dried fruits, sugar (for ten years), tobacco, wines, apples, salmon, lobster, honey, lime, and lemon juices. The Government, however, was defeated in the 1923 elections on the issue of protection. In April, 1924, Mr. Snowden, the Labor Chancellor of the Exchequer, announced his opposition to any further preference to empire goods, and further proposed that the McKenna duties above mentioned be abolished, while Mr. Baldwin's government on its return was compelled in 1925 to drop all the new duties.

The situation may briefly be analyzed in this way: Those who believe in Imperial preference assert (1) that by protection against foreign goods an assured market can be secured for the British manufacturer; (2) that the Empire could furnish an adequate market for the Dominion raw materials and primary products, and (3) that it is politically desirable to have the Empire economically independent of foreign supplies. Those opposed to accepting in full such a policy reply (1) that considerably more than one-half of Britain's trade is with foreign countries, and protection would therefore affect much of the greatest part of British trade; (2) as Britain is primarily a nation dependent upon trade, and as 30 per cent of its goods are exported in return for imports, any curtailing of imports (and there probably would be a curtailment in a long transition period) would react on British exports; (3) that duties would expose Britain to retaliation and would involve the loss of advantages at present given by France, Italy, Belgium, and Spain to certain British made goods; (4) that taxes on food would raise food prices to workers who already are suffering heavy enough burdens; (5) that taxes on raw materials would injure manufactures, and taxes on many manufactures would injure other manufactures which use the former as raw materials; (6) that Britain's considerable entrepot trade,

the results of its free imports, would necessarily suffer; (7) that British monetary earnings—in finance and insurance—would be affected, as probably also would be its carrying trade, with consequent disadvantages to the shipping industry, and finally (8) the Dominions and India wish to build up their own manufactures, and do not wish merely to remain as suppliers of raw materials for the home country.

The above summary will suffice to show that the attempt to legislate a closer trade unity into the Empire is, in the opinion of many, fraught with serious risk. Not only may there be internal economic reasons which suggest proceeding with extreme care, but there may be international consequences to such a policy; for it would perhaps be interpreted by other peoples as an exclusive, unduly self-centered, and even aggressive method of organization, and might tend, therefore, to increase economic rivalry between the British Empire and the rest of the nations. Culbertson has expressed it that "A monopolization by the British of a large portion of the earth's surface will tend to force other nations to combine in protest," and situated as the Empire now is, it is probable that any measures seemingly calculated to strengthen its economic unity while sacrificing international good-will would in the long run be a source of weakness rather than of power.

No paper on the Empire as a social and economic agency would be complete without mention of some of the many bodies which Duncan Hall has, in his valuable work which judged so well the lines of the future development of the Empire, termed "Inter-Imperial voluntary association."⁸⁷

The attention of students of the problem of government in the British Empire, he writes, has been centered almost exclusively upon the more important governmental organs such as the Imperial Conference. And yet...it is only when we study these associations that we can realize the real nature of this Society of Peoples. These Associations are, indeed, the fine flower of the group life, a sign of what this fellowship means in human terms. They, and not the major governmental organs, are the measure of the strength of feeling and the community of interests which bind the people of the group together. They are also the greatest assurance of the permanence of the group as one of the most important factors in human life, because they are the creation, and partly the creators, of the strongest bond of Empire—the human tie. Just as the joint bodies referred to above reveal the British Empire as a laboratory of international government, so these voluntary associations reveal the Empire as a pioneer in the development of the spiritual and cultural relationships of the world's peoples.

I take from Appendix I of his volume the names of a few of these associations, quoting figures given therein, as the material is not at hand to bring the information up to the present.

⁸⁷ H. Duncan Hall, *The British Commonwealth of Nations*, 1920, pp. 298-9.

Hall divides the groups into those which might be called:

1. 'The closer unity' group, which includes the Royal Colonial Institute, founded in 1868, and with branches throughout the Dominions and Colonies: It has done valuable work through its committees, propaganda, and library provisions. The Victoria League, formed in 1901, is an association of women with over 40 branches in the Empire, with the object of organizing personal intercourse and mutual welcomes, collecting and circulating information, and spreading imperial education in schools. The Overseas Club and Patriotic League with a membership of nearly 200,000, and possessing some 200 branches, provides an important link in providing opportunities for personal contact (I have been on some of the excursions in London which are arranged by the Club mainly for the benefit of Overseas people). It publishes a magazine, maintains an Overseas Trade Bureau, and an Overseas Employment and Information Bureau. The British Empire League, the Navy League, the Empire Movement, and the Imperial Coöperation League are other bodies mentioned.

2. A Cultural and Educational group of institutions. These include the Universities Bureaus of the British Empire, founded in 1912, to act 'as a clearing-house of University information and advice' and 'to facilitate the interchange of university teachers and students; the League of the Empire formed in 1901 to encourage Empire education work by publishing textbooks on Imperial History, instituting a four-yearly Imperial Education Conference, was amalgamated with the Overseas Club. The Workers' Educational Association, founded in 1903, has spread throughout the Dominions and is designed to provide adult education for the people by bringing them into closer contact with the Universities: The English Association with several branches to provide the study of the English Language, Shakespeare Club and Burns' Club, the Round Table group which produce the excellent quarterly of that name; and many others are illustrations of voluntary empire associations.

3. Professional Associations: the British Medical Association, the Empire Sugar Research Association: the Overseas Branches of the British parent Fabian Society; the Empire Press Union, founded in 1909, which holds periodical conferences; these are a few examples to which a more intensive search could add both in numbers and in a detailed account of their work.

Since Hall's volume appeared other activities have developed. Speaking from memory, I may mention only two—the excellent Royal Institute of International Affairs, which, in its headquarters at Chatham House, is producing such fine studies and bulletins; the British Commonwealth Labour Party Conferences, which have now met twice.

This rough survey has now ended. Two or three thoughts suggest themselves in conclusion. It is an interesting fact that, while the Dominions have been moving towards political independence, science and economic necessities have been at work to build up a new kind of common interest. Will all the experiments mentioned above build a new political administrative "unity" somehow independent of the political factors one hears so much about? Particularly if the problem of peace is solved through the strengthening of the world machinery, through the League and other methods, will these non-political agencies develop more fully, relative to the political, and

shall we see the justification of those who hold that society contains as distinct from the state within itself, its own intrinsic powers of organization? Will there be somewhat a replacing of political regulation by scientific, economic, and cultural group-moving on their own lines, or will the political factor be made more important? These are questions which the future can alone answer. But they do suggest that the British Commonwealth may in its experiments evolve a new type of organization more fitted for this present day of political independence and economic and scientific interdependence.

Finally, it is worthy of note that this Imperial sentiment, containing as it does the springs of action towards a better organization, and providing as it were a foundation for the building of a superstructure of economic, social, and cultural values, is something of great value. Insofar as wars decrease and this feeling is not turned into jingoistic channels, but is made the driving force for making a nobler and healthier world, the dream of the idealist will be to some extent realized—that of nations becoming the expression in their organized life and institutions of those impersonal values of truth and beauty, the bearers of distinctive cultures, collectively richer for their individual contributions of the various units, and all sharing in the heritage to which all contribute; rivals only in excelling in the deeper arts and sciences, but combining together in the common enjoyment of an ever fuller, more harmonious, and developing life.

THE CIVIL RIVAL IN ITALY.

CONTESSA MARIA A. LOSCHI

Rome, Italy

Visiting Lecturer, University of Southern California

Many, many things have been said and many things have been written on the present régime in Italy; but, traveling through the world, I have often had the impression that still few people have a right idea about modern Italian life, about this youthful movement which inspires all our activity, about the very interesting phenomenon of Fascism.

There are people who are always ready to find everything wrong, to criticise every action, almost with hatred or jealousy, or with superficiality which is even worse. There are others who are unable to judge, or too lazy to discuss, and who praise everything and find everything wonderful, and perfect. Both groups exaggerate; both are wrong; both are not doing justice to Fascism. Let us try to look at things with an independent spirit and clean mind. I shall tell you things, quote facts and figures—and you will judge.

It is much easier for you, undoubtedly, much easier for you than for us to judge such a great revolution, because we are living in a rather thrilling atmosphere of excitement and passion, of activity and youthful enthusiasm.

What is Fascism?

It is probably a little too early in history to give the best definition. But it is right to say even now that it is the most genuine and inevitable product of the after-war period, a purely Italian movement,—the spontaneous reaction to a state of things undermining the peace, the honor, the life itself of the country.

Some people have a confused notion that Bolshevism and Fascism are more or less the same thing—under different names. The fundamental distinction is this: The Russian movement is a blind, fanatical attempt at world revolution, as a remedy for conceded wrongs. The Italian movement wished to put Italy's own house in order.

Fascism has been, especially at its origin, the revolt of the intelligence against materialism, of the brain against the muscles, and, above all, the rebellion of youth, of those who have fought in the great war, against politicians. It has been a sort of house-cleaning process, the establishment of law abidance and order as a prerequisite to any economic rehabilitation. It personifies a powerful will of national reconstruction.

And—well understood—it really is a school of character and individual energy. It requires that the head command and the arm obey. Everything

is considered and judged from a national point of view, and Premier Mussolini is the creative spirit of this upheaval, the strength and soul of this movement, which has fought Bolshevism and given a real new life to Italy.

Mistakes, exaggerations, *faux pas*—why not? Nothing perfect under the sun, alas!

What has Fascism done? What a great change in such a short number of years—from 1922 up to now! The blind might see it. Even foreigners notice it at first sight and are often deeply impressed by it.

A new spirit inspires all our national life, a new discipline. The principal effect desired and sought by the actual régime is the solidarity of Italian sentiment and action for purposes of reconstruction and production. How could this end be accomplished? It was necessary to disperse disloyal elements, to reduce parliamentary debate to action, to marshal a whole people in a united coöperative effort.

The economic problems of the country could not be solved so long as they were mired in hopeless political controversy. The agricultural, industrial, and commercial development of the country could not be undertaken so long as they were the football of a governmental system, monopolized by a few men and entirely ignored by the helpless majority.

The policy of Premier Mussolini, as some one has said, has been one of political prophylaxis and economic resuscitation. Not a very easy task, as you may well imagine! But now, normal conditions have returned everywhere by dint of hard work and heavy sacrifices; and what a difference it would make for us if we had not a too heavy burden of war debts.

Fascism, and these are facts which nobody can deny, has not only broken the danger of socialism and communism, consecrated once more the idea of nation, restored the administrative and financial organization of the State, reconfirmed the respect due to religion and church, given a new dignity to the Monarchy and to the Army, proclaimed the holiness of private property and of the fundamental human rules, but it has also reformed all the national life beginning from the school system, giving to teachers and pupils new ideals, bringing into the schools a new atmosphere and a new spirit, giving a far greater importance to sports and athletics, to hygiene and travels, trying to develop and not to quench the pupils' personality and that spirit of scoutism which you understand so well.

It has given a new life to agriculture. "We must uplift the value of agriculture," said Mussolini, "because it is the fundamental element for the health of the country."

And Fascism has initiated a new series of works, beginning first of all from agricultural education: increasing the number of agricultural tour-

ing schools, opening professional schools for young peasants, temporary courses for adults, agricultural high schools, and, in Rome, a practical school for agricultural mechanics.

After the drainage of the mind, that of the land! After the war, the necessity of intensifying agricultural production placed the redemption of many hundred thousands of acres of marshy land in the first line. The Italian drainage works represent a very honorable primacy for my country. A truly vigorous impulse has been given to the tilling of the soil. And I think it is enough to remember that we have already redeemed for culture almost 300,000 hectares of first rate ground.

I should like to mention here what has been called the "battle of wheat," which indeed is a campaign not aiming merely at a higher production of wheat, but also at a victorious improvement of the general progress of agriculture in Italy. And the "rice campaign," the "straw campaign," etc., meant to foster the intelligent and intensive development of all the national possibilities.

But in Italy, the essential problem is the integral utilization of the increasing capacity of work of our population. And agriculture alone does not solve this problem. Therefore Fascism could not neglect industry to which it was also necessary to give a new impulse and for which it was absolutely indispensable to create an atmosphere of peace and safety and trust.

The results of the Government's efforts were immediately seen. A few months after the advent of the new régime (October 28, 1922) the industrial production revived again, unemployment noteworthy decreased, and both the manufacturers and the hands soon appreciated the advantages of a system of work based on the principle that the political problem does in no way interfere with, or try to overthrow, the technical and economic problems. The Italian manufacturers could gaze again beyond their frontiers, and venture into the strife of international competition, seeking to conquer new outlets and new markets.

We notice thus a remarkable increase in the production of iron minerals, of pyrites, fossil fuel, quicksilver, of inorganic acids, alkali, of sugar, chocolate, beer. Regularly noticed increases are to be found, also, in the marble industry, the woolen industry, and in the manufacturing of felt and straw hats.

As to the cotton industry, for instance, Italy occupies the fifth place in order of importance, along the European producing country. In fact, Great Britain has 57,325,000 spindles working for the spinning of cotton; Germany, 10,800,000; France, 9,567,000; Russia, 6,945,000, and Italy, 5,122,000.

Italy holds the fourth place as a motor producing country, and the third as an exporting country, coming immediately after France and England. These are the figures of production for the various countries:

	Per Annum
Great Britain.....	231,000
France	180,000
Germany	72,000
Italy	55,000

In 1927, there were exported from Italy 23,312 motor cars (excluding motor bicycles), amounting in value to a total of 605 million lire, as compared with 3,832 imported vehicles for a value of 48½ million lire.

It is also worth while mentioning the great development of the electric power industry in Italy, from its beginning up to date. The power established, which in 1892 amounted to 86,570 kilowatts, in 1926 had risen to 2,657,200 kilowatts, while the consumption of energy during that same period goes from 26,800,000 to 7,231,300,000 kilowatts, and it has increased even more during the last few months.

Italy now has the third place in European commercial aviation with her 6,000 miles of exploited lines, as compared with Germany's 15,000 miles and France's 9,000 miles of air routes. An important feature of this rapid development is the fact that since commercial aviation was started two years ago there has not been a single accident of importance.

Our merchant navy is the third in the world.

Further on, I must say that huge sums of energies are devoted and millions are allotted to works of public utility: improvement of harbors, new bridges, development of transportation and communication facilities, railways electrification to save coal (our Modance-Leghorn line, for instance, 456 kilometers, now entirely electrified, is the longest line so run in Europe), artificial lakes, telephone services, hydroelectric plants, irrigation schemes, colonial development, sanitary construction, housing, and new archaeological excavations.

The increase in automobile services in Italy is quite astonishing; in 1913 such services covered 8,433 kilometers; today it is calculated that the number of subsidized lines cover 73,000 kilometers, and private lines 24,000 kilometers, thus forming a total motor service of 100,000 kilometers. And it must not be forgotten that Italy is the first country which has thought of motor roads and built them. We have the Milan-Monza, Milan-Turin, etc., and soon the Milan-Berlin motor road will be the first large commercial road of the future.

Even the welfare of the animals has not been forgotten by the actual régime: better rules for the slaughtering, for the protection of animals,

propaganda in the schools; in Milan, for instance, a free clinic with a veterinarian, large municipal kennels with garden, etc.

It is in the field of legislation where the revolution has been even greater and more interesting—and not only for all the new laws protecting mother and child, cleaning the streets, fighting against everything immoral and unhealthy, but especially for the new labor legislation, which certainly is the most interesting experiment of the actual régime.

For more than half a century the international doctrine of the socialists, and later of the communists, had undermined the common sense and mentality of almost all the workers in Italy, though this was not alone the case with Italy, but also prevailed in other countries.

During this period, the syndicalist organization of the socialists was exclusively directed towards the conquest of economic interests by the proletarians, which were considered to be a separate class, hostile to all the other social classes.

For this reason there was a continual and dangerous struggle between the classes which represented respectively capital, manual labor, and intellectual labor. All these classes considered themselves, more or less, as separate entities, outside the State, and rather often, alas, above the State itself.

It was no easy task to destroy those wrong ideas in the mind and heart of men, and to replace them by the conviction that all social classes are dependent one upon the other, that all must give their work for the moral and material progress and success of the Nation, and therefore for the benefit of all citizens, that the State must be strong.

Mussolini, with Fascism, has undertaken to solve this century-old problem in a country poor in natural resources but with a dense population; namely, in a country poor as regards capital, but rich as regards man power and where the labor problem consists, above all, in increasing national wealth and production.

Fascist syndicalism differs from red unionism for a fundamental reason, that it does not aim at attacking rights of property. It organizes, instead, the national production by making the essential elements of this production work together: capital, manual labor, and intellectual labor, within which are included all social classes. It solves in practice, as far as Italy is concerned, the problem of the relations between capital and labor.

Blind and disorderly class self-defense—careless of the fate of production and of the fate of the Nation itself—is replaced by an orderly, self-conscious defense of class interests respectful of the needs of production and of the exigencies of national life.

Think of this! According to certain estimates, during the five years from 1920 to 1925, 200 million days' work were lost between Europe and the United States. The consequent loss of wealth is estimated at 400 million pounds. Terrible, is it not?

But if the wheat—suppose—which remains, or remained, unharvested in the fields, is undoubtedly a misfortune—there are times when a strike, which interrupts production at a delicate moment, when international competition is rife, may give rise to consequences even more serious.

Therefore, it is necessary to reach a united conception of national economy and a solidarity uniting all groups, all categories, all the classes, under the control of the State. The "Syndical reform" will have, I believe, the greatest and deepest repercussion in the national life of Italy. The employers of labor in the various industries and the workmen employed in these industries organize themselves into Syndicates.

In the same way all the different categories of people: private employers and employees, farmers and peasants, professional men and women (such as lawyers, doctors, journalists, etc.), all organize themselves into Syndicates. As these Syndicates are the only associations recognized by the law, in all questions relating to capital and labor they become a necessity.

But let me explain to you, as briefly as possible, which are the fundamental lines of this reform:

1. First of all, the conditions required for legal recognition are three:

(a) the minimum number of voluntary members of the syndicate (unions) must be, both in the case of employers and of workers, equal to one-tenth of the total number of employers and workers belonging to the category under consideration;

(b) the syndicate must not pursue a purely economic policy but must also promote the assistance, instruction, and moral and patriotic education of its members;

(c) all members must afford guarantees of their ability, morality, and sound national loyalty. The necessity for the two last conditions is explained by the underlying purpose of the framers of the new law, who wish to make these syndicates veritable guilds entrusted, under State control, with the execution of important public functions in respect of moral education and vocational training.

2. Apart from the syndicates of workers and employers organized according to the Act, associations outside the Act formed of persons independently exercising a profession, may also be recognized.

3. Employers' and workers' syndicates may be recognized separately. *Liaison* (connection) between them will be allowed with a view to useful collaboration for production purposes, without going so far as to form joint syndicates.

4. In each territorial circumscription only one syndicate is recognized for each particular class of employers or workers. This principle is one of the keystones of the new organization, as a multitude of recognized syndicates would make for disorder, lack of discipline and over-concern with political and electioneering matters.

5. Recognized syndicates legally represent, with their circumscribed area, all the employers and workers of the class they are concerned with, including those who are

not members of the syndicate and who, consequently, are not registered as such. The syndicates are even entitled to levy annual dues from the latter.

6. Legally recognized syndicates are subject to continuous State control. The appointment of their presidents or secretaries is approved by the State. Their boards of directors may be dissolved. The legal recognition upon which their juridical existence depends may be withdrawn. But it must be noticed that this control is exercised in the interest of the syndicates, themselves, and that in no way does it limit their autonomy, provided they do not exceed their normal attributions.

7. The formation of syndicates of State officials, of employees of provincial or municipal organizations and public charity institutions is prohibited, by reason of the special relations between public bodies having a political character and their staff.

8. Syndicates not legally recognized continue to exist and constitute free associations, subject to common law.

9. Lockouts and strikes are considered as crimes and punished by penalties to be fixed by the law.

10. All disputes concerning the regulation of collective labor relations, after an effort to reach conciliation has been made, are referred to special Labor Courts, called Magistracy of Labour, a special competent body, whose decision being final, is binding upon all parties.

It may not be out of place here to quote some statistical data :

The Syndical Associations judicially recognized in Italy were on the first of March, 1928 :

518 for the employers

246 for the employees and free professional workers—grouped together in the following federations and confederations :

A. Employers

Confederation of Industry (to which has given adhesion also the autonomous Federation of artisans) : Members 60,000 with 1,600,000 dependents. *Federation of artisans*. Members 80,000. *Confederation of Agriculture*. Members 700,000. *Confederation of Commerce*. Members 170,000. *Confederation of land transport and internal navigation*. Members 22,500. *Confederation of Banks*. Members 3,018. *Confederation of sea and air transports*. Members 450.

B. Employees

The National Confederation of Fascist Syndicates comprises: Six National Federations, respectively :

1. Industry—Members 1,206,580
2. Agriculture—Members 980,727
3. Commerce—Members 254,179
4. Land transportation and internal navigation—Members 247,344
5. Banks—Members 40,317.
6. Scholars, writers, journalists (intellectual)—Members 70,418

Autonomous Federation of sea and air transports—Members—50,000.

It may also interest you to have a brief *aperçu* of the collective labor contracts, which have been enforced (until July, 1928, Act of April 3, 1926) :

Agriculture	373
Commerce	193
Banks	63
Transports	218
Industry	2,344
Total	3,191

Of these contracts :

3,008 are provincial
 115 are interprovincial
 67 of a national character.

Are these not rather telling figures?

This law will gradually lead the masses to enter more profoundly into the life of the State. And this winter the representatives in the Parliament, and later on also in the Senate, will be designated by the Federation of syndicates in each branch of activity. This collaboration between all social classes is not in the least intended to mean the sacrifice of the workers' interests, but it means the protection of their interests by the State. This law calls upon every individual to coöperate with the State for the prosperity and wealth of the Nation.

As to the foreign policy of Italy, the signature of the treaty of friendship with Abyssinia (Africa) is its latest fruit. Italy is the first of the Great Powers with which Abyssinia has made a treaty of the kind, a treaty which may well have a considerable importance for our commerce, for a convention annexed to the principal instrument provides, among other things, for the construction of a road fit for lorry traffic between Abyssinia and the Italian seaboard on the Red Sea. At present, the only communication between Abyssinia and the outer world is by the railway to Jibuti, in French Somaliland. Time and money will be required before the road is made and the traffic developed, but the treaty and the project once more remind Italians that the Duce means to build not only for the present, but for the future.

The friendly settlement of the Tangier problem, in terms entirely acceptable to Italy, was also a success for our diplomacy. It is not perhaps of the first moment in itself, but it has had the happy result of bringing France and Italy nearer together than they have stood for some years. That, it need hardly be said, is a consequence of the highest importance to the tranquility of Europe.

The Yugoslavia problem unfortunately is not yet entirely solved. Premier Mussolini has many times expressed his desire to see a real friendship established between Italy and her neighbor across the Adriatic. And the

most intelligent Serb patriot also realizes that States with a common frontier must be friends or enemies, and the highest interests of Yugoslavia and of Italy demand that they should be friends.

As to China, I have recently read in the "Chicago Daily Tribune": "Italy Agrees to China Freedom in New Treaty.—The Chinese republic today negotiated its second treaty containing a clause for the relinquishment of extra territoriality rights and granting Chinese tariff autonomy. This treaty, which is with Italy, closely follows the wording of the Chinese-Belgian treaty, which was made public yesterday."

The Chinese-Italian treaty provides that Chinese and Italians residing in each others territories are responsible to the laws and regulations of the respective countries, and also grants rights of land ownership, with the provision that neither country has the right to levy taxes higher than those levied upon other foreign residents.

The treaty become effective on January 1, 1930, but before that time China agrees to make suitable arrangements for assuming jurisdiction over Italian subjects.

Towards the onesided denunciation of the subsisting treaty with China, which the Nationalists have purported to abolish of their own motion, Italy has acted as becomes a civilized Power conscious of her rights and determined that they shall not be affected without her consent. Italy is quite friendly towards the new China and its reasonable aspirations, and will no doubt be ready, as other great powers are ready, to modify those rights so far as is practicable, without danger to the lives and property of her subjects. But she will not submit to the abrogation of her treaty rights at the dictation of Nanking.

As to the Vatican and our present Government, I may say that both are sensible of the advantages of the present situation and of the consequences which might follow its violent alteration.

The all-around activity of Fascist diplomacy may sometimes seem disturbing to old-fashioned diplomacy, but it need not create uneasiness. Our Premier, with his admirable judgment, knows how to stimulate at once and to regulate the aspirations of Fascism in the field of foreign politics.

Some people complain about what they call the "sounding rhetoric" of the Fascist Press, but it is due to the exuberance of the new spirit, to youthful enthusiasm. As I said before, nothing is perfect under the sun, and when much good is done, I think we can forgive the errors and be human. Am I wrong? I hope not.

And, speaking in a highly civilized country like yours, I feel I may add something also about Italian women. May I not? To tell the truth, and be quite sure that I am not boasting, the Italian woman is efficient in almost every field of activity: good mother and housekeeper or teacher,

street-sweeper or University professor, official in a ministry or working in a plant, in the laboratories doing research work (especially for chemistry), in astronomic observatories, in business, manager of our great opera-house in Rome (like Mrs. Corelli was for several years—she died a few months ago in a motor car accident), shop girl or office clerk, dentist or musician, doctor or engineer, peasant or nurse.

Women's work in industry may be reckoned as 40 per cent of the total. Teachers in the primary schools are about 40,000. Mail, telephone, and telegraph services employ more than 5,000 women. Among the Ministries it is the Finance Ministry, which has a greater number of women, besides 2,000 office girls, there are 23,718 women tobaconists, and many are found in the salt works.

Then there are over 4,000 women teaching in the high schools. It is still rather difficult to reckon the exact number of lawyers, sanitary assistants, doctors, midwives, nurses, business women, shop girls, women employed by private concerns, journalists, writers, etc. The number is always increasing.

And we must not forget the 120,000 women who work every year from May to July for the production of 6,000,000 quintals of rice and even more. In agriculture there is an army of women: Thanks to the new labor legislation, working women find in the syndicates the same duties and the same rights, except the vote. It is an experiment, so it seems that we shall vote in the syndicate itself only for the first choice of candidates. But French people say. "*Tout vient a bout a qui sait attendre.*" So we shall work and wait and work and also the right of vote will come.

Legally our position has been much improved in recent years. All educational and professional institutions are now open to women. In 1919 the "Sacchi bill" was passed, conferring all civil rights on women and opening to us all public offices, except those of the judiciary, diplomacy, the army and the navy. In spite of economic and moral difficulties, the road has opened more and more widely before the Italian woman. The road is not always an easy one, certainly, but it depends very much upon ourselves, upon our preparation and strong will.

We have important women's magazines and papers and three large organizations: The National Council of Italian Women, The Italian Federation of University Women, The Italian Suffrage Association. Professionally, each one belongs to her own syndicate. Logically the influence of women is most strongly felt in what might be called the social field. But I believe that the Italian woman will probably never have a real official position, in front of average public, because the Church enrolls most of the best element for her social work purposes. They do a great deal of useful

and well organized work, but this is all done on the principle, "Let not your right hand know what your left is doing."

And now, I should like to begin the conclusion of my speech by quoting a few words of one of your great sons, Theodore Roosevelt, words which have the value of a prophecy: "When pessimists state that there is no more civilization, we may apply to Italy, whence the West got its civilization, and we do not know whether it is better to admire the past or what its future has in store for us."

"Italy," said James P. Roe, an American economist, who recently visited my country, "is a land of lovable, serious-minded workers. They are interested in everything modern, in every improvement. Their determination to progress is deadly earnest."

How did it happen?

In speaking of modern Italy, I think it might be just as well to dispel some misconceptions that have arisen owing to the very wrong impression people have about the right to criticise without complete knowledge of facts. Undoubtedly, Mussolini, having set himself a program and meaning to carry it out, could not satisfy everybody. Remember your own Lincoln? Was he not fought against by all those who did not believe in him, and they were not few? Did he not have to swallow some bitter pills before he could achieve success? And don't you think he must often have spent sleepless nights and felt disheartened by the ferocious opposition of his kinsmen? And does not the history of the American Civil War show many a blood-stained page? Yet not one of you today feels otherwise but grateful that America has had her Lincoln and worships at the shrine of his immortal memory. What Lincoln has been to America that Mussolini is today to Italy. And as I mention these two men, let me tell you of one trait they have in common: to be extraordinary in ordinary things, and ordinary in extraordinary ones. They both have known the hardships of poverty and they both have risen above them without any outside help, but through deep, God-given faith in right and truth: the richness of their own lives, offered in service to their country, is the only wealth they possess.

Mussolini, in setting himself the task of reconstructing the national life of his country, has remembered the well-known proverb that charity begins in the home, and has realized that a political creed, to be effective and beneficial to the race, must above all be a human creed. That is why, hand in hand with his great schemes and his vast enterprises, he has at no time forgotten the fundamental tenets of his school teaching days: no master is ever respected who cannot keep discipline; better use the rod than spoil the child. Discipline was therefore the first thing to be aimed at. Gradually and without much ado, Premier Mussolini harnessed his people into team-work,

and now, after six years of leadership, there is scarcely ever the need of drawing in the reins any more.

Bear in mind this, that there are several things which, while they place Italy on a very high pedestal, at the same time drag her down almost into the mud; if on the one hand they are fascinating qualities of the country, on the other hand they become very uncomfortable qualities of the Italian character. Yet it is just these opposites which constitute the saving grace of Italy.

Let me explain. While traditions make of Italy one of the most highly civilized countries, yet hers are historical traditions, traditions which date back from a glorious past, traditions of intellect, of culture, of a deeply developed philosophical consciousness, traditions which only allow her to rest on her laurels. That's where the difficulty arises, and we owe it to the fact that once united Italy was a *fait accompli*. Our foremost political men were middle-aged, sedate, and individually rather narrow-minded men who were lacking the spirit of adventure, very pleased to become obese around the waist and quite satisfied with the enjoyment of a glass of wine and a discreet cigar.

"Italy is a poor nation" everybody was repeating! Impossible to turn her into a rich one overnight, so why bother. One can always jog along.

So, between 1870 and 1914, Italy, on the whole (the exceptions would prove the rule) rested on her laurels and missed the chance of building up, as other nations were doing, a modern tradition. Much work has been done during those years, but the sporting instinct was lacking; each one worked for himself, and there was no moral unity; that is why we always lagged behind in the race, and when we won it was the individual who won, not the nation. Signor Mussolini has changed all that because he is a man, a sportsman, and a gentleman.

He has not shut himself up to mope after the day's work, and not only has he not disclaimed to take an interest in the things that interest young people, but he has entered fully into the life of modern times by turning the whole of Italy into an up-to-date training ground, well knowing that team work can only lead to victory if it is backed up by sound discipline and training. He himself is an exponent of several sports, like fencing, riding, motoring, and is far from being devoid of artistic sportsmanship because, apart from loving music, he plays the violin with a mastery which is far beyond amateurishness.

Thus he is going to turn the tables on the decadence into which our wonderful traditions were falling by creating an entirely new set of modern traditions to which young Italy will have to live up to, so as to make them worthy to be added to the old ones, forging, in this way, a new and valuable link to the chain of Italian evolution.

The other quality which is a virtue as much as a defect, is to be found in the natural charm of Italy. The blue sky, the brilliant sunshine, the mellowness of the climate, the luxuriant vegetation, the flowers, the fruits, all these enchanting qualities, while they allure the foreigner who comes to visit Italy, and for the while make him feel happy, make at the same time, when always indulged in, for laziness, for indifference (the sense of *laissez aller*), for cheap contentment; and foster in the lower classes a sense of mental torpor which, if in some cases can be called good natured carelessness, in others become a wish to be left in peace and to wallow in the mud. Painters and artists may give to this picture an artistic touch, and it may appear picturesque to those who glance at it when passing by and you may enjoy feeling lazy on a holiday, but you don't live like that all the year round!

That is why Italy as a nation could but indifferently compete before the War, with all those other nations which had adopted modern methods of thought, of work, and of efficiency and were going on at high pressure. Our politicians used to say: "Italy is poor, the Italians are like that, we cannot change human nature," etc., and the whole world thought that there was nothing but sheep browsing amongst the ruins and the wolves trotted about contentedly licking their chops because they could choose the pick of the sheep.

Mussolini chased and conquered the wolves (you better beware of those who escaped and are now hiding abroad under sheep's clothing) and with one wave of the hand gave back to the sheep their human semblance, greatly to the delight of the sheep who were tired of browsing. The spirit of complacent laziness has gone from the Italians, and the mild climate, the brilliant sunshine, the blue sky, have today become vitalizing agents of the Italian conscience, having ceased to be demoralizing factors.

Then there were the ruins, grand things! You can't boast of them, though, I won't say that you can't boast of something equally imposing and marvelous, your virgin forests, your grand canyons, which give to America the same remote origin as Europe, in the history of the terrestrial globe, but these things do not weigh down your modern civilization, nor do they attempt to overwhelm your modern spirit of enterprise; quite the reverse! they have probably helped you to conceive the idea of sky scrapers. But our ruins, these glorious vestiges of a grand past, they have merely caused us to remember the past regretfully because we were only allowed to look at their ruined state, aware of nothing else but their dilapidation.

History in Italy, even after 1870, was never taught constructively as a synthesis leading up to a glorious present. The glory belonged always to the past, the present had to be content with dilapidations. What wonderful people the Romans were! Nobody could ever dream of building another Coliseum. Look at St. Peters. It is unique and it must remain unique!

What could poor modern Italy achieve? She could but hope to exist. Even her government offices were housed in old palaces, or, if they had to be built for the purpose, were branded with the stamp of necessity and were erected, anyhow, with a spirit of barracks attached to them.

If ever a start was made at attempting something grandiose, which would not be unworthy to stand at the back of past glories, the idea was scoffed at, and when put into execution was criticized to death before its completion.

It is undoubtedly by change and not because of moral encouragement if Italy has a few modern buildings which do her credit. I will only mention the Law Courts in Rome and the Altare della Patria, where rests our unknown soldier. They may not be perfect works of art, but they are dignified and well in keeping with the solemn tone of our wonderful old monuments.

Ruins are nowadays in Italy old monuments. All sense of dilapidation has been taken from them and we look upon them as invaluable treasures which it is a privilege to preserve for posterity. The dilapidation spirit gave us no wish to reconstruct.

Mussolini has changed our mental attitude towards the past, he has entirely upset our place in history, he means that we shall no more be the decadent inheritors of an ancient race but he has set himself to make of us at the same time the forefathers of our descendants which is quite a different thing.

The man who can plant an acorn when he is eighty knows that he works not for the span of his life time but for eternity. Thus a nation who has to look back countless centuries to reach down to its roots, must perforce shed an acorn for eternity. Mussolini means this acorn to be worthy of the most secular oak of Europe.

HISTORICAL ASPECTS OF RUSSIA'S RELATIONS WITH THE WEST ✓

WALDEMAR WESTERGAARD

Professor of History at the University of California at Los Angeles

Engaged in research work on Baltic Problems in Stockholm, Copenhagen, and Reval, under the auspices of the American-Scandinavian Foundation, 1922-23; Delivered a series of lectures on American problems before the University of Christiania under the auspices of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace; Participated in the Fifth International Historical Congress in Brussels, 1923.

The Slavs were late comers on the stage of Western European history. Indo-European in race, as Greeks, Romans, Celts, and Teutons, we should rather think of them as fair-haired and blue-eyed than swarthy and "Asiatic" in appearance. The swarthy element in much of the Slavic population that we see in the United States is due to admixture of Asiatic race elements in the course of the centuries that Slavs have had to adjust themselves to the presence of Asiatic and Tartar peoples in their midst. Certain of the western Slavonic groups, like the Czechs of Bohemia and the Poles, came into contact much earlier than did the Great Russians with Occidental civilization. The Czechs, Poles, and the Asiatic Magyars of Hungary were within the orbit of Latin or Roman Catholic Christianity by the close of the tenth century; the Great Russians felt themselves the inheritors of the Byzantine Empire at Constantinople and the champions of the Greek Orthodox faith. In the minds of Muscovite patriots of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, Moscow was the third Rome. To them, Rome and Constantinople had lost their leadership, and Moscow was the city of destiny that was to become the leader of a vigorous and regenerated Europe. The fourth Rome, they proudly declared, was not to be. It is significant that Western Emperors and Roman Catholic Popes hoped to bring the rising Great Russian state of the Volga basin within the sphere, politically and doctrinally, of Occidental European influence, and that the Tsarist contemporaries of powerful national kings, like the Tudor rulers of England and Francis I. of France, resisted every suggestion of compromise and every threat of encroachment upon their newly won sovereignty. To the Orthodox Slavs of Muscovy, the Westerners were schismatics and heretics, and similar titles of obloquy were hurled at the Russians by their Western neighbors, whether they were Swedes, Teutonic Knights, Poles, or Lithuanians.

The Russian people, like our own North Americans, have been amongst the most vigorous and successful expansionists in history. As the Westward Movement has been the key to so much of the history of the United States, so has the Eastward Movement in Russia been the red thread that runs

through her history. After being dominated by the Asiatic Tartars, Russia began in the era just before the discovery of America to dominate them in turn. But the eyes of the Muscovite leaders were not always turned towards the East. As the state grew stronger internally, under the crafty leadership of Tsars like Ivan III. and Ivan IV., the idea crystallized in the minds of her leaders that Russia must somehow gain access to the Western seas, especially to the Baltic Sea, where Swedes and Hanseates blocked the way, and to the Black Sea, where the Turks held Constantinople, the key to the Levant. Between these areas lay the huge and rather inchoate state of Poland-Lithuania, Slavic mainly in race, but western in religion and largely in culture. So, when I ask you to follow me as I trace some of the stages in Russia's efforts to secure her window to the West,—an effort that culminated in the Swedish wars of Peter the Great and in the founding of Petersburg on the banks of the Neva—I ask you to bear in mind that this is only a part of the story; that the Baltic littoral is only one of three important scenes of action. But the importance of this phase of Russian expansion to the westward, no serious student of Russian history will deny.

Russian relations with Scandinavia began early. In the ninth century, when the Russians of Novgorod and Kiev found themselves drifting into anarchy, they called a Swedish chieftain into their service as ruler. Thus began the line of Rurik, and the hardy Swedish traders who had long kept up the commercial connections of Orient and Occident over the rivers and portages of central Russia became the founders of the first "Russian" dynasty that deserves the name. This dynasty lasted over seven centuries, when it was succeeded early in the seventeenth century by the native Russian dynasty of the Romanovs. On the island of Gothland, in the Baltic Sea, archaeologists have found over 30,000 "Cufic" coins, minted near the Persian Gulf east of Bagdad and brought across these Russian land and water ways by the Scandinavian "Varangian" traders before the date of the First Crusade! Philologists have found that many of the names of cataracts, waterfalls, and places along these routes are merely Russian transliterations of names bestowed upon them by the early Varangians.

Modern Russian history may be said to begin with the reign of Ivan III, known in Russian history as Ivan the Great. It was under Ivan's leadership that the last vestiges of Tartar domination were thrown off (about 1480). It is Ivan who subdues the famous old city of Novgorod the Great, and closes the Hanseatic trading station there, and sends the German merchants home. Ivan's forces actually reached the Gulf of Finland, but only for a little while, for the Swedes and the Teutonic Knights were still strong enough to hold the Baltic shores against all Russian comers. But there were ominous signs and portents in the sky; to change the figure, with a civil war going on in Sweden against Danish rule, and with distinct signs of approaching disin-

tegration in the curious political structure erected by the Teutonic or Livonian Knights on the East Baltic shore, there was a chance for a new shuffle and a new deal, with a late comer by the name of Ivan sitting in on the game. Scandinavians, Hanseates, and Poles knew one another's game, but they were never quite sure how many cards or packs might be hidden in the sleeves or ample folds of this orientally garbed guest. There was good reason for disquietude. The border between Sweden and Russia ran along the rivers and through the rocky wastes of eastern Finland. It had never been very accurately marked out, and hands of Russian traders and hunters frequently strayed into territory claimed by the Swedes. The Swedes returned the compliment. The result was frequent border trouble, many meetings by peace envoys, solemn kissing of the Cross after each agreement, constant renewing of treaties for one, two, or five year periods, and no serious attempt to negotiate an "eternal" peace. When the Danish King Hans (John) was in the midst of his muddle with the Swedes, who held out for fifteen years before accepting him as king, he showed himself willing to ally himself with the Russians, but he managed to keep his treaty secret for several years. Finally, when the Danish king was in the Swedish capital, Stockholm, and the preparations for his coronation were under way, the Swedes were distinctly disturbed by the presence on their soil of a Russian delegation. Ivan had been scheming to secure the daughter of the Danish king as a wife for his son, a plan more pleasing to Ivan than to Hans or his daughter, and Hans had managed to postpone a decision. But the Russians who were in Stockholm for the festivities, had apparently imbibed rather freely of the potent Swedish liquors, and some of them openly boasted that the Tsar was in friendly alliance with the Danes. The rumor got abroad that the Danish king had promised the Russians a large tract of land in Eastern Finland. The Swedish rebels had been subdued for the time, but this rumor could not be downed, even by the king's stout and prompt denial. King Hans lasted just four years as King of Sweden; soon the rebellion against the Union with Denmark was on again, and by 1523 Sweden had permanently shaken off the dominion of her neighbor and raised one of her own sons, Gustavus Vasa, to the Swedish throne.

This episode serves to show how deeply seated in the Swedish nature was the fear of the Russian menace. On Hans' accession to the throne, his treaty with Russia naturally lapsed. The marriage plans came to a sudden end when King Hans found a husband for his daughter in Brandenburg. But suspicion by Swedes of the Russians and all their works continued till the end of the chapter.

The next big flare-up that illumined the eastern Baltic theater took place a couple of generations later, about 1560. The anomalous and antiquated Livonian state was over-ripe; its dissolution was at hand. There was some-

thing "rotten in Riga," and Swedes and Danes began sniffing the eastern breeze, and Poles and Russians got ready for eventualities. By this time, another Ivan, the Fourth, known to history as the Terrible or the Dread, was on the Muscovite throne. While the plot was thickening, Gustavus Vasa, now an old man, died, and he was succeeded by his adventurous and half-mad son, Erik. Gustavus had in the main been content to keep what Swedish arms had gained. He left his son a strongly centralized state, a healthy treasury, and a well trained army. The trouble began with an attack by Ivan IV upon Dorpat, in eastern Esthonia. Kettler, the Grand Master of the Livonian Order, began bargaining for allies, in the hope of saving his country from wreckage. But as someone has said, you can't ally yourself with a corpse. Livonia was dead; all that was lacking was an autopsy and a death certificate. For twenty years the Baltic shores and provinces were the scene of marching armies, Swedish forces in the north, in the region about Reval, Polish forces operating in Courland and about Riga, the so-called "King of Livonia," a Danish Prince Magnus with his nondescript forces in between, and the Russians hovering now on this horizon, now on that. The Danish prince received inadequate support from home and gradually faded from the picture,—that erring knight might make a good cinema prince,—the Swedes and Poles agreed in nothing except their thorough dislike of the Russians. The upshot of the long drawn out struggle was that the Livonian territory was divided between the Swedes and the Poles, Courland becoming a fief under Poland's suzerainty, and Sweden securing her first foothold on the south shore of the Gulf of Finland. It was the beginning of Sweden's fateful effort to build up a Baltic empire. Ivan the Terrible regretfully turned to other problems on other borders. But please mark this: he had knocked vigorously at the Baltic door, and only the strength of Swedish and Polish hands behind it had forced him to desist. A somewhat longer interval was to elapse before Russia was strong enough to break down the barrier. In the interval between Ivan IV and Peter the Great, Sweden was to rise to preëminence as a military and diplomatic power under the leadership of her soldier-king, Gustavus Adolphus, and his great statesman, Axel Oxenstierna. Sweden emerged from the Thirty Years' War as one of the guarantors of the Peace of Westphalia; the Baltic Sea had become a Swedish lake; and Sweden held the band of territory stretching from the Gulf of Finland to Riga, and kept Russia from access to the Baltic with the best drilled and disciplined army in Europe. The story of how this empire crashed is too long for recital here. It revolved mainly around the persons of two great men, Charles the Twelfth of Sweden, and Peter the Great of Russia. Suffice it to say that Charles XII, one of the most fascinating and brilliant of the world's captain's, about whose dramatic figure a whole literature of fact and fancy, of legend and speculation, has arisen, attempted the

impossible. He could not crush the great Muscovite state; he failed while engaged in the attempt to reach Moscow. Meantime, Peter had been patiently learning from his Swedish teacher the necessary elements of the art of war. At the peace which followed this long struggle, Sweden gave up to Russia the so-called Baltic Provinces. Russia gained not only a window but a wide open door to the West. The *dominium maris Baltici* had passed from the hands of Sweden into the hands of a half-European, half-Asiatic power.

Today the new Russia, denuded of enough territory to form half a dozen states stretching from the Arctic Ocean nearly to the Black Sea, is again reduced to the point where she has only the window, now called Leningrad, looking to the West. Finland is no longer hers; the Baltic Provinces have been replaced by native states,—Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania. It is folly to attempt to prophesy what the future has in store. The Baltic is no longer a Russian lake; it has ceased to be German. But that Russia, whether under Bolshevik or bourgeois rule, will, when she has recovered her economic and military strength, be content to let small and weak guardians hold the keys to her house indefinitely, is simply to expect too much of Russian—and human—nature. This does not necessarily mean that Russia will force her way back to the Baltic Sea by force of arms; some form of federation by which one or more of the Baltic states would be invited to join a Russian Customs Union or federal state is one of the possibilities. Modern Russia has much of Asia in her make-up yet; but the era of storm and stress in which she still finds herself is in a sense the consequence of a gigantic effort to adjust a state system born of oriental autocracy to the exigencies of a world that has been transformed,—Europeanized,—under the irresistible pressure of the Industrial Revolution.

THE NEAR EAST

THE NEAR EAST;
Summary of Round Table ✓

ROBERT J. KERNER

Professor of Modern European History, University of California, Berkeley

Member of the Colonel House Inquiry into the terms of peace, 1917-18; Member of the staff of American Peace Commission, Paris, 1918-19; Corresponding member of the School of Slavonic Studies, King's College, University of London; American Editor of the Slavonic Review; and contributor to the Central European Observer, Prague.

The discussions of this Round Table were divided as follows: Monday, December 10, the historic rôle of the Near East in World Politics; Tuesday, the Balkans and the Near East after the World War, I. (Turkey, Greece, and Bulgaria); Wednesday, the Balkans and the Near East after the World War, II. (Rumania, Jugoslavia, and Albania); Thursday, the Near East and Contemporary World Politics. Three aspects were emphasized in each case: the historical background, the main lines of the internal development of each of the countries, and the present situation in international affairs.

Under the topic of the historic rôle of the Near East in World Politics, the discussion centered on the Near East as the meeting place of three continents, where the main sea, land, and air highways of the world converge. It has been the ambition of nations from the earliest times, beginning with the Persians and Greeks down to the English, Germans, and Russians, to dominate this strategic crux of the world. After the 13th century the center of trade routes shifted from Constantinople to the cities of Northern Italy, and two or three centuries later to the shores of the Atlantic. It was only after the digging of the Suez Canal, the southerly economic orientation of Russia, and the building of the Berlin-Bagdad Railroad that the main trade routes of the world once more began to run through the Near East.

The Near East, it was pointed out, was not only the scene of commercial rivalry and political struggle, but it was also the origin of the Christian and Mohammedan religions which have clashed throughout their history. Historically the Near East did not become the homeland of a single race or nation, as large as the Russian or German or French, but of a number of small ones, which at present range from Albania with one million to Rumania with seventeen; the Turks, for instance, numbering between thirteen and fourteen million as claimed by their first and very recent census, though they ruled over a vast empire for centuries. With the decay of the Turkish empire the small nations struggled for independence and all of them have won it recently.

Amidst the rivalry of the Great Powers in the pursuit of world-wide commercial, political, and strategic interests these small nations became their tools. Such, briefly, were some of the chief elements which created the Near Eastern Question.

The Round Table next turned to the study of the dominant internal problems and existing international relations of each of the nations in this region. Certain general characteristics (with, of course, some variations and exceptions) were noted. Among these it was pointed out that the existing political, economic, and social conditions were backward, due to subjection to the old Turkish Empire, as compared to Central and Western Europe, and resembled frontier conditions. At present, however, after a century of struggle for liberation and two decades of war, a process of stabilization had set in. Strides were being taken toward economic recovery. The nations concerned were at work. Great advances were being made in popular education so that about ten per cent of the population was to be found in public schools. Necessarily the financial status of the governments was weak, but it was improving. It was evident that the people as a whole were working towards a greater share in politics and the consolidation of the various states was proceeding at a rapid pace. It was seen that negotiations among these nations would at first have to do with economic questions, such as the making of commercial treaties and the securing of access to the sea, as in the case of Yugoslavia and Bulgaria. Later, perhaps, would come political agreements.

The new Turkish State was going through, with admitted success, a most interesting transformation from a medieval Mohammedan structure of society to that of a modern, national state. It was reaching a point of stabilization. Its foreign policy was directed, along with its agreement with Soviet Russia, to the arranging of pacts of neutrality and non-aggression with its neighbors, one of which it signed recently with Italy and others of which are in process of negotiation with Greece and Bulgaria. Turkey is determined to maintain her independence and will not burn her bridge to Soviet Russia before she is wholly safe from the side of Europe.

Turkey, Greece, and Bulgaria are fast absorbing their refugees and expatriés. This arrangement, with its consequences, is worthy of careful study. In the case of Greece, her new inhabitants have brought brains, talents, and technical skill as well as strong republican sentiment. The return of Venizelos, the former war premier, and his negotiations with Turkey and Bulgaria indicate the general trend of foreign relations there. He is said to favor a Balkan Locarno. As regards Bulgaria, where bad economic and financial conditions have recently

been made still worse by the over-production of tobacco and the earthquake, the chief remaining problem is that of access to the Aegean Sea through Greek territory—a peace conference promise which has not yet been fulfilled. Thus far Bulgaria has resisted the enticements of Italian policy, though she has not always been able to keep the Macedonian refugees in check on the one side, nor has she obtained the status of minorities for them in Yugoslavia and Greece on the other. While a part of Bulgarian public opinion favors federation with Yugoslavia, if the Croats succeed in federalizing that state, it cannot be said that the conditions have stabilized sufficiently for Bulgaria to venture on any policy, except that of “wait and see.” Nor would Italy favor the formation of such a large Slavic state. Possibly it would also be opposed by Great Britain.

The rivalry between England and France in Europe and the Near East, and France and Italy in Europe and Africa, has complicated the Italian policy in Central Europe, the Balkans, and the Near East. It is that of opposition to the formation of any large state or states in that region and of the maintenance of weak states on the Adriatic. This explains the Italian policy in Albania and towards Yugoslavia. The latter state is in the throes of an internal struggle between the Croats, who favor federation, and the Serbs of old Serbia who have succeeded in establishing centralism. It is probably not true that its unification as such is threatened, but the internal conflict is menacing when taken in conjunction with the policy of Italy.

The calling of Maniu to the post of Premier in Rumania appears to open up a more liberal phase in that country's history, if he can manage to remain in control. His program calls for a more conciliatory policy towards Hungary and towards Soviet Russia in the matter of Bessarabia, as well as a sounder economic policy inside the state.

The discussion then led to the larger features of international relations in the region known as the Near East. The British Empire had secured its position at the Suez Canal by its policy in the Sudan and Egypt and by its mandates in Palestine and territory inhabited by the Arabs. It had further strengthened its hand by the agreements regarding the Straits in the Lausanne Conference, particularly in collaboration with Rumania. Soviet Russia, opposing the annexation of Bessarabia to the latter and the veiled control of the British Empire at the Straits, regards the present situation as menacing to her vital interests, the commercial route of Russia into the Mediterranean. The great strides taken by Italy in the commerce of the Near East and the fear of France for her own interests there and in the Mediterranean in general, also are factors in the situation as a whole.

The discussion concluded with an appreciation of the cries heard more often now than ever before, as raised by the nations of this region: "The Balkans for the Balkan Peoples," "The Near East for the Near East Peoples," and even the fainter ones for a "Balkan Locarno." Things appear to be on the mend, and these nations seem to have a keener appreciation of what it means to become the tools of World Powers. They are coming to know their weaknesses and to see the dangers in the light of past experiences. If they could be allowed a decade of freedom from interference from the Great Powers, they feel they would have results to show for it in better international relations.

GENERAL INTERNATIONAL PROBLEMS

CHRISTIANITY AND RACE RELATIONS

JAMES E. CROWTHER, D. D.
Seattle, Washington

The problems inherent in race relations are among the most acute of the modern world. With the increasing contacts between the races and the growing aggressiveness of Occidental peoples toward those of the Orient, the difficulties tend to become more diverse and dangerous.

The causes back of race problems are not simple but complex. Hence, the remedies are not single but multiple. Within the limits of my time it will be necessary, however, to consider only one aspect of the question, the religious.

It has been said that back of every social and economic problem of India is the question of religion. That is to a large degree true of the rest of the world. Our customs as expressed in human relationships were sanctions of religion before they became statutes of the State. The well-springs of human conduct are fundamentally religious. Grotius, the eminent jurist, said of England in 1605, "Theology rules here." The same also might be said of the rest of the world.

Moving quickly to the heart of my theme, I will state the motif of my message, that Jesus Christ is the basic solution of the race problem as he is of every other problem in the moral realm. I am not now concerned with any theological definition of Jesus, nor with any set of doctrines associated with his name. Nor do I assume that Christ and Christianity are synonymous and interchangeable terms. On the contrary, Christianity must itself be transformed into a vital, valid, and vicarious expression of the principles and purposes of Jesus Christ if it is to meet effectively the issues of the modern world of mankind.

I venture to suggest certain characteristics that must become dominant and regnant in our modern Christianity if it is worthily to represent its Founder, and make His principles operative in all our human relationships.

Although Christianity represents only one-third of the world's population, we have calmly assumed that it is destined to become *the* world religion. This assumption may be the result of a Christian faith or a Nordic complex. Particularly during the past hundred years, the white man has posed as a world-ruler, persuaded that his was the only culture worthy of preservation and propagation.

We have painted our polychrome maps with Heathenism in black, Buddhism in yellow, Hinduism in orange, Mohammedanism in green, and Christi-

anity in the crimson of redemption, and have piously asked, with Reginald Heber,

Shall we whose souls are lighted
With wisdom from on high,
Shall we to men benighted
The lamp of life deny?

This assumption of our illumination and their benightedness is very properly resented by the so-called non-Christian world. Jesus declared, "Blessed are the meek, for they shall inherit the earth," which, being translated does not mean, "Deutschland uber Alles," "Brittania Rules the Waves," "America First," nor "White Supremacy."

Race pride tends to become race prejudice, and race prejudice justifies race presumption. Says H. G. Wells, "I am convinced that there is no more evil thing in this present world than race prejudice. It justifies and holds together more baseness, cruelty, and abomination than any other sort of error in the world."

Each nation has something to contribute to the sum-total of human enrichment. Each nation is the superior of every other nation in some one thing. In some instances they had glorious civilizations when our ancestors were painted savages. "God hath not left himself without witness among any people."

Hence, we should go to the peoples of other races not simply because they need us, but because we all need each other. We should go to them not only as teachers, but as pupils and students of their views of truth. We should send not only our best minds to them; we should also invite their finest minds to assist in the task of our illumination.

It is this "togetherness" that will hold in check our superiority complex and will remove the humiliation of paternalism and pauperism. No self-respecting race will long endure the condescending patronage of foreigners, no matter how fine and noble their intentions may be. "It is more blessed to give than to receive," but it is most blessed when mutuality is so operative that all parties are both givers and receivers.

No one race is warranted in assuming that it is the whole "parliament of man," since it is not even a majority, and scarcely a quorum. "God hath made of one blood all nations of men for to dwell on all the face of the earth," and, if I may widen the scope of the words of Theodore Roosevelt, "This world will not long be a good place for any of us, unless it becomes a good place for all of us."

The music of the symphonic orchestra is possible only on a basis of mutuality. It were folly to argue as to which instrument is superior to the rest since all are necessary. But harmony in the "concert of nations" is im-

possible so long as the trombone insists on being the entire orchestra. By mutuality we shall "make one music as before,—but vaster."

It is important to remember that much of the isolation and strife, both inside and outside of the family of Christendom, has been due to conflicting interpretations of religion. I need only remind you of the martyrdoms within the Christian family, and the crusades and pogroms against "the lesser breeds without the law" as proof of this statement.

Buckle, the historian, estimates the loss of life by these Christian persecutions to be 140,000,000 human beings. It represents the gory and hoary contest between finality and progress in religious thinking. The chief obstacle to the spread of the spirit of Jesus has been the lack of it in organized Christianity.

Happily, that age of dogmatic darkness is almost past. "The night is far spent; the day is at hand." We recognize that the peril to religion is not in knowledge, but in ignorance; not in liberality, but in bigotry. The most deadly form of unbelief is that which doubts the sincerity of science; scorns the integrity of intelligence; distrusts the processes of progress, and interprets the saffron sunrise of the modern creative day as the final conflagration of all things.

The temple of truth is not a house divided against itself. It is at the mercy of neither fundamentalists, fanatics, fools, philosophers, nor higher critics. Truth was before anybody proclaimed it or proscribed it. It is not changed by any man's theory about it. It cannot be cajoled to lie nor be compelled to compromise. The whole of truth is more than any part of it. In the language of Alfred Tennyson:

Our little systems have their day;
They have their day and cease to be;
They are but broken lights of thee,
And thou, O Lord, art more than they.

If religion is to be a vital factor in the solution of our racial problems, it must be free, and it must be intelligent. The Orient is not going to be content with a hand-me-down theology from the Occident. It will not be a mimeograph copy of the past; an ecclesiastical ditto mark; a peripatetic Amen. To attempt to force Occidental forms and formulas of Christianity upon the Orient will be unfortunate in its results. Says Dr. E. Stanley Jones of India, "We are there to give Christ, and we will allow and urge other peoples to interpret him according to their own national genius."

The Founder of Christianity "took upon himself the form of a servant." He measured the stature of human greatness by the outreach of human service. "He that would be great among you, let him be the servant of all."

Such language has a strange sound to modern ears. There are certain elements which have become associated more or less intimately with present-day Christianity that are contradictory to both the spirit and teachings of Jesus.

Bishop William F. Anderson of my own communion says :

The weakness of our Christianity is that it is so lacking in the elements which are found in Christ. It takes its name from Christ, but fails sadly of His nature. It has become in a measure the form of godliness but lacks the power. Why blink the fact? Every thoughtful man knows it. Why not confess it in the face of the whole world? Why not repent of it, and make a new start for a better day?

For the past century and a half, Christianity has been all too intimately identified with a civilization of exploitation, of materialism, of imperialism ; a civilization whose law is the rule of gold and not the golden rule ; whose motive is profit, not service ; whose symbol is an eagle, not a dove ; whose spirit is competition, not coöperation ; whose complex is Nordic, not Nazarene ; whose God is Cromwellian, not Christian.

Mankind is judging the value of Christianity today not only by the missionary, but also by the merchant and the militarist. If Christianity is to command the love and loyalty of the nascent nations of mankind, it must either Christianize international commerce and politics, or frankly and openly repudiate many current practices connected therewith. Service ability must become the dominant and decisive virtue of our international relationships. We can no longer pray on our knees on Sunday and prey on the aborigines the rest of the week.

Certain practices which impair or destroy the spirit of fellowship between races are condoned on the ground that, for the present at least, any other course is impracticable. Hence, the teachings of Jesus in these matters have come to be regarded as ideals to be adored rather than principles to be applied. We are thus placed in the unfortunate position of attempting to convert mankind to paths which we profess, rather than to paths which we pursue.

The rest of the human family is not likely to accept Christianity on the basis of its much-disputed theology or polity. Our doctrines and ecclesiastical polity may seem very important to us, as evidenced by the fact that we have created over two hundred sects of Christianity in America to safeguard our respective notions of these things.

The vital issue in religion today is not doctrinal, but dynamic ; not theological, but ethical. Can Christianity meet the world's personal, industrial, and national problems? Can this kingdom of hell be transformed into the kingdom of heaven? Are the ideals of Christ practicable? Does Christianity earnestly seek to actualize these ideals? Does being a Christian involve the practice of Christ's ideals of human relations? Will the thing work?

There are other religions, beautiful and intellectual, which offer a way out of the present world. But the religion of Jesus is preëminently a way in and not a way out. It is not a religion of retreat but of redemption. It claims the power to transform the jungles of lust into pastures of love. It dares to pray that God's will may be done on earth as it is done in heaven. Its New Jerusalem is not beyond the skies, but coming down to be established upon the earth. The kingdom of this world is to become the kingdom of God.

Once the missionary call was to evangelize unoccupied continents. Now it is to evangelize untouched areas of life wherein Christ is but a name. The call today is not only to evangelize Africa, India, China, and America, but to evangelize commerce, industry, politics, and international relations; so that all these human contacts shall become the media of the good news of the Galilean.

Mr. Gândhi was asked how Christianity could be made more attractive. He replied:

Practice your religion without adulterating it or watering it down. Practice it in all its rugged simplicity; and emphasize love, for love is the central thing in Christianity.

Or in the words of John R. Mott:

Make Christianity difficult, and you will make it triumphant.

One of the outstanding characteristics of the Occident of today is its preoccupation with material values and interests. The production, promotion, and possession of temporal things has become the dominant passion of the western world. Our very educational system, to a large degree, has cash rather than culture as the ultimate goal. In the main, our problem is no longer that of keeping the wolf from the door, but of "keeping up with the Joneses."

In the words of Harold Begbie:

A visitor from India or China, whose purpose was to study the followers of the Son of God at the center of their national life, would surely find himself the victim of an immense hallucination. It would be impossible for him to believe that their civilization expressed the mind of Christ. He would see on every side an ostentation of wealth bewildering in its profusion and staggering in its effrontery. He would see in the shop windows the manifold productions of a commerce created by vanity, voluptuousness, and sensuality. He would look for self-sacrifice, and he would find self-assertion; for humility, and he would find arrogance; for gentleness, and he would find audacity; for meekness, and he would find vanity.

Whether this appraisal be accurate or exaggerated, we do well to remember that this is the verdict of the more mystical Orient. Tagore of India speaks from a knowledge of the West when he says:

We have seen this great stream of civilization choking itself from the debris carried by its innumerable channels. We have seen that, with all its vaunted love of

humanity, it has proved itself the greatest menace to man; far worse than the sudden outbursts of nomadic barbarism from which men suffered in the early ages of history. We have seen, under the spell of its gigantic sordidness, man losing faith in all the heroic ideals of life which have made him great.

This great Indian philosopher then pens these words of exhortation to his own people:

Be not ashamed, my brothers, to stand before the proud and powerful with your white robe of simpleness. Let your crown be of humility; your freedom the freedom of the soul. Build God's throne daily upon the ample bareness of your poverty, and know that what is huge is not great, and pride is not everlasting.

This growing materialism is one of the chief peril points in the race relations of today. It demands a dominance over the sources of raw materials to feed the maw of its hungry industrial machinery. It erects tariff barriers for the increase of its own profits and the protection of its industrial standards. It destroys prevailing standards of the simple life among other peoples by its high-pressure salesmanship. It displaces the crafts and industries of peoples dependent thereon for their livelihood, either by the importation of foreign-made goods or the establishment of foreign-controlled industries. It dictates the policies of governments, controls their finances, and presents the threat of armed intervention of military forces wherever it is possible and profitable so to do. It thus becomes the chief cause and immediate occasion of those hates, jealousies, and fears which culminate in war. The need is imperative that the Christian world shall hold in check its passion for material aggrandizement, and shall permeate all its industrial and commercial relationships with spiritual motives and values.

And how much more necessary is this in the realm of interracial politics! In nothing has Christianity been more apostate to the spirit of the Christ than in its international relations. Since its alliance with the State under Constantine it has trusted to the weapons of a baptized paganism, and scarcely raised a voice of protest against those who would—

Wade through slaughter to a throne,
And shut the gates of mercy on mankind.

What a travesty that the Crimean War of 1854 should have been waged for the defense of the Holy Sepulcher of Jesus. He who refused such defense for His life surely needed it not for his tomb!

John Morley may not be wholly right when he declares that Christianity has been responsible for more wars than any other cause whatsoever. But this is at least undeniable, that we who profess to be disciples of the Prince of Peace have been the drill-masters of war for the so-called "Non-Christian World." They were representatives of Christian Powers who put guns into the hands of Africans and taught them how to disembowel a white man; who

trained the horsemen of India into the cavalry of Empire; who made it necessary for Japan to become a first-class naval and military power; who organized the battle-fleets of South American Republics in preparation for future wars, and who waged the most brutal, costly, deadly, and blasphemous war of all human history. If the Christian nations shall ever again drag each other into such degradation, their religion will become a hissing and a by-word on the lips of intelligent men the world around.

We turn from that hideous past with relief to inquire: What is the alternative? Wherein lies the preventative of war? Addressing the annual meeting of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Admiral Ma-gruder recently said,

My belief is that war will not be ended by disarmament. To end war there must be a universal spiritual desire to that end. Not materially, but spiritually only, will there ever be peace on earth.

What do we mean by "spirituality" in this connection? It must be evident that mere mystical religion will not suffice. Mysticism is beautiful and necessary, but of itself it is inadequate. Multitudes of devout people rejoiced at the outbreak of the World War in that it was a fulfillment of Biblical prophecy. Others there are whose outlook into the future is astigmatized by pessimism and despair regarding human nature. Others postpone the day of universal peace until all mankind shall have accepted Christianity, utterly oblivious to the fact that the Christian nations are chiefly responsible for this institution called war.

Mystical religion is inadequate insofar as it may be lacking in social vision and social responsibility. General Gordon was a lovely mystic; a man of piety and prayer. But his profession involved the killing of Chinese and Arabs in the interests of commerce and empire. John Newton was a godly mystic. He wrote the hymn:

How sweet the name of Jesus sounds,
In a believer's ears;
It soothes his sorrows, heals his wounds,
And drives away his fears.

He also wrote of having blissful communion with God while on a slaving expedition on the West Coast of Africa.

We have an example of spirituality in Jesus of Nazareth. He frankly and utterly put his confidence in the ultimate triumph of spiritual forces as against the weapons of Caesar. His was not non-resistance, but non-retaliation. It was not an easy way. At the end of it was the Cross. It has become his throne of power.

He would have his followers meet error with truth, fear with faith, hate with love, wrong with right, petulance with patience, illwill with goodwill,

injustice with righteousness, compulsion with persuasion, selfishness with sacrifice, ignorance with enlightenment, war with law. Whenever we are willing to prepare, and train, and organize, and sacrifice, and bleed, and die for peace as for war, we shall have peace instead of war. Thank God that we now live in such a day of enlightenment that we no longer propose to—

Attempt the Future's portal
With the Past's blood-rusted key.

Whether we will or no, the world is becoming increasingly a unity. For good or ill our racial contacts are being multiplied. The radio has transformed the world into a whispering gallery. Transportation and communication are obliterating distance. Europe is nearer to America than New York was to Washington in the Colonial days. The lines of commerce have become a vast nervous system permeating the entire social body of the world, and responsive at the center to disturbances at the farthest extremities. No nation is now independent; all are interdependent. We are all in the same boat, and we must float or flounder together. "Ye are no more strangers and foreigners, but fellow-citizens."

Not only must the races increasingly live a commingled life, but there is a growing recognition of the essential unity of mankind itself. The very word "mankind" means, "kindred men." Our differences are largely individual, incidental, and cultural. Differences of stature of body, feature of face, texture of hair, and tincture of skin, are simply differences of race and not of humanity. The essential unity of mankind is more pronounced than its incidental diversification. The islands of the sea are separated only at their summits; beneath the ocean's surface their bases are one and the same. In the words of Jean Finot, *Race Prejudice*, page 174:

All the condemnations of peoples and races in virtue of an innate superiority or inferiority have in reality failed. Life has taught us to be more circumspect in our judgments. A savant who presumes to pronounce a verdict of eternal barbarism against any people deserves to be laughed at.

And finally, there is a growing unity in respect to Jesus Christ. As I have already said, it is not, and never can be, a unity of theological opinion regarding Him. It is rather a unity of reverence for His person, admiration for His life, and allegiance to His ideals. It is a unity that is entirely consistent with adherence to any of the great world religions in other respects. Says a non-Christian editor of India:

A Hindu poet becomes a better Hindu, a Mohammedan a better Mohammedan, a Parsi a better Parsi by following his own ancestral faith in the master-light which Jesus lighted nineteen hundred years ago.

On Christmas Day five years ago, a Bengali poet wrote to C. F. Andrews as follows:

Great-souled Christ, on this blessed day of Your birth, we who are not Christians bow before You. We love and worship You, for with Asia You are bound with ties of blood. Come, Lord Jesus, take Your stand in Asia. At sight of Thee our sorrow-laden hearts will be lightened. O Teacher of Love, come down into our hearts and teach us to feel the suffering of others; to serve the leper and the pariah with an all-embracing love.

Mahâtmâ Gândhi is a disciple of India's ancient religion. He utterly rejects both the theology and the civilization of the Western World. But he does seek honestly to emulate both the spirit and the teachings of Jesus. It will be remembered that when he broke his twenty-one day fast, his immediate friends gathered about his lowly cot and sang:

When I survey the wondrous cross,
On which the Prince of glory died,
My richest gain I count but loss,
And pour contempt on all my pride.

If I seem to deal somewhat harshly with our modern Christianity, it is because we are still too smugly complacent towards those evils which bring strife, discord, and needless suffering into the common family of God. In our Pharisaic pride we are prone to "thank God we are not as other men are," when the appropriate prayer would be, "God, be merciful to me a sinner."

On the other hand, it is the Christian idealism of America and the rest of the world that is seeking to introduce and establish a new order of race and international relations. The Kellogg-Briand Multilateral Treaty is the outward and visible sign of an inward and spiritual transformation in the passions and purposes of the world's political leadership. It is the too long-delayed confirmation of the teaching of the lowly Galilean who said: "Put up thy sword in its place, for all they that take the sword shall perish by the sword."

I close, as I began, with the ever-increasing conviction that Jesus Christ is the basic solution of the race problem, as He is of every other problem in the moral realm. I would unite my efforts with those of any and every race or religion that seeks the realization of His ideals. For, in the poetic language of John Oxenham:

In Christ there is no East nor West,
In Him no South nor North;
But one great fellowship of love,
Throughout the whole wide earth.

In Him shall true hearts everywhere
Their high communion find;
His service is the golden cord,
Close-binding all mankind.

Join hands, then, brothers of the faith,
Whate'er your race may be!
Who serves my Father as a son
Is surely kin to me.

In Christ now meet both East and West;
In Him meet South and North;
All Christly souls are one in Him,
Throughout the whole wide earth.

THE INTERNATIONAL ASPECTS OF THE FINE ARTS

HENRY PURMORT EAMES

Professor of Musical Art and Aesthetics, Scripps College

Although trained in the law, Dr. Eames has devoted his life to music and aesthetics. He toured Europe in 1895-97 and later visited France, Great Britain, and Ireland on a concert tour. He has published over thirty songs, choruses and pageants.

Both the challenge and the opportunity which are born of this comprehensive title are thrilling to the lover and student of the beautiful, and though the subject carries with it no light responsibility, that responsibility is not onerous, for more than most audiences that one I address tonight is sympathetic and receptive to forces which constructively work for understanding and harmony between men and nations. It cannot be too heavily stressed that understanding precedes harmony, and continuance of understanding guarantees enduring peace and mutual appreciation. We want world peace and harmony, therefore, we discuss with our neighbors, as best we can across the barrier of unfamiliar tongues, our respective standards and problems, our needs and viewpoints.

And this is progress—great progress, made through the study of international relations in economic, social, and religious interests, than which nothing seems more real and powerful.

But there are, nevertheless, relations existing between men and nations which are more real than industry, or commerce. They are the relations of feeling, or self-expression of man's higher nature. They are communicated through line, mass, color, form, and sound. Beauty, Truth, Goodness, this is the triad upon which the symphonic development of mankind is founded, and though races and nations may differ in their conception of these universal but divine fundamentals, the secret of mutual understanding lies in the perception and appreciation of them as vital forces issuing from the realms of feeling and emotion.

Internationally considered, the fine arts are the only constant arteries of communication between the nations through which flow understanding, friendship, and love.

Architecture, sculpture, painting, poetry, and music (the five fingers of the hand of God—the Most Beautiful—as the Oriental sage puts it) together or separately form a force for unity that is as tremendous in its quantity as it is spiritual in its quality. The perception and realization of beauty in space or beauty in time are not monopolized by any one people or period; nor are the form and content of the arts—material or immaterial—the exclusive pos-

sessions of any race or nation. The message of beauty is the message of truth, and as such is for the healing of nations as well as individuals.

In my study and research of sources of art-impulses, aims, and manifestations, I have found, as have others, that myths and their ultimate meanings, that primitive ballads and their rhythmitonal accompaniments, that decorative and symbolical drawings and carvings, are more than national in their final, their spiritual meaning and applicability. The emotional depths they sound and vibrate, the elemental problems and purposes they present are universal, common to the life of humanity.

Emotionally we are bound together as one family. We sing the songs of Araby. We gown ourselves and appoint our homes in the handicrafts (the applied expressions of beauty) of the Orient and Occident. And then too often and to our ultimate destruction, we fail physically and spiritually to recognize and utilize the universal possession of an emotional force which harmonizes not only homes and communities, but nations.

For a moment let us consider the international aspect of one branch of the fine arts—Music. Music is chosen because the speaker is a worker in its special field. Tonight legions of beauty lovers, students of and workers in the arts, are my spiritual supporters. Those who have themselves experienced the vision, and the feeling of unity through understanding with their brother man. These legions are in spirit by my side, and adding by their presence conviction and sincerity to my spoken words. We legionaires speak with confidence. Perhaps we intuitively know, as Browning says:

God has a few of us whom He
Whispers in the ear,
The rest may reason and welcome:
'Tis we musicians know.

As industrial and economic factors our music trade is a power, and every instrument, record, and sheet of music exported means a closer international relation, a more sympathetic understanding of our neighbors and our mutuality of interest and tastes.

As an economic asset what has music meant to this nation? Its magnitude as a business is realized by few. I do not include the business created by visiting artists and organizations which mounts into the millions. Our retail sales of musical instruments reached about 250 million dollars last year.

Phonograph sales run about 100 million dollars; radios (domestic and foreign), about 500 million dollars. The first eight months of 1928 we exported 500,000 dollars worth of music in sheet and book form. It may come as a surprise to some to learn of our exporting music in such volume. The form, quality, and standard of Americanism that a large portion of this exported music carries to Europe and elsewhere may be open to criticism, but,

the fact remains that our European neighbors and all the rest of the world are being influenced by our musical product.

I well remember the talk in musical circles in Paris when the publisher, Max Eschig, advertised the receipt of the first large order of American art music. It was in 1908, during my residence in Paris, that I was called upon to play the works of MacDowell, the great American, and other American composers, with the result that the French musicians took a new measurement of our aesthetic ideals and accomplished work.

During the first eight months of 1928, we shipped pianos and player pianos to Mexico amounting to \$400,000; to Canada, \$200,000; to Australia, \$600,000. During those same months, in phonographs alone we did five million dollars worth of business outside of this country, and phonograph records sent out amounted to three million dollars. In those months, \$11,000 of phonographs went to Mexico; \$15,000 to South American dealers, \$300,000 to China. In 1927 we *exported*—mark you, *exported*—painting and statuary to the value of more than five millions.

Men have always profited by travel and study in foreign lands. The Greeks studied in Egypt, and on the foundation stones of Egyptian knowledge reared their own structure of self-expression,—the purest, most inspiring example of The Beautiful which the world knows. The Romans at first studied in Greece, and later, through their wealth and power, commandeered the art of Greece for their very own. French, Spanish, English, Netherlands, and German scholars and artists traveled to Rome, there to drink at the springs of beauty which had their sources in the Orient and in Egypt. America sends thousands of ambassadors of good will to Europe every year, there to learn not only painting and music, but to see all Europeans as fellow-men and brothers. Through our quest for fresh expressions of Beauty in Time and Space, we are awakening to the colors, forms, and harmonies of the Orient. Through our exchange of students and teachers in art-expression the subjective Oriental is learning that the objective Occidental is, like himself, a searcher for, and devotee of, the beautiful in mind and matter, be it moulded into poems, pagodas, or parthenons.

Six European universities offer courses, conducted by American professors, on American life, ideas, and ideals; ten European choral organizations have toured America in the last few years, representing Sweden, Germany, France, Czecho-Slovakia, Lithuania, Italy, Russia, and Great Britain; and we have sent bands, orchestras, and choruses to Canada and Europe; the International Society of Musicians, "Pro Musica," and the International Society of Art are doing excellent work along the lines of exchange of arts and artists.

These may all be called Ambassadors of good will. So, too, are the thousands of students who come from other nations to us. The treasure of

money spent in foreign travel and art education is so huge as to influence the laws and policies of governments. But greater and more impressive than these expenditures and receipts in gold, is the experienced revelation of the basic unity of all men. This experience brings true internationalism into the thoughts and acts of men, without destroying the legitimate and constructive nationalism which we cannot, at this stage of our evolution, do without.

It is through the schools to the great student body, that (in my opinion) we will find the surest steps to international understanding. There are some exchange professorships. There should be many more, in all subjects. Naturally I crave such in the fine arts. Commercial interests are investing more and more in advertising through individual and group education. Why should not the arts be so treated? A small beginning has been made. Dr. Fellowes of Oxford, Percy Scholes of London, Franklin Dunham and Walter Damrosch of New York, Herbert Witherspoon of Chicago, are a few of the prominent men so engaged.

Among the least heralded but most effective agents for mutual recognition is international familiarity with national songs (popular and art), national art, architecture, and literature. The actual influence and power, constructive and destructive, of certain types of art-expression are matters of daily discussion in home, church, and forum. This fact is convincing evidence and acknowledgment of the subtle yet strong power of emotional appeal through the arts.

I want to have the ways, means, and aims, of the emotional language of the Orientals explained and related to life before the young people of America, by qualified Orientals.

Our Round Table talks should consider this peace measure, and they will, I trust, bring out opinions and suggestions relative to the regulation of the radio. Distance, language, customs, prejudices are broken down through its agency. We hear the chimes of Toronto, the bands of Mexico City, and find both are speaking in the language of the emotions—the true Esperanto of world tongues. In Tibet, in Tokio, or in Riverside, we meet in the friendly fashion of this Institute of International Relations with an entirely different spirit and approach when the dragon of false ultra-nationalism has been slain by the sword of the song, the epic, or the ballad, which sings in the heart of the folk people of every land.

Our Round Table should also discuss another stream of international influence—the Amazon of “rivers of influence”—the talking-moving-picture. This, the most popular propaganda maker in the world today, should not be overlooked or under-estimated by seekers of peace through education. Though the sounding-moving-pictures in natural colors is not yet admitted to the family of “fine arts,” it is knocking at the door and should be fostered and directed.

There is to be a great world's fair in Chicago in 1933. A meeting place of nations, a clearing-house for informational ideas and ideals. Men and women of every land, thinkers and doers, will assemble and discuss—as does this institute—the problems confronting humanity. Scientific and aesthetic knowledge, the “humanities” and the spiritualities (if I may coin the word), will be represented and developed by the leaders of thought and action from every country on the globe. There are to be buildings especially set apart for the teaching through single lectures or courses on each of these subjects as analyzed and synthesized by the best minds of every nation. Time does not permit telling half that is seriously planned to make the fair a veritable school of international understanding, but I trust that this mere mention may strengthen us individually and collectively to think right and to do right in the task of unifying mankind, and promoting world peace, each in his own limited way.

The power of Truth and Beauty are the subjective forces with which we and our children must resolve this world to concord. As Dr. Hartley Alexander so well says:

Those who sigh for the authoritative objectivity of eras gone, and accuse our own of weak and paltry subjectivities, might well reflect upon the phenomenon of expanding sympathy. Subjectivity is but token that we are coming more and more to find enduring ideals in things of the spirit. There are today delicacies of insight, shades of feeling emulated in the past; and certainly the democratization of intellect is not more characteristic of our age than the democratization of the heart.

This is a philosophy to which workers in the arts, and all disciples of Beauty can subscribe. We should avail ourselves of these subjective powers. We should give place and power in our thought and practice to the universal presence of the spirit of understanding and unity.

The international aspect of the fine arts reveals their manifestations not as unrelated nationalistic entities, but as interrelated parts of a universal whole.

Architecture, sculpture, painting, music, or poesy—the five fingers of the hand of God—The Most Beautiful; perhaps each in the garb of the other is equally beautiful and revealing. Surely each art has two chief attributes forming its true composition—unity and harmonious variety. These attributes rightly belong to the whole human family, and through the spiritual agency of beauty, they will enter the heart and direct the head so that objective good will follow subjective revelation.

The international aspect of the arts—major and minor—clearly and convincingly shows that the democratization of human hearts through our common heritage of beauty is one of the most significant spiritual achievements

of man's struggling progress towards universal brotherhood. To these sources and forces of proven spiritual power we must turn for peace.

Thinking and reasoning tend to separate men—feeling fuses all men into one.

And even as in music, where all obey and concur to one end, so that each has the joy of contributing to a whole whereby he is ravished and lifted up into the courts of heaven, so will it be in that crowning time of the millennial reign, when our daily prayer will be fulfilled, and one law shall be written on all hearts, and be the very structure of all thought, and be the principle of all action.

✓
THE PLACE OF WORLD LITERATURE IN INTERNATIONAL
RELATIONS ✓

MILDRED C. STRUBLE

Professor of Comparative Literature, University of Southern California

Why undertake a study of World Literature? is a question recurrent nowadays, and if it is put to a professor of such literature, it is usually followed by: And what is meant by Comparative Literature?

With equal reason, one might ask: Why undertake a study of Philosophy, as a whole, or of Physics? I believe that we can no more comprehend literature in separate pigeonholes than we can the subjects just named. English Philosophy, for example, is immediately recognized as but a ramification of the great study of Philosophy; the same attitude is justified towards English Literature, or French, or German Literature.

All literature, or at least all Occidental literature, evolves through much the same process. National epics, the earliest written monuments, are followed by mediaeval, romantic, and scholastic developments, which in turn come under the dominance of the classic heritage of the renaissance, and, after eighteenth century formalism, are superseded by the early nineteenth century reinterpretation of romanticism. And so on through cyclic process and counter-process to our own interesting contemporary literature. Ever the new seems romantic, is cherished, flourishes, becomes arbitrary, declines, and is abandoned that an ascending cycle may appear. Even in Oriental literatures, which we are accustomed to think of as being psychologically distinct from ours, the processes are not dissimilar.

But the point of greatest development varies with the temperament of an individual nation. A study of comparative national contributions therefore becomes fitting, and in such case comparisons are not odious. The Comparative approach does not endeavor to disparage the achievement of any national literature, but rather to realize that French criticism, German lyric poetry, English drama, may be and should be a delight to the citizen of any country; that Homer, Dante, Goethe, Ibsen are quite as indispensable for a cultured English-speaking man as Shakespeare or Milton. Each nation makes certain noble contributions to all literature, and no man's literary heritage is complete without some knowledge of them.

The best approach to such literature is from the point of view of one's own national literature. The late Richard G. Moulton, who fathered the study of World Literature on this continent, has likened the situation to

that of a man who goes up a mountain that he may study the surrounding landscape. The mountain is the man's own national literature, knowledge of which serves as a point of observation; in the foreground are the nations whose literature has been of immediate influence. These may be mountains or hills of various proportions. Farther away the man sees more distant peaks, distinctly or indistinctly visible according to their influences, but all a part of the landscape which he surveys and finds beautiful.

For the American, of course, English Literature would seem almost as immediate a consideration as his own; but he cannot hope to understand either American or English Literature unless he surveys the achievements of Western European countries, and of ancient Greece and Rome, and of Slavic, and of the Orient.

Many men have considered literature in translation, which is a necessity for the student of World Literature, as so ineffectual and even misleading that it were better not to read such at all. For my part, I prefer to trust the interpretation of a skilled translator for nearly all literature foreign to me, rather than my own inadequate knowledge of most foreign languages, and I certainly see no reason why I should be barred from all the treasure of Confucius simply because I cannot and probably never will achieve Chinese. In such cases, surely half a loaf is better than none. And the masterpieces of literature have in the main been translated by very great scholars and creative artists. Few of us nowadays attempt Homer in the original—nor is there necessity to do so, since several beautiful English versions are available.

Why not extend our patronage of translations further? The annual award of the Nobel Prize for Literature is significant not only for rewarding particular authors for a particular kind of work—*i. e.*, "Literature of an idealistic tendency"—but also for its fostering international interest in that literature. Almost immediately following such award, the honored work or works has generally been translated into leading western European languages and has enjoyed wide popularity on at least two continents, although some of the most deserving works are even yet unavailable in English.

The sort of literature which has been distinguished by the Nobel jury brings us to observe, finally, that if one is to study world literature from an intelligent viewpoint one must beware of literature written by ambitious authors, often expatriate, simply for foreign consumption. The literature which the nation who wrote it cherishes is the literature by which to judge her people. I tremble when I learn what American works are "best sellers" today in some European countries. Some of us remember the ideas of French literature not long ago current among many well-meaning but ignorant Americans.

Misunderstandings can and must be avoided by studying the literature

which a country itself considers as best for its own. Extensive and intelligent travel, and orientation in foreign languages are obviously the best means to international fraternity—but since life is too short for many such contacts, and since of necessity most people cannot avail themselves of those privileges, surely their best understanding may come through studying the hearts and minds of other peoples as they are sincerely and undesigningly revealed through their literature.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE MOTION PICTURE INDUSTRY IN INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS ✓

COLONEL JASON JOY
Hollywood, California

International friendship is founded on understanding.

Fundamentally, men are alike. They are born, they marry, have children, build homes, send their children to school, worship a God, make laws, and eventually they die.

In his early life, man was beset by enemies. In order to survive, he had to be at war constantly with nature, with animals, and with other men. He became suspicious of everyone, for every man was seeking his food, or his wife, or his shelter.

As civilization advanced, crafty and ambitious men, greedy for power, fed the flames of hatred and distrust in order that they themselves might profit. Monarchs, with unlimited power, sent whole armies to their deaths to please their pretty mistresses, to annex a few acres of ground, or to wreak vengeance on a rival monarch. Propaganda constantly laid its hands on the minds of men. Whispers said that the enemy was always at hand, ready to devour all which man held sacred.

To our very day, the harmony of nations has been disrupted by false statements and deception. Wars, with few exceptions, have been between ruler and ruler, and not between the men and women of the nations involved.

At this moment, however, a new sunlight is playing on the clouds of misunderstanding, and men's eyes are being lifted for the first time to the brightness of universal peace. Soon it is going to be impossible to fool the people.

And this is true chiefly because communication has so developed that nations can know one another. The presses bring news of happenings in the remote corners of the earth—all within a few hours. Telephone service across the oceans is now possible. Fast steamships ply the seas, and before long travel by air to any part of the world will be feasible.

And more than anything else perhaps there is the motion picture, which brings the world to our very doorsteps. Three great discoveries—discovery of movable printing type in the middle of the fifteenth century, discovery of the dark chamber for photography, and discovery of the motion picture—mark three fundamental steps in the progress of the human spirit, three formidable instruments for the conquest and diffusion of culture, according to Mussolini; and of all these, Italy's premier thinks, the motion picture is

the most important, because "it talks to the eyes; that is, it speaks a language comprehensible to all peoples of the earth." The full significance of this statement is revealed in the fact that 250,000,000 persons go to the motion pictures each week. Today there are 51,000 motion picture theaters in the world to serve these millions. Of these, 20,500 are in the United States; 19,773 are in Europe; 2,000 are in Canada; 3,692 are in the Far East; 1,932 are in Latin America; 490 are in Africa; 69 are in the Near East.

Will H. Hays, president of the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America, has called attention time and again to what the film actually is doing to bring the world closer together; that is, the people of the world. As he has stated:

Motion picture lenses today are focused on every important happening in every land. They witness the pageantry and tragedies of nations. They show the customs and pursuits of all people. They hold up a mirror, as it were, to every phase of human activity, with accuracy and vivid realism, and help us form clearer judgments of the world, that we may have a more intelligent understanding of the ceaseless work of nations. No longer is it true that half the world ignores what the other half is doing. If something important happens on the other side of the world, millions of people in our America alone see it the following week—and seeing is believing.

Take one picturized event alone—that of Colonel Lindbergh's trans-Atlantic flight—and analyze the extent of its circulation. Audiences aggregating three billion one hundred and eighty-one million people throughout the world saw news reel pictures of Colonel Lindbergh's flight and subsequent good-will tours. Three hundred and eighteen separate subjects, or shots, were made of the young aviator and forty-two thousand feet of positive film were exhibited. Never before in the history of the world had any individual been so photographed. Never had any individual been seen by so many people. And what was the message of Colonel Lindbergh? Peace! Friendship!

Take another significant event, the signing of the Briand-Kellogg Peace Pact in Paris. Films were taken and were shown in every part of the world, impressing on people everywhere the seriousness of the purpose and possibilities of universal peace.

The world is being made familiar with the rest of the world through pictures. Stop and think a minute: What does the harbor of Rio de Janeiro look like? What does the leaning Tower of Pisa look like? Describe a boating scene on the Thames. Where did you get the information, if not from pictures, unless of course you are among the favored few to whom European travel is possible? Then ask yourself: What does Mussolini look like? Describe the Prince of Wales? Would you recognize Bernard Shaw? And think how many of these and other world figures you have seen in moving pictures. Two hundred and fifty million people each week through-

out the world are meeting on a common ground to exchange ideas through films. We are learning that because people live in other lands they aren't necessarily barbarians; that they are not living just to destroy us; that they are not enemies of ours because they want to be enemies; that we are, on the other hand, very much alike in customs, ideas, and ideals; and that, given half a chance to know each other, we could be very good friends indeed.

It is the hope of the motion picture industry that the time is not too far distant when there will be filmed a series of pictures which reveal the significant characteristics of all nations. With such pictures telling history, revealing the backgrounds, ideas, ideals, customs, and hopes of a race of people, it is not unreasonable to think that understanding will be promoted. Such pictures, exhibited in times of strained relations, when misunderstanding has drawn taut the line that holds nations at peace, might be the cause of averting an international disaster. It might be the means of preserving peace when war seems inevitable.

A short time ago, the International Economic Conference of the League of Nations took an enlightened step when in strongly worded resolutions, it recommended: first, that an international convention should be prepared to regulate and facilitate the passage of frontiers by news photographers and motion picture men with their instruments; and, second, that a postal convention be entered into by all countries to permit the rapid transmission of documents, photographic films and plates under a distinctive emblem.

And all of this because, as the Conference points out, there is, in addition to the material considerations of the large volume of international exchange represented by the films, documents, magazines, and pamphlets, "the universal need for facilitating not only exchange of goods, but exchange of ideas."

Already, great movements are under way for the production of classroom films, classroom films so synchronized with the textbook and oral instruction that they will be of great importance in clarifying, amplifying, and making more realistic the lessons to be learned.

The motion picture itself knows no national boundaries. Europe, Africa, America, and Asia know the motion picture. It is today as international as the sun itself.

For this reason men of every race, of every clime, of every creed, of every school of thought are to be found in Hollywood, busily engaged in the important task of supplying motion pictures for world consumption. They have made Hollywood a distinctive, world city—as distinctive in its way as Paris or Rome.

The very name of Hollywood has colored the thought of this age. It has given to the world a new synonym for happiness because of all its

products happiness is the one in which Hollywood,—the motion-picture Hollywood,—chiefly interests itself. Herein lies the explanation of Hollywood.

The world must be amused. Men must have recreation and relaxation. They must be allowed to forget the grind of everyday existence. There must be a place for workers to rest, to laugh, to cry, and to think when the day's job is done. There is an imperative necessity for entertainment of the people, and the importance of pictures is measured by this very necessity.

Cognizant of the demands upon it, Hollywood has very wisely drawn upon the world for its resources in artists and artisans, who, after all, measure the success or failure of motion pictures. The studio personnel is all-important. With good actors, good directors, good cameramen, good writers, anything can be accomplished. The greatest creative artists have been attracted to Hollywood that they might have the opportunity for the widest expression.

Great numbers of those in key creative positions are direct from supreme accomplishment in other countries.

A recent survey of important actors, directors, and cameramen in Hollywood showed that sixty were Englishmen, twenty-six were Canadians, twenty-three were Germans, sixteen were Russians, twelve were French, ten were Austrians, eleven were Swedes, seven were Italians, six were Hungarians, four were Japanese, three were Mexicans, three were Danes; and others came from India, Argentina, China, Rumania, Brazil, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Serbia, Ireland, Switzerland, and Turkey.

These artists, who heretofore were able to reach thousands, can now, with this new medium, reach millions. The extension of possible service has commanded them and caused them to cast their lots with the wonder city of the western world.

And the product of writers everywhere is sought and used. The list of English authors whose material has been purchased for the screen would fill columns of space, including Joseph Conrad, W. Somerset Maugham, Ethel M. Dell, William J. Locke, Cosmo Hamilton, Egerton Castle, A. A. Milne, E. M. Hull, J. Hartley Manners, Gilbert Parker, James M. Barrie, Arnold Bennett, Hall Caine, Philip Gibbs, Jeffery Farnol, Anthony Hope, Rudyard Kipling, E. Philips Oppenheim, Arthur Wing Pinero, Israel Zangwill, Ouida, A. S. M. Hutchinson, A. M. and C. N. Williamson, E. W. Hornung, Ian Hay, and many others.

It is no novel sight in Hollywood to find an Englishman's novel being turned into film continuity by a German scenarist in order that an American girl may be a heroine before scenery designed by an Italian, while an Irishman turns the crank of a camera and a Frenchman directs the scene. It is indeed for this very reason that Hollywood may be truly said to be interna-

tional, and that the motion picture, already known as the one universal language, is truly world-wide in its production as it is in its distribution.

Good motion pictures necessarily have an appeal to all men because good motion pictures, just as good literature and all good art, appeal to the basic human motives. Love of home, love of family, love of children, love of husband or wife, love of parents, worship of a Supreme Being, love of play, love of sport, love of country—these are basic elements in the makeup of all men. They mean as much to the German as they do to the American, as much to the Englishman as they do to the Russian. And, on the screen, these basic motives can be presented to all people. For the first time in history, a means of universal communication has been found. The motion picture film can and does go everywhere. It can and does speak every language. There never before existed any means by which the genius of a people could be expressed and dramatically presented to all other peoples.

THE THREE INTERNATIONALISMS

TULLY C. KNOLES

President, College of the Pacific.

This title has been selected because, in the author's view, it expresses the outstanding types of dealing with our international problems, and these three methods need to be shocked into our consciousness.

The nineteenth century is looked upon as the period of the growth of nationalism. As the late Henry Morse Stephens so clearly showed, every European nation had its national history, customs, ideals, and forms of government set forth by some historian whose appreciation of these things was fired by the national enthusiasms, and by the need which he felt to consolidate the nation's objectives. G. P. Gooch, formerly of Cambridge University, now of London University, wrote a most significant volume just before the war on the subject "History and Historians of the Nineteenth Century." This epoch-making volume enlarges upon the same idea and names the nationalistic historians and gives their academic lineage. But even preceding the World War, nations had their international problems, hatreds, but necessary relationships; and the nineteenth century saw the development of what I choose to call the First Internationalism.

The man who did most to express the ideals of this internationalism was Talleyrand. It was Talleyrand, you remember, who said: "The object of diplomatic language is to conceal thought." He also added: "A diplomat should be able to keep silent in at least seven languages." Following these fundamentals, the diplomat of the nineteenth century was adept in the art of deception and skillful in the use of plausible argument. Bismarck on more than one occasion won diplomatic victories by laying all of the facts on the table and telling the truth, knowing that those who sat in conference with him thought he was lying. Perhaps the so-called Congress of Vienna best illustrates the working methods of the First Internationalism. That famous congress in 1815 never met. If it had met, Talleyrand, as the representative of a defeated, discredited France, would have had no place at the diplomatic table. But as the representatives of the various governments met from time to time, two by two and four by four, usually in secret, they worked out a series of arguments touching the three major problems of international moment at that time. These problems were: The arrangement of the nationalistic map of Europe as it had been disarranged by Napoleon; second, the arrangement of the ruling houses as they had been disarranged by Napoleon; and, third, the outlining of some *modus vivendi* by which the various na-

tions of Europe in newly expanding economic life might adjust themselves to the strange problems of trade and society pursuant to the keeping of the treaties worked out in the so-called Congress of Vienna. Europe developed the two ideals of the concert of powers and the European equilibrium. The old economic theory of balance of trade was overworked during the dominance of the First Internationalism. Peaceful penetration did not satisfy, and an economic and political imperialism was evolved. Whatever other causes may be given for the World War, intense national patriotism, national economic greed, and national political pride must all find their places in your consideration. The World War did much to show the futility of this mode of internationalism frankly based upon the theory that a nation's success must inevitably be at the expense of other nations.

With the expression of the Holy Alliance and with the evolution of the Monroe Doctrine, idealists began to hope for a new type of international relationships. The establishment of The Hague Tribunals and the founding of hundreds of arbitrary treaties indicate a weakness of all nationalistic tendencies outside the field of diplomatic and political ambitions. Without entering into a discussion of the European attitude, I want to call your attention to the fact that President Wilson was thoroughly disgusted with what we have called the First Internationalism. He made a most impassioned plea for open covenants, open arrival; and, while he championed the cause of the lesser nationalities by pleading for the right of self-determination, he believed that the facts of human experience and of political power of expansion should determine the making of peace treaties. At this distance we can say that if in the midst of negotiations in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles, he had withdrawn and sailed for America, his memory would be revered more than it is today. However, a great step in advance was taken by the treaty makers of Versailles over those in Vienna in 1815. At Versailles they met to hold their plenary sessions, although the provisions of their treaty pacts were worked out in secret. There is no doubt that the followers of this internationalism today would be more happy to see it again enthroned.

The Second Internationalism is that of Karl Marx. You will recall that in 1848, in conjunction with Frederick Engels, Marx issued a Communist Manifesto. In this Manifesto he calls for the union of all of the workers of the world, irrespective of their nationality or national allegiance. In short, Marx would have so changed organized society as to eliminate the word *national* as an adjective from governmental, economic, and social institutions. In 1864, Marx organized the First Internationale. This lasted until 1872, finding sympathetic allegiance with the English trade unions, the socialists of Germany, the anarchists in France, and all other Latin countries. Its influence in America was very slight outside of certain German immigrants. The death of Marx in 1883 did not put an end to the propaganda,

and in 1889 the Second Internationale was organized in Paris. It met successively in Brussels, Zurich, London, Paris, Amsterdam, Stuttgart, Copenhagen, and Basel, ceasing to exist at the outbreak of the World War. With the downfall of the Romanov autocracy in Russia there came the provisional government under the leadership of Prince Lvov. This government was overthrown by Kerensky's military dictatorship. Kerensky was overthrown by the Bolsheviki in the Octobrist Movement, under the leadership of Lenin and Trotsky. There is now no doubt that the Bolsheviki in Russia thought that their success was but the first of a series of national revolutions that would develop into a world conflagration, destroying nationalism and ushering in the internationalism of Marx.

The Third Internationale was organized in 1919 and held its second definitive congress at Moscow beginning in July, 1920. It had as its object to complete and incorporate the ideals of Karl Marx and to realize in practice the eternal aims of Socialism and the Labor movement. It entered into all of the benefits and advantages of the First and Second Internationales, but utterly repudiated their methods. The time had now come for cataclysmic revolution in every country that could possibly be reached by the radical propaganda. Although Lenin was the moving spirit in the call of the Third Internationale, the Executive Committee as elected at the August Congress was made up of Zinoviev, Bukharin, Radek, Tomski, and Kobosky, all named by the Russian Communist Party; Paul Levy of Germany, Harry Quelch of England, G. Rosmer of France, Signor Serrati of Italy, Herr Steinhardt of Austria, M. Frika of Scandinavia, M. Chaklin of Bulgaria, M. Milkich of Jugo-Slavia, M. Radnyansky of Hungary, Sultan Cada of the Near East, M. Pek of the Far East, David Wynkoop of Holland, M. Manxer of Finland, and John Reed of the United States, who died in Moscow during the naming of this committee.

The delegates of this Congress issued the Manifesto, adherence to whose provisions were necessary for the admission of delegates from any Socialist group in the world.

The conditions for admission of new parties and duties pertaining thereto are as follows:

1. Daily propaganda and agitation must have clear Communist character and agree with the program and decisions of Third Internationale. Party press must be edited by responsible, devoted Communists. Propaganda for dictatorship of proletariat should be such that its necessity would be obvious to each worker, soldier, and peasant, and regularly noted in press. All opponents must be systematically branded in all possible ways.

2. Reformists and Centrists should be removed from all responsible posts in organizations desiring to affiliate with the Communist Internationale.

3. In countries where work cannot be carried on legally, both legal and illegal activities should be combined. There is class struggle in nearly every country in

Europe and America entering upon phase of civil war, and under such conditions the Communists cannot rely on bourgeois legality.

4. Systematic and vigorous propaganda should be carried on in the army. A Communist nuclei is to be formed in every military unit.

5. Campaign in country districts.

6. All parties desiring to belong must denounce avowed patriotism, dishonest and hypocritical pacifism. Without revolution overthrowing capitalism no reorganization of League of Nations can preserve mankind from imperialistic wars.

7. The necessity of a complete and final break with Reformists and Centrist policies.

8. The emancipation of colonies and expulsion of imperialists from colonies.

9. Propaganda within trade unions, coöperatives, and other mass organizations of workers.

10. Yellow Trade Union International organized at Amsterdam must be opposed. International union of Red Trade Unions affiliated with Communist Internationale must be aided.

11. Parliamentary groups should be revised; the unreliable element should be expelled.

12. The parties should be organized on principles of democratic centralization.

13. Party organizations must be rid of petit bourgeois and special interest elements.

14. Unqualified support of *all soviet republics* must be given. Propaganda should be used against troops sent out against soviet republics.

15. A new program in the spirit of decisions of Communist Internationale must be undertaken. Programs of parties belonging to Communist International must be confirmed by the Congress of Communist Internationale or by the Executive Committee.

16. The decisions of the Congress and the Committee should be binding upon affiliation with Internationale.

17. Parties must change names. Communist Internationale has declared war upon the entire old bourgeois world and on all old Yellow Social Democratic parties.

18. All leading press organs must print all important official documents of Committee of Communist Internationale.

19. Parties applying for admission should call a convention to examine conditions within four months after Second Congress.

20. Two-thirds of the members of party executive and all the important central bodies must declare clearly and publicly in favor of entrance into the Third Internationale before its Second Congress.

21. Parties who reject these conditions will be expelled.

Immediately the Socialists of the world were divided by this Manifesto. At first it seemed as if the Third Internationale had overstepped itself in the extreme radical conditions, and many students thought that the reaction would be against the propaganda. However, Lenin's object was to weed out all nationalists and patriots and weak-kneed Communists. A brief survey of the reception of these provisions is now necessary.

The French Socialist Party, having sixty deputies in the Chamber and 180,000 dues-paying members, was split into two factions on December 30, 1919.

In Italy, where the expectation was that the Socialists almost in a body would adhere to the Communist program, there was great disappointment, for the industrial depression did not have the effect anticipated. The elections of May 15, 1921, were immediately disappointing to the Communists, although the reaction has been somewhat in their favor.

The small Communist Party of Poland believes that it will grow rapidly as the result of political developments of the past year. The German Communists weeded out the majority Socialists and the Scheidemann group.

In England, after months of discussion and political jockeying, the British Communist Party came into being, July 31, 1920, after the Moscow Executive Committee had attacked the Center of the Second Internationale, represented in England by Ramsey Macdonald and Philip Snowden, in France by Jean Longuet, in Germany by Kautsky and Hasse, in Italy by Modigliani, Turrati, and Traves, in Russia by Axelrod and Martov, and in the United States by Hillquit. All of these were accused of playing the part of Pontius Pilate during the war. Arthur McManus was chairman of the convention, which consisted of about two hundred delegates.

The Third Internationale thus became the organized institution for the consummation of the Marx ideal of internationalism. The executive committee of the Third Internationale for several years was dominated by desolate Jews. It was not satisfactory with the new economic policy promulgated by Lenin and still freely carried in the direction of capitalism by Stollin. Tchitchrin, the astute foreign minister of Russia, made in the presence of the author a very clear division between soviet government and the Third Internationale. Through international directorates the division was difficult to find a few years ago, but seems to be more real now.

The Third Internationale made a great bid for Asiatic leadership during the Chinese Revolution, and naturally its influence in Turkey and India is watched with great care. The dictatorship of Mussolini with its patriotic and economic unification is the Italian reaction against the expectation of the Third Internationale of the Sovietizing of Italy.

After visiting the headquarters of the Third Internationale, and being shown through its library, my personal conviction is that it is losing influence in Russia as well as in every other state, for it had hoped to denationalize. But in that it still holds the allegiance of fifty-five communist parties, it must be considered as one of the internationalisms striving for world support.

The Third Internationalism is not so well defined or organized as the other two. It is idealistic, and, therefore, lends itself less to definitive treatment.

The existence of the League of Nations, the great romantic adventure in international experience in understanding and coöperation, and the well

organized World Court, both indicate that there is another internationalism striving to express itself. This internationalism loses none of the national unities or psychologies, does not verge into a vague disintegration of ethnic and racial groups, but accepts rather frankly the best of nationalism by political organization, and looks for a place in the sun not by virtue of physical prowess, but by virtue of economic, social, and aesthetic contributions to the welfare of all mankind. As I see it, if the world does not become an armed suspicious group of nations living together by virtue of diplomatic agreement and occasional war, it will plunge itself into some sort of a revolution as the Third Internationale would welcome, or through mutual appreciation and respect, the nations of the world will eliminate as far as possible race prejudice, artificial barriers to trade, and inherited hatreds, and work together for a common good.

May I not use an illustration which translates my whole thinking towards international problems? At the Harding Conference, the plenary sessions were held in Continental Hall in the Building of the Daughters of the American Revolution. Those who had charge of the decorations had suspended a great golden ball by a silver cord from the ceiling. In this golden ball were fitted the staffs of the flags of the nations coöperating. It was not only a brilliant, a beautiful, and a colorful, but a moving sight. For so perfect was the balance of the weight of the flags that every breath of air that floated through the room caused them to move and mingle, and as I looked down from the gallery upon the delegates seated at the U-shaped table, I could not fail to notice that from time to time the different representatives would turn their eyes toward the galaxy of flags. Each man's eyes insensibly sought the flag of his own nation, but I am certain that no man there loved his flag any the less because it was in juxtaposition with flags of the other nations, but he loved it more, because he saw it in a position which denoted a symbolism of coöperative activity for human good.

THE RENUNCIATION OF WAR,

CHARLES E. MARTIN

Professor of Political Science and Dean of the Faculty of Social Science, University of Washington.

Head of the Department of Political Science at the University of Washington since 1925. Fellow in International Law at Columbia University in 1916-17, Carnegie Endowment Fellow in International Law in 1919; Member of the group of political scientists sent to Geneva by the Carnegie Endowment in the summer of 1925; Author of *Policy of the United States as Regards Intervention*, *An Outline of the American Government*, *The Politics of Peace*, and *Foundations of an Ordered World*.

No subject is so interesting today as the renunciation of war. The best and worst minds of the generation are giving their attention to it. There is a sincere desire to rescue society from its former condition of world anarchy, and to escape the enslavement of war. But there is also active a selfish, a pecuniary, a professional, and a sentimental interest. The minister, the peace crusader, the pacifist, the college professor, the statesman, the business man, and the laborer, have all come to the front as persons speaking with authority on this question. This is in itself a great achievement. But there is, withal, a confusion of ideas, a crossing of purposes, and a lack of understanding which bewilders the average citizen who seeks a way out but does not know whom to follow. For is not the competition of the peace interests like unto the feeling of adversaries contemplating war? Not all lack of reason in this movement may be laid at the door of the soldier. His solicitude for his calling is open and understood. He often has feelings which he cannot express about war and the peace movements. There is nothing more unfortunate than the rivalry between the professional representatives of competing peace organizations representing different interests, points of view, methods, and, therefore, competitors in the business of working for peace! There is needed a definition of ideas and policies, a clarification of issues, and a careful employment of the thinking process. Let us examine the institution of war, including the arguments for and against it, and the method of its renunciation.

It would be idle to contend that all the causes of wars have been unjust, although the method of settlement has been wrong. War has been too much a part of humanity and civilization to be completely evil. The arguments for war may be summarized under the following headings:

1. WAR AS A SPIRITUAL UNDERTAKING. War is often represented as a needed tonic for the human race. The cleansing fires of conflict are said to be good for a nation, which means a renewed loyalty, a common allegiance, and a common goal. Is there not a more fruitful way for the development of such civic virtues as leadership, courage, honor, and sturdiness of character?

2. **WAR HAS ALWAYS BEEN, THEREFORE ALWAYS WILL BE.** There is much force in this argument, for the influence of the past is always strong, and often, determining. The theory of the norm is ever arising to turn backward the clock of progress. We are too prone to direct the course of policy and government from the graveyard. Civilization has prospered as it has broken the shackles of the past and has dared to enter upon new and better courses of action. We have not become free by remaining slaves. To accept this argument as final is to accept war as a permanent institution.

3. **WAR MUST BE WAGED TO KEEP THE PEACE.** War has at times seemed the only way to resist the pretensions of inordinately ambitious states. But any means which is wrong in itself must affect in part the end or the cause, and all settlements must partake of the injustice of the means through which it is reached. The peace has been kept more by commerce, religion, and diplomacy than by war. War is now regarded as the last resort, after other settlements have failed. But all other methods of settlement adjust the difficulty and keep the peace. War may settle the point at issue, but it does not keep the peace. It rather destroys the peace. Indeed, it may not settle the difficulty. It may store up antagonism for future conflict. Like breeds like, and war breeds war.

4. **WAR IS GOOD BUSINESS.** There are some who hold to this theory. They stand to profit by war. The professional military classes share this view in part. A military atmosphere promotes a war atmosphere. The business of the soldier is to win wars. To make his profession worth while, he must have some wars to win. He exalts his calling, and seeks to identify the worthiness of the cause with the occupation which thrives on all causes of international difference, just and unjust. In this group may also be included certain business and commercial interests and the professional patriot whose allegiance does not go beyond the laudation of the military exploits of his country.

5. **THE "WAR" OR "POWER" THEORY OF THE STATE.** That the state is power, and that war is the legitimate means for its exercise, has led and will lead to conflict. The philosophy of Machiavelli and of Bismarck has set loose a chain of political thinking and writing in the world that has done an immense amount of harm. The issue then goes, not to the one whose cause is just, but whose battalions are the stronger. Majorities, parties, and parliaments are adjourned, and the great questions are settled by "blood and iron." The theorist who preaches this doctrine and the statesman who practices it lead states into wars.

6. **THE PEOPLE WANT WAR.** The war mind has its strongest grip when it dominates the thinking of the people of a country. Unless the people will to renounce it, the fight is lost. Only a defeat has been able to

release the grip of war on a people who are war-mad. And herein lies the injustice of the vicious cycle. A nation must be restrained because, first, it thinks war, and then acts war. The means of redress and the punitive elements, no matter how just, are still war.

We can now make a case against war as an institution. I have not contended that war can be abolished forthwith, or that its settlements have been just. I have tried to point out the flaws in the argument that it is essential, that it will always be, and that it has positive moral advantages. War is a colossal loss.

1. **WAR IS A SOCIAL LOSS.** The death of combatants and non-combatants is proof enough. The maimed and disabled, and their dependents become a heavy social charge against the state. The non-combatants are swept into the maelstrom of resulting social bankruptcy. The civilian population has become embraced in the war forces. Social disease is the result. Social problems follow, and the social suffering cannot be eradicated by any temporary prosperity. Moreover, the social effects are cumulative.

2. **WAR IS AN ECONOMIC LOSS.** Certain classes and interests prosper, but the most of society loses. War means the dislocation of the business and economic relationships which have been built up during peace times through steady, normal growth. War prosperity as we know too well, means the profiteer, high taxes, high prices, an inflated currency, and a peace-time depression. The state becomes in war a great industrial machine for the production of things which destroy rather than create. The history of peace has long enough been that of restoring the economic losses of war.

3. **WAR IS A POLITICAL LOSS.** The normal business of the state is to promote the good and the welfare of its members. In war, it must forget this, and promote its own interests, fancied and real, at the expense of others. It often means the restriction of political and civil liberty, the suspension of basic rights, and the adoption of a policy of intolerance. A formerly orderly relationship becomes one founded on force. Rights of neutrals are set aside. The derangement of the state in its international relations must follow. The positive acts of the state for social and economic good must be set aside, while every state activity must be directed to the purpose of war. A war, inevitably based on force, will lead to a peace based on force and conquest.

4. **WAR IS AN INTELLECTUAL LOSS.** It means a colossal waste of thought. Universities and colleges are turned from their usual business of education to train men for conflict. Social thinking is not only deranged, but is often destroyed. Propaganda is let loose in the name of truth, and one is forced to bide his time until peace comes, in order to view things in their per-

spective. Prejudice, suspicion, and distrust never furnished a proper foundation for the discovery of truth. The scientists, ordinarily engaged in discoveries for the benefit of mankind, direct their energies towards the discovery of great engines of destruction. There is needed a scientific as well as a mental disarmament. After a war is over, it takes a generation for sanity to displace illusions in the thinking of a nation.

5. **WAR IS A MORAL AND SPIRITUAL LOSS.** If history teaches a lesson, settlements made by the sword have been ended by the sword. Supervised and organized hatred displaces cordial coöperation and good will. From this hate results a warping and coloring of moral judgments of our neighbors. The great spiritual elements which are the pride of our civilization have come, not from war, but from peace; not from subjugation, but from persuasion. Even a just cause for war does not remove the spiritual loss which is entailed. Someone must be good enough to forgive another's evil; and love enough to overcome another's hate, if the vicious cycle of conflict is to be brought to an end.

Certain measures have been tried in the good work of war renunciation which have not worked and will not work. An enumeration of them may be of some help in the present situation.

1. **WAR CANNOT BE RENOUNCED BY RESOLUTION.** The American people are afflicted with the habit of resolving. It is far better to discuss and explain the issues of the day on their merits, than to emphasize the controversial element too strongly. There is as much conviction and more good in a dispassionate examination of facts as in a body of resolutions which are seldom read after the report of the committee on resolutions has been read. We must do more than resolve.

2. **WAR CANNOT BE OUTLAWED BY A SLOGAN.** We were moved a generation ago by the slogan, "the evangelization of the world in this generation." The suspicions of the un-Christian world have increased rather than diminished, and we must admit that the slogan was not within a realizable program. Mr. Kirby Page has said that we can, if we choose, outlaw war in this generation. Let us guard against sloganizing in our work for peace. It is the work of accretion, not of avulsion; of evolution, not of revolution.

3. **WAR CANNOT BE OUTLAWED MERELY BY TREATY.** It is well to renounce. It is also well to work at the task of renunciation. Treaties must be confirmed by the solid opinion of the peoples of the world. Moral sanction must precede, and, if possible, displace the sanction of force.

4. **WAR CANNOT BE OUTLAWED BY WAITING TO CHANGE THE HEARTS OF MEN.** It is a practical question, and we must work at the job. We must

be about our Father's business. We must attack the problem from all angles and through every possible channel. There is no golden road to peace.

How may war be renounced? First, by ratifying the Kellogg peace pact. But it is only a step. There is necessary now a positive program of peace which will realize the purposes and objects of the anti-war treaty. The points in this program should be:

1. A DIVORCEMENT OF MILITARISM FROM POLITICS. We have in international law the law of peace and the law of war. We need a definitive politics of peace. The control of the military authorities by the civil, now happily so in most democracies, should become universal.

2. DIPLOMACY SHOULD BE RESTORED TO ITS POSITION AS A PROCESS OF PEACE. The foreign office is not an appendage of the war department. The diplomatic service is not a series of military outposts. The soldier is taught to strike; the diplomat to persuade. When trouble comes, the soldier would strike, but the diplomat would negotiate. The diplomatic mind should control.

3. A TECHNIQUE SHOULD BE DEVELOPED WHICH WILL ABSORB THE WILL TO CONFLICT AND TO FIGHT. This is the purpose of the Institute of Pacific Relations. A channel of controversy by amicable methods is needed. The tendency to differ, and to support our differences is not an evil altogether.

4. SOCIAL CONTROL SHOULD BE DEVELOPED IN KEEPING WITH SCIENTIFIC ADVANCE. The laboratories have outdistanced the social sciences in the matter of discovery. Social discovery must displace scientific discovery, which has placed in our hands the instruments of our own destruction. The answer is free thought and social truth, which is now and has always been the "solvent of despotism and the stimulus of progress."

5. WAR MUST BE MADE IMPOLITIC THROUGH RENUNCIATION. This may be done through treaties and other positive ways. Like prohibition, it will have its difficulties and inconveniences, but it will be worth the inconvenience to live up to it.

6. WAR MUST BE MADE ILLEGAL AS WELL AS IMPOLITIC, AND NOT ONLY AS A MEANS OF INFLECTING AN INJURY, BUT AS A MEANS OF REDRESSING ONE. To this end, the determination of causes and the fixing and enforcement of penalties cannot be for all time left in the hands of the contending parties.

War should be made illegal, except (1) in support of a duly ascertained legal right; and (2) self-defense.

7. THERE SHOULD BE ESTABLISHED IN INTERNATIONAL LAW A UNIVERSAL STANDARD OF CONDUCT, INTERNATIONALLY RECOGNIZED. This means

the codification of international law. There will always be different interpretations of international law. The difficulty is that the nations have often not interpreted the same thing. And the standard of conduct for one should be the standard for all.

8. THE CATEGORY OF JUSTICIABLE QUESTIONS MUST BE ENLARGED, AND THAT OF NON-JUSTICIABLE QUESTIONS MUST BE DIMINISHED. The exceptions of national honor, vital interests, and sovereignty have opened the way to war. These exceptions must be revised downward rather than upward.

9. THE LIMITATION OF ARMAMENT BY ATTRITION AND AGREEMENT MUST CONTINUE. Absolute disarmament, or limitation by example is hardly possible. Recent failures to agree should not discourage us. One failure may lead to a great success.

10. THE RIGHTS OF NEUTRALS IN MARITIME WAR MUST BE REDEFINED. Senator Borah's plan for a conference on this question is timely. We went to war to defend our neutral rights. Must we inevitably do so?

11. THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE MUST BE REORGANIZED. In keeping with the peace needs of the people, and the growing democratization of foreign policy through popular control, the Department of State must be reorganized. The agency of diplomatic intercourse must articulate with the policy-determining authority,—the people.

12. WE MUST REFUSE TO LOSE THE ISSUE IN A BATTLE BETWEEN SOCIAL CATEGORIES AND SOCIAL ATTITUDES. The peace question is greater than any party, faith, group, class, or interest. I refuse to be catalogued as a pacifist or militarist. We must not be "tagged" in our thinking, but must seek the truth, which will make us free.

The Kellogg pact for the renunciation of war merely renounces war as an instrument of national policy, by its first article, and by its second, affirms that only peaceful means shall be sought as a settlement or solution of all disputes or conflicts, whatever their nature or origin. Thus, in two brief articles of 78 words, it is proposed that the nations of the world, including the United States, take the most advanced step yet taken in the entire history of the amicable settlement of international disputes.

Opposition to the treaty comes from Professor E. M. Borchard of Yale University. He declared at Williamstown that the reservations of the nations accepted by Mr. Kellogg do not renounce war, but really sanction certain forms of conflict formerly accepted by jurists as existing, but not necessarily as legal. Such wars include, he said, wars of self-defense, with each nation the judge of what constitutes such a war; wars under the League of Nations and under the Locarno treaties; wars under the French

treaties of alliance; and wars growing out of England's interests. Let us dispose of these arguments.

First, the habit to reserve is more American than European. Having exercised this right so much ourselves, we must, since we champion the pact, give the reservations of the European states a respectful hearing.

Second, they are only reservations, and not amendments, and may be easily changed, if they are or become unwise or unjust, or if they legitimize certain forms of conflict.

Third, the reservations are necessary to secure agreement to the pact. Without the ratification of England, France, and Germany, it would be as if no pact had been negotiated. We must offer a treaty which the nations will sign. Then the good of the treaty will counterbalance the bad of the reservations.

Fourth, the exceptions contained in the reservations, to which Mr. Borchard objects, concern the operation of sanctions which in the main grow out of instruments for the maintenance of peace. This especially is true of the League covenant and the Locarno pacts.

Fifth, while wars of self-defense may appear to be legalized, it is legitimization in its least objectionable form. Then, the positive reunciation of other forms of war, the main object of the treaty, must be borne steadily in mind.

Sixth, all great movements have met with constitutional and legal objections from persons born in the objective case. The pact must not be lost under the weight of ponderous legal discussion. The people appear to want a formal and written renunciation of war. We must take what we can get now. The pact, through its sheer merit, will survive legal difficulties and the so-called neutralizing exceptions.

What are the positive advantages of this pact? They are:

First, it is so clearly and simply stated that he who runs may read, and he who reflects may understand. The simplicity of the pact has a tremendous advantage for the people of the world, who, after all, have to fight the wars, pay for them, and suffer the inevitable consequences of conflict.

Second, it is a *renunciation* rather than an *outlawry*. The latter is an admission of existing legality, and is because of its legal implications, a more limited means of striking at war. The former is an effort to cast war as a public act into the outer darkness. It is a rifle aim at the heart, and not a shotgun aim at the hand or foot.

Third, war is renounced as a policy, and as an instrument of national policy, and not only as a legal process. This is a frank recognition that the greatest danger to international peace lies in the field of policy rather than

in the field of law or administration. Laws have a certain rigidity and continuity because of their definiteness and their sanction. Administration becomes formalized through practice. Policy is from its very nature subject to constant mutation, and is consequently not subject to the limits and restraints of law. The nations are, indeed, renouncing as a policy something which they have not been able to outlaw. The problem is attacked in its dangerous and vulnerable field. The way is opened for a politics of peace.

Fourth, for once, a moral and a legal obligation in international relations, have been made to coincide. Briand declared that the legitimacy of war had been juridically destroyed, and its place in international ethics taken away. Ethics and law must go hand in hand, or one is an empty abstraction, and the other a mere form.

Fifth, the usual exceptions which have nullified the effectiveness of past understandings are absent. It is true that certain exceptions are recognized. But the old terms of national honor, sovereignty, jurisdiction, independence, and integrity, and other covering terms which could be made to include anything any nation was willing to fight for, have been left out. The old method of devitalizing treaties of peace and arbitration is discarded in this case.

Sixth, the treaty is comprehensive enough to include and to discourage war, not alone as a means of inflicting an injury, but also as a means of redressing one. There has been too free and frequent use of war as a means of satisfaction and punishment. War must, in the long run, be renounced even by nations having just cause for complaint. The pact has the advantage of placing war in the background as a remedial measure. The treaty, as I read it, is a solemn charge upon the foreign departments to prevent conflicts from getting to the state of war.

THE PLACE OF WOMEN'S ORGANIZATIONS IN INTERNATIONAL PEACE ✓

ALICE AMES WINTER

President of the General Federation of Women's Clubs from 1920-24. Author of: *The Prize to the Hardy*; *Jewel-Weed*; *The Business of Being a Club Woman*; and *The Heritage of Woman*.

Some seven hundred odd years before Christ, a gang of young toughs set out to found a new city. It was wholly a masculine performance. They ran short of wives. Naturally, they remedied the situation by the then accredited method of stealing girls from their neighbors; and inevitably the result, after due preparation on both sides, was war, little battle line against little battle line, with all the panoply of shield and sword, until suddenly, with a whirl of stolas, the pilfered wives threw themselves between fathers and husbands, lifting high the new born babies, the link between them all, and fathers threw down their weapons to embrace the just-hated sons-in-law. This was the first pacifist movement started by organized women. Not only was it immediately successful, but it resulted in a League of Nations between the two insignificant groups, Romans and Sabines, who joined in establishing what was one day to become the mighty city of Rome. And to the eternal memory of the part played by their wives, they instituted a "Mothers' Day," "Matronalia," when once a year Romans remembered the part played by heroic women in creating the imperial-minded town. Proud, dignified, the matrons made a festival of that day before Juno, and husbands gave gifts to wives.

The long story of women, their organization into groups of themselves, and their growing consciousness of bigger and bigger elements in their personal concerns, reveal certain sex emphasis, not sex differences in fundamentals, but certainly differences of emphasis.

From cave days, the individual has been woman's chief interest, whether it was the baby lying in her arms or her man lying wounded on the battlefield. She has been jeered at because she is always "personal." She could not see vast principles. Today she is still seeing persons, always persons, and her public work, whether it touches industry, philanthropy, government, or international affairs, is still colored by the desire to humanize conditions. I suppose *humanize* means, when you come down to it, the endeavor to adjust great and widespread conditions to the small needs of differing individuals. The things into which women throw themselves with new passion and power are those that touch them to the quick in this characteristic view point. They would transform institutions to make them

human instead of mere machinery. They demand of industry that it shall remould itself to fit human needs instead of grinding the worker to the mould of the machine. Libraries and parks and playgrounds, hogs and corn; yes, but also babies and mothers. But all alone how can a woman touch the mighty forces that control our common life? So one beckons to another to come in and help. Since her own home is no longer a spot intimate and remote from the rest of the world, since society and government are rushing in upon her brood all the time, it becomes necessary for women to try to influence society and government so that they shall build that public order that serves the individual. Hence the great women's organizations that fill our land.

I have never been among those who would array one sex against another. The world is a joint job for both kinds of us, and this woman's emphasis on the individual and the personal is the supplement, and perhaps the balance wheel for man's genius for administration on a great scale. But each sex takes a subtle delight in poking fun at the idiosyncracies of the other, and when we women are reminded of our small follies, perhaps we may reply that the supreme follies of a still foolish world are war, gambling, drunkenness, and they are all characteristically masculine follies; only we do not call them follies—that would be to belittle masculine superiority. We dignify them by more important nomenclature.

But true to the trend of their nature and true to the new impulse that has brought them into vast organized groups, women are war-haters. War hurts a million of those human lives that are women's particular charge.

There has never been a subject upon which the organized women of America have been so roused to public consciousness as in the matter of constructive methods looking towards the substitution of law and order for lawlessness and war. The interest is spontaneous. There is no need for "propaganda." And it has rapidly swung beyond that mere emotionalism with which it began and which has gone into the discard along with that once much-heard phrase that has justified stupidity if it only desired right. Desire does not get us anywhere unless clear and straight thinking goes with it. A good many of the worst blunders and the most cruel inhumanities of the old world came from people who thought they were doing the Lord's work, but did not take the trouble to try and think His thoughts. So women's organizations are rapidly learning that mere emotionalism is impotent when it comes to the matters of international understanding. There can be no progress if we content ourselves with whining for peace. For this single problem involves all the problems and differences and misunderstandings and greeds of many nations, the distorted minds and bodies that have come from the World War along with its economic maladjustments. We have to respect the many minds of many races and find the common

mind that lies below them all. We have to study the tools that can be used to create peace and the conditions under which those tools can be used. Each in her own community and each according to her own genius, women are trying to create the kind of public that searches for truth and acts with power, without partisan hatred, without prejudices, and without small antagonism.

The women of this twentieth century are more and more aware of the close interlinking of nations in all matters that pertain to life, commerce, industry. Swift means of communication have wiped out isolation and given us those problems of close contacts with alien minds, with the resultant frictions, those problems of big business, race for raw materials, markets, and distribution that may be the means of understanding or of misunderstanding, according to how and in what spirit we use them.

Women, however, are usually passionately patriotic, even in the old sense of that much discussed word. Therefore, as a rule, they resent that other debated attitude called pacifism. American women are inclined to resent any movements that would impair the strength and virility of the United States. Only a hero can achieve. They hold that a heroic nation, a mighty and cohesive nation, a people that bears itself calmly and serenely in its power, can lead this tragic world towards a finer life together. Liberty enlightening the world has to be made of stalwart stuff and be placed securely on her pedestal.

PROBLEMS OF FOOD AND POPULATION,

Summary of Round Table

M. M. SKINNER

Professor of Business Administration, University of Washington

In the Round Table on Problems of Food and Population many important questions were raised. The members participated in a spirited and interesting discussion on such vital topics as: Is the world population increasing absolutely? relatively? Is the food supply increasing and to what extent? If the population depends upon the food supply, what can be done to remedy (1) the excess in population and (2) the insufficiency of food? What international frictions are due to the distribution of food areas and the difficulty of access to them by some nations? What obstacles are there to a rational distribution of the food stuffs, or to access to food areas on the part of needy nations? How is the population optimum to be arrived at; that is, that size of population that will best conduce to the comfort, progress, civilization, and happiness of the whole people of a country? In other words, what is the most desirable population ratio, or ratio between population and consumption of goods?

These problems were outlined by Dr. M. M. Skinner or suggested by other members of the Round Table in the course of its first session on the morning of December tenth.

It was agreed that certain sociologists, vital statisticians, and food experts recognized the real eventual menace of an ever increasing birth rate or decrease in death rates, or rather the increase in the excess of births over deaths, owing to the general truth of the tendency of food supply to linger behind population. The physical limitation to the area of arable land on the earth's surface and the law of diminishing returns in agriculture seem to set definite bounds to the food supply, and so to justify the so-called Malthusian tendency, even after granting the benefit of various devices for extending the amount of productive land through utilizing now unused lands, reclaiming others, or enlarging the product from the present tilled land by more intensive methods. Either the familiar "checks" to population increase will eventually operate or some method of voluntary birth control will have to prevail.

Many economists and scientists on the other hand take an optimistic view of the future, trusting to the potentialities of scientific invention and mass production. Checks to population, either voluntary or involuntary, some assert, are already operating, as is evident from the fact that population is stationary or declining in certain centers of Western Europe.

On Tuesday, Mr. Walter Peck opened the discussion with some remarks on Mr. O. E. Baker's suggestion embodied in a recent article on "Agriculture and the Future of China." The development of manufacturing on a large scale in China is advocated to bring many of the small farmers into the cities, making possible the introduction of machine methods in agriculture with the resulting crops of greater size or improved quality, and yet without causing any serious social or economic problem.

The discussion drifted again into the channel of the food-population ratio, both terms of which are variable. In the matter of population, the birth rate, death rate, and sex ratio are all important. In determining the right food-population ratio, the question of what constitutes the right standard of living arises. It was decided that the ideal ratio would be that which could provide for the highest per capita consumption consistent with high biological results. A good minimum standard is more important than a high standard aimed at for the whole but only capable of being attained by the few. Considerations of eugenics also enter into the problem, for with selective breeding the mental and physical standards to be striven for should accord with the possibilities of satisfying the demands of the types bred. It was further suggested that reaching the point of diminishing returns in agriculture and industry might indicate that the right ratio of food and population had been reached in a given area. It was thought that the point of diminishing returns in agriculture at least had already been reached in the United States.

On Wednesday, December twelfth, Dr. Thomas J. Orbison, who had been Chief of the Latvian Section of the Baltic Mission of the American Relief Administration in 1919 to 1920, gave a very interesting description of his experiences in mass feeding of the child population of Latvia and its bearing on mass psychology. The results in the elimination of prevalent diseases, in the preservation of the children's lives, and in improving their weight and general health were striking. The influence of this work was very apparent in its effect on political and social stabilization in that area, Dr. Orbison showed in the first part of the Thursday session of the Round Table.

In the closing hour of this period, Dr. Glenn E. Hoover led the discussion on various questions which had arisen in the earlier sessions of the Round Table. He directed attention to Robert R. Kucynski's article on "The World's Population," in *Foreign Affairs* for October, 1928, which indicates that if the birth and death rates now obtaining in the countries of northern and western Europe should continue, the population of these countries is doomed to gradual extinction. There is as yet an excess of births over deaths, but this is possible only because the age distribution of the population is abnormal in that there is now a relatively small number of

the very young and the very old and consequently the death rate is lower than can possibly be maintained. The net reproduction rate is now lower in England than in any other country in Europe and the birth rate in Berlin is the lowest among European cities, and undoubtedly within a few decades the population of both Germany and France will be stationary.

The conclusions of the Round Table might be summed up as follows: The problem of food and population is essentially one of finding the proper relation that should exist between the two if mankind is to obtain the maximum of happiness; and it is idle to speculate, as some experts have done, on the maximum number of people that could be alive in the world under the minimum-of-existence standard. What we should seek to determine in each country is the quantitative optimum of population for that country, and then by encouraging or discouraging immigration and high birth rates, we should endeavor to maintain the population at that point in so far as it may be possible.

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THE RESIDENT ALIEN PROBLEM OF THE SOUTHWEST

Summary of Round Table ✓

GLENN E. HOOVER

Professor of Economics and Sociology, Mills College

Professor Emory S. Bogardus of the University of Southern California, joint leader of the Round Table, outlined the problem; it was agreed by the members that attention should be confined to the Mexicans and the Orientals. As a result, the first three sessions were devoted to the Mexicans and the final session to the Orientals.

Attention was called to the small percentage of the Mexican immigrants who were interested in becoming citizens. Professor Bogardus reported that the Mexican population of the Belvedere district near Los Angeles was estimated at nearly 40,000 and fewer than 300 were registered. The Mexican immigrant shows little interest in voting and seems to prefer to retain his Mexican citizenship so that he can have the protection of the Mexican consuls in disputes that arise over wages or terms of employment. Instances were cited where native born Mexicans had sought to relinquish their American citizenship so that they might claim such protection and advice.

It was suggested that so long as the Mexicans were so little informed on political matters it was probably ill-advised to artificially stimulate their acquisition of American citizenship and suffrage, and that efforts should be confined to increasing their level of political intelligence. It was reported that in some of the communities where, in a short time, there will be a majority of native born Americans, the "whites" would resent general participation in politics by the Mexicans.

The Mexicans were reported as generally lacking a desire for any education beyond the ability to speak or read English. A negligible proportion of Mexican pupils continue beyond the elementary grades; and those who do continue find difficulty in obtaining any employment other than agricultural and unskilled work.

Many of the delegates favored some sort of restriction of Mexican immigration although it was pointed out that exclusion of the Chinese and Japanese lulled the public into the false belief that exclusion solved all the problems with respect to a given class of immigrants, whereas, in fact, because of the presence of those already admitted and the increase of the native born, most of the problems were still present. This seemed particularly evident in the case of the Japanese and Chinese, who, because they were largely precluded from agriculture by the operation of the Alien Land Laws, found themselves confined to cities where some of them were drifting

into the operation of gambling halls and other forms of commercialized vice. It was contended that in every case where this was true, they were protected if not encouraged by certain American landlords or those charged with law enforcement. It was alleged that one case had occurred where the Japanese residents of a community had tried to rid themselves of Japanese engaged in such objectionable employments, but were thwarted in every way by local officers of the law, and finally resorted to the federal immigration officers who effected the deportation of the undesirables.

Some delegates complained of the injustice of such laws and of the harsh way in which they are administered. When native born Japanese, entitled to purchase farms, do so with the aid of their parents, suits are brought to invalidate the purchase on the ground that they are but subterfuges which would permit the alien Japanese parents to acquire land in violation of law.

Considerable discussion was directed to the lack of employment outlets for the college trained Japanese and Chinese. Dr. Harvey H. Guy reported the existence of a committee of the San Francisco Chamber of Commerce, which was working on the problem in the hope that the situation would be improved if some of the trained Japanese could be located in the East or Middle West, where prejudice was less developed. He also called attention to the way in which some communities opposed the erection of churches for the use of the Oriental Christians on the ground that neighboring land values would be lowered. It was reported that in Berkeley some land owners were seeking by joint agreement to prevent the use of their premises as lodging and rooming houses for non-white students, and that the enlarged use of such covenants running with the land might result in racial segregation, even though such segregation by ordinance or state law would be illegal. Clauses of a similar nature were reported in the deeds to property now being sold near the new site of the University of California at Los Angeles.

There was some discussion to the effect that a final "solution" of the racial problems would be attained only if and when biological assimilation had taken place, so that the divergent racial elements would be fused into a common stock. Other members thought that such speculation as to the ultimate outcome of the proximity of two or more races was of no use when considering the immediate and practical problems confronting our generation. They contended that most, if not all, the racial prejudice could be overcome by education and the application of Christian ethics.

The presence of so many Japanese at the Round Table was a source of gratification to all, and the wish was expressed that in the future when such problems are considered representatives of the Chinese and the Mexicans might be present.

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THE KELLOGG PEACE PACTS
Summary of Round Table ✓

PROFESSOR CHARLES E. MARTIN
University of Washington

Leaders: CHARLES E. MARTIN, Dean of the Faculty of Social Science, University of Washington; K. C. LEEBRICK, Professor of International Relations, Syracuse University.

The first day of the Round Table was spent in a study of the background of the Pact for the Renunciation of War. This study included (1) an examination of certain theoretical questions which were deemed necessary to a consideration of the Pact, (2) a study of the sanctions provisions of the Covenant of the League of Nations, (3) an examination of the Draft Treaty of Mutual Assistance, (4) an examination of the Geneva Protocol, and (5) a study of the Locarno agreements.

The wide range of these subjects, of course, made impossible any but a cursory examination of their provisions and a brief discussion of their significance and import. Nevertheless, each of these subjects was regarded as a definite part of the chain of circumstances and events which led to the Pact for the Renunciation of War.

I. THEORETICAL INTRODUCTION

The following questions were presented by the leader of the Round Table as a basis for introductory discussion:

1. Does the state have a fundamental right to self-preservation and existence?
2. Is this right a corollary of the legal equality of states?
3. Is the actual enjoyment of this right conditioned upon the physical power of the individual states?
4. What are the fundamental rights of states?
5. What are their fundamental duties?
6. May the right of existence extend to the renunciation of treaties? If so, to what extent?
7. May it extend to an attack of an innocent and neutral third state?
8. May it extend to the violation of the so-called laws of war, under the doctrine of necessity?
9. Does the doctrine of existence and self-preservation outlaw offensive measures and wars?
10. Does it legitimize measures of self-protection and self-defense?

II. THE SANCTIONS PROVISIONS OF THE COVENANT

The sanctions provisions of the Covenant of the League of Nations were outlined and their possible relation to the provisions of the Renunciation of War Pact were discussed. A digest of these provisions is as follows:

ARTICLE 8. DISARMAMENT. Provides for the eventual reduction of armaments to the lowest point consistent with national safety and the enforcement by common action of international obligations.

Council shall, taking into account geographical situations and circumstances in each state, formulate plans for the consideration and action of the several governments.

Revision every ten years.

Private manufacture of arms open to objection (grave). Prevention of evil effects.

League members agree to exchange freely the strength of armaments, of military, naval and air programs, and of the condition of industries suited for war purposes.

ARTICLE 10. TERRITORIAL INTEGRITY. Members to respect and preserve as against external aggression the territorial and existing political independence of all members of the League. In case of aggression or threat, council shall advise on means of fulfilling this obligation.

ARTICLE 11. Any war or threat of war, whether affecting directly the members of the League or not, is a matter of concern to the whole League. The League may take any action which is wise and effectual to safeguard the peace of nations.

Any state member of the League may bring to attention of the assembly or council any circumstances affecting international relations which threaten to disturb international peace or good understanding between the nations.

ARTICLE 12. Members agree that in case of a dispute likely to lead to a rupture, they will submit matter to arbitration or judicial settlement, or to inquiry of council. Not to resort to war until three months after award, or council report.

Award shall be in reasonable time, and council shall report in six months.

ARTICLE 13. Judiciable disputes shall be referred to arbitration or judicial settlement. Such disputes shall be:

Interpretation of a treaty.

Any question of international law.

Any fact constituting the breach of an international obligation.

Nature and extent of reparation for such breach.

Such tribunal shall be World Court, or any tribunal agreed upon by the parties.

Members agree to carry out such decision or award in good faith, and not to resort to war against a complying member of the League.

Council shall propose how to deal with violations.

ARTICLE 15. Any dispute not submitted to arbitration or judicial settlement shall be referred to the Council.

Statement of case shall be made to Secretary-General.

Council shall attempt settlement and report details of adjustment. If not settled, Council shall make report on case together with recommendations for procedure.

Member state may publish publicly a statement of its case.

Member states will not go to war with states complying with its recommendations, if they are unanimous (from disinterested states).

In case of no acceptable recommendations, coming from Council, the members of the League reserve the right to take such action as necessary for maintenance of justice and right.

If the Council finds that the dispute is one of domestic character only, and within the power of one state, no action shall be taken.

Council may refer dispute to Assembly, and must do so at the request of the parties to the dispute, if made within fourteen days after dispute has been submitted to Council.

In this case, all foregoing provisions governing the settlement by the Council shall apply to the assembly settlement, exclusive of the parties to the dispute.

ARTICLE 16. Any member resorting to war in violation of articles 12, 13 or 15 has *ipso facto* committed war against all other members of the League, is subject to severance of trade or financial relations, prohibition of intercourse between nationals and nationals of the covenant-breaking state; and prevention of financial, personal, or commercial intercourse between the guilty state and all other nationals, whether members of the League or not.

Council shall recommend to governments what forces are necessary to protect the covenants of the League.

Members agree to support these retaliatory measures; to resist jointly such measures directed against one or all of the League members; and shall allow the passage of troops through territory to protect covenants of the League.

Any member state violating the covenants of the League may be expelled by vote of the Council.

ARTICLE 19. Assembly may recommend the revision of treaties which have become inapplicable, and the consideration of international conditions whose continuance might endanger the peace of the world.

III. THE DRAFT TREATY OF MUTUAL ASSISTANCE

The essential provisions of the Draft Treaty of Mutual Assistance were considered briefly as the basis for the Geneva Protocol and as an example of how failure in one negotiation may reasonably lead to success in another. The pertinent articles of this draft treaty considered by the members of the Round Table were as follows:

ARTICLE 1

PACT OF NONAGGRESSION

The High Contracting Parties solemnly declare that aggressive war is an international crime and severally undertake that no one of them will be guilty of its commission.

A war shall not be considered as a war of aggression if waged by a State which is party to a dispute and has accepted the unanimous recommendation of the Council, the verdict of the Permanent Court of International Justice, or an arbitral award against a High Contracting Party which has not accepted it, provided, however, that the first State does not intend to violate the political independence or the territorial integrity of the High Contracting Parties.

ARTICLE 2

GENERAL ASSISTANCE

The High Contracting Parties, jointly and severally, undertake to furnish assistance, in accordance with the provisions of the present Treaty, to any one of their number should the latter be the object of a war of aggression, provided that it has conformed to the provisions of the present Treaty regarding the reduction or limitation of armaments.

ARTICLE 3

MENACE OF AGGRESSION

In the event of one of the High Contracting Parties being of opinion that the armaments of any other High Contracting Party are in excess of the limits fixed for the latter High Contracting Party under the provisions of the present Treaty, or in the event of it having cause to apprehend an outbreak of hostilities, either on account of the aggressive policy or preparations of any State party or not to the present Treaty, it may inform the Secretary-General of the League of Nations that it is threatened with aggression, and the Secretary-General shall forthwith summon the Council.

The Council, if it is of opinion that there is reasonable ground for thinking that a menace of aggression has arisen, may take all necessary measures to remove such menace, and in particular, if the Council thinks right, those indicated in sub-paragraphs (a), (b), (c), (d), and (e) of the second paragraph of Article 5 of the present Treaty.

The High Contracting Parties which have been denounced and those which have stated themselves to be the object of a threat of aggression shall be considered as especially interested and shall therefore be invited to send representatives to the Council in conformity with Articles 4, 15, and 17 of the Covenant. The vote of their representatives shall, however, not be reckoned when calculating unanimity.

ARTICLE 4

HOSTILITIES

In the event of one or more of the High Contracting Parties becoming engaged in hostilities, the Council of the League of Nations shall decide, within four days of notification being addressed to the Secretary-General, which of the High Contracting Parties are the objects of aggression and whether they are entitled to claim the assistance provided under the Treaty.

The High Contracting Parties undertake that they will accept such a decision by Council of the League of Nations.

The High Contracting Parties engaged in hostilities shall be regarded as especially interested, and shall therefore be invited to send representatives to the Council (within the terms of Articles 4, 13, and 17 of the Covenant), the vote of their representative not being reckoned when calculating unanimity; the same shall apply to States signature to any partial agreements involved on behalf of either of the two belligerents, unless the remaining Members of the Council shall decide otherwise.

ARTICLE 5

MEASURES OF ASSISTANCE

The High Contracting Parties undertake to furnish one another mutually with assistance in the case referred to in Article 2 of the Treaty in the form determined by the Council of the League of Nations as the most effective, and to take all ap-

appropriate measures without delay in the order of urgency demanded by the circumstances.

In particular, the Council may:

- (a) Decide to apply immediately to the aggressor State the economic sanctions contemplated by Article 16 of the Covenant, the Members of the League not signature to the present Treaty not being, however, bound by this decision, except in the case where the State attacked is entitled to avail itself of the Articles of the Covenant;
- (b) invoke by name the High Contracting Parties whose assistance it requires. No High Contracting Party situated in a continent other than that in which operations will take place shall, in principle, be required to coöperate in military, naval, or air operations;
- (c) determine the forces which each State furnishing assistance shall place at its disposal;
- (d) prescribe all necessary measures for securing priority for the communications and transport connected with the operations;
- (e) prepare a plan for financial coöperation among the High Contracting Parties with a view to providing for the State attacked and for the States furnishing assistance the funds which they require for the operations;
- (f) appoint the Higher Command and establish the object and nature of his duty.

The representatives of States recognized as aggressors under the provisions of Article 4 of the Treaty shall not take part in the deliberations of the Council specified in this Article. The High Contracting Parties who are required by the Council to furnish assistance, in accordance with sub-paragraph (b), shall, on the other hand, be considered as especially interested, and, as such, shall be invited to send representatives, unless they are already represented, to the deliberations specified in sub-paragraphs (c), (d), (e), and (f).

IV. THE GENEVA PROTOCOL

Professor Graham Stewart of Stanford University presented a summary of the essential provisions of the Geneva Protocol and stressed especially the importance of the definition of a war of aggression. The articles of the Geneva Protocol presented by Professor Stewart and considered by the Round Table are as follows:

ARTICLE I

The signatory States undertake to make every effort in their power to secure the introduction into the Covenant of amendments on the lines of the provisions contained in the following articles.

They agree that, as between themselves, these provisions shall be binding as from the coming into force of the present Protocol and that, so far as they are concerned, the Assembly and the Council of the League of Nations shall thenceforth have power to exercise all the rights and perform all the duties conferred upon them by the Protocol.

ARTICLE 2

The signatory States agree in no case to resort to war either with one another or against a State which, if the occasion arises, accepts all the obligations hereinafter set out, except in case of resistance to acts of aggression or when acting in agreement with the Council or the Assembly of the League of Nations in accordance with the provisions of the Covenant and of the present Protocol.

ARTICLE 3

The signatory States undertake to recognize as compulsory, *ipso facto* and without special agreement, the jurisdiction of the Permanent Court of International Justice in the cases covered by paragraph 2 of Article 36 of the Statute of the Court, but without prejudice to the right of any State, when acceding to the special protocol provided for in the said Article and opened for signature on December 16th, 1920, to make reservations compatible with the said clause.

Accession to this special protocol, opened for signature on December 16th, 1920, must be given within the month following the coming into force of the present Protocol.

States which accede to the present Protocol, after its coming into force, must carry out the above obligation within the month following their accession.

ARTICLE 4

With a view to render more complete the provisions of paragraphs 4, 5, 6, and 7 of Article 15 of the Covenant, the signature States agree to comply with the following procedure:

1. If the dispute submitted to the Council is not settled by it as provided in paragraph 3 of the said Article 15, the Council shall endeavor to persuade the parties to submit the dispute to judicial settlement or arbitration.
2. (a) If the parties cannot agree to do so, at the request of at least one of the parties, there shall be constituted a Committee of Arbitrators. The Committee shall so far as possible be constituted by agreement between the parties.
(b) If within the period fixed by the Council the parties have failed to agree, in whole or in part, upon the number, the names, and the powers of the arbitrators and upon the procedure, the Council shall settle the points remaining in suspense. It shall with the utmost possible dispatch select in consultation with the parties the arbitrators and their President and from among persons who by their nationality, their personal character, and their experience, appear to it to furnish the highest guarantees of competence and impartiality.
(c) After the claims of the parties have been formulated, the Committee of Arbitrators, on the request of any party, shall through the medium of the Council request an advisory opinion upon any points of law in dispute from the Permanent Court of International Justice, which in such case shall meet with the utmost possible dispatch.
3. If none of the parties asks for arbitration, the Council shall again take the dispute under consideration. If the Council reaches a report which is unanimously agreed to by the members thereof other than the representatives of any of the parties to the dispute, the signatory States agree to comply with the recommendations therein.

4. If the Council fails to reach a report which is concurred in by all its members, other than the representatives of any of the parties to the dispute, it shall submit the dispute to arbitration. It shall itself determine the composition, the powers, and the procedure of the Committee of Arbitrators and, in the choice of the arbitrators, shall bear in mind the guarantees of competence and impartiality referred to in paragraph 2 (b) above.
5. In no case may a solution, upon which there has already been a unanimous recommendation of the Council accepted by one of the parties concerned, be again called in question.
6. The signatory States undertake that they will carry out in full good faith any judicial sentence or arbitral award that may be rendered and that they will comply, as provided in paragraph 3 above, with the solutions recommended by the Council. In the event of a State failing to carry out the above undertakings, the Council shall exert all its influence to secure compliance therewith. If it fails therein, it shall propose what steps should be taken to give effect thereto, in accordance with the provision contained at the end of Article 13 of the Covenant. Should a State in disregard of the above undertakings resort to war, the sanctions provided for by Article 16 of the Covenant, interpreted in the manner indicated in the present Protocol, shall immediately become applicable to it.
7. The provisions of the present article do not apply to the settlement of disputes which arise as the result of measures of war taken by one or more signatory States in agreement with the Council or the Assembly.

ARTICLE 8

The signatory States undertake to abstain from any act which might constitute a threat of aggression against another State.

If one of the signatory States is of opinion that another State is making preparation for war, it shall have the right to bring the matter to the notice of the Council.

The Council, if it ascertains that the facts are as alleged, shall proceed as provided in paragraphs 2, 4, and 5 of Article 7.

ARTICLE 10

Every State which resorts to war in violation of the undertakings contained in the Covenant or in the present Protocol is an aggressor. Violation of the rules laid down for a demilitarized zone shall be held equivalent to resort to war.

In the event of hostilities having broken out, any State shall be presumed to be an aggressor, unless a decision of the Council, which must be taken unanimously, shall otherwise declare:

1. If it has refused to submit the dispute to the procedure of pacific settlement provided by Articles 13 and 15 of the Covenant as amplified by the present Protocol, or to comply with a judicial sentence or arbitral award or with a unanimous recommendation of the Council, or has disregarded a unanimous report of the Council, a judicial sentence or an arbitral award recognizing that the dispute between it and the other belligerent State arises out of a matter that by international law is solely within the domestic jurisdiction of the latter State; nevertheless, in the last case the State shall only be presumed to be an aggressor if it has not previously submitted the question to the Council or the Assembly, in accordance with Article 11 of the Covenant.

2. If it has violated provisional measures enjoined by the Council for the period while the proceedings are in progress as contemplated by Article 7 of the present Protocol.

Apart from the cases dealt with in paragraphs 1 and 2 of the present Article, if the Council does not at once succeed in determining the aggressor, it shall be bound to enjoin upon the belligerents an armistice, and shall fix the terms, acting, if need be, by a two-thirds majority and shall supervise its execution.

The Council shall call upon the signatory States to apply forthwith against the aggressor the sanctions provided by Article 11 of the present Protocol, and any signature State thus called upon shall thereupon be entitled to exercise the rights of a belligerent.

ARTICLE 19

Except as expressly provided by its terms, the present Protocol shall not affect in any way the rights and obligations of Members of the League as determined by the Covenant.

ARTICLE 20

Any dispute as to the interpretation of the present Protocol shall be submitted to the Permanent Court of International Justice.

V. THE LOCARNO AGREEMENTS

The Locarno Agreements were discussed as a regional settlement with the question of security after the collective efforts on the part of the leading nations of the world to outlaw aggressive war as a European or as world-wide effort, had failed. The advantages of the Locarno Pacts seemed to be that the security question was regarded as distinctly a regional one and the two parties most concerned in the security problem, Germany and France, pledged themselves to a policy of non-aggression and arbitration as regards each other. The principal agreement was a treaty of mutual guaranty between Germany, Belgium, France, Great Britain, and Italy. The collateral treaties were arbitration conventions between Germany and Belgium, between Germany and France, between Germany and Poland, and between Germany and Czecho-Slovakia.

Three questions were uppermost in the minds of the members of the Round Table: (1) To what extent is the failure of the movements for the progressive outlawry of war due to the abstention of the United States from European political arrangements, notably the League of Nations? (2) Is the question of security essentially a regional one or may it be made to extend to the world? (3) Is the "renunciation" of war so different from the problems of security and that of the "outlawry" of war that a treaty covering it can be successfully negotiated and ratified, whereas negotiations covering the other subjects must fail? The provisions of the Locarno agreements are as follows:

ARTICLE 1. The High Contracting Parties collectively and severally guarantee, in the manner provided in the following articles, the maintenance of the territorial *status quo* resulting from the frontiers between Germany and Belgium and between

Germany and France and the inviolability of the said frontiers as fixed by or in pursuance of the treaty of peace signed at Versailles on June 28, 1919, and also the observance of the stipulations of Articles 42 and 43 of the said treaty concerning the demilitarized zone.

ARTICLE 2. Germany and Belgium, and also Germany and France, mutually undertake that they will in no case attack or invade each other or resort to war against each other.

This stipulation shall not, however, apply in the case of—

1. The exercise of the right of legitimate defense, that is to say, resistance to a violation of the undertaking contained in the previous paragraph or to a flagrant breach of Articles 42 or 43 of the said treaty of Versailles, if such breach constituted an unprovoked act of aggression and by reason of the assembly of armed forces in the demilitarized zone immediate action is necessary.

2. Action in pursuance of Article 16 of the Covenant of the League of Nations.

3. Action as the result of a decision taken by the Assembly or by the Council of the League of Nations or in pursuance of Article 15, paragraph 7, of the Covenant of the League of Nations, provided that in this last event the action is directed against a state which was the first to attack.

ARTICLE 3. In view of the undertakings entered into in Article 2 of the present treaty, Germany and Belgium and Germany and France undertake to settle by peaceful means and in the manner laid down herein all questions of every kind which may arise between them and which it may not be possible to settle by the normal methods of diplomacy:

Any question with regard to which the parties are in conflict as to their respective rights shall be submitted to judicial decision, and the parties undertake to comply with such decision.

All other questions shall be submitted to a conciliation commission. If the proposals of this commission are not accepted by the two parties, the question shall be brought before the Council of the League of Nations, which will deal with it in accordance with Article 15 of the Covenant of the League.

The detailed arrangements for effecting such peaceful settlement are the subject of special agreements signed this day.

ARTICLE 4. 1. If one of the High Contracting Parties alleges that a violation of Article 2 of the present treaty or a breach of Articles 42 or 43 of the treaty of Versailles has been or is being committed, it shall bring the question at once before the Council of the League of Nations.

2. As soon as the Council of the League of Nations is satisfied that such violation or breach has been committed, it will notify its finding without delay to the powers signatory of the present treaty, who severally agree that in such case they will each of them come immediately to the assistance of the power against whom the act complained of is directed.

3. In case of a flagrant violation of Article 2 of the present treaty or of a flagrant breach of Articles 42 or 43 of the Treaty of Versailles by one of the High Contracting Parties, each of the other Contracting Parties hereby undertakes immediately to come to the help of the party against whom such a violation or breach has been directed as soon as the said power has been able to satisfy itself that this violation constitutes an unprovoked act of aggression and that by reason either of the crossing of the frontier or of the outbreak of hostilities or of the assembly of armed forces in the

demilitarized zone immediate action is necessary. Nevertheless, the Council of the League of Nations, which will be seized of the question in accordance with the first paragraph of this article, will issue its findings, and the High Contracting Parties undertake to act in accordance with the recommendations of the Council provided that they are concurred in by all the members other than the representatives of the parties which have engaged in hostilities.

ARTICLE 5. The provisions of Article 3 of the present treaty are placed under the guaranty of the High Contracting Parties as provided by the following stipulations:

If one of the powers referred to in Article 3 refuses to submit a dispute to peaceful settlement or to comply with an arbitral or judicial decision and commits a violation of Article 2 of the present treaty or a breach of Articles 42 or 43 of the treaty of Versailles, the provisions of Article 4 shall apply.

Where one of the powers referred to in Article 3, without committing a violation of Article 2 of the present treaty or a breach of Articles 42 or 43 of the treaty of Versailles, refuses to submit a dispute to peaceful settlement or to comply with an arbitral or judicial decision, the other party shall bring the matter before the Council of the League of Nations, and the Council shall propose what steps shall be taken; the High Contracting Parties shall comply with these proposals.

ARTICLE 6. The provisions of the present treaty do not affect the rights and obligations of the High Contracting Parties under the treaty of Versailles or under arrangements supplementary thereto, including the agreements signed in London on August 30, 1924.

ARTICLE 7. The present treaty, which is designed to insure the maintenance of peace and is in conformity with the Covenant of the League of Nations, shall not be interpreted as restricting the duty of the League to take whatever action may be deemed wise and effectual to safeguard the peace of the world.

ARTICLE 8. The present treaty shall be registered at the League of Nations in accordance with the Covenant of the League. It shall remain in force until the Council, acting on a request of one or other of the High Contracting Parties notified to the other signatory powers three months in advance, and voting at least by a two-thirds majority, decides that the League of Nations insures sufficient protection to the High Contracting Parties; the treaty shall cease to have effect on the expiration of a period of one year from such decision.

ARTICLE 9. The present treaty shall impose no obligation upon any of the British dominions, or upon India, unless the Government of such dominion, or of India, signifies its acceptance thereof.

ARTICLE 10. The present treaty shall be ratified and the ratifications shall be deposited at Geneva in the archives of the League of Nations as soon as possible.

It shall enter into force as soon as all the ratifications have been deposited and Germany has become a Member of the League of Nations.

The present treaty, done in a single copy, will be deposited in the archives of the League of Nations, and the Secretary-General will be requested to transmit certified copies to each of the High Contracting Parties.

Tuesday was given over to the discussion of the negotiations and the discussion given primarily to the reservations of interpretations insisted upon by the negotiating powers.

First, the French interpretations. The interpretations insisted upon by France and agreed to by Secretary Kellogg covered the following points:

1. **Self-defense.** In answer to Monsieur Briand's inquiry, Secretary of State Kellogg answered that nothing in the treaty interferes with the right of self-defense. This right inheres in the sovereignty of each state and is embraced in each treaty. The right not only exists to defend from attack and invasion but the state is the judge of when the right is to be employed. A definition of self-defense would open the way for an unscrupulous state to make its active aggression fit the definition.
2. **Covenant of the League of Nations.** There is no inconsistency between the authorization of war by the League Covenant and the Anti-War Treaty. While the Covenant may probably be considered to authorize war it does not command it and the authorization becomes effective only through acceptance by a state. The argument seems to be that the state under the Covenant is free to go to war or to remain at peace. Mr. Kellogg does not suggest it, but it is possible that the Anti-War Treaty may operate as a wholesome restraint on states not considering their course in the case of wars authorized by the League.
3. **Locarno Pacts.** Postive obligations to go to war under the Locarno pacts are not inconsistent with the terms of the Paris pact. Such positive obligation attaches only after one of the parties has resorted to war in violation of its pledges. Adherence to this treaty by the Locarno signatories would be a double assurance against recourse to arms. A violation of the Locarno agreements through resort to war is also a breach of the Anti-War treaty on the part of a party to both, and operates as a release from both for the aggrieved state.
4. **Treaty of Neutrality.** Treaties which guarantee neutrality are not in contravention of the Kellogg-Briand Pact. States whose neutrality is guaranteed should easily adhere to the treaty. A party to the Anti-War Treaty attacking the neutralized state would be violating the treaty and the guaranteeing state would thus be released from the obligations of the agreement. Where a neutralized state is attacked by a neutralized state the guaranteeing state under the Anti-War Treaty is free to proceed against the aggressor as the treaty does not apply to this situation.
5. **A Covenant-Breaking State.** In reply to the inquiry of Monsieur Briand as to the obligation of a party to the treaty as regards a covenant-breaking state, it was expressly declared by Mr. Kellogg and the Round Table agreed, that if one party to the treaty resorts to war in violation of its terms, the other parties are released automatically from their obligations to the treaty-breaking state.
6. **Universality.** The world-wide application of the treaty is not limited to negotiation and signature by the leading powers. Adequate provision is made for the adhesion of other powers. There are positive advantages which will flow from an early effectiveness of the treaty while positive disadvantages would result from delay. Moreover, a treaty acceptable to the six leading powers and ratified by them, even in the absence of universal acceptance may prevent a second world conflict.

Second, the German interpretations. The German Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Gustav Stresemann, on April 27, 1928, declared that the German government regarded as inviolable respect for the obligations arising from the Covenant of the League of Nations and the Locarno Pacts. It was the opinion of the German government, however, that the Anti-War Treaty did not conflict with these arrangements for peace but made the obligation not to use war as an instrument of national policy all the more binding and would strengthen the fundamental idea of the League of Nations and the Rhine Pact.

Third, the British interpretations. Sir Austin Chamberlain accepted on May 19, 1928, Mr. Kellogg's explanations, as regards the questions of self-defense, the obligations to a covenant-breaking state, and the universality which had previously been raised by Monsieur Briand. He also accepted the explanation of the American government as regards the League of Nations and the Locarno Treaties. He insisted that the British government could enter into no treaty which would prevent its carrying out its obligations under these instruments, but that the sole purpose of them all was the renunciation of war, that the League and the Locarno peace arrangements supplied a defect of the Treaty for the Renunciation of War through the provision of certain sanctions for breach of their obligations. The most interesting comment of Sir Austin Chamberlain was to the effect that Great Britain's interests in certain parts of the world were so great that its freedom of action in regard to their welfare and integrity could not be impaired or abridged by any treaty. The United States, he pointed out, had interests of the same kind, the protection of which it would allow no treaty to interfere with. Mr. McGregor, a Vancouver editor, made the interesting suggestion that the major interests referred to by Sir Austin Chamberlain meant especially the Suez Canal, which was regarded as a most important part of the circulating system of the British Empire.

Fourth, interpretations of the government of Russia. The attitude of the Soviet government was to say the least an interesting one. While the Soviet government agreed to the Pact for the Renunciation of War, it raised certain objections. It was first opposed to the absence of any obligation to disarm. Complete and universal disarmament was regarded as the only effective guarantee of peace. In the second place, while war was renounced as an instrument of national policy, yet there was no precise formula for the prohibition of war. All acts of war and forms of military occupation, such as blockades, the occupation of foreign territory, etc., should be forbidden, and the rupture of diplomatic relations as a mode of pressure against a friendly state should be abandoned. What, said the Soviet government, did the phrase "pacific means" imply?

The third objection was to the special reservations which would have the effect of suspending in advance any appearance of obligation towards the question of peace. Great Britain, for example, excepted from the operations of the Pact certain unspecified regions. What regions were meant? Where did her freedom of action begin and where did it end? This reservation, said the Russian government, opened the way to other signatory states to extend their reservations unduly, until the treaty practically would be nullified. •

Wednesday, December 12, was given over to a study of the substance of the Treaty as embraced in the first and second articles. The preamble was studied in comparison with the preambles of other international documents, such as the Covenant of the League of Nations and the Geneva Protocol. Professor Graham Stewart of Stanford University expressed the interesting theory that the Protocol was substantially an affirmation of the Preamble to the Covenant of the League of Nations.

Article 1 of the Pact provides that the nations party to the treaty condemn recourse to war for the solution of international controversies and renounce it as an instrument of national policy. The strength of the condemnation of recourse to war for the settlement of international differences was discussed. Was it immoral? Did the condemnation as such have moral, political, or legal force? Or did it embrace all of these, or only two of them? It was the opinion of the Round Table that the matter of condemnation was chiefly one of moral effect. The renunciation of war as an instrument of national policy was discussed in some detail. It was agreed that such a renunciation had a large moral effect. Moreover, renouncing war as an instrument of national policy was clearly in the field of policy and hardly in the field of law. For this reason the Pact was regarded as a distinct advance in the field of international arrangements for peace because it placed emphasis on policy rather than law. Much attention was given to the political and legal forces of the renunciation. There was much difference of opinion on this point, but it was agreed that the treaty projected the war question into the field of policy rather than into the field of law, where the opportunities for international dispute are much greater. It was pointed out that we, for a long time, had much legal machinery for the settlement of international disputes, especially of so-called justiceable questions, but that the conciliatory and mediatorial processes of diplomacy had not been largely developed, due to the fact that nations in the first place hesitate to resort to them and in the second place are not bound by the recommendations or the findings of the conciliatory and mediatorial bodies. Renouncing war as an instrument of national policy, then, deals with the problem of aggressive war where it is the most dangerous and for the first

time in the history of the world offers a declaration of independence of aggressive war which may be followed up by any number of constitutional arrangements to carry the purpose and the object of the treaty into effect:

By the second article the powers agree that only peaceful means shall be sought as a settlement or solution of all disputes or conflicts whatever the nature of their origin. As the first article refers to the purpose of the treaty, the second refers to means of carrying it out. No specific means are mentioned, except for the general term "pacific." It merely amounts to the declaration that peaceful measures shall be used to adjust difficulties. It does not require a great stretch of the imagination to discover what these methods are. The strength of the second article lies in the agreement of the powers to restrict as much as possible the use of war as a remedial measure. Indeed, with this as a significance of the second article, it is as important as the first, which is the article of formal renunciation. Too long war has been accepted as a means of evening up international injuries, but the time must come when war as a method of redress must be limited and this, the Round Table, regarded as the major significance of the second article.

The pacific means for the settlement of international disputes are (1) negotiation, (2) mediation, (3) conciliatory processes, (4) commissions of inquiry, (5) international arbitration. These means might well be expanded and enlarged. Diplomatic negotiation, our first and basic peace process, might be improved as a means of keeping the peace and as a means of nipping international disputes in their incipient stages.

An interesting question involved the Round Table in a long discussion. Are the non-amicable modes of redress, short of war, embraced in the phrase "pacific means," or are they expressly excluded? The British interpretation seems to include them; the Russian memorandum clearly objected to their inclusion. Such modes of redress may be summarized as follows: (1) rupture of diplomatic relations, (2) non-intercourse, (3) embargo, (4) threat of force, (5) use of force, (6) pacific blockade, (7) economic blockade, (8) intervention, (9) forcible collection of debts, (10) the pressure of claims, (11) the general subject of diplomatic protection. There was no extensive agreement as to these points. Some contended that it was intended to include them and others contended that they were and should be excluded.

On Thursday the Round Table on the Foreign Policies of the American Political parties met with the Round Table on the Kellogg-Briand Pact.

This meeting concluded the discussions of the Round Table and was given over to the consideration of the ratification of the Pact. It was agreed by all that the United States, having sponsored the Pact, must be the first great power to agree to it. It was brought out that the European states

were interested in whether or not this country could draft and propose a great peace arrangement and at the same time secure its ratification by the Senate of the United States. It was agreed that the moral leadership of the United States in international affairs was at stake. One more great gesture in the field of international politics and peace resulting in an internal dispute between president and senate or between political parties, would destroy our leadership for many years to come.

The objections of various publicists and professors, such as Professor Borchard of Yale University, were presented and answers to them were suggested. Professor Robinson of Stanford University presented the historic and contemporary attitudes of the two major parties on this question and analyzed the support and the opposition to the pact in the Senate from the standpoint of the previous votes and declarations of members. The possibility and probability of amendments and of written reservations, of interpretations through an exchange of notes and of unconditional ratification, were discussed. These were prophetic and speculative and now that the ratification has taken place by a vote of 85 to 1, it would be unprofitable to detail here the prophecies regarding the fact and the mode of ratification. The attitude of the leading objectors in the senate to the Pact was also discussed.

The interesting theory was advanced that in working for peace those who expected to accomplish anything in the field must be practical politicians in part as well as students and thinkers. No program of peace can be successful until it is adopted. It was suggested, therefore, that reasonable compromises which did not invade the field of principle or conscience might well be made, to secure a part of the loaf if one could not get the whole. For example, it was suggested that it would be better for a majority of the senate to agree to both the Pact for the Renunciation of War and the Cruiser Bill, than not to have the Anti-War Treaty. The attitude of Senator Borah on this point was discussed in view of the fact that he favored both and was so actively in favor of the Anti-War Treaty that he was willing to do some political trading to obtain it.

PART II

DEDICATION OF THE LOS ANGELES UNIVERSITY OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

The Los Angeles University of International Relations was formally dedicated at the final session of the Institute of International Relations in Bovard Auditorium at the University of Southern California, December 14, 1928. The last four addresses were given in the Student Union Building following the dinner meeting of this session.

COMMITTEE ON AFFAIRS

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MARY SINCLAIR CRAWFORD
JAMES MAIN DIXON
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BUSINESS POLICIES IN LATIN AMERICA, 1895-1915
(Abbreviated Report)

PROFESSOR HARRY T. COLLINGS
University of Pennsylvania

Our interest in the Latin American republics is doubtless due chiefly to our trade with them. We feel a kinship in politics and in social matters because of their proximity to us and because as Americans we sympathize with democracies in their endeavors to establish stable governments and to promote a higher scale of living. The average American, however, is too little concerned with these higher things. He is interested in our Latin American neighbors chiefly because he exports to them the surplus of his products, or buys from them raw materials, needed in his business. Concretely it is in proportion as we sell them shoes, chemicals, paper, and cotton cloth, and buy from them coffee, hides, meat, copper, or oil, that the average citizen of this country is interested in the southern continent. This being so, it behooves us to be familiar with the business policies of the Latin American republics, with which we now carry on an annual trade amounting to \$2,000,000,000, and among whom we have invested \$5,000,000,000 of our money.

Business policies among the Latins are in many respects radically different from our own. We must not condemn them because they differ from ours, but we must needs understand them if our dealings are to be mutually profitable. It is somewhat difficult to speak of the "business policies" of the whole of Latin America, since there is a wide divergence in some respects between the commercial practices of, let us say, Mexico and Paraguay, or Cuba and Ecuador. It is nevertheless true that all of these peoples look at business life from a Latin rather than from an Anglo-Saxon point of view. We may, therefore, generalize about their industrial and commercial life.

One of the first striking differences between business policies here and in these southern republics is the element of friendliness that enters in. Winning customers with them is a matter of other things than pure business. The first call made by a salesman on a prospective customer does not usually afford the salesman an opportunity to talk business at all. He must first make a friend of the prospective customer. This is strikingly different from our "snap dash" enthusiasm, and "sign on the dotted line" zeal. In other words, salesmanship in Central America or in Colombia has a social as well as commercial phase; and the social precedes. Again, courtesy and polish

of manner enter into every business transaction there to a larger degree than is true with us. Business must be carried on with more dignity, and the business man must be more suave to succeed in Peru than in California or Pennsylvania. Our business letters impress the South American as being brusque and lacking in politeness. Our snappy style in letters we interpret as efficiency in correspondence; the Latin American regards it as lack of courtesy and refinement. To be brief and to the point in a business transaction means to us "getting down to brass tacks"; to our Latin American neighbor it means bad manners. The important point in this matter is not which of the two is right, but that, understanding the difference, we should approach our prospective customer in this foreign field in the only way in which he knows how to carry on a business transaction.

Efficiency is the watchword of American commerce and industry. If a practice or a machine is outworn, we question the advisability of continuing to use it. We worship productivity, labor saving devices, and any method which cuts down the cost of production. In Latin America, however, business is not so pressing; competition is less keen, and more attention may be given to quality than to quantity. Our whole system is dominated by office files, comptometers and other devices for increasing speed of accomplishment. In Latin America, conservatism tends to regard speed in production as less important than the sacredness of practices and customs, which they have followed for years. Not to be punctual at a business appointment is with us unforgivable; it might almost be said that to be punctual at a Latin American appointment is equally unforgivable—it surely is unexpected at least. This lack of speed and progressiveness in business affairs crops up in many ways. Credit conditions, for example, differ materially from our own, since the turnover of stock in a South American republic may be only one-half or one-quarter as rapid as our own. Consequently, credit extension for thirty days, as is our custom, is impossible with them; their requirements would be rather for six months, or perhaps a year.

Advertising in Latin America differs widely from ours. No appeal through this medium can be made to the general public in these southern countries because from 50 to 90 per cent of the population cannot read or write. Therefore, the appeal must be much more through the trade mark or the picture, rather than through text. Then, too, the psychology of advertising to reach a Latin American public must be different from that which appeals to our own people. To translate the best of American advertising into Spanish in order to reach the public in Paraguay or even in Argentine, would probably lead only to failure. Catch phrases and idioms are not interchangeable. An entirely new approach must be made in our appeal to customers there.

Other distinct differences between the business policies of Latin America and the United States might readily be called to attention. Religion, for example, creeps into business there much more than here. Firm names, such as "The Butcher Shop of the Holy Spirit," "Furniture Store of the Savior," and similar ones make an appeal to the Latin American business man, while to us they might verge on the sacrilegious. In advertising, an illustration which copies Leonardi da Vinci's picture of the Last Supper may make an appeal to a large group there, where our advertising with its more worldly illustrations might fail.

It is useless to continue emphasizing the differences between business policies in Latin America and in the United States. Numerous other examples of the divergence between the two could be called to attention. It is pertinent rather to point out the following: Latin America constitutes the largest potential market for our foreign trade. It will become increasingly important as the years go on. We must, therefore, recognize that the business policies in this area, which differ so widely from our own, are not necessarily indefensible policies. In the environment where they prevail they may even be superior to our own. It is not given to us to judge and condemn them; we must work harmoniously with those who practice them if we propose to sell our goods to them or buy raw materials from them. International peace and prosperity rests upon an understanding of international differences. Our southern neighbors deserve our respect as business men. They have much to learn from us; we may also learn from them. When we come to understand each other in a business way, we are on the high road to mutual prosperity. American business men must learn to be internationally-minded, if they are to succeed as foreign traders.

WHAT PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN LOS ANGELES ARE DOING TO EDUCATE FOR PEACE ✓

SUSAN M. DORSEY

Superintendent of the City Schools of Los Angeles

Believing that the first requisite for goodwill is the conscious cultivation on the part of any group of a spirit of understanding among its members, the Los Angeles school people determined some years ago to organize a Superintendent's Advisory Committee, which should comprise representatives from every division in the system and whose specific function it should be to create on the part of the several contributing divisions a better understanding each of the other and of the whole.

One of the standing committees of this advisory group is known as the Superintendent's Committee of Fifteen on World Friendship. By the aid of various projects, which will be briefly described in this article, this Committee of Fifteen has in the last three years assisted the entire school department to reach a better understanding of what is meant by world friendship and of what has been accomplished thus far towards securing this greatly-to-be-desired spirit. What is more important, this committee has, through informative and inspirational instruction, furthered the realization in the individual student of a spirit of goodwill towards all peoples.

One of the projects (not peculiar to Los Angeles) through which the young people are helped to contact and become better acquainted with the youth of other nations, is an interchange of letters and mementos. The letters must, of course, be translated into the language of the recipients, which is done through some local teacher, or through the medium of the National Junior Red Cross, or more often through the local Consul. Selected students or classes in sixty different schools in Los Angeles have carried on correspondence with groups in schools of foreign nations and have forwarded mementos in the form of scrap books illustrative of school work or of the city life of Los Angeles. The return courtesies from several countries, and in particular from Japan and Mexico, have been greatly prized for distinctive artistic qualities.

A second project, carried on in thirty different high schools, has been the organization of World Friendship Clubs, the chief aim of which is the education of their members in world and national events that promote or endanger peace, such as the Locarno Pact, the Kellogg Multilateral Treaties. The Club members seek to learn what the peace instrument really is and what its possible bearings may be on world peace.

Another project of the Committee of Fifteen is an annual oratorical contest on the general subject of international goodwill. This contest is held at the time of the Teachers' Institute, so that other teachers than those immediately concerned in the promoting of the enterprise may have an opportunity to catch the spirit of the project and contribute to the extension of the oratorical contest as an agency through which students may come to understand the fundamental principles of world friendship and receive an impetus towards its promotion. The judges are always selected citizens known to be interested in the schools and in the education of youth for a better world understanding and for peace. A small stipend is given to each participant, graduated according to excellence of performance as decided by the judges.

This same Committee of Fifteen sees to it that the schools are reminded to observe Goodwill Day, and suggestions for its suitable observance each year are made sufficiently in advance to be of service to teachers.

Each year, also, a World Friendship Christmas Card is offered for sale, the design being the work of an art student and the poetic legend coming from a student in one of the hundreds of high school English classes; both the design and the poem are selected on their merit. It is not possible to reproduce here the design of this year's Christmas card, but the legend reads as follows:

✓ STAR OF PEACE ✓

Star that has risen again to guide us,
 Promising peace and deep content,
 We shall follow you now forever
 A longer way than the Wise Men went.
 But a jubilant way, it will be, oh, Wise Men!
 Worshipping, we shall forget how far,
 For our hearts will be high and our joys unnumbered
 When Peace is our radiant guiding star!

To maintain the interest of students and encourage the expression of peace aims, there is need for a great variety of projects and new ones must be devised each year. The latest innovation is a song contest. Here again, the musical composition that has just won first place cannot be reproduced, but the verses that were set to the music are given:

✓ FRIENDSHIP ✓

Out of the East and over the West
 And bridging the North and South
 From the Golden words of the heart and mind
 To the meaningless words of the mouth,

And out of the dust that the Wheels of Time
 Have chalked on the Road of Progress
 I feel the clasp of a friendly hand
 Across the years and darkness.

Deep in the mists
 That the years have wrought
 Far down past the valley of Song,
 Where the wraiths of Gloom have dared to tread
 And the Shadows are weary and long.
 'Tis there in the swirl of the Maelstrom of Time
 That is churned by the Millwheels of Progress
 That I feel the clasp of a friendly hand
 Across the years and darkness.

Awake! O ye world for the dawn is at hand
 And flaming letters the Heavens fill
 Leaping forth from a cross of gold
 "Peace on earth, to men of good will!"

The most outstanding project, however, for the help of teachers in their efforts to inspire in the lives of the youth of Los Angeles an understanding and spirit of world friendship, is the yearly publication compiled by the Committee of Fifteen, entitled, "World Friendship." This book, instructional in its purpose, contains material that has variety and is practical, inspiring, and, best of all, ready-at-hand, saving teachers hours of time that must without the book be spent in gathering facts from reference volumes, from current literature, and from the history of the past. Names of distinguished men and women appear at the head of several chapters, such names as those of David Starr Jordan, Newton D. Baker, Dr. Ray Lyman Wilbur, Dr. Aurelia Reinhardt, Dr. Alfred Longueil, Dr. Joseph R. Scherer, and many others equally well known. The first edition was exhausted early in the year two years ago; a second, revised, edition is now in use. A list of chapter headings may be of interest—only a few can be given:

What Presidents have done for Peace
 Youth and World Peace
 Rational Internationalism
 Security by Mental Disarmament
 The Havana Conference
 Motion Pictures and Peace
 Commerce and World Peace
 Contributions of Foreign-born Americans

Every effort is made to secure in the minds of the students an evaluation of the virtues and abilities of other nations and an appreciation of their artistic, social, and civic qualities, as well as of their achievements in civiliza-

tion; also to avert prejudices, for prejudices are not born with children, they are acquired through association with adults. For example, children are not overfearful about complexions, nor do they of themselves discover that it is "not nice" to be poor. Especially is the caution given to adjust all sense of self-sufficiency by illustrations from past and present history of the interdependence of individuals and of nations. Our own weakness when the World War brought a cessation of imported supplies, which had formerly come from German laboratories and Austrian factories, is cited as an example and a warning.

It may not be inappropriate to close this recital of projects undertaken for the education in world peace of the youth of Los Angeles with the Superintendent's foreword to the first World Friendship book published by the Committee of Fifteen:

THE MISSION OF THIS BROCHURE

The Committee of Fifteen is to be commended for its decision to attempt a piece of constructive work in the preparation of a booklet on "World Friendship." This brochure is to set forth the efforts and personalities that have contributed to a widening sentiment in favor of peace and to the earnest longing, if not hope, of all intelligent peoples for eventual, permanent "peace on earth"; it will also suggest to school people the possible next steps in education for the furtherance of this centuries-old dream of generous souls.

Teachers, by conscious and intelligent direction of education, may in a single generation develop an understanding of the desirability and possibility of having a world in which force shall yield to reason, for children are amazingly free from prejudices; they are not overfearful about complexions, creeds, and appearances—these differences as a barrier between themselves and others are unfortunately developed later from contacts with their elders, whose mature prejudices are imposed upon their children.

It is for education so to develop the character of the young that emotions shall be intelligent, and intelligence, humane. Nor is this a difficult thing. The very young children respond sensitively to human appeals, and youth are almost fiercely just in their judgments; all can be made to understand how the progress of civilization has been retarded in the past and the world plunged into a succession of dark ages through the ravages of war, and how the spiritual values of life have been again and again reduced to the unattainable because men's energies were enslaved to the necessary repairing of material losses in order to insure a bare existence.

Success to this booklet as it fares forth on its educational mission.

COLLEGES FOR WOMEN AND EDUCATION FOR PEACE
(An Abstract)

AURELIA HENRY REINHARDT
President of Mills College

Pioneering in the field of international education and friendship was begun by a group of American women's colleges. Bryn Mawr College from its earliest years concentrated certain resources in providing for visiting student fellows and built the highway that is traveled forty years later by women students from all nations to all nations on education missions.

Thus Mount Holyoke and Mills College did noble service for undergraduate Oriental students from China and Japan before there was a Boxer Indemnity for the support in the United States of Chinese students. In that group of 50,000 university women, known as the American Association of University Women, the chairman today of the International Committee on the exchange of secondary teachers is a Barnard woman; the chairman of the Committee on the Exchange of Research Workers is a Vassar graduate; the secretary of the International Relations Committee is a Mills graduate.

The American Association of University Women now supports fifteen fellowships for graduate women students, and is establishing a million dollar fund, half of the income to be for foreign women studying in this country and half for American women studying abroad. At the International Student Club in Geneva you will find a woman from Smith College in charge. In concrete ways which have to do with international friendship established through common mental interests, women's colleges are doing admirable work on and off their campuses.

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REALISM IN THE FOREIGN POLICIES OF THE UNITED STATES; abstract ✓

(Brief abstract of an address.)

HONORABLE FREDERICK M. DAVENPORT

The United States has three kinds of foreign policy, one for Europe, one for Central America, and one for the Pacific. Each policy is logical in itself, from the standpoint of the public opinion of this country, and each follows the facts of human nature and of governmental experience.

In Europe we are committed by the declared opinion of the country to a policy of aloofness from political entanglement. This does not prevent us from exercising a real influence and coöperation through a skillful indirect technique in all humane and scientific matters, and in some exceedingly important financial matters, such as, the organization of reparations, and in disarmament conferences. If a matter is truly a world affair and important enough, we find a way to coöperate without political entanglement.

Around the Caribbean our foreign policy is founded upon the doctrines of the social evolution of peoples, with different rates of progress, different rates and stages of cultural and economic and national advance in organization and self-control. Here are troublesome areas which are alleged to give point to criticisms about American imperialism. As a matter of fact, it is not imperialism at all, but a knowledge on the part of the United States that it cannot afford to have its great line of communication between the East and West Coast cut by a disorderly intervention or protectorate of a foreign power. Further south it is only the preservation of the so-called doctrine of Monroe and the normal protection of the persons and property of our nationals that gives us any concern.

In the Pacific we have always maintained an attitude of positive helpfulness in our foreign policy with our principles of the open door, territorial integrity, and revision of unjust treaties for China.

Each one of these policies, while in line with realism, and logical in itself, is also in line with idealism in its sane and broad sense, and is so intended and understood by the American people.

✓
THE PARIS PACTS ✓

PROFESSOR KARL C. LEEBRICK
Syracuse University

The agreement of the representatives of fifteen of the great nations upon the wording of a multilateral treaty for the renunciation of war, unofficial acceptance of the pact by thirty-five other nations, and the official adherence in advance of six nations is a milestone along the road to international peace. More than that it represents a milestone at an important junction point. The new road will probably take the peoples and nations of the world in a different direction and through much pleasanter experiences than the old road. There may be detours ahead and the going may be rough in spots, but all in all the new way promises to be distinctly better than the old.

It is entirely fitting, therefore, that the "Anti-War Pact," or, as it is to be officially known, "The General Treaty for The Renunciation of War," should be discussed this afternoon at this first of a series of ceremonies held to dedicate and officially inaugurate the Los Angeles University of International Relations, which is to be a coordinating institution affiliated with the University of Southern California for the purpose of furthering international understanding and good will.

Those responsible for this new institution desire to make it clear at the very beginning of the new University that they mean to support and encourage movements like those represented by the Anti-War Pact. These dedicatory ceremonies are, therefore, also ceremonies to celebrate the negotiation and signing of the Paris Pacts and to encourage the Senate of the United States to authorize our official adherence.

There is no real reason why our country should not join other nations in this new peace move. There is little or nothing new in the pact. All its phrases have been covered by some other international agreement like the Covenant of the League of Nations, the Geneva Protocol, the Locarno Agreements, or the Pan-American Peace Resolution. We have a special interest in, and responsibility for, the negotiation and phrasing of the treaty. Dr. Shotwell and Senator Borah have had direct influence upon these matters, and our secretary of state, Mr. Kellogg, and Premier Briand are directly the authors of the anti-war pact. It would not be seemly for us to refuse to recognize our own handiwork now. We should ratify the treaty. It is my opinion and hope that we will do so.

The treaty grew out of our negotiations with France over the renewal of our general arbitration treaty with her which was about to expire. France suggested enlarging the scope of the treaty to include all aggressive warfare. After considerable delay, and in part responsive to the expressed opinion of many leaders and organizations in this country, Secretary Kellogg proposed that France and the United States agree upon the wording of a treaty to be open to the adherence of all nations for the outlawry of all war. After much negotiation and the calling in of thirteen other nations, those bound by the Locarno Agreement and the United States, these fifteen nations on the twenty-seventh of August, 1928, signed "The General Treaty For The Renunciation of War."

In the course of the negotiations and before signing the pact, most of these nations made interpretive statements which were in no sense amendments or reservations providing that something must be done before they would sign. These interpretive statements point out that the right of self-defense is inherent; that there are certain understandings like the American and British "Monroe Doctrines" which recognize certain areas outside the actual boundaries of the country where measures of self-defense would be justified. It was also stated that the nations would be released from their obligation not to go to war, as against a nation which broke the pact. The relations of the pact to the League of Nations obligations and the Locarno Agreements and other similar commitments were also considered. These points were all discussed by Secretary Kellogg in addresses in March and April of this year so effectively that a general understanding was reached, and each of the fifteen nations signed that pact without a single change in its wording.

It is provided in the treaty that as soon as the pact is ratified by each of the fifteen nations it shall "take effect as between them," and be "open as long as may be necessary for adherence by all the other powers of the world." At this date the pact has been so well received that six nations, Peru, Liberia, Rumania, Russia, Cuba, and Bolivia have officially ratified the treaty and are waiting to officially adhere to it as soon as it is open for their signature. Thirty-five other nations have signified their intention to adhere. Eight nations have not officially spoken upon the subject. No state has said that it will not sign. In view of these facts, it seems to me that it would be an international calamity and a national disgrace for the United States to refuse to adhere to this anti-war pact or to propose amendments or reservations which would in fact void the pact and make it necessary for the original fifteen nations to open the entire question of the wording of the text or else accept what we suggest. The negotiation was a coöperative process, we must stand by and with our fellow international workers. If changes are necessary they should be made by joint action.

The treaty is brief, consisting of two articles of statement or agreement and one of procedure. The first two articles interest us most just now. They are:

ARTICLE 1

The High Contracting Parties solemnly declare in the names of their respective peoples that they condemn recourse to war for the solution of international controversies, and renounce it as an instrument of national policy in their relations with one another.

ARTICLE 2

The High Contracting Parties agree that the settlement or solution of all disputes or conflicts of whatever nature or of whatever origin they may be, which may arise among them, shall never be sought except by pacific means.

Article I, in effect, declares in the names of the peoples that recourse to war is condemned and renounced as an instrument of national policy. This is clearly an attempt to state that war is no longer a seemingly accepted method of conducting national policies in relation to other states and to legislate it into being an improper means of international procedure. Article II, goes farther and states that the peoples and nations have agreed to the settlement or solution of all disputes or conflicts by pacific means.

War is outlawed, peaceful means of conducting international difficulties are made the proper and legal method of procedure. It remains for the nations to perfect these agencies for the replacement of war as a means of settling disputes. Something has been done. More and more use has been made of the methods and political machinery of conciliation, arbitration, mediation, and good offices. Great international organizations like The Permanent Court of International Arbitration, The Permanent Court of International Justice, The League of Nations, The Pan-American Association, The Locarno Agreement, and a veritable network of treaties providing for the peaceful settlement of various questions, give us reason to hope and believe that we will be able to get along without war some time in the future if not immediately and that we can at once, by the acceptance of the anti-war treaty, minimize the danger of war and international catastrophe.

The importance of the Kellogg-Briand pact is not so much on its legal phraseology or in the international machinery it does or does not recognize or set up, as in the hope it extends to the peoples of the nations that something is being done to do away with war. A heavy responsibility would rest upon the nation or the statesmen who would disappoint these people and destroy their hope. Nicholas Murray Butler expressed the situation admirably when he said:

The Pact of Paris rests not upon the artificial agreement of governments, but upon the moral conviction and determination of self-governing peoples who bend governments to their will. The weight and its value in fixing national ideals and in shaping national policies cannot be over-estimated.

The Pact of Paris opens wide the gate to international peace.

The Senate of the United States will probably authorize our adherence to the pact, but if it seems loath to do so, we the people of this nation should see to it that they hear from us in some effective manner. This much we can do for peace if we really desire peace. If you believe, as I do, that the General Treaty for The Renunciation of War is a step in the right direction you will stand ready to insist upon its acceptance.

It is not too much to hope that the cause of peace which is advanced by the agreement of the nations represented by the anti-war pact may be advanced in the future in some measure by the work to be done here in Southern California by the Los Angeles University of International Relations, which begins its work by recognizing the signing of the Kellogg-Briand pact as an important milestone along the road to international peace.

~~LOS ANGELES UNIVERSITY OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS~~
~~AND THE PROGRAM FOR WORLD PEACE~~ ✓

CHANCELLOR RUFUS B. VON KLEINSMID

A statement covering the plans and purposes of the Los Angeles University of International Relations may well be brief and concise, since the program has but recently been put into effect and the steps of progress towards our objectives carefully outlined.

In response to the growing interest in international problems following the rapid expansion of foreign trade, the Los Angeles University of International Relations, a coördinating institution, was chartered April 30, 1924. One of its purposes is to furnish opportunities for the training of statesmen for consular and diplomatic service, of business men for commerce, and of teachers for departments related to world affairs in colleges and universities. It further aims, through Institutes of Foreign Relations, a campus Inter-parliamentary Union, Supervised Study in Foreign Lands, Exchange Professorships, Scholarships and Fellowships, Special Lectures, Publications, and Academies of National Culture, to advance the cause of world peace by supplying the facilities for accurate, scientific knowledge.

Progress towards the common weal and success in world affairs requires that our public officials whose duties bring them into contact with foreign countries, and our business men engaged in world trade possess a knowledge of languages, history, political economy, international law, and the cultural achievements of a people as well as ability and training in commercial practices and diplomatic procedure. Heretofore we have placed too little emphasis upon the possibilities and power of world commerce in determining international relationship. The student of diplomacy in the future will recognize the necessity of understanding basic economics as a factor in world progress; and, in addition, the large part a sympathetic understanding of the psychology and accomplishments of a race will play in promoting a pacific settlement of international questions.

For half a century forward-looking statesmen of America have prophesied the overwhelming importance of the Pacific Ocean and the countries which border upon it in determining world affairs. Looking to the Far East and easily accessible to the countries of Latin America, Los Angeles has not only a very large foreign population but, in attendance at the University of Southern California, with which institution the Los Angeles University of International Relations is affiliated, almost, if not quite, the largest group of foreign students attending institutions of learning in the

United States. During the present year, five continents and forty-three nations sent to this campus over six hundred students of foreign birth.

Rapid developments in foreign trade have brought Los Angeles harbor to a position of eminent importance among the shipping interests of the world, interests represented not only by capable men of commerce and finance but by a stimulating and helpful group of consuls, vice-consuls, and consular agents upon which the University draws for lectures and advice.

AFFILIATION WITH THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

Under the date of April 25, 1924, an agreement was entered into by the two Boards of Trustees whereby the Los Angeles University of International Relations became an affiliated institution of the University of Southern California. This arrangement enables the latter institution to assemble all of its activities in the field of International Relations under one organization, and to expand its influence in undergraduate education without expanding the limits of enrollment adopted for its already existing schools and colleges.

On the other hand, the agreement allows of that stimulative intermingling of teaching and research scholars possible only in a university atmosphere, and furnishes to the students of International Relations riches of tradition and ideals existing in the older institution, honorable in service. In addition, the libraries and laboratories, too difficult for the new and smaller institution to secure and maintain, are freely used by the students of the Los Angeles University of International Relations.

PROJECTS

The University establishes and promotes contact with foreign affairs through the following activities: (1) The Institute of International Relations. (2) The Campus Interparliamentary Union. (3) Supervised Study in Foreign Lands. (4) Exchange and Visiting Professorships. (5) Exchange Scholarships and Fellowships. (6) Academies of National Culture. (7) Special Lectures. (8) Publications. (9) The Library on International Relations. (10) International House. (11) Courses of Instruction leading to Degrees in Foreign Service.

THE INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS needs no description or explanation here, since almost exclusively the members of this audience have been in attendance upon the meetings of the Fourth Session of the Institute just closed at Riverside. The purpose of the Institute is, as you know, the promotion of serious study of the problems involved in international relations, in the belief that an acquaintanceship with such problems will promote world peace. The work of the Institute is conducted through special lectures, general conferences, and daily round tables.

THE CAMPUS INTERPARLIAMENTARY UNION meets weekly in the Hall of Nations, and attendance upon its sessions is required of every candidate for a degree in Foreign Service. The working membership at any one time is limited to one hundred twenty members, two each for the more highly civilized nations of the world, only one of which two may be a citizen of the nation which he represents. It is the duty of these two representatives of each nation rigidly to keep posted on the affairs and the significant daily happenings of their nation and to be able to explain and justify the attitude of their government in all matters in which other governments are even remotely concerned. To be a worthy spokesman for such nation argues an extensive, if not an exhaustive knowledge, of her geography, her resources, her people, her history, her industries, her governments, and her institutions.

SUPERVISED STUDY IN FOREIGN LANDS. The University arranges for Supervised Study in Foreign Lands in the fields of political science, history, literature, pure and applied science, government, religion, art and architecture, and coöperates with other organized efforts of this character where their seriousness of purpose and adequacy of conduct and arrangements are recognized. Only carefully selected students of distinct intellectual gifts, of mature and worthy character, and of industrious habits should undertake work under this provision. Competent instruction is provided for travel-study courses where a sufficient number of students select the same subjects, either for vacation period or for longer terms abroad during the school year.

The University furnishes special instruction for visiting student groups and arranges itineraries for special investigators from universities abroad.

In 1927 two study groups were sent to Europe for three months of vacation work under the leadership of instructors on the Faculty of the University of Southern California. Two such groups interested in Art and Architecture spent the summer of 1928 in France and Italy, while another toured China, Japan, and Korea. During the summer of 1929, three classes will be in the field under expert leadership.

EXCHANGE AND VISITING PROFESSORSHIPS. It is the purpose of the University to assist in making provision whereby members of the faculties of foreign institutions may be brought to this country to teach for limited periods in American colleges and universities, and faculty members of institutions in the United States may secure opportunities to instruct in universities abroad. During the present year at the University of Southern California alone there are ten foreign teaching representatives from different countries: three from England, one from France, one from Spain, one from Holland, one from Argentina, one from Chile, one from Germany, and one from Italy. Dr. Fred D. Fagg, Associate Professor of Economics, is Exchange Professor during the present year at the University of Königsberg.

By this method of exchange or visitation it is hoped to establish relationships of mutual confidence and respect and to secure for the students and instructors of all countries coöperating correct impressions as well as stimulating guidance. In this work of exchange the University gladly coöperates with other recognized established organizations in the same field of service.

EXCHANGE SCHOLARSHIPS AND FELLOWSHIPS. Students from foreign countries are admitted to the colleges and universities of the United States for regular courses of study upon the same general conditions as those from American schools. The Los Angeles University of International Relations plans through the establishment of scholarships and fellowships and by providing instruction of the highest order, to encourage the coming of foreign students either for regular courses leading to degrees or for special courses in specific fields. Such scholarships and fellowships range from a sufficient amount to cover all tuition and laboratory fees to such sums as will be required to cover both tuition and living expenses. Negotiations are now in progress to secure from foreign universities and governments the same advantages for American students. Here, too, the University heartily coöperates with an existing recognized institution which seeks to promote the cause of student interchange.

ACADEMIES OF NATIONAL CULTURE. To encourage international understanding through establishing under university auspices a common meeting ground for members of the university community and the foreign-born residents in Southern California, a series of Academies of National Culture has been organized. The societies thus brought into being are not too formal in constitution or character but furnish opportunity for the commingling of American-born citizens with those of alien birth, to discuss problems of national or racial importance, to present programs illustrative of cultural achievement, and to acquaint each other with the contributions to present-day civilization made by the various peoples of the world. These Academies are under the direct control of joint committees of university and non-university members.

SPECIAL LECTURES. From time to time there are offered under the auspices of the University both single lectures and addresses in series by outstanding authorities in the various fields of international relations. Opportunity is given frequently to hear lectures also by men of wide experience in world affairs who are at the University of Southern California or at other educational institutions in this vicinity in the capacity of Visiting and Exchange Professors. Round Table discussions will be arranged, when possible, in order that those especially interested in the subject matter presented by the speaker may have opportunity for full and free interchange of ideas.

PUBLICATIONS. Under the supervision of the Committee on Publications there are issued, as material becomes available, bulletins and studies of special interest to students of international relations. Among these at the present time are the Proceedings of the First, Second, and Fourth Sessions of the Institute of International Relations. The University, moreover, is the depository and the distributing center for scholarly and scientific publications of other recognized and approved organizations dealing with problems of international interest and importance.

THE LIBRARY ON INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS. While the students of the Los Angeles University of International Relations have access to all of the library facilities of the University of Southern California, to the Public Library of Los Angeles, and to other libraries of unusual scope and value in this vicinity, the University has undertaken the special project of building up a library thoroughly covering the history and progress of international trade and diplomacy. Already a great number of books and pamphlets of wide scope and of rare value to the student of international relations has been assembled, while productive arrangements have been established with foreign sources and with organizations interested in world affairs of such character as will constitute this library one of the most serviceable in its field on the Pacific Coast.

So here on the rim of the Pacific, about which are grouped many widely different types of governments, creeds, and philosophies of life, the Los Angeles University of International Relations has been founded to furnish the richest opportunities for mutual understanding and international progress towards good will. It is founded in the faith that world peace will eventually be brought about through education. As one has put it, "education leads to understanding, understanding to respect, respect to good will, good will to friendship, friendship to unity, and unity to peace."

PART III

APPENDIX

APPENDIX

MEMBERS AND DELEGATES

Fourth Session
Institute of International Relations
Riverside, California
December 9-13

University of Southern California
Los Angeles
December 14, 1928

Akagi, Dr. Roy Hidenichi, Japanese Students Christian Association in North America,
715 South Hope Street, Los Angeles
Arnold, Mr. Charles, Box 93, Riverside, California
Bailey, Miss Katharyn, (student) University of Southern California, 111 North Oak,
Inglewood, California
Batten, Mr. James H., Pomona College, Claremont, California
Betts, Mrs. E. L. International Relations Section of the College Women's Club of
Pasadena, California
Bogardus, Dr. Emory S., School of Social Welfare, University of Southern California,
Los Angeles
Bowman, Miss Evalyn, Imperial County Free Library, El Centro, California.
Bradford, Mrs. C. Raymond, Woman's Aeronautic Association, 2444 Inverness Avenue,
Los Angeles
Bryson, Mr. Lyman, San Diego Open Forum, San Diego, California
Bunnell, Mrs. G. H., County President, San Bernardino County Federation of
Women's Clubs, Redlands, California
Burdette, Dr. Clara B., National Institute of Social Science, Hotel Huntington, Pasa-
dena, California
Carson, Dr. Luella Clay, National Institute of Social Sciences, 962 South Hoover,
Los Angeles
Carruthers, Mr. John, Occidental College, Los Angeles
Carsner, Mr. Eubanks, 238 Bandini Street, Riverside, California
Cherrington, Mr. Ben M., Foundation for Advancement of the Social Sciences,
University of Denver, Denver, Colorado
Clark, Mr. E. P., 9 St. James Park, Los Angeles
Clark, Mrs. E. P., 9 St. James Park, Los Angeles
Clark, Herbert F., Assistant Director, Division of Vocational Education, City Schools
of Los Angeles, Los Angeles
Cochrane, Rev. Elbis E., Free Methodist Church, Riverside
Coleman, Mr. H. E., World's Sunday School Association, 756½ Heliotrope Drive,
Los Angeles
Condit, Mr. Fillmore, 2211 East Ocean Drive, Long Beach, California
Connell, Mr. Charles T., Commissioner of Conciliation, United States Department of
Labor, 605 Federal Building, Los Angeles.
Cook, Professor O. W. E., University of Southern California, Los Angeles
Crane, Professor Judson A., American Baptist Foreign Missionary Society, University
of Southern California, Los Angeles
Crowther, Rev. James E., University Temple, Seattle, Washington
Coons, Professor Arthur G., Occidental College, Los Angeles
Diment, Miss Florence D., Pasadena Junior College, Pasadena, California
Dimock, Dr. Marshall F., University of California, Los Angeles
Duncan, Dr. Kenneth, Pomona College, Claremont, California
Dyer, Mrs. Caroline Rice, Mt. Holyoke College, 149 West 7th Street, Claremont,
California

Saunders, Miss Mira C., Chairman, International Relations, Pasadena College Women's Club, 580 North Lake Avenue, Pasadena, California
 Sawahata, Mr. George, Mission Inn, Riverside, California
 Schell, Mr. Edwin A., 614 North Kenwood, Glendale, California
 Scott, Miss Florence, (student) University of Southern California, Los Angeles
 Scudder, Mr. Doremus, 133 West 9th, Claremont, California
 Shantz, Dr. H. L., President, University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona
 Shirk, Mrs. Elbert W., Contemporary Club, Redlands, California
 Skinner, Professor M. M., University of Washington, Seattle
 Smiley, Mrs. Kate, 4816 Chicago Street, Omaha, Nebraska
 Smith, Miss Clara L., Council on International Relations, 523 North Alexandria Avenue, Los Angeles
 Snider, Mr. William E., Chairman, Board of Religious Education, Advent Christian Conference of Southern California, Box H., Tustin, California
 Stearns, Mrs. Dora A., Women's Political League, 2632 Monmouth Avenue, Los Angeles
 Story, Professor R. M., Pomona College, Claremont, California
 Stuart, Professor Graham H., Stanford University, California
 Stuart, Mrs. William Z., Redlands Contemporary Club, 406 Wisconsin Avenue, Neenah, Wisconsin
 Swartz, President H. F., Pacific School of Religion, Berkeley, California
 van Zwalenburg, Dr. C., Mission Inn, Riverside, California
 von KleinSmid, Mrs. R. B., 10 Chester Place, Los Angeles
 von KleinSmid, President R. B., University of Southern California, Los Angeles
 Waterhouse, Mr. Paul B., Japan Society and Southern California Congregational Conference, 606 Spreckels Building, Los Angeles
 Weir, Miss Mary Wallace, Near East College Association, 940 South Figueroa Street, Los Angeles
 Westover, Mrs. Myron, Council on International Relations and Friday Morning Club, 554 South St. Andrews, Los Angeles
 White, Mr. and Mrs. Clarence G., Sunset Drive, Redlands, California
 Winter, Mrs. Thomas G., General Federation of Women's Clubs, 1230 North Arroyo Blvd., Pasadena, California
 Wirt, Mr. Lincoln, National Council for the Prevention of War, 205 Sheldon Building, San Francisco
 Worthington, Mr. William, Near East Relief, 633 W. Cleveland Avenue, Spokane, Washington
 Wright, Mr. Glenn E., (student) University of Southern California, Los Angeles
 Yakeley, Mr. Leon, Pasadena Junior College, Pasadena, California
 Yamada, Mr. M., 546 Market Street, Riverside, California
 Young, Professor John Parke, Occidental College, Los Angeles

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

California Christian College	Los Angeles University of International Relations
Bentley, Professor William P.	Fitzer, Armond S. (student)
Hertzog, Professor W. S.	Lippold, Beula (student)
College of the Pacific	Mitchell, Louise I. (student)
Knoles, President Tully C.	Parsons, Clare Mae (student)
Fullerton Junior College	von KleinSmid, Chancellor R. B.
McGavran, Darrel A. (student)	Mills College
Plummer, Principal L. E.	Hoover, Professor Glenn E.
Hamilton College	Johnson, Professor Obed S.
Davenport, Professor Frederick M.	Reinhardt, President Aurelia Henry
Hollywood High School	Mt. Holyoke College
Murick, Stephen Stanton	Dyer, Mrs. Caroline Rice
Los Angeles City Schools	Northern China Union Language School, Peking
Clark, Herbert F.	Pettus, Professor W. B.
Dorsey, Superintendent Susan M.	
Larkey, Mrs. Marie A.	

- Occidental College
Carruthers, Professor John
Coons, Professor Arthur G.
Young, Professor John Parke
- Pacific School of Religion
Swartz, President H. F.
- Pasadena Junior College
Diment, Florence D.
Hattersley, L. W.
Plummer, Principal L. E.
Yakeley, Leon
- Pomona College
Batten, James H.
Duncan, Professor Kenneth
Story, Professor R. M.
- Robert College, Constantinople
Huntington, Dr. George
- Scripps College
Eames, Professor Henry Purmort
- Stanford University
Robinson, Professor Edgar E.
Stuart, Professor Graham H.
- State College of Washington
Johnson, Professor Claudius
- Syracuse University
Leebrick, Professor Karl C.
- University of Arizona
Houghton, Professor N. D.
Mez, Professor John R.
Shantz, President H. L.
- University of California (Berkeley)
Blaisdell, Allen C.
Grady, Dean Henry F.
Kerner, Professor Robert J.
Landon, Professor Edwin
Rowell, Regent Chester H.
- University of California (Los Angeles)
Graham, Jr., Professor Malbone W.
Westergaard, Professor Waldemar
- University of Denver
Cherrington, Ben M.
- University of Königsberg
Hirschberg, Professor Rudolf
- University of Pennsylvania
Collings, Professor Harry T.
- University of Southern California
Bailey, Katharyn (student)
Bogardus, Professor Emory S.
Cook, Professor O. W. E.
Crane, Professor Judson A.
Fisher, Dean John F.
Fitzer, Armond S. (student)
Lippold, Beula (student)
Mitchell, Louise I. (student)
Nakazawa, Lecturer Ken
Parsons, Clare Mae (student)
Peck, Walter (student)
Scott, Florence (student)
Struble, Professor Mildred
von KleinSmid, President R. B.
Wright, Glenn E. (student)
- University of Washington
Mander, Professor Linden A.
Martin, Professor Charles E.
Skinner, Professor M. M.
- Whittier College
Henby, David E. (student)
Murata, Goro G. (student)

CLUBS AND ORGANIZATIONS

- Advent Christian Conference of Southern California
Snider, William E.
- American Association of University Women
Emery, Mrs. Alice Jones
- American Baptist Foreign Missionary Society
Crane, Professor Judson A.
- American Friends Service Committee
Fawcett, Howard S.
- Association of Motion Picture Producers
Joy, Colonel Jason
- Boy Scouts of America
McRae, Milton A.
- California Federation of Women's Clubs (Los Angeles District)
Richmond, Mrs. Charles H.
- California State Commission for the Protection of Children and Animals
Gifford, Mr. and Mrs. Robert L.
- Chamber of Commerce (Berkeley)
Guy, Harvey H.
- Christian Science Monitor
Holdom, Courtland
- Church of the Messiah (Los Angeles)
Gaylord, Rev. Edward D.
- Contemporary Club of Redlands
Goff, Mrs. I. C.
Shirk, Mrs. Elbert W.
Stuart, Mrs. William Z.

Council on International Relations (Los Angeles)

Gleason, George
 Hunter, Allan A.
 Porter, Mrs. Sanford L.
 Smith, Clara L.
 Westover, Mrs. Myron
 Delta Phi Epsilon
 Hanson, Blake
 Ebell Club of Los Angeles
 Fisher, Mrs. Walter H.
 Fair Tariff League
 Miles, H. E.
 Free Methodist Church of Riverside
 Cochrane, Rev. Elbis E.
 Friday Morning Club
 Westover, Mrs. Myron
 General Federation of Women's Clubs
 Winter, Mrs. Thomas G.
 Hollywood Congregational Church
 Lash, Rev. James Hamilton
 Institute of Pacific Relations
 Elkinton, Alfred C.
 Imperial County Free Library
 Bowman, Evalyn
 Japan Society
 Waterhouse, Paul B.
 Japan Society of Southern California
 Pierce, Mrs. C. C.
 Japanese Students' Christian Association
 in North America
 Akagi, Dr. Roy M.
 Latter Day Saints' Church, Salt Lake
 City
 Merrill, Joseph F.
 League of Western Writers
 Field, Mrs. Ben F.
 League of Women Voters
 Raymond, Mrs. Paul
 National Board of the Young Women's
 Christian Association
 Ellis, Miss Sarah
 National Council for the Prevention of
 War
 Wirt, Lincoln
 National Democratic Congress Commit-
 tee Women
 Magill, Mrs. Gladys Estelle

National Institute of Social Sciences

Burdette, Dr. Clara B.
 Carson, Dr. Luella Clay
 Near East College Association
 Weir, Mary Wallace
 Pasadena College Women's Club
 Betts, Mrs. E. L.
 Moore, Sybil Jane
 Saunders, Mira C.
 Pasadena District Epworth League
 Pomeroy, Dorisadele
 Pasadena Presbyterian Church
 Freeman, Rev. Robert
 Southern California Congregational
 Conference
 Waterhouse, Paul B.
 San Bernardino County Federation of
 Women's Clubs
 Bunnell, Mrs. G. H.
 San Diego Open Forum
 Bryson, Lyman
 United States Chamber of Commerce
 Skinner, Secretary David A.
 United States Department of Labor
 Connell, Dr. Charles T.
 United States Navy
 Robertson, Rear Admiral A. H.
 University Temple, Seattle
 Crowther, Rev. James E.
 Vancouver, British Columbia, Province
 McGregor, Donald A.
 Woman's Aeronautic Association
 Bradford, Mrs. C. Raymond
 Women's Political League
 Stearns, Mrs. Dora A.
 World's Sunday School Association
 Coleman, M. E.
 World Unity Foundation
 Hull, Mary
 Young Women's Christian Association,
 Oakland
 Matthew, Margaret
 Young Men's Christian Association,
 Los Angeles
 Gleason, George
 Hayes, Elbert M.

