

THE POLICE JOURNAL

*A Quarterly Review for the Police Forces
of the Empire*

ISSUED UNDER OFFICIAL PATRONAGE

NOTICE TO CONTRIBUTORS

THE POLICE JOURNAL is published on the first day of January, April, July and October.

The Editor will be happy to consider articles suitable for publication in THE POLICE JOURNAL. Contributions should be typewritten (double spacing) and *must* bear the name and address of the sender on the first page. Articles can be signed with a *nom de plume* if desired. All contributions should be addressed to "The Editor of THE POLICE JOURNAL, 69 Great Russell Street, London, W.C. 1." A covering letter is desirable.

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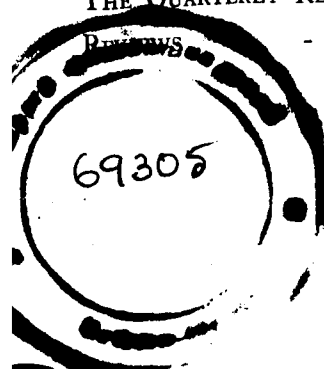
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THE POLICE JOURNAL

VOL. IV. No. 1

JANUARY 1931

Notes on Recent Crime

THE Home Secretary in a recent speech gave some remarkable figures—in 1913 188,000 people were convicted and sent to prison, in 1929 this number was less than 50,000. He attributed this decline largely to the social services. Mr. Brodrick, a London police magistrate of great experience, made the same point at a meeting of the London Police-court Mission, when he said that 'the dole has killed destitution in London.' Allowance of course must be made for the modern tendency to bind offenders over, but, even so, these figures show a great decrease in crime. Another reason for the decrease is the binding-over system itself, which, as Mr. Justice Swift pointed out, following Mr. Brodrick, has worked wonders, particularly when offenders are caught young. Sir Robert Wallace, K.C., Chairman of London Sessions, great and merciful judge and pioneer of binding over, has reckoned that 90 per cent. of those whom he binds over never appear in the dock again.

Robberies and burglaries, however, show no decline. 'I do not doubt,' said Mr. Justice McCardie recently, 'that there are a substantially larger number of persons compared with ten years ago who have decided to live a life of crime rather than a life of honest work.' His words seem to be borne out by the statistics of serious crime. There were in 1929 ten per cent. more indictable offences committed in London than in 1928 and there were 2,543 housebreakings and 1,539 shopbreakings. The problem is grave, and one is glad to see that the whole question of the habitual criminal and the present system of preventive detention is to be re-examined by a Commission.

A serious feature is the growing audacity and tendency to carry arms on the part of professional criminals. Lord Alness has drawn attention to what he did not hesitate to call 'a reign of terror' in Glasgow, caused by gangs armed with razors and other lethal weapons and against whom people did not dare to give evidence. A man named Cox has recently been convicted at the Old Bailey of shooting at two police officers, who were trying to arrest him for a burglary. The Judge, Mr. Justice Wright, after sentencing the man to 10 years' penal servitude, remarked: 'I hope that the sentence will have some effect in deterring others from carrying loaded revolvers when they are pursuing their vocation of burglary.' Another recent case was of three young men aged from 18 to 22, who staged an armed hold-up of two booking clerks and stole £112 from Barking Station. On arrest a regular arsenal of pistols and ammunition and even a gas gun was discovered. The Recorder of London, remarking that 'this sort of thing is becoming rampant,' sentenced the two elder youths to 18 and 15 months and twenty strokes of the birch while sending the youngest to Borstal. Earlier in the year Mr. Justice Swift, at the Old Bailey, sentenced to 3½ years' penal servitude a burglar who deliberately drove a car straight at a policeman who tried to stop and arrest him. The use of motor cars, often stolen expressly for the purpose of a robbery, has added considerably to police difficulties.

We have not, however, fortunately reached the state of affairs that appears from newspaper reports to prevail in America, where taking victims for a ride seems to be an ordinary incident of internecine gang warfare, and machine guns have even been resorted to, and where leading gangsters are millionaires. One gathers that the leading gangsters are determined to hold undisputed sway. Arrests are unimportant and rare, and blackmail and terrorism flourish.

An interesting case, illustrating the principle that 'a man is deemed to be innocent till he is proved guilty,' came recently

before the Court of Criminal Appeal. A young man named Turkington, accused of the manslaughter of a woman who fell from his window and was killed, had been convicted before Mr. Justice Branson at the Old Bailey and sentenced to 3 years' penal servitude. The evidence was equally consistent with the prisoner having hit the woman under the chin and so caused her to fall and with his own story that she slipped and fell without any blow from him. The Court quashed the conviction on the ground that where the evidence is equally consistent with innocence or guilt there is no case to go to the jury, for suspicion is not proof and a prisoner is in such circumstances entitled to be acquitted. The hackneyed phrase, 'the onus of proof is on the prosecution,' is not idle words.

A 'suicide pact' case came before Mr. Justice Wright at the Old Bailey in October. The details of the case, in which the survivor was acquitted, are not important; but the Judge, while reaffirming the doctrine of the law that 'if two persons were minded to commit suicide together and one of them survived, he was guilty of murder,' threw out a strong hint that it was a law which Parliament might well alter. The Report of the Committee on Capital Punishment, which is now awaited with great interest, may perhaps have something to say on the matter.

Two vitriol throwers have recently been sentenced to 10 years' penal servitude. This class of offence is a very horrible one, though fortunately rare. Mr. A, B, C, X, Y, Z cases flourish. Alphabetical *aliases* and almost invariable sentences of penal servitude are stamping out blackmail in a way that the police of ten years ago would never have dreamed of. Cases of motor manslaughter do not abate. The most interesting recent case has been that of an Oxford undergraduate who was acquitted at the Old Bailey. Mr. Justice Wright laid it down that a man who is too tired to drive properly has no right to be driving and that it might be criminal negligence for him to do so. Convictions are difficult to obtain in this class of case.

The Police of the City of London

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Commissioner of Police, City of London

PART I

THE Police of the City of London have from time immemorial been differently constituted from the Police of the other parts of the country. As far back as history goes the police functions in the City were carried out under the direction and control of the Court of Mayor and Aldermen of the several Wards, who were responsible that ' Watch and Ward ' was properly carried out.

It is recorded in the Ancient Customs and Usages of the City that :

The Mayor and Aldermen have always used to set down penal Acts for other governance of the City and of the peace, according to their discretion and advice, and proclaim the same Ordinance within the said City openly to be kept in the King's name, and of the City upon that penalty set down, and shall levie all those penalties of those which do contrary to the Ordinance aforesaid. The Mayor and Aldermen have always used, and may by custome of the same City cause to come before them the offenders which are taken within the said City for Lies and false Nuses noised abroad in disturbance of the Peace Makers, and Counterfeiters of false Seales, and false evidences, and for other notorious deceits known to them, which they shall find faulty of such malefactors by confession of the parties or by enquest and then take them and punish them by the Pillory or other chastisement by imprisonment, according to their discretion.

In the year 1285, when the Statute of Winchester was passed commanding the watch to be kept in all cities and towns as it used to be, a separate statute was passed for the City of London. This Statute was originally printed in old French and it may perhaps be of interest to give here its translation in full, viz. :

13 EDWARD I. A.D. 1285.

STATUTES FOR THE CITY OF LONDON.

These be the articles which our Lord the King doth command to be well kept in his City of London for the keeping and maintenance of his Peace. First, whereas many evils, as Murders, Robberies, and Manslaughters, have been committed heretofore in the City by Night and by Day, and People have been beaten and evil intreated, and divers other Mischances have befallen against his Peace ; it is enjoined that none be so hardly to be found going or wandering about in the Streets of the City after Curfew tolled at St. Martins le Grand, with sword and Buckler, or other arms for doing mischief, or whereof evil suspicion might arise, nor any in any other manner unless he be a great Man or other lawful Person of good repute, or their certain Messenger, having their Warrants to go from one to another, with Lanthorn in hand. And if any be found going about contrary to the form aforesaid unless he have cause to come late into the City, he shall be taken by the keepers of the Peace and be put into the Place of confinement appointed for such Offenders ; and on the morrow he shall be brought and presented before the Warden, or the Mayor of the City for the time-being, and before the Aldermen ; and according as they shall find that he hath offended, and as the Custom is, he shall be punished.

And whereas such offenders as aforesaid going about by night, do commonly resort and have their Meeting and hold their evil talk in Taverns more than elsewhere, and there do seek for shelter, lying in wait, and watching their time to do mischief, it is enjoined that none do keep a Tavern open for Wine or Ale after the tolling of the aforesaid Curfew ; but they shall keep their Tavern shut after that hour and none therein drinking or resorting ; neither shall any man admit others in his House except in Common Taverns, for whom he will not be answerable unto the King's Peace. And if any Taverner be found doing the contrary, the first time he shall be put in pledge by his Tavern drinking cup, or by other good pledge there found, and be amerced forty pence ; and if he be found a second time offending he shall be amerced half a mark ; and the third time ten shillings ; and the fourth time he shall pay the whole Penalty double, that is to say Twenty Shillings ; and the fifth time he shall be forejudged of his Trade for ever.

Also, forasmuch as Fools who delight in mischief, do learn to fence with Buckler, and thereby are the more encouraged to commit their follies ; it is provided and enjoined that none shall hold school for, nor shall teach the art of fencing with Buckler, within the City by night or by day ; and if any so do, he shall be imprisoned for 40 days.

And whereas Malefactors taken and arrested for Trespasses, as for Batteries, spilling of Blood, and other Offences against the Peace of our

Lord the King, and for evil suspicion, are often delivered too easily, by reason whereof, others the less dreading such punishments are encouraged in their follies, and in often transgressing against the Peace in expectation of such easy deliverance ; it is provided that no man so imprisoned shall be delivered by the Sheriff, nor by any Officer under him, without the award of the Warden or Mayor for the time being, and of the Aldermen ; unless the Trespass be very small ; and then good and solemn mainprize shall be taken, and of persons justiceable before the Bailiffs of the City, that he do appear before the said Warden or Mayor, and the Aldermen, at a certain day, to receive award and judgment according to his Trespass.

Moreover, it is provided that every Alderman in his Wardmote shall make diligent enquiry concerning such Malefactors, resorting to and abiding in his Ward ; and if any such be found by presentment or indictment of the good Men of the Ward, or by evil suspicion, they shall straight be attached by their Bodies and brought before the Warden or Mayor and the Aldermen, and be arraigned of that whereof they are indicted or presented ; and they who cannot acquit themselves shall be punished by imprisonment, or other punishment, at their discretion, and according to what the Trespass requireth.

And whereas divers Persons do resort unto the City, some from parts beyond the Sea, and others of this Land, and do there seek shelter and refuge, by reason of Banishment out of their own Country, and who for great offence or other misdeed have fled from their own Country ; and of these some do become Brokers, Hostellers and Innkeepers within the City for Denizens and Strangers as freely as though they were good and lawful Men of the Franchise of the City ; and some nothing do but run up and down through the street more by night than by day, and are well attired in clothing and array, and have their food of delicate meats and costly ; neither do they use any craft or merchandize, nor have they Lands or Tenements whereof to live, nor any friend to find them ; and through such Persons many perils do often happen in the City, and many evils, and some of them are found openly offending as in Robberies, breaking of Houses by night, Murders and other evil deeds ; it is provided that no man of Foreign Lands, or other Person whatsoever, shall be a resident Innkeeper or Hosteler in the City unless he be a Freeman of the City admitted and at farm before the Warden or Mayor, and the Aldermen, as a good man and true, and that he have good testimony from the Parts whence he cometh, that he hath well and lawfully departed, and that he find safe Pledges justiceable before the Bailiffs of the City to be answerable to the King's Peace, and to save the Citizens and the City harmless. And there shall be no Broker in the City, except those who are admitted and sworn before the Warden or Mayor, and Aldermen. And all that are Innkeepers, Hostellers, and

Brokers in the City, contrary to the form aforesaid from one month after the day when these Articles shall be read and published in the City, shall forego the same and withdraw themselves that they do say no more ; and if any be found offending herein after the said month, or any other of whom there is evil suspicion for his ill behaviour as for bad company, or by good evidence of the Neighbourhood, he shall forthwith be arrested by his Body by the Warden or Mayor, or the Sheriffs, or by the Aldermen in whose Ward he shall be found, and shall be punished according as he shall be found to have transgressed the Form aforesaid, or to have otherwise offended ; that is to say, Innkeepers, and Hostellers, and Brokers, shall be for ever inadmissable to the Franchise, and awarded to Prison ; and the others shall be punished by Imprisonment, or otherwise, according as the Offence requireth.

THE KING, who willeth that the Peace of his City be well kept among all persons, having been informed that his said Articles are not observed, neither can be, by reason that his Officers have been many times accused and grievously punished before his Auditors of Complaints, and elsewhere in his Court, for imprisoning and otherwise punishing Offenders and suspected Persons, for that they had not the King's Warrant for so doing ; whereby the said Officers have been and are less bold to chastise and punish offenders, and those do become much the more daring to offend, and do give unto others the example of evil doing, to the great peril of the City, and great encouragement of Offences: he doth will and command that from henceforth none of his Officers shall be complained of before his Auditors of Complaints, or elsewhere in his Court, for any imprisoning or other punishing of Offenders or Persons suspected of evil, unless it be that any Officer should do so of open malice and for his own revenge, or for the revenge of another that maliciously procureth the same, and not for the keeping of the Peace.

And the King willeth that these provisions, and the additions, be well and surely kept in the aforesaid City, for the maintenance of his Peace, with the amendments thereof when it shall please him to make such, for the profit of his City.

The Constables of the City were required to be Freemen and were elected annually at the Wardmote, one for each of the precincts into which the Wards were divided.

The old Commission and Articles of the Wardmote Inquest by the Lord Mayor to the Aldermen stated :

That in the said Wardmote, you cause to be chosen certain other honest persons to be Constables.

Also, that you keep a Roll of the Names, Surnames, Dwelling-places, professions and Trades of all persons dwelling within your Ward,

and within what Constable's Precinct they dwell, wherein the place is to be specially noted by the Street, Lane, Alley, or Sign.

Also that you cause every Constable from time to time to certify unto you, the Name, Surname, Dwelling-place, Profession and Trade of every person who shall newly come to dwell within his precinct, whereby you may make and keep your Roll perfect : and that you cause every Constable for his Precinct to that purpose to make and keep a perfect Roll in like manner.

Also that you give special charge that every Inholder, and other person within your Ward, who shall receive any person to lodge or sojourn in his House above two dayes, shall before the third day after his coming thither, give knowledge to the Constable of the precinct where he shall be so received, of the Name, Sur-name, Dwelling-place, Profession, and Trade of life, or place of Service of such person, and for what cause he shall come to reside there : and that the said Constable give present notice thereof to you ; and that the said Inholder lodge no suspected person, or Men or Women of evil name.

Also, that you cause every Constable within his Precinct, once every month at the farthest, and oftner if need require, to make diligent search and enquiry, what persons be newly come into his precinct to dwell, sojourn or lodge : and that you give special charge that no Inholder or other person, shall resist or deny any Constable, in making such search or enquiry, but shall do his best endeavour to aid and assist him therein.

And for that of late there is more resort to the City of persons evil affected in Religion, and otherwise than in former times have been : You shall diligently enquire if any man be received to dwell or abide within your Ward by the space of one year, being above the age of twelve years, and not sworn to be faithful and loyal to the King's Majesty in such sort as by the law and Custom of the City he ought to be.

The Ancient form of OATH of the CONSTABLES within the CITY OF LONDON was as follows :

Ye shall swear, that ye shall keep the peace of our Sovereign Lord the King, well and lawfully after your power. And ye shall Arrest all them that make Contect, Riot, Debate, or Affray, in breaking of the said Peace, and lead them to the House of the Compter or one of the Sheriffs. And if ye be withstood by strength of misdooers, ye shall rear on them an Out cry, and pursue them from Street to Street, and from Ward to Ward, till they be arrested : and ye shall search at all times when ye be required by the Scavengers or Beadles, the common noysance of your Ward. And the Beadle and Raker you shall help to reare and gather their Sallery and Quarterage if ye be thereunto by them required. And

if anything be done within your Ward against the Ordinance of this City, such defaults as ye shall find there done, ye shall them present to the Mayor and Ministers of the City : and if ye be letted by any person or persons, that ye may not duly do your Office, ye shall certifie the Mayor and Council of the City, of the Name or Names of him or them that so let you.

Ye shall also swear that during the time that ye shall stand in the Office, and occupy the Room of a Constable, ye shall once at the least every moneth, certifie and show to one of the Clerks of the Mayor's Court, and in the same Court, as well the Names and Sur-names of all Freemen ; which ye shall know to be deceased within the moneth in the Parish wherein ye be inhabited, as also the Names and Sur-names of all the children of the said Freemen so deceased, being Orphans of this City.

And thus you shall not leave to do, as God you help, &c.

God Save the King.

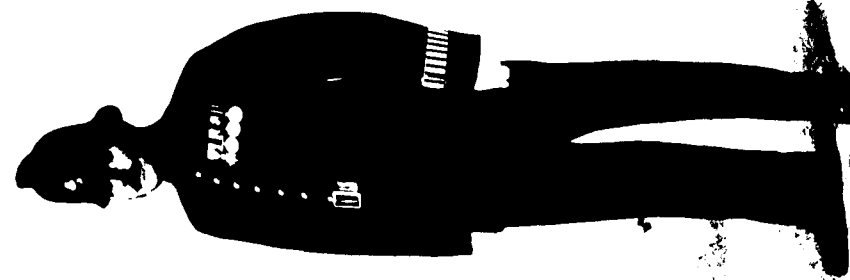
Every inhabitant was required to take part in ' Watch and Ward ' and the Constable of the precinct was responsible for seeing that the inhabitants took their turn or report defaulters. The Watch was regularly set in each Ward every night, but when disturbances arose the numbers were doubled and ordered to be kept by day as well. This was called the ' Standing Watch,' but there was also what was known as the ' Marching Watch ' which was established at a very early period to be called out on extraordinary occasions.

This system was continued for centuries, but by the middle of the seventeenth century the old Frankpledge system had become practically obsolete, crime became considerable and there was no parliamentary legislation to meet it. In 1663, however, an Act was passed by the Court of Common Council of the City, which provided that there should be on duty in the City from sunset till sunrise over 1000 Watchmen or Bellmen, commonly called ' Charlies ' after King Charles in whose reign they were instituted.

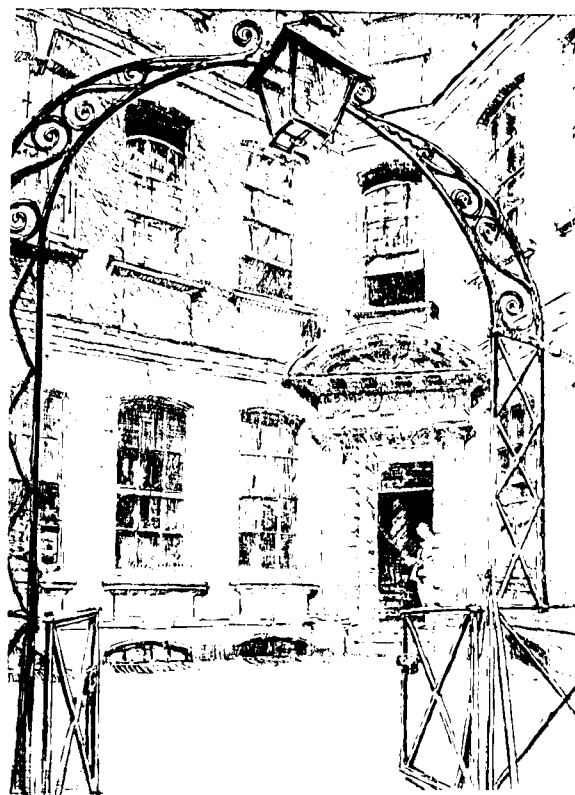
In 1737 an Act of Parliament—10 George II, cap 22—was passed 'for better regulating the Night Watch and Bedels within the City of London and the liberties thereof,' which required the Court of Common Council to order and appoint what number of Watchmen and Bedels they should judge necessary to be kept in each of the several Wards, to



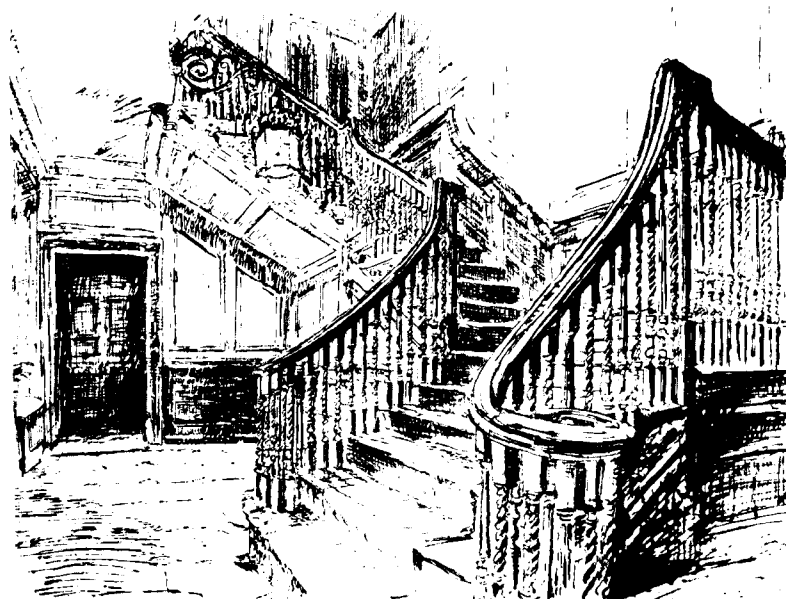
A CONSTABLE - 1839



A CONSTABLE - 1930



CITY POLICE OFFICE
THE OLD BUILDING ERECTED IN 1725 AND DEMOLISHED
IN 1929



CITY POLICE OFFICE
THE STAIRCASE FROM THE OLD BUILDING WHICH HAS BEEN RE-ERECTED
IN THE NEW BUILDING, OPENED IN 1930

THE POLICE OF THE CITY OF LONDON 11

direct how they should be armed and what wages should be given them for their attendance ; also to order and direct what number of Constables should attend every night in each respective Ward, and to make such other orders and Regulations as the nature of each particular service should seem to them to require.

Under that Act a more efficient system of police was established by day as well as by night, and the Force then established may be said to be the first step towards the institution of regular paid police. The system of watching was continued in the several Wards, but a Force of paid Constables or Patrols was appointed. In addition to the Ward Constables and Watchmen, who numbered about 1000, the whole carried out their duties under the supervision of two City Marshals, who acted as the High Constables for the City assisted by six marshal men.

In the early part of the nineteenth century the police system of London was the subject of considerable comment and Parliamentary Committees were appointed to investigate and report on the subject in 1812, 1816, 1818, 1822 and 1828.

The Committee of 1812 reported as follows :

The Metropolis is considered as divided into three parts. The City of London properly so called, and the Liberties thereof ; the City of Westminster, and the Liberties thereof ; the several parishes which are neither within the City of London and its Liberties, or the City of Westminster and its Liberties. The City of London is governed by various ancient charters and Statutes. The Statute of the 13th of Edward I. (Statuta Civitatis London) is one of the most ancient ; but the principal Act which at this time regulates the Nightly Watch of the City of London, is the 10 Geo. II. c. 22 by which the Lord Mayor, Aldermen and Common Council are directed yearly to make regulations on this subject, and the Aldermen and Common Councilmen in each Ward are to carry these regulations into effect, and to make such minor regulations as to details, as they may judge necessary. The Act specifies the duties of the Constables and Watchmen, and prescribes the mode in which they are to be punished for misconduct or neglect.

The City of London, from the nature of its Magistracy, the description of its various public Officers, the graduation and subordination of their various classes, the division and subdivision of its local limits, affords an example of that unity, and of that dependence of parts on each other, without which no well constructed and efficient system of

Police can ever be expected. If such a system could be successfully imitated in Westminster and its Liberties, and within the other adjacent parishes, considerable benefit might be expected; for your Committee are disposed to concur with several witnesses, that a well arranged system of superintendence, vigilance and control, would tend more to the prevention of crime than any degree of activity in the pursuit and conviction of criminals; however, the two systems are not only not incompatible, but would afford mutual aid and assistance to each other.

This system of Watch and Ward, adapted by the Legislature to the City of London, is not a dead letter but is kept alive and in action by the constant superintendence of the Marshals of the City, with their assistance, who every night visit the different Wards and precincts, and take care that the constables, beadles, and watchmen of all description are alert and do their duty. Morning reports are made to the Lord Mayor; deficiencies are noticed, as well as any disorders or irregularities, or other occurrences.

The Parliamentary Committee of 1828 reported to a similar effect, and Sir Robert Peel in presenting the Bill in Parliament in 1829 to form the Metropolitan Police Force took as his model the then existing City of London Police Force. He, however, desired to consolidate the two Forces, but the Corporation strongly objected to this and advanced four principle reasons for keeping them distinct, viz.:

1st.—‘That the City so differs in its locality and the nature of its property from other parts of the Metropolis as to require a separate and differently regulated Police Force for its protection.’

2nd.—‘That it would be a great inconvenience to the inhabitants of the City to be obliged to apply to the Commissioners at Whitehall, in cases of complaint against constables.’

3rd.—‘That the taking away the power of appointing and managing its own Police would be an interference with the Charters and Privileges of the City.’

4th.—‘That the inhabitants would sustain a great pecuniary loss by being deprived of the contribution which is now made from the Corporation Funds towards the expense of the City Police.’

The above-stated reasons prevailed. The Corporation and the Citizens maintained their old constitutional rights of self-government, and the City remained undisturbed in its ancient right and privilege of ‘Watch and Ward.’

The City Police system was remodelled by the Lord Mayor and Aldermen in 1832, when a force of 1 superintendent,

3 inspectors, 10 sergeants and 85 constables were appointed for duty in the day-time only, the police functions at night being left to the Ward Constables and Watchmen as hitherto. This force was again found inadequate in 1838, when it was re-organized and a strength of 501 was appointed, consisting of 12 inspectors, 50 sergeants and 438 constables under the command of a superintendent or Chief Officer—James Raymond Whithair, Esq.

‘Not knowing what to do I thought I’d hasten back to town
And beg our own Lord Mayor to catch the boy who’d “done me brown.”

His Lordship said he’d try and find him out
But he rather thought there were several vulgar boys about.

He sent for Mr. Whithair then and I described “the swag,”
My mackintosh, my sugar tongs, my spoons and carpet bag
He promised that the New Police should all their powers employ
But never to this hour have I beheld that vulgar boy.’

Ingoldsby Legends, Misadventures at Margate.

The City was then divided into six Police Divisions with a station house for each at:

St. Sepulchres	Tower
St. Brides	Bishopgate
Cordwainer	Cripplegate

A Clerk and Surgeon were also appointed and the Chief Office was at Guildhall.

In 1839, when the Bill for the second Metropolitan Police Act was presented in Parliament by Lord John Russell, Secretary of State for the Home Department, enlarging the Metropolitan Police district, etc., it was again proposed that the City of London should become part of the Metropolitan Police district, and on the 12th March, the Lord Mayor, Aldermen and Commons of the City of London in Common Council assembled petitioned Her Majesty The Queen against this attempted infringement of the rights and privileges of the City, and on the 21st of that month attended Her Majesty at Buckingham Palace with the Address, wherein it was set forth that:

‘We, your Majesty’s dutiful subjects, have established a Police in the City of London fully adequate to its wants, and equal, if not superior

to the Metropolitan Police, and we therefore feel that there exists no occasion nor pretence for the measure contemplated by the Bill ; we are most anxious for a thorough and complete co-operation between the two bodies, and that such a union may be effected as shall carry every wise and salutary principle into operation without interfering with or destroying, the immemorial rights and privileges of the citizens of the City of London.'

Her Majesty received the Deputation very graciously, and was pleased to return the following answer, viz. :

'The peace and security of the inhabitants of my Capital require my care and the attention of my Government.

'With these objects in view I have directed measures to be submitted to Parliament, which will, I have no doubt, receive their deliberate consideration. I fully rely on their zeal for the welfare of my people, and their regard for the rights and privileges of all my subjects.'

Subsequently, a deputation from the Police and Watch Committee had two conferences with Lord John Russell, when the whole subject was fully considered, and it was agreed that the Corporation should introduce a Bill into Parliament in the then Session (1839) for the regulation of their own Police, preserving all their Rights and Privileges. This led to the passing of the City of London Police Act, on 17th August 1839 (2 & 3 Vict. Cap. xciv.), to take effect as from 25th December 1839.

Section 3 of the Act of 1839, under which the force is now constituted, enacts that the Corporation shall appoint a fit person, subject to the approval of His Majesty to be signified by one of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, as Commissioner of the Police Force of the City of London, and that His Majesty or the Court of Mayor and Aldermen, might remove the said Commissioner, if he or they should see occasion so to do, for misconduct or other reasonable cause.

Section 4 provides that on every occasion of the appointment of a Commissioner every Alderman or Common Councilman desirous of proposing any person for the office shall lodge with the Town Clerk the name, etc., of the candidate with such testimonials as the proposer may think fit, all such statements to be printed and circulated among the members of the Court of Common Council and a printed copy thereof

sent to the Secretary of State fourteen days at least before the Mayor, Aldermen and Commons shall finally determine on the person whom they will elect ; and Section 5 enacts that every person to be appointed a Commissioner of the City Police shall, before he shall begin to exercise the duties of his office, take the following oath before some Justice or Baron of one of His Majesty's Courts of Record at Westminster (that is to say) :

'I, A. B., do swear that I will faithfully, impartially and honestly according to the best of my skill and knowledge, execute all the powers and duties of Commissioner of the City Police under and by virtue of an Act passed in the third year of the reign of Queen Victoria, intituled an Act for regulating the police of the City of London.'

Section 9 provides that such sufficient number of fit and able men as the Mayor, Aldermen and Commons from time to time shall direct shall be appointed from time to time by the Commissioner to be a Police Force for the City of London and the liberties thereof ; and the men so to be appointed shall be sworn in as constables for preserving the peace and preventing robberies and felonies, and apprehending offenders against the peace, and the men so sworn shall have all such power, authorities, privileges and advantages and be liable to all such duties and responsibilities, pains and penalties as any constable duly appointed may have within his constablewick by virtue of the common law of this realm or of any statutes made or to be made, and shall obey all such lawful commands as they may from time to time receive from the Commissioner for conducting themselves in the execution of their duty.

Section 14 enacts that the Commissioner may from time to time, subject to the approbation of the Mayor and Aldermen, or any three of them, and also of one of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, frame such orders and regulations as he shall deem expedient relative to the general government of the force, the places of their residence, the classification, rank and particular service of the several members, their distribution and inspection, the description of arms, accoutrements and other necessities to be furnished to them for the performance of their duty, and all such other orders and regulations relative to the force as the Commissioner shall

deem expedient for preventing neglect or abuse and for rendering the force efficient in the discharge of all its duties.

This section also provides that the Commissioner may suspend or dismiss from his employment any man belonging to the force whom he shall think remiss or negligent in the discharge of his duties or otherwise unfit for the same; and requires that the Commissioner shall send to the Secretary of State and to the Lord Mayor such returns of the state of crime and conduct of the police as the Secretary of State or the Lord Mayor shall severally require.

By Section 24 of the Act, one of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State may, in any case of special emergency, at the request of the Lord Mayor, authorize the Metropolitan Police to act within the City of London; and the Lord Mayor may, at the request of the Secretary of State in any case of special emergency, authorize the City Police to act within the Metropolitan Police district under the command of their respective officers.

Section 54 provides that the Mayor, Aldermen and Commons may appoint a Committee to manage and transact all or any of the matters or purposes which they, the Mayor, Aldermen and Commons are required to do, execute or perform under the Act, and Sections 94-95 provide that until the Act is repealed the ancient right or custom of electing Ward Constables in the City of London shall be suspended but if the Act is repealed the right or custom shall be revived and exercised as if the Act had not been made.

The Act also contains general provisions for regulating places of public resort, preventing nuisances and obstructions, etc., in streets, and for the apprehension and detention of offenders.

(To be continued)

The Human Element in Traffic Control

BY MAJOR-GENERAL W. R. E. MURPHY, D.S.O., M.C., M.A.

Deputy Commissioner, Civic Guard, Irish Free State

IN recent years much attention has been directed to the finding of solutions to the many problems arising from the abnormal increase in road transport that followed the introduction of the internal combustion engine as a means of propulsion for road-using vehicles.

Year by year the returns of traffic accidents in practically all countries show a rapid increase in the numbers of persons killed and injured on roads and streets, so that the numbers of persons killed and injured annually in any of the most populous countries equals or even exceeds the numbers of the killed and wounded in some of the most important engagements of the Great War.

As the number of mechanically propelled vehicles in use increases, the accident rate also increases, but the graph representing the accident rate mounts much more steeply than the graph which represents the increase in the number of vehicles. That result is not surprising. It is only natural to expect that the number of traffic accidents will, under present conditions, increase at a greater proportionate rate than the increase in the number of mechanically propelled vehicles.

This increase in the number of traffic accidents has been the subject of much public discussion. It is a matter in which the public is keenly interested. Government Commissions have sat in many countries, examining a host of witnesses and drawing from their combined wisdom the materials for legislation. The engineer, the town planner, the police expert has each in his way contributed something to finding a solution to the problem of making road travel safer. Yet, despite all this endeavour, despite all the legislative reforms effected,

despite the removal of road dangers, the improvement in the vehicles in use and the improvement of road transport facilities, we find that the annual toll in life and limb increases steadily from year to year.

Must we, we may ask ourselves, then regard this annual holocaust as the price we must necessarily pay for the intensive development of road transport?

Cannot anything further be done to reduce the casualty list of road travel?

To these questions we may add two others.

Why have the improvements effected in the management and control of road traffic not proved really effective in effecting a material reduction in the number of road accidents?

Why, if the problem has been handled in the proper way, does the annual casualty list continue to increase so rapidly, and in so much greater proportion than the actual increase in road traffic?

These are questions to which all who are concerned in traffic control must find answers.

NEGLECT OF THE HUMAN FACTOR

Writ large across all returns of traffic accidents in every country, one finds the cause of the majority of traffic accidents carelessness—carelessness of the driver and carelessness of the pedestrian. Yet what has been done to rectify this? In the majority of countries the answer is practically nothing.

To my mind too much attention has been devoted to what for want of a better term may be called the mechanical and engineering side of traffic control. Thus large sums of money have been expended in road improvement schemes, in the elimination of such road dangers as blind corners, narrow roads, etc., in the installation of elaborate light systems of control, etc. In addition, much effort has been directed to 'shepherding' the road user to safety and large numbers of police have been diverted to and employed in the regulation of traffic.

These things are all to the good and have done much to make road travel safer than would otherwise have been under present conditions. It must not be taken that the writer

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cavils at such improvements. But the basic fact remains that despite all this effort, the accident rate increases. Why? Perhaps the answer may be found in the fact that all these efforts have been efforts to shepherd the road user to safety, by eliminating in certain ways and as far as possible, the causes of accidents and by providing him, in the persons of the traffic police, with nurses who will shepherd and protect him from danger, even despite himself.

In all this there is one basic mistake, the lack of an appeal to the human element, the lack of an appeal to the intelligence of the road user—the lack of the organization of a real system of co-operation between road user and road user, and between the road user and the traffic controller in their joint task of securing a higher degree of safety on the roads.

NEED FOR A CODE OF ROAD CONDUCT

The introduction of the system of white lines, and the provision of directional signs is, in a way, a small beginning of the task of securing this co-operation, yet how much more remains to be done!

The unfortunate road user is still awaiting definite instructions as to what he may do or not do on the highway. He is still awaiting a definite code of road conduct. He is awaiting a set of rules, which will appeal to his common sense and intelligence and which will provide him with a means of effectively co-operating with other road users and the traffic controllers in securing a higher margin of safety in road travel.

At present, little has been done to secure this intelligent co-operation. The rules of the road, legally enforceable, are out of date and unsuitable to modern traffic conditions. Yet such rules of the road must be the basis of any real co-operation between road users and traffic controllers.

Despite their obvious necessity one finds in very few countries definite rules of road conduct enforced by law. In few countries does one find really useful codes of 'Rules of the Road' which provide a really safe guide to road conduct for the general public, both drivers and pedestrians.

Ask the average intelligent motoring member of the

public what are the rules of the road, and you may be told :

- ' Drive on the left.'
- ' Pass on the right.'
- ' Give the necessary signals if driving a vehicle.'
- ' Slow down at cross roads.'
- ' Don't cut corners.'

Complying with these rules, the average road user regards himself as fulfilling all that may be required of him, and if he complies with them he fulfils practically all, or perhaps more than the law requires of him. But what of the motorist who disregards such ' safety ' rules ? Unless he be apprehended for dangerous driving (a difficult thing to prove) he goes scot free. If on the contrary there were a definite code of ' Road Conduct ' specifying and prohibiting certain practices as dangerous, there can be little doubt that such prohibition would have an important psychological effect on drivers who might otherwise be inclined to drive dangerously. At present the individual driver is left to his own discretion in deciding upon what may be dangerous. This is a responsibility he should not be called upon to bear.

The argument that a general provision against ' dangerous driving ' eliminates any necessity for detailed rules of road conduct is scarcely worthy of consideration. It leaves to the driver, to the policeman, and to the magistrate the solution of the problem of what is dangerous driving. '*Quot homines tot sententiae.*' A poor solution !

The need for a complete code of rules of the road which will meet the requirements of modern traffic needs and which will govern the conduct of all road users from the pedestrian to the owner of a Rolls Royce seems too obvious a necessity to have to plead for. Unfortunately, however, this necessity is not yet admitted as a vital defect in traffic laws.

In Great Britain, on reading the report of the Royal Commission on Traffic, one finds that the drawing up of a definite code of Road Conduct was shelved by the Commission, which however recommended that such code should be prepared. In 1928 in the Free State, an Inter-Departmental Committee reported on the Control and Regulation of Road Traffic. This

Committee similarly shirked the problem of drawing up such rules and recommended that the Ministry of Local Government should be empowered to make regulations in this matter. As regards pedestrians the Committee came to the conclusion that ' the regulation of pedestrian traffic is not a matter we would like to recommend for legislation,' adding a pious expression of opinion that it would be desirable if pedestrians conformed to the rules suggested by the police. In my opinion both Commissions failed in this very vital respect to perceive the most essential need of traffic control, and an effective means of reducing the traffic accident rate, *i.e.*, the provision of a definite code of rules of the road.

It is submitted that there is a very real necessity for the drafting of a complete code of rules of the road. Such code of rules will provide the public with the guidance they require. They will provide a basis of co-operation between the various classes of road users, and will provide a definite rule of conduct in emergencies, instead of, as at present, relying on the judgment or good-will of the individual.

The argument that an elaborate code of rules will not be remembered or understood may be discounted. Means of publicity, the press, the radio, lectures, cartoons are so extensive nowadays that it is possible to carry on an intensive educative campaign. The argument that such rules may infringe considerably upon the freedom now allowed hardly deserves consideration. Severe restrictions are for example placed on pedestrians in Paris and in a large number of American cities. When the public realizes that such rules are made for the welfare of all road users, and if they see that their adoption will make for their greater safety on streets and roads, the outcry from the few will be drowned in the chorus of approval from the many.

In any case, road travel with its high rate of mortality and accident risk cannot be permitted to develop on the haphazard and fortuitous lines it has followed up to the present.

Another question arises and that is the question of the enforcement of such rules. The argument is advanced that it would require many more police, and that generally such code would be found impossible in working.

One answer is that, in view of the appalling loss of life, no methods should be left untried in seeking a remedy. The objection that many more police would be necessary really begs the question. Police are now employed preventing the vague offence of 'dangerous driving' and enforcing archaic traffic laws. The same number could more usefully be employed in enforcing sane laws. In any case the objection is beside the point, because it is submitted that by the provision of a definite code of conduct, the co-operation of the overwhelming mass of the people will be secured with a resultant raising of the general standard of road conduct, making it easier to concentrate on the deliberate offenders against such code.

There is a general tendency to tighten up the law regarding such matters, as the age of drivers, the issue of licences, the braking and equipment of vehicles, insurance and a host of various matters. But there is no clear indication to a driver how he shall conduct himself upon the highway. It is submitted that this defect is the most vital one in legislation dealing with the traffic problem.

PEDESTRIAN TRAFFIC

Let us first take the case of pedestrian traffic and try to arrive at some idea of the regulations required in order to deal with this form of traffic. At present the pedestrian has few rules to guide him. 'Walk on the right of the footway,' 'Pass on the left' comprises practically his code. What are the results? We shall find the answer in the police statistics of every city in the world. Taking these statistics generally we find that an average of approximately 42 per cent. of traffic accidents is caused by the carelessness and negligence of pedestrians. This average is returned by so many police forces that it must represent a fairly general condition of affairs. An analysis of the fatal traffic accidents in Dublin during 1929 shows that 45 per cent. of these accidents were caused through the fault of the pedestrian. Figures compiled by the Safety First Council in Great Britain from returns of accidents furnished by coroners show that 48 per cent. of these accidents were due to the carelessness of road users other than motorists. One is accordingly forced to the conclusion that legislation

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which imposes additional restrictions on the motorist, while imposing no corresponding restrictions on pedestrians and other road users, will not help very materially in reducing the accident rate. If no steps are taken effectively to regulate pedestrian traffic this the most fruitful cause of traffic accidents will remain. The refusal to legislate for the control of pedestrian traffic is illogical and against the balance of evidence, and it is not too much to assert that legislation which does not provide for the control of pedestrian traffic leaves practically half the traffic problem unsolved.

It also neglects the human factor. If the authorities are unable to decide upon a code of rules for the pedestrian is it logical to expect that the pedestrian without guidance will evolve a safety code for himself? Undoubtedly the application of the law 'the survival of the fittest' will in time give us a generation of pedestrians which will be imbued with more traffic sense, and being so imbued will be less liable to become involved in accidents. But the failure to provide a code of conduct for the pedestrian is a shameful confession of inefficiency and ineffectiveness on the part of those responsible for seeking a solution of traffic problems. It is also a shirking of the duty of instructing a class of road user which suffers most in traffic accidents. The argument that such regulations will not be observed or disliked really does not deserve consideration. Human beings are reasonable and intelligent and a code of regulations obviously inspired by zeal for their safety will in time be observed, even if at first such regulations may be the subject of protest by reducing the freedom, or rather the licence at present enjoyed.

Is the difficulty of drawing up such a code so great that it is impossible to draft regulations which will prevent many of the accidents in which pedestrians are now involved? It is submitted that no such difficulty exists, but that an analysis of the cause of such accidents will reveal the means of preventing or at least in time of largely reducing the number of such accidents. The law as it stands is ridiculous. The pedestrian and the vehicle each has an equal right to the roadway. Yet footways are provided for pedestrian traffic only. Logically, under certain restrictions, the vehicle should have first right

to the highway. The knowledge of the fact that a pedestrian has at present equal rights with a vehicle to the highway leads to insistence on such rights, and the habit of demanding or expecting it. It leads to the acquiring of the attitude of mind in the pedestrian that it is the job of the driver of a vehicle to avoid accident without the pedestrian feeling a corresponding onus upon himself. It cultivates a wrong state of mind—the wrong outlook—and undoubtedly this attitude is the cause of many of the 42 per cent. of accidents referred to above.

If the law stated broadly that footways were for pedestrians only, highways for vehicles mainly, with restricted rights for pedestrians on highways owing to the danger involved in their presence on the highway, a saner outlook would prevail and an outlook that would make for greater care on the part of the pedestrian when he is of necessity forced to use the highway.

The argument that a pedestrian who by his carelessness runs the risk of losing his life, will not be deterred by a mere regulation fails to convince. Human nature is a queer thing and many a man who will risk his life in the most foolhardy exploits will think twice before he is prepared to appear in a Court of Law. By such a code the motorist will, at least, be freed from the burden of paying for the folly of the careless pedestrian, and the Courts will be provided with a safe guide on determining the relative responsibility of persons involved in accidents with pedestrians. Modern civilization is based on a high general level of discipline and it is futile to argue that discipline cannot be observed by pedestrians.

Unless something is done to provide pedestrians with a rule of conduct it is fairly safe to conclude that the present accident figures will continue to increase from year to year. The Civic Guard, in giving evidence at the Traffic Commission held in Dublin in 1927, put forward the suggestion that the following suggestion should be made the groundwork of a code of regulations for pedestrians :

SUGGESTED CODE FOR PEDESTRIANS

On the Footway

That pedestrians should be obliged to walk as close as possible to the *left* of the footway, as opposed to the old rule

'keep to the right.' That when passing overtaken pedestrians the person passing should pass on the right.

That walking abreast on footways (except in passing) with more than two other persons, *i.e.*, three in all, should be prohibited.

That pedestrians obstructing in any way the free passage of pedestrians or other traffic on any footway or carriageway be an offence (*i.e.*, collecting in groups ; thus forcing other persons on to the highway).

That the driving of perambulators abreast on any footway, except in passing, should be an offence.

On the Highway

That it be an offence to cross a roadway diagonally.

That it be an offence to cross a roadway in contravention of any notices erected by authority defining how and where such roadway may be crossed.

That it be an offence to walk upon the highway without good or sufficient reason, where footways are available.

That it be an offence to walk more than three abreast on the highway.

That it be an offence to walk upon the highway not keeping as close as possible to the left of such highway.

It appears needless to argue in a Police journal the value of some such code of regulations. The changing of the rule of the footway 'Keep to the right' to the rule 'Keep to the left' in consonance with the rule of the road would alone prevent many accidents. Thus if a pedestrian keeping to the left walks on the outside of the footway, he will face the on-coming traffic, before stepping from the footway. If walking on the inside he will have the width of the footway to cross while looking around him for possible traffic dangers.

The other rules are aimed at the elimination of known causes of accidents and risks incurred by pedestrians. They are definite and provide a safety code for the pedestrian. After a short time they would become well known and obeyed and when obeyed should lessen the present high percentage of pedestrian accidents.

The facts show us that the control of pedestrians is really

as important as the control of vehicular traffic. Can any legislation purporting to be for the satisfactory regulation of traffic be regarded as effective if this vital matter is overlooked?

RULES OF THE ROAD

The general rules of the road, as at present in operation in Ireland, are contained in the Summary Jurisdiction Act of 1851. In the seventy-nine years which have elapsed since then, it apparently has been beyond legal ingenuity to draft a new and up-to-date general set of rules, and even now we find the responsibility evaded. Many special rules have been made under various Acts, but what is required is a general set of rules to regulate the conduct of road users in general without any reference to the particular class of vehicle which the individual may control.

Such rules are necessary, and it is no answer to reply that they would be difficult to draft, or if drafted might be unnecessarily rigid. The mounting toll of human life sacrificed to traffic demands that all effective means should be tried to remedy the situation. It cannot at least be argued that we could not improve on the effort of our predecessors three-quarters of a century ago.

Here are the rules; let us examine them in the light of modern traffic:

(1) Any person driving any carriage whatsoever or riding any horse or other animal, who meeting any other carriage or horse or other animal, shall not keep his carriage or horse or other animal on the left or near side of the road or street, or, if passing any other carriage or horse or other animal going in the same direction, shall not in all cases where it is practicable go and pass to the right or off side of such other carriage or horse or other animal, shall be liable to a fine not exceeding ten shillings.

(2) Any person riding any horse, and leading any other horse who shall not keep such led horse on the side farthest away from any carriage or person passing him on any public road or in any street of a town, shall be liable to a fine not exceeding ten shillings.

(3) Any person who shall in any manner wilfully or by

negligence or misbehaviour prevent or interrupt the free passage of any person or carriage on any public road or street, or crossing, shall be liable to a fine not exceeding twenty shillings.

(4) Any person riding any horse or animal or driving any sort of carriage (a) who shall ride or drive the same furiously on any public road or street so as to endanger any passenger or person, or (b) who shall by carelessness or wilful misbehaviour cause any injury to any person or property on any public road or street, shall be liable to a fine not exceeding twenty shillings.

As regards the first rule it is apparently only obligatory on a person to keep to the left 'when meeting any other carriage.'

The consequence is that slow traffic may travel in any portion as long as it is on the left half of the road with the result that this type of traffic, instead of keeping close to the left kerb, generally travels along the left centre of the road, forcing overtaking traffic to the right and into the path of the oncoming traffic, or necessitating the faster traffic hooting it out of the way. There is no mention in the rule of keeping to the left to allow overtaking traffic to pass. In any case when is a vehicle on the left of the road? The rule does not define it. Must it be completely on the left half of the road, or is it on the left, if a portion only of the vehicle is on the left half of the road?

In a case in Dublin some years ago a magistrate actually decided that a cab, which had traversed a narrow busy street holding up large numbers of vehicles by driving along the centre of the street, was on the left of the street, as from the evidence it appeared that the wheels on the left side of the vehicle were on the left half of the street; hence the cab was on the left of the street and no offence was committed. One may say that the driver should have been summoned also under Rule Three for obstruction. But I have known instances in which magistrates asked for the production of witnesses who were obstructed. The average business man has neither the inclination nor the time to attend in Court to prove such cases if police evidence will not be accepted as sufficient. It is not necessary to labour the defects of the present rules. They are vague and unsatisfactory and do not provide a complete code of guidance to road users. They are open to all kinds of

absurd interpretations, which may be good in law, but are bad in practice, at least from the point of view of the traffic controller. These rules at present governing traffic are unsuitable and inadequate for dealing with modern traffic in many ways and as far as I know, except for special local rules, the same rules govern traffic in Great Britain.

One serious defect is that there is no indication of the proper location of the various classes of vehicles on the highway and the relative position of the various vehicles with regard to each other. There is no rule regarding passing, entering a main road from a side road, and no guidance given in the many other everyday problems that confront the driver. There is no recognition of the essential difference which must affect all traffic regulations, *i.e.*, the respective speeds of various classes of vehicles. Consequently there is no clearly defined ruling on the relative position of the fast and slow traffic on the highway. The best relief for congestion and delay is to ensure that vehicles moving at a slow rate of speed should travel in one line close to the left of the road, while the faster vehicles move in another and distinct traffic stream on the left centre of the road. This is the general practice, but the careless driver who offends against this practice cannot at present be made amenable unless he is prosecuted for obstruction, an offence difficult to prove. It is the exception—the non-complying driver who is the cause often of accidents, and generally of delay and inconvenience to other road users, and with him the law should deal. It is therefore suggested that slow-moving vehicles, by which are meant those the average speed of which does not exceed 20 m.p.h., should be compelled to travel keeping the near side of such vehicles within four feet of the left edge of the road, and that the faster moving vehicles (*i.e.*, those which travel at a greater average speed than 20 m.p.h.) should travel on the left centre of the highway, and that the speed requirements of machines should be taken into consideration when drafting rules of the road. A rule dealing with this matter will do much to free the roads of obstruction and the practice of cutting in—a practice which leads to frequent collisions.

To complete this rule as to the location of vehicles on the

highway one will have to legislate for the pedal cyclist, who would be classed as slow traffic. It is a general practice for pedal cyclists to ride upon the left centre of the road, in a traffic stream, the average speed of which is much in excess of that of the pedal cyclist. The position of these cyclists thus results in the obstruction of the faster moving vehicle.

Again it is not uncommon to see three or more cyclists ride abreast. No other vehicles may drive abreast in this fashion, nor can cyclists expect that this privilege should be continued under modern traffic conditions. One privilege can be granted, and that is that two (not more) pedal cyclists may ride abreast, the outer cyclist travelling on an alignment of not more than seven or eight feet from the left of the road, *i.e.*, the two cyclists are thus allowed a portion of the road equivalent to the width of an ordinary vehicle. To sum up, the regulation governing the position of vehicles on the roadway should provide that all slow-moving traffic must keep strictly to the left, leaving the left centre of the highway free for faster moving traffic. In this respect the camber of roadways should not be so steep as to cause drivers to prefer the left centre.

The following rules are therefore suggested :

Slow-moving Traffic

(1) That all slow-moving traffic (*i.e.*, traffic the average speed of which does not exceed 20 m.p.h.) should travel with the near side of each vehicle within four feet of the left edge of the road. That not more than two pedal cyclists shall be permitted to ride abreast except in passing, and that when so riding abreast, the outer offside cyclist shall not travel at a greater distance from the left edge of the road than seven feet.

That the driver of any such slow-moving vehicle shall resume immediately on passing another vehicle the original line, keeping the near side of his vehicle within four feet of the left of the road.

Fast Traffic

(2) That fast traffic (*i.e.*, vehicles the average rate of speed of which exceeds 20 m.p.h.) shall travel on the left centre of the highway.

Passing of Tramcars

As we are dealing with the passage of vehicles on the highway, it is as well to refer to the question of passing tramcars. Except for local legislation the legal position is that one must pass such vehicles on the right. But this is not always possible, and in practice this rule is not observed and cannot in many cases be observed. The law should recognize this. It is therefore suggested that a rule should legalize passing a tramcar on the left, where practicable, having regard to the safety of other road users, provided that a clear space of six feet (for safety purposes) be left between the left side of the tramcar and the right or off side of the passing vehicle. If trams are stopped this space of six feet leaves a margin of safety for people descending from the tram. In narrow streets it will practically result in the prohibition of passing trams on the left.

As regards the other rules necessary, it is proposed to give shortly the suggestions put forward by the Civic Guard at the Traffic Commission held in Dublin in 1927, as this article is perhaps already sufficiently long.

Cross Roads and Corners

It was suggested that it be made obligatory on all vehicles entering a main road from a side road to diminish speed to a walking pace, warning signs that such main road was being approached to be painted on the side road or shown by some other form of approved sign.

Passing out

That passing out on cross roads, the approaches to cross roads, or side roads, or sharp curves, or humpback hills and bridges, or on any road whatsoever where a clear view of the roadway for at least 100 yards ahead is not ordinarily obtained, should be forbidden.

Turning to Left and Right

In turning to the left, it was suggested that it should be made obligatory to do so, keeping within four feet of the left kerb. In turning to the right that it should be made obligatory to pass round the point of intersection of the intersecting

roads, such point to be a point where the lines drawn along the centres of the intersecting roads meet.

Obstruction

That any person who wilfully or carelessly or by negligence or misbehaviour prevents or interrupts the free passage of any person or vehicle in any public place, or who when warned of the intention to pass by the driver of a faster travelling overtaking vehicle shall not immediately move sufficiently to the left to permit the overtaking vehicle to pass, or who having signalled such overtaking vehicle to pass accelerates when the overtaking vehicle is passing, shall be guilty of an offence.

Persons drawn by Vehicles

That it be an offence for any person to ride upon or cause himself to be drawn or carried by any vehicle without the consent of the owner or driver. (This deals with persons who jump on the side boards of motors to offer their services to guard it when parked as well as cyclists who hang on to motors and suffer themselves to be drawn by such.)

That it be an offence that any person so drawn by any vehicle should take up a position on the right or offside or right rear of such vehicle in such a manner as to prevent or interrupt the free passage of passing or meeting vehicles or to prevent such passing or meeting vehicles passing the vehicle by which he is drawn within a space of three feet of such vehicle.

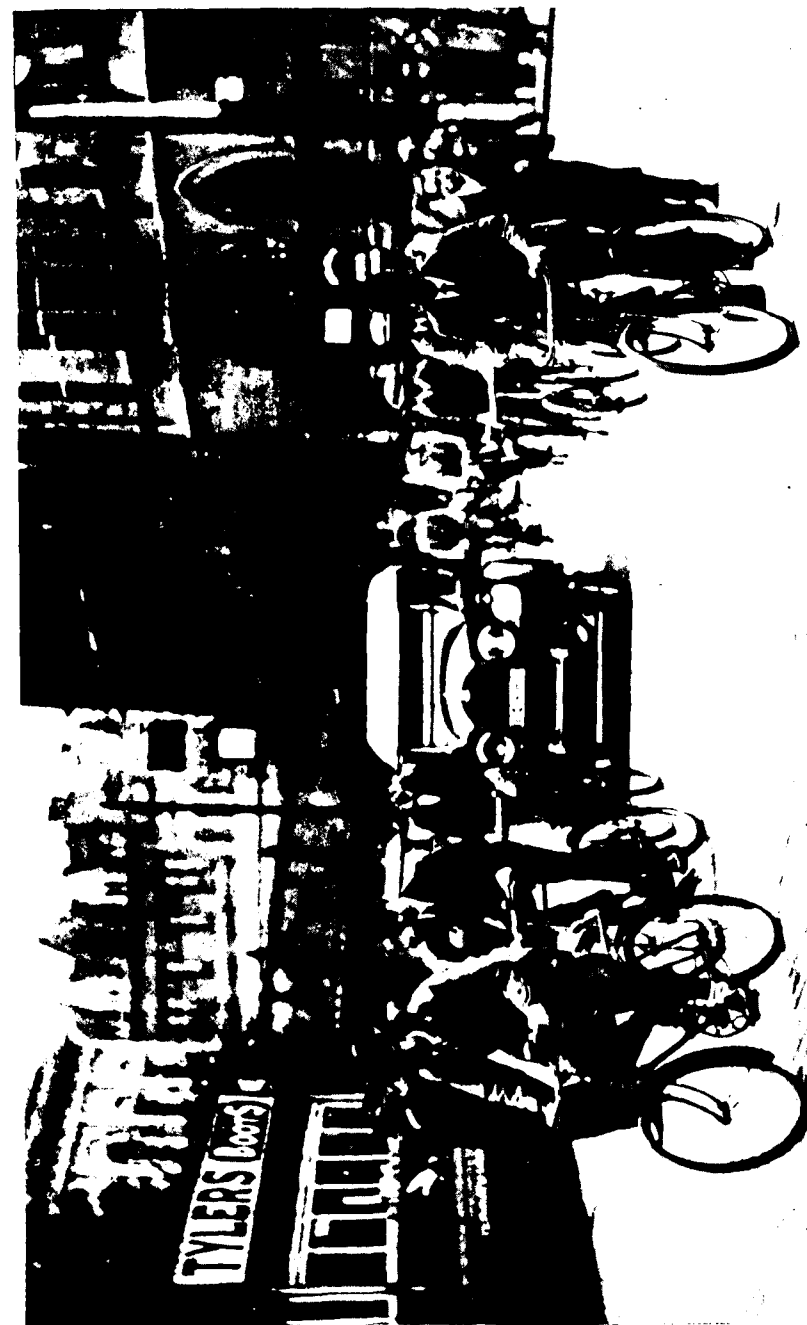
(This rule is intended to deal with the case of cyclists who hang on to the offside of vehicles, thereby endangering themselves, lessening the road space available for passing vehicles, and who in many cases let go their hold of the vehicle by which drawn and wobble into the path of the approaching vehicle.)

Parking

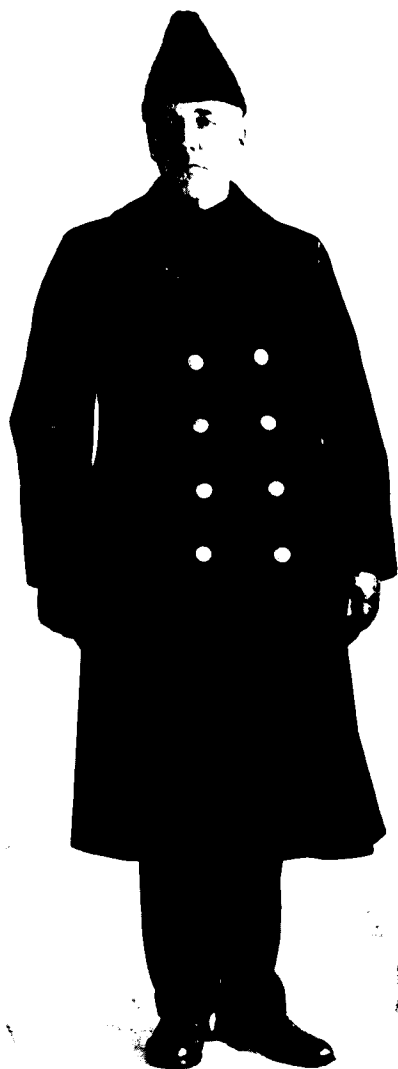
Among other things it was suggested that it be an offence to park a vehicle on any corner, or within four yards of any corner, pedestrian crossing, or blind curve.

Other suggestions were also made, but the most important

only are included in this article. It is suggested that such set of rules for vehicular and pedestrian traffic will do much to eliminate known causes of accidents and that they will provide a definite code of conduct for all road users. A great change is necessary in the regulation of traffic and the public will have to make a choice between either a drastic curtailment of the practically unlimited freedom they enjoy upon our roads and streets or a continuance of or an increase in the present extremely high rate of mortality arising from traffic accidents.



CYCLISTS INTERFERING WITH THE PASSAGE OF FASTER TRAFFIC BY NOT KEEPING TO THE LEFT
A SCENE AT COLLEGE GREEN, DUBLIN—A MAIN TRAFFIC CENTRE



C.P.R. INSPECTOR IN WINTER UNIFORM

The Investigation Department of the Canadian Pacific Railway

BY BRIG.-GENL. E. DE B. PANET, C.M.G., D.S.O., A.D.C.
Chief of the Department of Investigation, Canadian Pacific Railway

IN the earlier days of railroading in North America, the Railway Police Department consisted of three or four Special Agents to do the police work of an entire grand division, sometimes covering five or six thousand miles of tracks. When a theft of any importance occurred at any point they proceeded to that place and endeavoured to effect the arrest of the culprits. This system naturally was not of a protective nature. With the rapid increase of railway business, thefts from unprotected yards increased at an alarming rate, and the railways were forced to place men in the yards to act as watchmen.

The management of some of the Western Railways in the United States thought that the expense of this protection could be avoided by appointing men, classed as watchmen, who gave their services free to the railways in exchange for the privilege of collecting and selling grain sweepings from cars in the yard in which they were employed. This scheme naturally did not meet with any success, as these watchmen were too intent on their business of collecting grain (and they did not always limit themselves to sweepings); so that thefts continued just the same.

The next development was the appointment of paid watchmen, under the charge of a Chief Watchman, in every large yard; those selected were frequently elderly men and, not being active enough to perform other duties, they were paid a correspondingly low rate of pay. They were frequently hired by, and were more or less under control of, the local

yardmaster and his assistants ; and it was not an uncommon occurrence for the yard officers themselves to be involved in heavy and systematic thefts from cars in the yards, to which the watchmen usually 'shut their eyes' for fear of losing their jobs. The Special Agents had no connexion with, or control over, these yard watchmen and there was consequently but little co-operation. Thus thefts from cars, both in transit and in yards, continued to increase.

Prior to the year 1913, the Canadian Pacific Railway, in common with most other railways in North America, did not have an organized police or investigation department. Police duties were chiefly performed by constables on duty in yards and stations, who came under the control of local operating officers. However, in 1912 the losses sustained through theft of freight and Company's material amounted to well over one million dollars ; and continued complaints were being received from shippers, who, although reimbursed for the value of lost goods, suffered great inconvenience and loss of trade through delays in replacing seasonable goods. The late Lord Shaughnessy, President of the Company, realized the necessity of having a distinct police and investigating organization, as a separate department, under one head ; and in the following year (1913) the Department of Investigation was organized under a Chief, who reported directly to the President. The circular issued by the President at that time read in part as follows :

' Hereafter all enquiries or investigations, excepting those involving the relations between officials and employees, and those which must necessarily be conducted through the Audit Department, will be under the control of the Chief of the Department of Investigation.'

The intention in organizing the department was not that it should enforce discipline in the various departments of the Railway, nor keep surveillance over other employees in order to promote efficiency, punctuality, etc., as these were regarded as functions of the respective departmental heads.

Organization.—The year 1913 was principally devoted to re-organization and engaging a staff. Four hundred men, chiefly ex-soldiers or ex-policemen, were engaged. Re-

organization necessitated many changes in personnel during the first year or two, and during the Great War the Department suffered through loss of a large part of the staff who enlisted. After the War, the organization was again built up and has remained about the same, with slight seasonal changes in the number of constables employed. The present strength of the Department is as follows :

- 1 Chief
- 3 Assistant Chiefs
- 12 Inspectors (3 in uniform)
- 40 Investigators
- 15 Sergeants
- 24 Acting Sergeants
- 281 Constables
- 23 Stenographers and Clerks

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Sixty-five per cent. of this staff are ex-service men.

The Sergeants, Acting Sergeants and Constables are all in uniform, except a few in plain clothes who are reserved for special duties. The Department is organized on a divisional basis. The headquarters are at Montreal. The System is divided in two, Eastern and Western Lines, with Fort William, the head of the Great Lakes, as the dividing point. There are two Assistant Chiefs in Montreal and one at Winnipeg, the headquarters for Western Lines. There is an Inspector in charge of every General Superintendent's district : this Inspector has control of the men in his district and acts on his own initiative, although, of course, he consults headquarters whenever questions of policy of the Department or of the Company are involved ; also when dealing with any unusual conditions. All matters of policy are dictated by the Chief of the Department at headquarters ; this applies to both Eastern and Western Lines.

Copies of all letters and reports (other than routine) are sent to Headquarters, thus keeping the Head of the Department fully and promptly informed as to all unusual investigations and incidents throughout the system. Matters of major importance, requiring special attention, which are dealt with by the District Inspector, are at times referred to the higher

officers of the Company, in addition to being dealt with by the General Superintendent or other district officer.

In addition to the District Inspectors, there is an Inspector on Eastern Lines and one on Western Lines, in uniform, whose duties are to supervise the handling and distribution of equipment, uniforms, revolvers, etc. They also receive all applications for positions, prepare references, attend to the medical examination of applicants; and, when it is necessary to engage men, place the records of the applicants before the Chief of the Department. All men are engaged by the Chief at Montreal or the Assistant Chief, for Western Lines, at Winnipeg. All discipline is attended to by these two officers. Inspectors of districts may suspend men working under them; after placing all particulars of any offence before the Chief, or the Assistant Chief for Western Lines, they may recommend the man's dismissal; but no one except the Chief has the power to dismiss men.

Investigators are promoted from the ranks; their duties consist of investigating thefts, padding of payrolls, and general detective work. They are called upon at times to investigate freight claims, but only in special cases, namely, those in which the Freight Claims Department has been unable to place responsibility for serious damage to shipments of machinery, etc., or in cases where freight or baggage, involving large sums of money, has been stolen or mishandled in such a way that it could not be traced by correspondence.

The Investigators are attached to the various Inspectors of Districts. There are 12 working out of headquarters at Montreal, 6 or 7 at Winnipeg, and 5, 3 or 2 on other districts where the amount of work is not so great. These men are all in plain clothes.

The duties of the sergeants are to visit and supervise the constables on duty in the different yards in large terminals. At certain points like Montreal Wharf and Vancouver Wharf, where men work eight-hour shifts, there is an Acting Sergeant in charge of every shift, with one Sergeant in command, who reports to the Inspector of the district.

The psychological effect of a uniform on the public has long been recognized, not only when it acts as a deterrent, but

when it promotes a feeling of confidence and protection to passengers and clients using the facilities of the Company. A neat and alert officer at a station, where all kinds and conditions of men are assembled on business or pleasure, as well as a uniformed constable in evidence at the freight sheds, where valuable goods are at all times exposed, coming and going, has abundantly justified the opinion that a uniformed man for such duties is in every way superior to the old system of a Special Agent in plain clothes about the sheds.

There has been a marked improvement in the protection afforded the railway by police in uniform. While fifteen years ago employees were concerned in about eighty per cent. of the arrests for theft made by this Department, last year this number had been reduced to less than twenty per cent; this is considered by the management to be a remarkable result, particularly as it has been accomplished without objection from, or friction with, other departments or labour organizations.

Powers of Railway Constables in Canada.—The railway police officer in Canada is in a much more favourable position than the railway police officer in the United States, by reason of the particular authority vested in him by the Dominion Government under the Railway Act. For instance, he has absolute police powers at any point on the railway by which he is employed, and at any point not more than a quarter of a mile distant from such a railway, on or about any railways, wharves, quays, landing places, warehouses, lands and premises belonging to such railway company. Furthermore, any such railway constable may take persons charged with any offence which can be tried summarily before any Justice for any county, town, or district, or other local jurisdiction through which the railway passes; and such Justice may deal with all such cases as though the offence had been committed and the persons taken within the limits of his jurisdiction.

It will be noted that railways in Canada are thus accorded many privileges ordinarily associated with public authorities, but it is felt that these privileges are legitimate and justified by reason of the fact that the business of operating a railway, even when carried on by private individuals, is so peculiarly

identified with the general interest, that what injures the railway corporation also injures the public; for common carriers are at all times trustees for the property of the public.

District Inspectors and Investigators are all sworn in as Provincial Officers, which gives them the authority to execute search warrants or warrants for arrest at any point within their respective province.

Instruction.—The new recruit is given a course of practical instruction in the various types of police work which he will later be called upon to perform at passenger stations, freight terminals and yards. He is given a course of instruction in revolver shooting and is particularly cautioned regarding the misuse of this weapon. Every encouragement is given to members to become efficient revolver shots, and each province annually enters one or more teams in Dominion police revolver championships. Last year teams entered by this Department were successful in winning provincial trophies in five out of the seven provinces competing, and the Ontario team also won the Dominion and open championships.

Every member is required to qualify in First Aid and to take an examination every year. Teams entered by this Department were successful last year in winning the following trophies :

St. John Ambulance Competitions—1929

New Brunswick Provincial Trophy—won by C.P.R. Police Team, St. John, N.B.

Shaughnessy Western Trophy—won by C.P.R. Police Team, Vancouver, B.C.

Canadian Pacific Railway Council of St. John Ambulance Competitions—1929

Provincial Trophies won by C.P.R. Police Teams, St. John, N.B., and Windsor St. Station, Montreal, P.Q.

'Eastern Lines' and 'All Lines' Championship Trophies also won by Windsor St. Station, Montreal, Team.

Every member is furnished with a Manual of Instruction, which includes rules of the Company and the Department, instructions on general police practice, also extracts from the Dominion Railway Act and the Criminal Code of Canada,

relating to most of the offences with which a Railway Constable comes into contact.

Equipment.—Each uniform member is furnished free with the following clothing and equipment :

Patrol jacket and trousers.

Winter overcoat.

Spring and autumn overcoat.

Raincoat.

Summer cap and rubber cap cover.

Fur cap.

Leather boots, and felt boots, where necessary.

White cotton gloves, lined leather gloves, and winter mitts, where necessary.

Military service ribands.

Revolver, holster and belt, handcuffs, baton, whistle and chain, and flashlight.

Discipline.—Members of the Department are subject to the general rules of the Company and to the special rules of the Department; it is necessary that they be men of good character, and of good standing within their social environment. The habits of courtesy and self-control are particularly stressed, and attention is drawn to the fact that all wages paid to railway employees originally come from shippers and passengers and that everyone is a prospective passenger or shipper. The departmental rules are similar to those in effect in most police departments.

Pensions.—The Company's pension scheme provides for the retirement of all employees upon reaching the age of sixty-five. This system calls for no contributions from the employees themselves.

Duties.—The following are some of the duties performed by a railway Investigation Department :

Protection of freight in transit and in yards, also railway property and material.

Escorting special shipments of gold, silks, furs and liquor.

Investigations in connexion with : freight thefts and large shortages, baggage thefts and losses; cases of obstructions placed on tracks, damage to tracks and interference with signals; breaking into stations; damage to railway property and equipment; investigations of a business nature; collecting evidence and tracing witnesses for the Law Department in legal actions and claims against the Company.

Protection of passengers from pickpockets, gamblers, confidence men and sneak thieves of various types, who operate at stations and on trains.

Escorting members of the Royal Family and other guests of the Company or Government while travelling on railway.

The Canadian Pacific Railway had the honour of carrying His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales during his first official visit to Canada, from August to November 1919, when the Chief of this Department was entrusted by the Dominion Government with the charge of all police arrangements, not only on the railway, but throughout the Dominion. His Royal Highness also travelled on the Canadian Pacific during his visit to Canada in 1923, and on his official visit in September 1927, when he was accompanied by His Royal Highness Prince George and the Premier, Mr. Stanley Baldwin; the Chief of this Department was in charge of police arrangements during these visits.

Co-operation with other Police Forces.—In Canada there are four distinct police forces: the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, which is a federal organization; provincial police forces in most provinces; municipal police forces; and the railway police departments.

The Canadian Pacific Railway Company, as the heaviest taxpayer, is entitled to the same police protection as any householder or property owner, and the railway police do receive the cordial support and co-operation of municipal, provincial and federal police forces, with whom they are in constant communication, and exchange information which is of mutual benefit. It is therefore very necessary that the Chief and district officers should keep closely in touch with other police departments and keep them well informed regarding cases of theft, obstructions on tracks, pickpockets, traffic troubles, etc. The Chief of the Department makes it his duty to call upon the heads of all police organizations in the country every time he happens to be in the cities where they have their headquarters. In many cases this is merely a friendly call, but it has wonderful results in securing co-operation. District Inspectors are also expected to maintain friendly relations and keep in close touch with other police forces on their territory.



H.R.H. THE PRINCE OF WALES AS A PASSENGER ON THE CANADIAN PACIFIC
ON THE OCCASION OF HIS OFFICIAL VISIT TO CANADA

(Opp. p. 39)



INSPECTOR INVESTIGATION DEPT., C.P.R.
IN SUMMER UNIFORM

INVESTIGATION DEPARTMENT OF C.P.R. 41

By way of reciprocation, this Department is frequently of use to other police organizations in obtaining information from distant points on the railway, in tracing wanted persons, assisting officers travelling with prisoners, and in other ways.

It is customary, when members of the Department are making arrests on warrants in any locality where there are public officers, connected with Municipal or Provincial Forces, or the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, to call upon them for assistance, and it is usual in such cases to give credit for the arrest to the local officers.

Co-operation with other Employees.—The Canadian Pacific Railway operates 15,600 miles of railway tracks; also owns and operates a chain of hotels in most of the large cities throughout the Dominion; its steamship subsidiary operates vessels with a tonnage of 525,000 tons; it operates railway and commercial telegraphs with 166,000 miles of lines; also the Canadian Pacific Express Company, which does a world-wide express and financial business.

It is obvious that a staff of four hundred cannot alone undertake the protection of such an enormous property, together with many millions of dollars' worth of freight which is moving continuously over its lines and being handled at the docks. The Company must rely upon the honesty and integrity of about 90,000 other employees, who are equally interested; and our experience has shown that this support is generally accorded. The yard staffs and train crews are in the position of guards; and in cases where losses and damage are occurring in a freight yard or on the line, the yardmaster and his staff or the train crew, as the case may be, must expect to be held to account.

Like any other police force, a railway police department must have prompt advice of all matters requiring attention; information must be promptly sent by telegraph and telephone to the nearest divisional inspector: divisional operating officers can soon train their assistants and agents to do this.

The railway constable or investigator can and does obtain the co-operation and help of other employees, when they realize that he is not straining to 'make cases,' but is only trying to protect the Company's property and interests to the

best of his ability, and doing his job the same as any other worker.

Results achieved.—At the time the Department was organized, railway freight had been subject—in addition to casual thefts—to serious depredations by organized gangs of thieves operating in yards and on moving trains, frequently with the connivance of railway employees; the Company's material was also subject to serious loss from theft, mostly by employees.

At the docks many longshoremen had been in the habit of supplying themselves with various articles of clothing and other necessities, and even luxuries, by breaking open cases in the holds of ships, and bitterly resented any interference with their accustomed activities in this direction.

Investigators, making inquiries regarding extensive thefts of freight from cars and sheds, were met with an antagonistic attitude on the part of many of those who handled the cars or shipments. Further, in the event of arrests being made the culprits usually demanded a jury trial; and, as the jury was composed of local men, the offenders were frequently acquitted in face of the most conclusive evidence.

However, the persistent efforts of the Department, the co-operation of the Freight Claims Department, and the strong support of the operating officers, gradually had its effect; and to-day losses of freight and material amount to less than one-fifth of the losses in 1912. As previously mentioned, it is now quite exceptional for an employee to be involved in any extensive thefts; in fact, so improved are the conditions that the help and co-operation of other servants of the Company may be relied upon.

It might appear that, under these circumstances, the work of such a department would decrease, but this has not been the case. In a growing country like Canada, there has been a steady increase in railway business, so that, although extensive thefts have been largely eliminated, the number of petty or casual thefts remains fairly constant. Furthermore, the officers of other departments of the railway and its subsidiary companies have gradually realized that in certain cases a trained investigator can acquire information which will enable

the executive officer or departmental chief to come to a decision on some knotty problem, which frequently involves the placing of responsibility for dishonesty or some serious occurrence. There has thus been a tendency towards a decrease in criminal investigations and towards an increase in investigations of a business nature.

The Identification of Cloth in Criminal Investigation

By H. C. BARNES, B.Sc., B.Com.

Technical Editor, *The Textile Manufacturer*

THERE must be very few people now in the world who are not habitual wearers of clothing, which with food and shelter is a main necessity of human life. It is worn to keep in bodily heat in cold climates or seasons and as a cover against the heat of the sun in hot climates. It follows that cloth is likely to be frequently in evidence in any form of human activity, bad or good.

Clothing is, however, usually much more valuable than is required for mere utility. It is used as a means of self-expression, to indicate the outlook and standing of the wearer, sober, dignified, artistic, and so on. Clothes make the man—or woman—or as Carlyle would have it, clothing is the chief vanity. Even the lowest-priced cloths are goods of high value in relation to their bulk, and weight. That is the explanation why wool can be brought from Australia, or cotton from India or America and woollen and cotton goods sent back to these countries at competitive prices. American raw cotton is worth about 7d. or 8d. per lb., Egyptian cotton 11d. per lb., scoured wool from 14d. per lb. for crossbred to 36d. per lb. for merinos, and silk 20s. per lb. The cloth from this raw material may cost several times as much; it may literally be worth its weight in gold. Textile goods are clearly a desirable and tempting form of property.

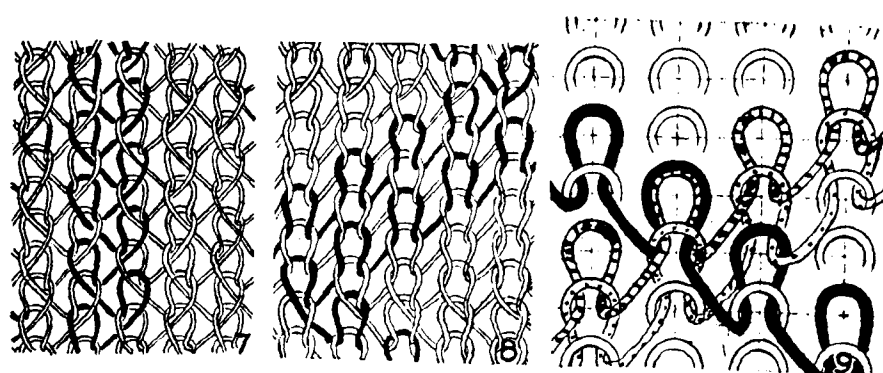
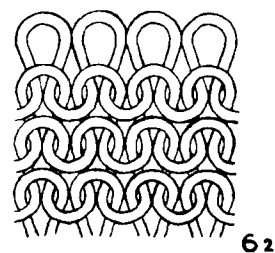
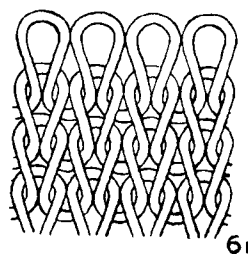
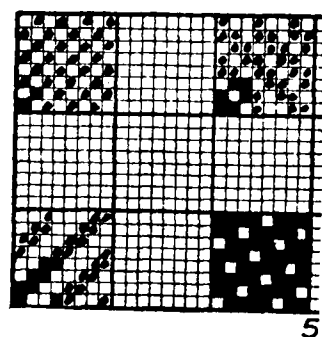
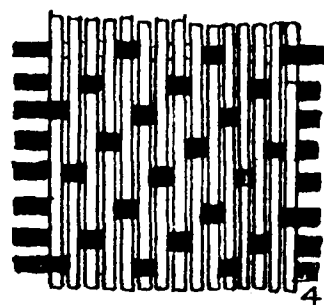
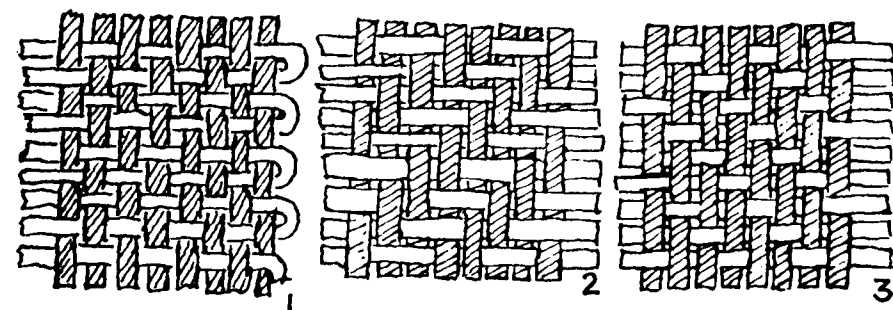
As textile goods are in universal use, it is to be assumed that a wide knowledge of cloth is possessed by every man and woman of normal experience. Credit for greater knowledge of cloth would have to be given to women, rather than to men,

THE IDENTIFICATION OF CLOTH 45

and on many points, including that of value, reference to a good representative of the sex provides expert witness. However, the subject is extremely wide and in all cases knowledge is limited. The producers are themselves very highly specialized; they handle only certain qualities of one fibre, yarn, or cloth. Lack of knowledge by the retailer is a constant complaint. He is concerned with the finished fabric and almost exclusively with price and selling quality, suitability, appearance, feel, draping quality and estimated durability. His judgment on such points is usually excellent, but it is of the indefinite nature of an opinion. If it is a question of identifying one small piece of a cloth with another, characteristics which can more definitely be stated or measured are to be preferred. By simple examination or dissection of a small piece of cloth or yarn, sufficient hard facts can be obtained to hang a man or to prevent that unfortunate occurrence.

A mere list of different types and qualities of cloth would have the appearance of a dictionary. However, the very diversity of cloth makes the identification of a small portion of one piece of cloth with another from the same piece particularly easy. In most cases it could be done by any man, or again with many fabrics even better by any woman, without claims to special skill. Two chance pieces from different sources of even one type of cloth, say for example a man's blue serge suiting, are likely to differ from each other quite recognizably, as would two men of the same general type. Even so, if the difference could be stated as a physical difference, it is better ascertainable by simple tests. Some of these tests and the analysis of cloth structure are described below.

In cases of theft where piece goods or garments are involved, the identification would be still easier, if fabric of the same kind was available for comparison. An exception is the case where there may have been a theft of cloth from a factory in a district which is specialized on certain types of cloth. The textile industries are specialized to a very high degree in this way. Not only does Lancashire almost solely manufacture cotton, and Yorkshire woollens and worsteds, but each of the towns in these counties is largely specialized—



1. Plain Weave. 2. $\frac{1}{2}$ Twill. 3. $\frac{1}{2}$ Twill.
4. Five-end Warp Satin.
5. See p. 49.
6. Plain Weft knitted fabric, front and back.
7 and 8. Warp-netted fabrics. 9. Milanese.

Bradford for ladies' worsted dress goods, Huddersfield for men's worsteds, Leeds for low heavy woollens, Galashiels for Scotch tweeds, Belfast for linen, Dundee for jute; Macclesfield for silk, Blackburn for Indian cloths and dhooties, Burnley for China cloths and printing fabrics, Oldham for velvets, Kidderminster for carpets, and so on—all the very numerous textile towns having one or two predominant special lines in fabrics or in yarns or both. To some extent this specialization may be breaking down. However, in the cases mentioned the antidote is produced with the poison, and such a town would provide experts who could, very frequently, tell their own productions, even against that of their nearest competitor on a staple line. So far, even the staple lines of textile fabrics have not been standardized in specification in a scientific sense.

The characteristics of cloth which are readily ascertained can be considered under four headings of fibres, yarns, weave or structure, and finish. It may be more convenient to study first the complete cloth, comprising the structure and the finish. An easily ascertainable characteristic is the weight. This measurement can be obtained by using a suitable balance or scales; if it is a question of a small piece of fabric a chemical balance would be necessary to ensure the necessary accuracy. The weight per square yard or other area can be calculated in any units to compare two pieces; it may only be necessary to put the same area of fabric in each pan of a balance to show that there is a significant difference in weight which may be conclusive. Equality in weight on the other hand does not of course necessarily infer identity. In cutting two small pieces of a certain area for weighting and comparison care should be taken to have the cloth the correct way in relation to its length and width directions. The difficulty could be got over by cutting square pieces.

Other things being equal, the heavier cloth would be the more valuable cloth, but in most cases other things are not equal. For example, in cotton goods the increased weight of heavier fabrics may be more than compensated by the cheaper raw materials. The raw cotton is usually cheaper, for coarser yarns and thick yarns cost less per pound to spin, and coarser

fabrics cost less to weave. In wool textiles the fibre may be shoddy, obtained from rags by tearing up; or it may be the finest virgin wool, and weight alone is not a criterion of value. The yarns may also be stronger in lower grades of worsted because the fibre is long, as in Lincoln and Leicester wools, but it is also large in diameter and less pleasant in handle. The value of real silk is in proportion to its weight, but, even here, the fabric may have had its weight increased by the addition of loading substances designed for the purpose. A 60's linen yarn may be, say, 2s. 6d. per lb., whilst a 120's, in which there is twice the length, would be more than double the value, say 5s. 8d. per lb. In fabrics a blue serge suiting might be any price, from two or three shillings to fifteen shillings per yard, depending on the quality.

Excluding lace, nets and the like, fabrics are either woven or knitted. Woven fabrics are built up by interlacing two series of threads at right angles, the warp and weft ends. Fig. 1 shows the simplest weave called the plain weave. The vertical threads are the ends running lengthways in the cloth and comprise the warp, or chain or twist. In weaving, a long length is wound on a beam or roller, and alternate ends are alternately lifted up to allow the shuttle to pass the weft between. The horizontal threads across the width of the cloth are the weft or filling and each is called a pick or shot of weft. It will be seen in Fig. 1 that both warp and weft go under and over alternate threads.

Weaves, that is methods of interlacing, are infinite in number. Fig. 2 shows a twill weave, which gives a twill line or diagonal ridge on the cloth. In this case each thread goes two over and two under, but the consecutive threads start this sequence one thread further on, which is the distinguishing feature of twills. Notice that every fifth end weaves similarly. This is the repeat. There may be any sequence of interlacing up or down. For example, a simple one would be with the warp two-up one-down, Fig 3. In this case the cloth would be different in appearance on the face and back, because the ridge on the back would be made by weft and the light would be differently reflected with a change in the appearance. Another common weave is shown in Fig 4.

This is a warp satin weave, in which the face of the cloth is covered by long floats of warp and the interlacings—which are single ones, that is under one end only—are distributed and do not come two together. The face and back are again different. There would usually be more than twice as many warp ends per inch than weft picks.

Other weaves may be designed for decorative effects; the interlacing may be varied, and it may be in conjunction with differently coloured ends, that is, a warp pattern and a weft pattern. This is quite usual in suitings and overcoatings. There are also, of course, stripes and checks which are all one weave but the threads are of various colours in patterns. In all cases both weave and colour patterns have a repeat of so many warp ends and weft picks. Other weaves are designed for the purpose of increasing the thickness and weight of the fabric. Another series of different warp or weft threads may be stitched in during the weaving and compound cloths of double or many thicknesses formed. To represent weaves on paper by drawing is laborious, and a simpler method is to show them on small squared paper. Vertical rows of squares represent warp threads and horizontal rows weft threads. Where the warp in the cloth is above the weft a mark is made in the square. Fig. 5 shows the weaves in Figs. 1 to 4.

For the purpose of ascertaining the weave a magnifying glass is necessary. Special glasses for this purpose, usually called counting glasses, are stocked by optical or instrument shops in textile towns. This consists of a frame of suitable dimensions (1 in. by 1 in., 1 in. by $\frac{1}{2}$ in., or $\frac{1}{2}$ in. by $\frac{1}{2}$ in., etc). which is placed on the cloth, and an upright carries the lens parallel to the cloth. The number of threads per inch can also be counted by using this counting glass. These particulars are very important. The more threads per inch the more valuable is the cloth if the material is similar in fibre and in weight. It is not only a question of weight, but also of speed of production, particularly in respect to the weft. The loom goes only so many picks per minute and if the number per inch is increased the production is decreased and the wages increased, all in proportion. The structure in this respect is more important than the weave.

To obtain the number of ends and picks per inch is a good method of identifying a cloth. The particulars may however be difficult to obtain in some cases by inspection on the face with the counting glass, because the fibre is too dense, or has been raised, or starched and so on. In some cases a quarter or half-inch of fabric could be marked or cut away and the ends drawn out and counted. The raised fibres in other cases might be removed by singeing, or the starched cloth might be boiled.

The particulars of ends or picks per inch may not be reliable unless the warp and weft can be distinguished from each other in small pieces of cloth. This is usually easy for the experienced, especially where there is knowledge of that particular type of cloth, but it is not easy to lay down conclusive rules applying to all types of cloth. In general, the warp needs to be strong to stand the strain of weaving, whereas the weft may be relatively weak. The warp is likely to be better quality, more even, more twisted and, as stated, stronger. Because it is more twisted the lustre may be less. It is cheaper to produce a cloth of a certain build by having more warp ends per inches than weft, rather than conversely. If the cloth is square, that is, having the same number of ends and picks per inch, and threads are taken out of a certain length in the cloth, the one which straightens out the least is probably the warp because it has been woven under the greater and more even tension. Similarly, if the cloth is held up to the light the warp is likely to be straighter and more nearly parallel, although the ends may be slightly grouped in twos or threes, indicating where they have been brought through the reed in weaving. If a colour pattern has odd ends one way this is likely to be the warp, as it is cheaper and more convenient to put in coloured picks in the weft two at a time. This may not apply to suitings and coatings, where in some cases the looms are equipped in any case with the more elaborate mechanism, designed to put in single or odd numbers of picks.

The selvedge of a cloth is a distinguishing feature. During weaving the fabrics contract in width and stronger ends or a more tightly woven side may be necessary to resist the pull of the weft. They may be equally necessary in

finishing, where the cloth may be pulled out wider than it was in the loom, which is often the case with cotton goods, or it may be allowed to shrink in woollens and worsteds, so that a piece 70 ins. wide, 56 yards long, might after finishing be only 56 ins. wide and 40 yards long. Note that ends per inch would be proportionately altered, so that from the same loom and setting, or even from the same woven cloth, there might be different particulars. The shrinkage or extension is controlled by the selvedges which are held on pins or clips and need to be strong for this purpose also. Strong yarns are therefore used, two threads such as are used in the body fabric may be placed together and used as one; or the warp ends may be placed more closely together, and they may be woven differently. Thus it is possible and even probable that two similar fabrics would have quite different selvedges.

A name or trade mark or design may be woven into the selvedge to indicate the origin of the cloth. Alternatively, a mark may be stamped on the selvedges in finishing and on the end of the piece, or a paper band may be pinned to the selvedge continuously or at intervals. This could possibly be of use in tracing the origin of the cloth. A name on a selvedge might easily survive into a garment such as a suit. However, one hesitates to speculate on the possibility of tracing the original manufacturer of the cloth, and from that point the subsequent history of the cloth in a particular garment. It might not be impossible in certain simple cases, but the textile trades of this country are so large, and the output of even one cloth manufacturer is so great, that in most cases it would seem scarcely possible to trace forward or back to its origin any small samples of cloth. Nevertheless certain yarns, fabrics, or finishes can only be obtained from a few firms, or even only one firm.

Knitted materials are formed by a system of looping. They are weft or warp-knitted. The plain weft-knitted fabric is shown in Fig. 6 back and front. This fabric could be knitted from one thread, or two or more threads could follow each other round, especially in a tubular fabric, giving, however, a slightly spiral effect. Knitted fabrics of this kind are produced which are flat and have selvedges. The loops are

formed by endways movements of hooked, and latched or bearded needles, one loop being pushed off the needle as another is formed. If the front and back stitches are combined in vertical rows, rib fabric is produced. If the face and back effects are combined horizontally, the result is the purl stitch. Other variations are the tuck stitches, in which a yarn is allowed to float. Fabrics may be plated, being perhaps a different colour on one side to the other. These parts may be interchanged to give a spot or other pattern. Horizontal stripes can be obtained by merely changing the yarn fed. The number of types of knitting machines is very large and constructions of the fabric even greater.

The quality of a knitted fabric is measured by the gauge and the courses per inch. Broadly the gauge represents the number of needles per inch in the machine. In the fabric this is greater because of the contraction in width. The rows of vertical loops in one inch may be counted. In a fabric of average quality there would be four or five loops or wales per inch. There are really four thicknesses of thread in each wale in the plain-knitted fabric. The horizontal rows are termed courses. With a shorter course there is less yarn in the stitch, but this does not fully compensate for the greater number of courses per inch, and *ceteris paribus* the fabric is of higher quality.

Hosiery is an important class of knitted fabrics. Hose may be made on a circular machine, or it may be knitted as a flat but shaped fabric and afterwards seamed. The latter is termed fully fashioned, and is more valuable by about 50 per cent. than that made on circular machines, which are seamless, or mock seamed or mock fashioned. The fully fashioned hose is shaped to fit the leg, whereas the circular-knitted fabric is usually only stretched to the proper shape.

The knitted warp loom is composed only of a series of warp ends. As in a weaving loom the ends are wound on a beam or roller and are taken off as a sheet of parallel ends. Loops are made by working the warp threads one round the next with a sideways movement. The fabrics are used for gloves, scarves and underwear, and in recent times also outerwear. The sideways movements cannot go on inde-

finitely ; it may merely be done round the two adjacent ends, as in Fig. 7, or it may continue for many ends, as in Fig. 8, before one thread turns back in its zig-zag course. In such a case as in atlas fabrics there will be horizontal stripes where the loops change their diagonal direction. In milanese fabrics, Fig. 9, one thread moves in one direction diagonally and another in the opposite direction for a certain distance, and then back again. The selvedge is uneven. There are many structures, and close examination and counting of the number of movements and the setting will reveal important differences. The length or warp way of the fabric needs to be identified, which is not always easy, but the fabric will usually stretch much more in width than in length.

The analysis of warp-knitted fabrics and of certain weft-knitted may be more difficult because they are lock-knitted. The threads may be unravelled a certain distance after which they are securely locked. They may also be ladderless, which means that the cutting of one loop does not completely destroy the support of another, and then the next, and so on. However, they can be unravelled, though the process may be laborious, and the length in a given piece can then be ascertained. The yarn used in a warp-knitted may be four times as long as the fabric and it varies in different fabrics. The amount of 'take-up' should provide a figure serving to identify a fabric or deny identification.

A cloth when it leaves the loom or knitting machine is rarely ready for the consumer ; it may be bleached, dyed, printed and finished. Each of these headings includes a long sequence of operations. Bleaching explains itself, but the bleacher is a subtle fellow who will ask his customer (the finishing sections usually work on commission terms) what kind of bleach he wants and what kind of white he prefers. Similar kinds of fine distinctions are made throughout the textile industries ; and the cotton grader, for example, will, amongst other properties, distinguish between some thirty-two shades of creamy white, the whole of which would be 'grey' to the bleacher. These fine points are, however, matters for experts.

Colour of course provides a leading differentiation of

fabrics. Colours are innumerable, and dyestuffs and dyeing processes even more so. The same colour on a similar fabric can be achieved by different processes, and by dyes having radically different properties. It would be extremely difficult to identify an actual dyestuff used, except in a few cases, such as indigo, aniline, and turkey red. For the most part, however, it is possible to find the class of dyestuff with which the coloured material has been dyed such as direct, basic, sulphur or azoic colours or vat dyes in the case of cotton, linen, or artificial silk, and the further classes of acid, mordant, and other dyes in the case of wool. The commercial properties of dyed colour are fastness to light, to washing, milling, soap, boiling, acids and alkalies. There are as yet no standards of fastness in general use. The dyeing of a certain colour might be cheap or expensive, depending on the dye, and the cloth would react differently to simple tests such as dilute acids, alkalies, oxidizing or reducing agents, boiling, etc. It will suffice to say that a comparison need not stop short merely at the colour itself.

The finishing of textile goods is designed to enhance qualities of the fabric particularly in relation to its use. The art comprises a wide range of mechanical, physical and chemical operations, together in many cases with the addition of finishing materials. In the case of cotton and linen goods the finishing substance may be for stiffening—principally starch or gums; weighting—gypsum, kaolin, calcium carbonate, etc.; blueing; waterproofing or fireproofing. The presence of such agents can be detected by chemical analysis, or by boiling, or by the use of solvents and the determination of the loss in weight. The principal mechanical operations are stentering or stretching, beetling or beating, raising and calendering or ironing. Calendering, or pressing between rollers, results in various effects of glaze, lustre, stiffness or embossed effect depending on the amount of pressure, friction, moisture present, kind of bowls or rollers. The cloth may be singed to burn off the fluff. The principal chemical finish in the case of cotton is that of mercerizing, which consists in a treatment with strong caustic soda solution whereby the yarns and fibres are swollen, the feel becomes softer, and under suitable conditions

the yarn or fabric becomes highly lustrous. There are a great many different finishes; and, although it is not often easy to say how they were obtained, the effects are a permanent and distinguishing feature of fabrics.

Woollen and worsted fabrics are in general subjected to finishes which can be divided broadly into two classes, clear or milled. No finishing substances are usually added. The milling consists of a prolonged scouring which loosens the fibres, causes them to interlock or felt to a desired degree, giving a 'full' handle, that is fulling. The milled fabric has a fibrous cover which partly conceals the structure. The effect may be further enhanced by raising, that is rubbing the surface, before or after milling. Worsteds are usually given a clear finish, in which the details of yarn and structure can be seen. They are subjected to various operations with hot water and steam to set the fabrics. Both classes may be subjected to pressing, and also to cropping. Hosiery goods are usually subjected to pressing in garment form on boards which stretch them to the desired shape and size. A principal operation in the case of silk goods is that of loading or weighting. This is usually done with slats of tin and with sugar or glucose, of which substances, particularly tin, the silk will take large amounts,—50 per cent. being quite usual in loaded silks. The amount cannot be easily determined except by burning, weighting the fabric before and the ash after, as a rough test.

All fabrics are composed of yarns, and the outstanding characteristics of all yarns, apart from the nature of the fibre which constitutes them, is fineness and twist. The fineness or yarn count is stated either as length per unit weight, or weight per unit length. In the case of cotton, worsted and linen (wet-spun yarns), the number of hanks per lb. is the count of the yarn. The cotton hank is a length of 840 yards, the worsted hank 560 yards, and the linen hank 300 yards. For woollens the number of yards per dram is most used. The opposite system is used for artificial silk and silk, where the count, or denier as it is termed, is the weight in grammes of 9000 metres. In dry-spun linen, hemp and jute, the count is the weight in pounds of a spindle of 14,400 yards. There are

other systems of smaller or local importance in use for woollens, silks and for waste and special yarns.

It is easy to find the counts by measuring a length of yarn and finding the weight of this. A calculation by proportion will then give the actual counts according to above figures, or for comparative purposes weight of a given length may be all that is necessary. If only a very small length is possible a fine chemical balance would be necessary for accuracy.

Twist is necessary to bind the component fibres together and give strength to a yarn. Where the fibres are long or are continuous filaments, as in the case of silk and artificial silk, only a small amount of twist is required, say two to five turns per inch. Of course, the yarn may be given extra twist for special purposes, and such yarns may have as many as seventy turns per inch. Cotton which has shorter fibres requires a high minimum of twists per inch, say twenty or thirty, in a yarn of normal counts. The yarn requires more twist when it is finer, in proportion to its diameter.

Twist serves as a distinguishing feature, and the amount can be ascertained by using a twist tester, where a small length is held and one nip is rotated until the twist is taken out. For accuracy several tests need to be made as the actual point where the fibres are without twist is not easily determined and in any case the twist may be somewhat irregular. On a single yarn it is not easy to determine the amount of twist without this simple instrument, but it can be done, for example, by gumming the ends of a short length, say half an inch, firmly to two very small pieces of paper and rotating one of these, counting complete rotations.

Twists can be either right-hand or left-hand. In many cloths the warp is left-hand twist and the weft right-hand, but the construction may vary; and the difference has served more than once to identify cloth whose origin has been denied when cloth has been stolen.

Two complete single yarns are often wound and twisted together. The twist is usually in a direction opposite to that of the single yarn. Such two-fold yarns are stronger, more even and more lustrous. Similarly, three or more singles

may be twisted together to form a folded thread. The process may be repeated, several folded threads being again twisted together to give a cabled thread or cord. This is the construction of sewing thread or of tyre cord, and also, of course, of twines and ropes. Such threads may be less similar in construction than in appearance and resultant counts. An examination noting the various directions of twist, the number of singles, and method of construction may be useful for identification.

Wool yarns may be divided into the two classes of woollen and worsted. In spinning it is usual to lay the fibres parallel before twisting, and this is done in the case of worsted yarns. In the processing the fibres are combed, and are drawn out in such a manner as to lie longitudinally in the yarn. Worsted yarns, cotton yarns and spun-silk yarns,—made from wild silk which is cut up—are spun in this way. In woollen yarns, which are made from short fibres taken out in wool combing or from other short waste fibres, the material is not passed through the drafting processes which would 'parallelize' the fibres. Consequently, the fibres are in every direction, and the yarn is more mossy, softer, less regular and not so strong, though it may give soft desirable fabrics. The fibres hold together because wool has on the fibre surface scales which interlock. Similarly, cotton fibres have convolutions or twists which enable them to cling together. Waste cotton yarns are spun after the manner of woollen yarns. Waste silk, or cut-up silk, waste linen or tow, and cut artificial silk, called rayon staple fibre, are spun after the manner of cotton or worsted.

There are a very large number of fibres, but for practical use for clothing purposes it is only necessary to consider cotton, wool, linen, silk, artificial silks of various kinds, and jute. As raw materials they are readily distinguished at a glance, but in a fabric correct identification may sometimes be quite difficult. The simplest and one of the most useful reliable tests is by burning a small wad of the fibres or yarns. The test divides the fibres into either vegetable or animal. The vegetable fibres, cotton, linen, jute, and artificial silks (except acetate artificial silks such as Celanese) are composed

of cellulose, $C_6H_{10}O_5$, that is, of the elements carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen. If a small wad of fibres or yarn is ignited with a match, the vegetable fibres burn quickly and leave a light grey ash. The animal fibres wool and silk burn more slowly, give off a characteristic smell similar to that of burning feathers or hair, and the charred stump has a hard ash or bead. Wool and silk besides the above elements include nitrogen; and wool in addition includes sulphur. It is possible to distinguish between wool and silk by this test although the conclusion is not very reliable. Acetate artificial silk burns almost like the animal fibres; it may fuse and drop like wax; and there is given off a smell of acetic acid of which with cellulose it is chemically composed. Silk is often treated with substances such as tin salts, to increase the weight, and a weighted or loaded silk would slowly smoulder, leaving the ash in the formation of a skeleton of the fibre or cloth. A little practice on fibres which are known to be cotton, silk, wool, artificial silk, and acetate artificial silk, will give the required skill to distinguish between the fibres as far as is possible.

The fibres can be identified by chemical tests of many kinds, details of which will be found in reference books. (Matthews on *Textile Fibres*; and *Textile Manufacturer Year Book*, p. 350). Some of these tests are not reliable even in the hands of good chemists if the chemists are inexperienced in the identification. The microscope is a better guide for distinguishing between fibres, particularly between cotton and linen; these when purified are chemically similar, but the microscopical appearance of their fibres, and particularly of their cross sections, are quite different. However, these more elaborate and expert tests are not necessary in most cases, as the fibres can be distinguished by other physical characteristics, of which the chief is the length of the fibre.

Silk and artificial silk (rayon) are usually composed of continuous filaments, whereas other textiles, cotton, wool and linen, are composed of staple fibres, that is, relatively short fibres. If a yarn is untwisted it will be seen whether the fibre is composed of continuous filaments, or of staple fibres. If continuous, it is silk or artificial silk, and these can be distinguished between themselves by the simple burning test.

The length of the fibres is a good indication of their identity. Cotton varies from about $\frac{3}{4}$ in. to $1\frac{3}{4}$ in. In most cloths the fibre would be from $\frac{7}{8}$ in. to $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. They would not all be the same length in the same specimen, but the fibres would be of longer average length in finer yarns. The longer the fibre of cotton, the more valuable it is. It is different in the case of wool where the fibre is usually longer in the lower grades in worsted yarns. This is because the shorter wools are also finer in fibre, that is in diameter or cross section, and, therefore, softer in feel, of better appearance, and more suitable for fine yarns. This does not refer to woollens, which may be made from the short or broken fibres, taken when the raw wool is combed. In worsteds the fibres may vary from about $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. up to 8 or 9 inches, or even more. Linen fibres may be longer than this, and in consequence the yarns are smooth and lustrous, but are also rather hard and cold to the touch. Staple silk and artificial silk are cut to the required lengths. For manufacture by machinery similar to worsted machinery they might be from 4 to 8 ins. long, and by cotton machinery $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. to 2 ins., usually $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. or $1\frac{3}{4}$ in., which is rather longer than cotton because such fibres have a lesser property of clinging together.

The above can be taken as being only a very brief survey of textile materials, in so far as they offer points for identification, which is the subject of the article. It will be seen that the smallest piece of cloth has a world of information if it is dissected and technically analyzed.

The Prevention of Juvenile Crime

UNEMPLOYED BOYS' BUREAU CONDUCTED BY THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT

By WILLIAM F. RUSSELL

Recently Commissioner of Police, Chicago Police Department, U.S.A.

CHICAGO boys are coming to find that policemen are their friends and not their traditional enemy—the result of the establishment of the Unemployed Boys' Bureau which has attracted the attention of cities and social agencies all over the country.

This Bureau, which was started on 22nd September 1927, secured up to 1st January 1930, jobs for 24,053. Behind this movement to humanize the police station and obtain the friendship of the public, the Chicago Police Department has the co-operation of the Chicago Crime Commission, the County Court, Municipal Court and practically every civic, welfare and business organization in the Chicago district.

This Big Brother movement on the part of the Chicago Police Department was inaugurated following a conference of the respective heads of the County and Municipal Courts and the Chicago Crime Commission. Attending this conference, presided over by the then Superintendent of Police, were: the Judge of the Chicago Juvenile Court; the Chief Justice of the Chicago Municipal Court; the Judge of the Chicago Boys' Court; the First Assistant State's Attorney; the Chief Probation Officer, Chicago Juvenile Court; and the Director, Chicago Juvenile Crime Commission.

The conference of the above-mentioned heads of the city's law-enforcing and prosecuting machinery came to the following working conclusions:

1. That most of the crime in the Chicago district was committed by boys twenty-two years and under.

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2. Whether a boy became a criminal or a good citizen depended upon his training between the ages of fourteen and twenty-one.
3. That from the experience of those assembled most boys went wrong because they were unable to obtain employment which they first tried to get.

In view of the foregoing the task of providing work wherever possible for the youth of the city was decided upon by means of the Boys' Unemployed Bureau, under the sole supervision of the Police Department. As Chief Justice Harry Olson of the Chicago Municipal Court said, at the time the Bureau was started:

'There isn't anything better you can do in the way of preventing crime than to start at the root of it—where it begins—and stop it there. You know the old saying, "Idleness is the devil's recruiting officer." Get the boy a job and make a man out of him. A good job will prevent a bad boy.'

The first step taken in the launching of this new philanthropic movement was the setting up of machinery for job finding in each police district of the city. Each of the forty-one police stations in the city became an employment office for youths between the ages of 14 and 21. Then, to top it off, the Commissioner of Police issued orders to his force to stop hounding and chasing boys, and to make friends with them.

To handle this problem of employment for the youth of the city, a Juvenile Officer, connected with the Chicago Juvenile Court, particularly fitted for the appointment, works in civil dress at each police station. With him is a policeman in uniform. This makes a total of eighty-two men assigned to the work.

The police officer, protected by his uniform, makes a survey of his district and lists employers who hire boys. A card is filled out, put on file at the station, and a copy sent to the central office. Along with it goes a history sheet, merely general information of the case at hand. In the same manner applicants are classified as to age and kind of employment, just as the employers are recorded according to their business.

Presented herewith is an exact facsimile of the history sheet outlined in detail in the above paragraph :

HISTORY CARD				
Name of Applicant	Address	Phone	Age	Nativity
Physical Condition				
Kind of Employment				
Where Previously Employed and When				
Efforts Made to Find Employment and Where				
School—Grades, Languages Spoken				
Members of Family Dependent for Support				
Father, Mother or Guardian, Present Salary				
Brothers and Sisters Employed and Salary				
References				
Applied for Position				
Employment Promised				
Date, Name and Address of Employer				
REMARKS				

To carry on this work there was established a Central Office in charge of the Lieutenant of Police, under the immediate supervision of the First Deputy Commissioner of Police. Copies of all history-cards are sent to the Central Office, where applications are classified on a card index as to name, address, and kind of work to which applicant is best fitted. The Central Office assists all officers assigned to this work in allocating positions to boys in the police district in which applications greatly exceed the number of positions available in their district.

In the first year of the Bureau's creation, 8759 boys under 21 were arrested for various infractions of the law, as compared with 11,438 taken in the year prior to the Bureau's inauguration, that is a decrease of 23.7 per cent. in the arrest of male juveniles in one year.

Twenty-four thousand boys, a division that might turn the tide of a critical battle ; builders of the Greater Chicago if we train them now ; master of big affairs if they catch the trust

and the vision—and not bad boys, mark you. They are neat-appearing, honest and reliable, most with high school education and a few with university training ; not reclaimed boys in any sense, and never have they been taken into custody by the Chicago Police Department for any breach of the peace or for any other reason.

Favourable publicity is given the Unemployed Boys' Bureau by the Chicago newspapers, and placards entitled ' Give the Boy a Chance ' have been given prominent advertising space in street cars, elevated and suburban trains. Employment managers, corporation and business houses throughout the city co-operate to the fullest extent with the police officers assigned to the Bureau, as is evidenced by the results obtained.

My experience in the Police Department for the past twenty-nine years in interrogating a good many criminals and in going back to their character in the past and how they became criminals, leads me to hold that in 90 out of 100 cases they made their first start to crime when they graduated from the grammar school.

I have talked to the average boy of working men's families (and in mostly all cases he is one of a very large family) and found that when the boy leaves the grammar school he wants to go to work ; that he then goes out himself and tries to secure employment, and ultimately finds that the factories are closed against him, as the factory watchman or some other person is away. After seeking employment for several weeks, perhaps for several months, he starts hanging around the corner with other boys that are in the same ' boat ' as himself, namely, out of employment ; and next they start to pilfer, stealing small things first, and then they graduate all the way up until they become full-fledged criminals.

Under our new system of things the youths go to the police station nearest their home and register. The lads realize that the policeman is not an ogre in uniform but that he is trying to guide their footsteps to useful citizenship. We all know that an empty pocket is a storage battery of crime. Good boys are a city's greatest asset. A good job prevents a bad boy. And it is the purpose of the Chicago Police Department to do everything possible within their power towards

securing employment for the youth of our city. A boy who has reached the age of 20 or 21 years without committing any crime seldom goes wrong in later years.

The Chicago Police Department is justly proud of its Unemployed Boys' Bureau. We feel that the results accomplished by this Bureau is the highest type of effort for the welfare of the city. The employment which has been secured for the boys is naturally of a diverse nature. Work in offices as clerks, typists, book-keepers or messengers; work in hotels and theatres as cooks and ushers; work on farms; work in factories as draughtsmen, pattern-makers; work as errand-boys, boot-blacks, chauffeurs, or salesmen, are some of the directions in which openings have been found.

Our records show that in the past two significant years, not only is there a distinct lessening of petty crime on the part of the youth of our city, but the police and the boy have come into relations of friend and follower. And, in conclusion, may I again say that out of this small army of 24,053 boys representative of many nationalities only nine fell from grace. And of these nine may it be said in their behalf that in each case their indiscretions were not serious enough to warrant a court conviction.

APPENDIX I

Attached is a typical copy of the weekly bulletin issued by my office and sent to each of the six Chicago daily newspapers, also to the seventy-six weekly and foreign language papers.

BULLETIN No. 76

BY

COMMISSIONER OF POLICE, WILLIAM F. RUSSELL

Do you need a boy?

The Unemployed Boys' Bureau under the supervision of the Chicago Police Department since its inauguration two years ago has secured jobs for 24,053 boys.

Nearly all of these boys are high school graduates. They are neat-appearing, honest and reliable, ages between 14 and 20, and all of them can furnish references.

These youths are in no sense reclaimed and never have they been taken into custody by this department for any breach of the peace or for any other reason.

The Bureau can furnish a boy for nearly any kind of a job. Remember, a good job prevents a bad boy. Good boys are a city's greatest asset.

Anyone wishing to employ a boy should telephone Wabash 4747 and ask for Lieut. James J. Scully, and explain his needs. There is absolutely no charge for this service either to the boy or the employer.

The Chicago Police Department is doing everything possible to help the boys of our city. The co-operation of everyone is earnestly requested in this work. Give our boys a chance by giving them a job.

APPENDIX II

Attached herewith cards used by the Unemployed Boys' Bureau at the various police stations. The following will explain the manner in which they are used:

The first is an Introduction Slip which is filled out by the Lieutenant in charge of Central Headquarters. The slip shows as an introduction to his prospective employer.

WILLIAM F. RUSSELL, COMMISSIONER OF POLICE	JAMES J. SCULLY, LIEUTENANT IN CHARGE
DEPARTMENT OF POLICE UNEMPLOYED BOYS BUREAU	
Gentlemen:	
This will serve to introduce _____	
who is desirous of obtaining a position.	
Any consideration shown the applicant will be appreciated.	
53	_____ Lieutenant in charge

The next slip is known as the Removal Notice slip. This is filled out at the police station by the officer in charge of the Employment Bureau. When a boy moves he is registered in another district.

Removal Notice

Dist. _____

Name _____

Address _____

HAS REMOVED TO

Address _____ Dist. _____

NOTICE - This slip must be filled out and forwarded to the BOYS' EMPLOYMENT BUREAU when a boy who has registered with you for employment has moved to another district.

The third card is known as the Employers' Card. This is filled out by the police officer in whatever district the firm is situated, and immediately sent to Central Headquarters where it is placed on the file. This card carries the name of firm, business engaged in, their street address and their phone number; also the name of the manager employing boys, the number of boys employed, and between what ages; and the police district in which they are located.

BUSINESS		DIST. NO.
NAME OF FIRM	ADDRESS	PHONE NO.
EMPLOYMENT		
MANAGER		
BOYS EMPLOYED		
AGES: FROM	YRS. TO	YRS.
REMARKS:		
PATROLMAN _____		

The fourth card is used by Central Headquarters to notify the forty-one police stations whenever a boy living in their respective district is furnished with employment from Central headquarters direct. This procedure takes place every Monday on the basis of the previous week, and enables each district to keep a strict record of the unemployed boys in that area.

Date _____

Patrolman _____

Employment Officer, _____ District.

The following named boys, who reside in your District, and who filed their applications with you, were placed in positions during the past week through the Headquarters of this Bureau:

Name and Address	Age	With whom placed	Date

You will, therefore, transfer the applications of these boys from the unemployed to the employed file at your District.

Lieutenant in Charge
Unemployed Boys' Bureau.

Murder at Belly Butte

By T. MORRIS LONGSTRETH

SUPERINTENDENT PRIMROSE surveyed his basket of unfinished cases with both satisfaction and regret. With satisfaction because no serious crime lay unsolved. With regret since there remained no problem on which to concentrate. Macleod, in the North-West Territories of Canada, had never been so law-abiding. Primrose, with steel-trap wits sharpened by twenty years in the Force, and with the energy of a great executive, contemplated boredom.

He was not unhappy long. A telephone call from the detachment at Stand Off, Sergeant Robertson in charge, notified him that two squaws, 'Small Face' and 'Singing Before', had found a white man's leg in a coulée on the Blood Reserve about twenty-five miles from Macleod. The dead leg, they said, was all alone, but they knew it was a man's by the shape. Primrose instructing Robertson to investigate at once, began inquiries nearer home.

The Sergeant knew that no one in the district was reported missing, yet a hacked leg was certainly evidence of a tragedy. The trouble was it might have come from anywhere since the region had just been swept by floods unusual for August. Extinct creeks had become raging torrents, and Robertson noticed that the coulée in which the leg had been found had been gouged and deeply cut by the rushing waters. It was possible, he surmised, for the leg to have been unearthed by the providential flood as a sort of advance notice of the body which remained behind. With police scout 'Tail Feathers' he searched the coulée painstakingly.

A jagged scar in the high bank caught the searchers' attention. A closer scrutiny explained the phenomenon. The rains had, by seepage, undermined and released an immense block of the bank which, in its fall, had uncovered the object of their search.

MURDER AT BELLY BUTTE

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There it lay wrapped in a sheet, the legs severed to facilitate concealment in a large hole which had been dug in the soft earth of the side of the bank, the upper earth pulled down to cover the hasty burial. It was as if nature had exerted her utmost to assist justice, earth refusing a rôle of accomplice.

The large wound depressing the skull explained the cause of death even before the arrival of the coroner and doctor, hurried to the scene by Primrose. The wound had been inflicted from behind, and death had occurred about a week before.

The victim seemed to be a Swede, about 60, short and muscular, with fair complexion, high cheek bones, greyish hair tinged with red, reddish moustache, blue eyes; his third finger was tied up in a cloth. Primrose attending the inquest was in his element. Many things would have to be done at once. The facts squeezed for their implications, the identities of the murdered and the murderer established, their antecedents learned, the future of the fleeting criminal anticipated. Within a few hours all the agencies at his command were sending in returns.

No one knew the dead man, but some of the Blood Indians were more helpful. 'Kills Herself,' a squaw, had come on a tent, not far from the grave in the coulée, while out picking berries. Curiosity had drawn her inside. It had contained two shovels, a map which she was sure she could identify, grey blankets, a suit of blue clothes; outside had stood a blue painted wagon. The same day John Day Chief had seen one of the men wearing a black hat. The next day the outfit was gone. Ten days earlier others had seen two men with a team of bays and two trunks in the wagon at another place on the Reserve. Settlers recalled the outfit, some having the wagon blue, some red, but the more observant agreed that one of the men was short and dark, speaking English with a German or Swedish accent. They had not been close enough to his companion to say whether or not he was the murdered man. Everything pointed to the two men being landseekers. Where had they come from? Where were they going? Were they the people of the tent? If so, was the short, dark man the murderer?

The search swung to the tent site and its vicinity, and the findings were extraordinary. First, a camp-fire in whose ashes remained bits of burnt clothing, but an insufficient amount to account for an outfit. In the brush near the back bench a pair of boots, scraps of a German newspaper, small pieces of onions, a card advertising a Vancouver baggage transfer firm, a baking powder advertisement, elastic side gaiters, and a crumpled piece of paper inscribed in pencil 'George Bednar, Anamoose, N.D.'

Primrose knew his territory intimately, and his instructions sent men to work along all possible routes of travel, checking the stores for recent purchases of onions and baking powder, and exhibiting the dead man's photograph in hopes of identification; others hunted for buried clothing and other clues about the camp and coulée. The German newspaper scraps proving to be parts of a Seattle periodical, the police there were asked to check up, while their confrères at Vancouver and Anamoose were asked about the transfer address and the name 'George Bednar.' Anticipating developments to the southward, Primrose asked the Commissioner at Regina for authority to pursue the murderer into the United States, if necessary, and was told 'to spare no expense.'

Meanwhile Robertson had traced the movements of the landseeking outfit after leaving the Blood Reserve. 'Two Guns,' an Indian, admitted having been hired to draw a stranger and his wagon into Lethbridge, the team of horses having strayed. Another Indian, 'Steals his Wood at Night,' had found the missing team, and surrendered them to the police.

At Lethbridge the Customs, Immigration and Land Offices, hotels and railway stations furnished other clues. The stranger had sold the wagon and camp utensils to a settler living some distance away, the harness and tent to a Saskatchewan homesteader. Leaving others to search freight records for the Saskatchewan address, Robertson went to Woodpecker where the settler who had bought the wagon was locating. It was the same wagon as seen on the Blood Reserve, and identification was clinched by finding in it pieces of the same German newspaper, onion skins, tent pegs and duck feathers as had been picked up in the murder coulée.

Best of all was the settler's description of the seller: a man 5 feet 6 inches in height, about 50, with grey moustache and hair, a nose slightly flattened across the bridge and turned up at the end, and a mouth with two upper teeth missing, one from each side. This unprepossessing individual retained a trunk whose weight was so great as to excite comment at the time, and had receipted the bill of sale with the name W. Seigler. He had plenty of money, the settler said.

Yes, said the Immigration Office, the man described had inquired about reduced fares to the Coast. The railway had sold him a ticket to Shelby Junction, Montana, on August 29th, the day the body had been discovered. A constable, with the name of W. Seigler in mind, again searched the hotel registers and found that such a man had stayed at one of them from August 15th to 29th. He was apparently not nervously in haste. Primrose smiled grimly at this news. 'Three days' start was bad but not too bad. North America would not be big enough to hide a man with a nose like that and two teeth out. First he would check the train crew of the 29th.

Here Chance, that irritating flirt, smiled sweetly. Not only did the conductor recall Seigler, but a mounted policeman had been on the train, Constable Goodwin, a new man, and he remembered Seigler perfectly. Primrose hesitated, however. Should he send this inexperienced man immediately or lose time until the experienced Hetherington could come? He decided that Goodwin's ability to identify the murderer compensated for his inexperience, but he armed him before sending him out, with minute instructions:

'He is supposed to have got off the train at Shelby Junction and that will be your starting place from which to follow this man which you will do until you locate him, when ask the police authorities to arrest him on the charge of murder. . . . You will keep me fully informed as to your movements every day or so and be sure always to let me know where I am going to be able to send information to you. . . . If you run out of money draw on me at sight. . . . If in doubt send in for instructions giving the chances on both sides but you will be on the spot and in the best position to judge, and I do not expect you will get stuck. A great deal depends on you and I know you will do your very best to try and bring this case to a successful conclusion. It may not be necessary for you to be always telling who you are. The facts will tell you

when to talk. Get all you can out of the other man and say as little yourself as you can.'

Here was Primrose, the cold disciplinarian, in a more intimate light, talking to his constable almost as to a son, heartening him with the knowledge of perfect co-operation at headquarters. Goodwin set out, and Primrose turned again to the *terra incognita* at hand.

While the fugitive had been definitely identified with the team and wagon and the camp on the Blood Reserve, the murdered man had not. Unless the two men's association could be established the evidence would have little value, and Primrose set to work to tie them together. At Pincher Creek the pair had been seen camping together with their bell tent, wagon, and ill-matched team of bays. A mounted police constable had spoken to them, a store-keeper, the land-agent who had given them a map showing available land. A replica of the map was identified by 'Kills Herself,' the berry-picker. Curiously enough in each instance it was Seigler who had done the talking, as to the murdered man's identity there was not the slightest clue until the register at the Immigration Hall, Calgary, revealed these entries: 24th July, 1903, W. Seigler, German, single, Washington, U.S.A.; John Bush, German, Washington, U.S.A. Both men had left on 29th July.

To Primrose a step forward like this made a red-letter day. A married couple who had been at the Hall during this period recalled the two men and recognized the face in the photograph. Seigler and Bush, they said, had told of coming from Seattle, and they had been in Alaska. At the same time the discovery of a pair of blood-stained quilts sold by Seigler to the Saskatchewan homesteader added their bit of evidence. But despite Primrose's best efforts through the police of Seattle and Vancouver, nothing could be learned of these men's antecedents or previous residence, and, worse, a most undesirable publicity in the western press was beginning to appear.

Suddenly this flared up disastrously. Goodwin had got on the track of his man at Shelby, Montana, and had begun a pressing and intelligent pursuit, gaining daily, keeping in touch with Primrose by wire, receiving helps from his com-

manding officer. But he was young and not sufficiently suspicious of the malice of the press. He had reached Great Falls and found a W. Seigle—not Seigler now—registered in a hotel. The description fitted, but Mr. Seigle was gone, and his heavy trunk—70 pounds overweight—had been checked ahead to Butte. Next day, to Goodwin's horror, this clipping from the *Great Falls Daily Leader* was copied in the Butte papers and other sheets of the West:

'George Goodwin, a member of the North-West Mounted Police from Calgary was among the visitors to the city yesterday looking for W. Zeigler, charged with the murder of . . . etc.'

Simultaneously with the appearance of this assistance to the murderer, W. Seigler dropped out of sight.

To Primrose it seemed a mortal stab at the success of the case. Clearly Goodwin had outrun his experience; if Seigler had gone to cover it was a job for Hetherington, whose brilliant work had become part of the fame of the force. So Hetherington was sent on the trail.

With Seigler vanished into thin air, Goodwin had been following his trunk. It was suspected to hold gold dust. Sometimes the baggage men remembered a nervous fidgety German, sometimes merely the trunk, at times confusing the description of it, but never erring about the overweight. At Butte it had come into one station, and disappeared. There was a second station, a trunk of the same weight had been shipped from it the same day to Missoula. Seigler, it seemed, was doubling on his trail. From Missoula the trunk had gone to Seattle. Goodwin followed. The trunk continued to San Francisco. So did Goodwin. Here the bulk of baggage baffled records. The trunk disappeared from sight. Goodwin was relieved to be joined by veteran Hetherington.

Armed with a description, the murdered man's photograph, and two names, Hetherington and Goodwin scoured San Francisco and Seattle in turn. The German consul, German societies and newspapers, the assay offices and police were among those approached. These last were none too obliging, in fact hardly civil, and after a further survey of the lodging houses, hotels and railroads, the two men started north again, Goodwin to report to Macleod, Hetherington to look up

George Bednar at Anamoose, the police there having failed to reply to Primrose's query.

Bednar was found and remembered the two men. He had met them on the train from Calgary to Edmonton, when, hearing them speak Polish, he had joined in conversation. The older man's family lived in the old country; the younger was single. Bednar and the two men had kept together the night they reached Edmonton, and all three, together with another Pole who had joined them on arrival, had stayed at the Immigration Hall. Bednar had left for Anamoose in the morning and knew nothing further about the two men except that the older man—Bush—had money. Bush, unable to speak English, seemed to be employing Seigler, who was without funds, as interpreter.

The Edmonton Immigration Register confirmed Bednar's statements. It gave the two names, John Bush and William Siegel (not Seigler this time) and a third—Frank Pekowsky—this last from Idaho. Evidently Pekowsky was the Pole who had met the others on arrival. He introduced a new aspect. Was he friend or accomplice? And where was he? Bush and Seigler had been seeking a homestead, Bednar said. That was the reason he had given the old man his address, so that he might communicate if a desirable location was obtained. Perhaps Pekowsky was a landseeker, too, but nothing was known of him at Edmonton.

The one point clear was that both men had come from Seattle. It occurred to Primrose, digesting Hetherington's report, that the Canadian Pacific Railway, which was offering inducements to prospective settlers, might have a record of one or all of the three men's movements. The reasoning was sound and an entry jumped to meet the eye. J. Bush and W. Seigler had bought tickets in Vancouver on 29th June, and the applicants' signatures were obtained from the original certificates at Ottawa.

With the certificates before him Primrose became very thoughtful. Was the strain of suspense distorting his eyesight? For the signature Wilhelm Siegel (not Seigler) was written in a wavering hand, totally unlike the signatures of the various hotel registers, while, perversely enough, the signature

J. Bush had obviously been written by the man who had signed himself W. Seigler and W. Seigle. There was only one deduction to be made: it was William Siegel who had been murdered and John Bush was his murderer. Seigler, Siegel, Seigle. These mistakes, which had been laid to illiteracy, were really due to the indecision of a poor speller as to how the man he had murdered had actually spelled his name.

But why had Bush taken the name of his victim? Because he feared recognition by some who had met him with his partner and who might have forgotten his name but would remark an alias? Or because the assumption of Siegel's identity promised some future advantage? The first was too subtle a reason for a man of Bush's type. The second seemed more reasonable, especially in view of the mysteriously weighty trunk.

It was now October and the keen brain at Macleod, directing the investigation and following each move of the detectives, dissecting each fact and associating it with what was known, surveyed the mounting costs and the fleeting calendar with a more pertinacious set to his lantern jaw. If the department would stand by him, he would get this murderer yet. But the search must now be gone into more systematically and on a grander scale. 'Spare no expense' was again Regina's reply.

At once Primrose outlined for himself details of a search which was to eclipse, for thoroughness and extent, anything in the records of the force. The case became Primrose's ruling passion on which he expended his most brilliant thought.

Bush and Siegel! Two fairly common German-American names. Surely there must be inquiries from friends, forwarding addresses, bills. Somewhere they were known. They may even have come from the same city or town. As a preliminary he caused every post office in the Canadian territory known to have been traversed by the two men to be interviewed. The banks, too, were checked, for money transactions. But all to no avail.

But even Primrose's dauntless determination quailed before the immensity of the task looming at the back of his mind as a last resort. December had now ushered in the

fourth month of the investigation, with its very often fruitless and exasperating examination of clues. The horses held as exhibits were eating their heads off at Government expense, the witnesses were kept in touch. Hetherington had not unearthed Pekowsky. The Yukon had supplied its bit of information to the effect that William Siegel had prospected the Klondike in '98, and had located a claim, but it had not been renewed and no one remembered him. One small clue remained: a silver spoon inscribed 'N. D. Lloyd, Bremen' had been found at the murder camp. Primrose asked the British Consul at Bremen to have the passenger lists of the North German Lloyd Steamship Company searched, and for good measure the Immigration people at New York to check their records.

The ordinary police officer of the average police force would now have folded his hands and said, 'I can do no more.' The brutal crime in the remote coulée had taken the men of the force, or its money, on fruitless errands throughout Alberta, and to California, as far north as the Arctic, over the Atlantic to Germany. The file of the 'Belly Butte Murder' was already of mammoth proportions, dwarfing the pile of all other unfinished cases. To a routine man it would seem that every clue had been exhausted, every conceivable point checked. But Primrose had not built up an international reputation by merely reasonable measures. So long as the Government would back his infinite capacity for taking pains he would take the pains, and his big card was yet to play.

Somewhere in the Western United States Bush was hiding. Everything about the two men pointed to their having come from the same part of the continent. Some place they would be known. The stage was reached for Primrose's final effort. Instructions were issued, instructions which virtually meant taking the census of every William Siegel and John Bush in the western states. For good measure Frank Pekowsky was included.

The labour was to be two-fold. A letter requesting any news of these men was despatched to every postmaster in the huge territory, and while the replies were awaited, Hetherington was sent to thirty-six mining towns of Idaho to inquire in person for Bush who had mentioned mining there.

The flood of replies from the postmasters was unbelievable. It seemed as if there were a John Bush, a William Siegel, or a Frank Pekowsky, or variations of the three, in every district served by the United States postal service. Over two hundred were received in response to the first call, but invariably the postmaster stated that whichever of the trio had been in his district was no longer there, but was supposed to be in such and such a place.

Some replies were more inviting to investigation without delay than others, and Hetherington left his hateful assignment among the snows of Idaho to check up on the long list received from Macleod. Even to plan such an itinerary was a task. 'The postmaster at Leland, Idaho, reports that Wm. Siegler has been living there.' 'The postmaster at McKay, Idaho, says that John Bush had mail addressed there but never called for it.' How to visit hundreds of communities, some of them even off stagecoach routes, and at the same time save costs was the problem. It grew to be a routine and a nightmare. From the post office, where the local or recently local Bushes, Siegels, and Pekowskys would be accounted for, the lean sergeant would go to the Mining Recorder's, and finally to the bureau of application for citizenship. Some of the post office replies were belated and caused him to retrace his footsteps. Side issues crept in—a promising confession at San Francisco turned out to be another crime. The activities of the Mounted Police throughout the whole of Western America had by this time brought such publicity to the Belly Butte case, however, that there was no lack of rumours. Almost every native knew enough about it to pose as an authority. A continual inflow of hearsay was the result, most of it so obviously false that it could be disregarded. But occasionally an investigation would have to be made, and a culminating one—regarding two foreigners leaving for Canada and only one returning—occupied Hetherington for weeks before he could prove there was nothing in it. The spring of 1904 became summer, summer fall, and Primrose was forced to report to Ottawa that the net result of his efforts had been to 'prove things wrong.'

Judge then how startling, how immensely gratifying, was

the unexpected news from South Omaha that John Bush had been arrested!

Primrose read of it first in the paper. He read it again. The man's alias was Charles Schultz, and he was being detained in South Omaha by the police. Primrose sent an urgent wire to Hetherington; it crossed one from Hetherington who had seen the item and was hastening to Omaha. Photographs were rushed to Primrose, who was pervaded by the spirit of satisfaction; there was no mistake here. Witness after witness was called in to identify the prisoner's likeness and the Superintendent's hopes were strengthened as person after person identified the portrait without hesitation. The station employees at Lethbridge were sure, the hotel man was sure.

But thoroughness had been Primrose's life habit. In anticipation he saw the great case closed and his basket of unfinished problems restored to its normal proportions. Being human, he possibly heard the congratulations on the lips of the thousands who had been interested. If this was the real John Bush he knew there would be no trouble as to extradition. And he had reserved one final proof of sureness up his sleeve, the Indians. They, who could trail antelope over apparently trackless plains and who could read the difficult face of nature, would not let eagerness of his own professional hopes deceive them if this face were not the face of John Bush. He called them in, and, one imagines, with some inward trepidation produced his photograph. Both of the Indians had been hired by Bush and knew him.

They studied the face and one said, 'Dat de man, boss, dat de man.' The other concurred with, 'Yes, boss, dat him.'

The case was as good as sewn up. South Omaha was communicated with, and only one man there raised any doubts as to the identification; that was the prisoner himself. On learning that others knew that he was suspected of murder, he became hysterical. He seemed to protest his innocence too much, and yet his very earnestness disturbed Hetherington who questioned him as to his movements during July and August 1903.

But a further clue presented itself which enabled

Hetherington to get into touch with Pekowsky, the Pole who, it will be remembered, had met Siegel and Bush at Edmonton. Hetherington had to travel to Lac Ste. Anne, north-west of Edmonton, to see him. His real name was Pahaski. Pahaski stated that he had been with Bednar at the Immigration Hall and remembered Siegel the wagon-maker. He remembered Bush, too, the man who did the talking for Siegel. He hadn't liked Bush's looks, said Pahaski, still ignorant of Hetherington's mission, and had warned Siegel. Lac Ste. Anne appealed to Siegel, but Bush persuaded him to look through southern Alberta before locating. Bush was a good cook. Siegel had come from Texas by way of San Francisco. It was on the boat that Pahaski had met him.

These disclosures were oxygen to the flagging trailers, and Primrose sent Hetherington to Vancouver and San Francisco to see if they were facts, at the same time circularising the postmasters of Texas—the ninth State. Pahaski had not lied. At Vancouver the Customs House files showed the arrival of J. Bush and V. H. Zigley (the customs officer's version of Siegel's speech) on 23rd June. San Francisco sailing lists gave W. Siegel as a 2nd class passenger with trunk, but no signature resembled Bush's. Meanwhile replies were swarming into Macleod from Texas, those from Moulton and Schulenberg bearing unmistakable signs of referring to the right Siegel. The postmaster at Moulton said that Siegel had lived there with Anton Walzel, who spoke of Siegel as coming from Austria, where his wife and family still were. One of the daughters was a school teacher. Siegel had taken some tools with him and some money from the bank. Walzel could not describe the tools.

The bank at Moulton had a record of Siegel's purchase of two drafts totalling \$550 before setting out. The New York Clearing House turned up the draft, and the endorsement showed a San Francisco bank and endorser, the editor of a German newspaper. He remembered Siegel well, had even written letters for him to a 'dear friend' at Moulton, he told Hetherington. He, as well as Walzel, identified the photograph without hesitation.

Primrose, carrying on at Macleod, was now able to fill in the story which had once been all gap so that even a jury would be satisfied. The only thing lacking was the murderer. Was Bush, Primrose wondered, his real name? The exhaustive census had revealed nothing else. One fact was sure, however: Bush and Siegel had boarded the same boat at Seattle, and so Hetherington returned there to jog the memories of the steamship employees, to burrow again into the cheaper world of second-rate hotels, Bohemian societies, and bars. The detective recalled that Pahaski had praised Bush's cooking. So he questioned restaurant-keepers and had searched for a month when his doggedness was rewarded by a clue. A café-owner remembered one of his cooks, a German, 50 years of age, who suddenly shaved his moustache and disappeared in January 1904 on overhearing that one of the patrons was from Alberta. Here was a thread to follow, though his informant knew nothing further. Two months passed before the cook was run to earth. He was totally unlike Bush and had chosen to disappear in order to be away from his wife. Hetherington returned to Seattle. Nothing. Then to Butte, in a last effort to see if Bush had disposed of Siegel's tools.

Primrose, meanwhile, had followed up the information about Siegel's family, and learned that a daughter had just come to New York. He started an investigation in the metropolis, when his letter to her last known address was returned.

By now almost every native knew enough about the Belly Butte case to pose as an authority. A continual crop of rumours was the result, most of these so obviously false that they could be disregarded, but occasionally an investigation would have to be made, and a culminating one—regarding two foreigners leaving for Canada and only one returning—occupied Hetherington for weeks before he could prove there was nothing to it.

The fate which had dangled hope before the pursuers for two years suddenly wearied of the game and dealt Primrose the heaviest blow yet. Through balk and despite expense the Commissioner, and behind him the Government, had given the Superintendent a whole-hearted support. Half the force's

efficiency lay in their pride of never stopping until success was reached. But in 1905 the North-West Territories had been reduced by the formation of two new provinces, Alberta and Saskatchewan. With the new autonomy came new policies and a sweeping change in the status of the Mounted Police. They were to continue their work in consideration of an annual subsidy, but unusual expenses were subject to the approval of the Attorney-General, who now had the final say in the enforcement of law and order. This gentleman decided that a murder of 1903 was too expensive an heritage to assume in 1906, and gave instructions to withdraw Hetherington from the case.

This, it seemed, was the end. The black-covered file was pushed a little to one side on Primrose's desk. Its bulk made it a clumsy nuisance. But it had become a part of his life. There was always the possibility . . .

And then it came. Helen Siegel was located in New York through correspondence. For the first time she learned that her father's death had not been a natural one. She had not received word from him for years, but enclosed a letter sent from him to his family in 1901.

It was the richest clue of all. Primrose, comparing its signature with his various scripts, saw that it was the writing of the Lethbridge hotel register, the hand of John Bush.

His theory was proven to the hilt. Not only had Bush assumed Siegel's identity after the murder with the idea of impersonating his victim, but he had known Siegel in 1901, in Texas, and so well as to be trusted to write the old Austrian's personal letters. Siegel had money and the source of more in a grown-up family in Austria; Siegel was easily led; his ignorance of English providing the opening. What would be easier than to follow him to some lonely spot, put him away, and then return still utilizing his name for what it would bring? It was a cold-blooded premeditation, but a simple plot when seen in its entirety. The letter had been written from Schulenberg, that other place of Siegel's residence in Texas. At Schulenberg Bush would surely be known; there would be clues. At last, at the very end of the chapter, fortune had turned his way. This murderer need not escape them yet. Primrose, hardly

restraining his enthusiasm, penned a letter to the Commissioner asking for authority to re-open the case and, because of the hazards in trusting to correspondence, to send Hetherington to Texas.

The reply was a shock. The Commissioner said that the Attorney-General must be consulted first and suggested correspondence.

Three months later the Superintendent seized another opportunity to remind Regina of the important clue awaiting investigation at Schulenberg. Silence was his reply.

The file on the Belly Butte Murder was pushed farther to one side, and the man who had initiated every action, directed every move, had to content himself, rather bitterly, with tabulating the evidence, keeping in touch with the witnesses, seeing to it that the exhibit team of bay horses was looked after. Once storm signals flew in the O.C.'s office: the horses had wandered away. Nor did the storm subside until they were recovered some months later.

From 1906 to 1913 the file remained in its position. At times reports would be received from individuals or other police forces stating that John Bush was identical with Mr. So and So. One such rumour, identifying Bush with a notorious hold-up man, took three years to dissipate.

It was 1913. Ten years had passed since that August day when 'Small Face' and 'Singing Before' had come upon the leg. The witnesses still living were ten years older. Bush, if living, would be ten years older. Was it likely that a single witness would venture an identification now? Grudgingly Primrose had to admit the impossibility.

In 1919 the file was packed away. Perhaps it had been hoped that the registration of aliens during the war years would reveal a final clue. If so, it was but one more disappointment.

And there the file remains to-day. It stands as a monument to the most minute, thorough, and indefatigable investigation of its kind. Perhaps John Bush is living still. He may even read this. If he does, he can feel that the angels were on his side in his flight, and that he was the central figure of the best contested unsuccessful case on record.

Glasgow Police Training School

BY SUPERINTENDENT JOHN HUNTER

Chief Clerk, Glasgow Police

IT has been claimed that Glasgow was among the earliest, if not the very first, of communities in Great Britain to organize for their safety and protection a police force on modern lines. This new force, which was authorized by the Glasgow Police Act, 1800, began to train almost as soon as it was formed. The course of training lasted several weeks and consisted of patrolling the streets in squads of a dozen or more in charge of officers. It is recorded of this force that each man had his number displayed in a conspicuous position for the information of the public, not as at present, but painted on the back of his coat between his shoulders in white figures about six inches long.

Such was the extent of the training in those good old days. It is not known exactly how the present system developed, but for many years prior to 1920 there was little change. The training varied from a few weeks' to several months' instruction in drill and police duties and this was sometimes dispensed with in the case of ex-service men. The length of the course was determined by the number of vacant beats in the City and the aptitude of each recruit for the work. This training helped to smarten up the recruit's appearance and strengthen his muscles. It also taught him that superior officers had to be obeyed. He was, however, in many cases no more proficient in a knowledge of the duties of a policeman than he was when he left the army or the village and the plough.

The last re-arrangement to take place in the work of the preparatory class was at the time of the publication of the Desborough Report in 1920: instead of almost continual dreary drill the recruit now receives extensive and useful

instruction¹ in all branches of his future work. While general education is recognized as an integral part of the training of all constables, each man undergoes a course of definite instruction in drill and police duties.

'The instruction of fools is folly' is a well-known proverb, and so at the outset each candidate is carefully selected. The tests, both physical and mental, are such that only the best type of applicant can pass. Of course, improved conditions are now bringing forward a greater proportion of eligible candidates, who have had the privilege of a secondary school education. Men of good physique from the country are still preferred, as the most important asset of a policeman is his physical condition, but they must come up to the educational standard as well. Brawn is not enough, brain is also essential.

Thirty years ago, candidates paraded at the Central Police Office Quadrangle every Tuesday, and were selected by the Chief Constable and Drill Instructor, personal appearance being the first qualification. Those selected were given a schedule to fill in, and after passing the medical examination were appointed without any other test. After appointment, inquiry was made as to the antecedents. Nowadays the schedule is given first and the personal interview comes last. The first test is that of physical fitness. The candidate must be 5 feet 10 inches in his bare feet. It is of no use for a candidate to place a couple of pairs of soles inside his socks, although he may possibly pass undetected by getting a friend to raise a bump on his head. His weight should be in a certain proportion to his height. Next comes the test as to his mental ability in the shape of an educational examination—a test much more difficult than it used to be. As in all other educational tests, one occasionally comes across an innocent howler, as when a candidate explained that 'barometer' was

¹ For an example of the system of training at an English centre, see the account of Birmingham Police School in *The Police Journal*, Vol. II., pp. 1 and 453. Examples of American practice have been given in the case of Portland, Oregon (Vol. II., p. 532), and of the New York Police College (Vol. III., p. 342). Examples of Continental practice have been as follows: Brussels (Vol. I., p. 450); Berlin (Vol. II., p. 243); Vienna (Vol. II., p. 445); Copenhagen (Vol. I., p. 249); Budapest (Vol. II., p. 75). An article on a proposed system of Police Training and Education in England was given in Vol. II., p. 636. Examples of advanced courses have been given: Turin University in Italy (Vol. III., p. 313); and the Vienna Criminological Institute (Vol. III., p. 469).

an instrument for measuring beer, no doubt associating bar and meter, and that 'Meridian' was a well-known tipster in the *Noon Record*, which was quite true. A moderate degree of education being an indispensable qualification, candidates should be able to read and write well, have a fair knowledge of English grammar and arithmetic, and be able to answer questions in general knowledge intelligently. The qualification of prime importance here is not scholarship, but the possession of common sense. A candidate is required to pass this educational test with 75 per cent. marks. This high standard is set so that when the candidate receives an appointment and passes into the Training School, he will be able to concentrate on the professional side of his duties. Incidentally it discloses whether the candidate's mental ability is such that he will be likely to perform his duties efficiently after his appointment has been confirmed.

It is not surprising that men with a healthy ambition and the requisite height and education should be drawn to the Police Service, as one of the greatest inducements is the fact that any constable, by virtue of his own ability and perseverance, may rise to the higher ranks. There is no royal road to these lucrative positions, and it may be truly said that every constable carries a Chief Constable's baton in his hip pocket. Mr. A. D. Smith, C.B.E., J.P., the present Chief Constable of this force, who has always taken a keen interest in the selection and training of recruits, and who has successfully reorganized that department, has himself risen from the bottom rung of the police ladder.

Let us imagine that the candidate has filled in a schedule and has accepted the terms and conditions upon which all would-be policemen are admitted to the force. The next step is to make inquiries regarding the candidate's character, which must be above reproach. Testimonials from employers for the previous five years are verified, and if everything is satisfactory the candidate's name is put on the waiting list. In due course he will be called up for medical examination by the physician to the force, and a personal interview by the Chief Constable. Like his character, his body must be free from blemish. His chest expansion must be good, not in

merely throwing out his chest, but in taking a deep breath and filling his lungs. Each candidate is subjected to a most searching medical examination to obviate the danger of admitting physically weak men, who would be unable to stand the hard life incident to the police service. Having successfully gone through all tests so far, the potential policeman must now pass the final test before being sworn in as a constable before the Stipendiary Magistrate. This is nothing more alarming than a personal interview with the Chief Constable. But 'there is many a slip 'twixt the cup and the lip' and he may be rejected here. This is where the man's personal appearance, or an apparent lack of intelligence or common sense in answering questions is taken into account. However, the chances of failure here are comparatively small.

Up to this point the budding policeman has been regarded as a candidate, and all the details have been arranged by the clerical staff in the Chief Constable's Office. 'Many are called, but few are chosen.' Candidates are called up on the first Tuesday of every month in batches which are usually large enough to form a class; and, after they have been duly appointed constables, are then placed under the charge of the drill instructor and his staff in the Training School. The Training School is situated in the Muster Hall of the Central Division at Headquarters. This hall is also fitted up as a gymnasium. It has parallel and horizontal bars, punching ball, vaulting horse, bridge ladder, rings, mats and all the usual equipment of an up-to-date gymnasium. A former Chief Constable of Glasgow, when over 50 years of age, used occasionally to be seen here performing the slow circle on the horizontal bar.

While undergoing the course of instruction in the Training School, all recruits must reside in Camphill Police Barracks. These commodious barracks are beautifully situated in Queen's Park, one of the largest and best laid out public parks in Glasgow. Although situated in the suburbs, the barracks are within easy reach of the Training School by either tram or bus, on which the Glasgow Police travel free when in uniform. This building, which was originally known as St. Aidan's School, was for many years a boarding school, and was acquired

by the Glasgow Corporation in 1919. It has four floors and accommodates fifty men, besides a competent staff of cooks and cleaners. The Drill Instructor and his family also reside in the building, so that recruits are entirely under this officer's supervision while in the Training School. The barracks are fully equipped with everything necessary for the comfort of the men, including a library and recreation room with a billiard table. There is also a sick-room for cases of slight illness. The usual period of residence for Glasgow recruits is about four months. Men deputed from other forces stay in the barracks during the ten weeks of the course of training. The cost for messing is approximately 15s. per week.

A new Police Headquarters is at present in the course of erection. This building will accommodate the whole of the administrative staff of the force, including the Training School. The recruits will be drilled in the Yard attached to the new headquarters, but the quadrangle and gymnasium at the Central Police Office, less than 100 yards distant, will still be available when required.

The essential process of selecting eligible recruits to form a reliable foundation has been described; an endeavour will now be made to explain the outstanding features of the Training School. Here each recruit goes through a very efficient course of education in police duties, drill and other things, which is intended to equip him for his important work. It is laid down in a Memorandum relative to the Training School that the object of the School is to train constables on probation to become efficient police officers, special attention being paid to the development of those qualities of personality, bearing and manner, which are necessary for the maintenance of the efficiency and reputation of the police service. There are always two classes at School, a senior class and a junior class. Recruits begin in the junior class, and as vacancies occur are transferred to the senior class, where the work is more advanced, although, strictly speaking, the work of both classes is of an elementary nature. It should be explained here that vacant beats in the various divisions of the city, arising through resignations and other causes, are filled weekly by transfers from the senior class. For the present

SYLLABUS
DUTIES OF RECRUITS
ROLL CALL AT THE SCHOOL—8.30 A.M.

	MONDAY		TUESDAY		WEDNESDAY	
	1st Class	2nd Class	1st Class	2nd Class	1st Class	2nd Class
8.40 a.m.—9.30 a.m.	Drill	Drill	Drill	Drill	Drill	Drill
9.30 a.m.—10 a.m.	Court	Court	Court	Court	Court	Court
10 a.m.—11 a.m.	Police Duties (Instruction)	Police Duties (Dictation)	Police Duties (Instruction)	Police Duties (Dictation)	Police Duties (Instruction)	Police Duties (Dictation)
11 a.m.—12 noon	Police Duties (Catechism)	Police Duties (Instruction)	Police Duties (Catechism)	Police Duties (Instruction)	Police Duties (Catechism)	Police Duties (Instruction)
2 p.m.—2.45 p.m.	—	Physical Training	Physical Training	Physical Training	Physical Training	Physical Training
2.45 p.m.—3.30 p.m.	—	Police Duties (Catechism)	Arithmetic	Police Duties (Catechism)	Arithmetic	Police Duties (Catechism)
3.30 p.m.—5 p.m.	—	Arithmetic	Ambulance	Ambulance	Ambulance	Ambulance
6 p.m.—10 p.m.	Beat Duty	Home Study	Home Study	Home Study	Home Study	Home Study

SYLLABUS
DUTIES OF RECRUITS
ROLL CALL AT THE SCHOOL—8.30 A.M.

	THURSDAY		FRIDAY		SATURDAY	
	1st Class	2nd Class	1st Class	2nd Class	1st Class	2nd Class
8.40 a.m.—9.30 a.m.	Drill	Drill	Drill	Drill	Drill	Drill
9.30 a.m.—10 a.m.	Court	Court	Court	Court	Court	Court
10 a.m.—11 a.m.	Police Duties (Instruction)	Police Duties (Dictation)	Police Duties (Instruction)	Police Duties (Dictation)	Police Duties (Instruction)	Police Duties (Dictation)
11 a.m.—12 noon	Police Duties (Catechism)	Police Duties (Instruction)	Police Duties (Catechism)	Police Duties (Instruction)	Police Duties (Catechism)	Police Duties (Instruction)
2 p.m.—2.45 p.m.	—	Physical Training	Physical Training	Physical Training	—	—
2.45 p.m.—3.30 p.m.	—	Police Duties (Catechism)	Arithmetic	Police Duties (Catechism)	—	—
3.30 p.m.—5 p.m.	—	Arithmetic	Swimming	Swimming	—	—
6 p.m.—10 p.m.	Beat Duty	Home Study	Home Study	Home Study	Beat Duty	Assisting Turnkeys

purpose let me describe them as the First Class and the Second Class respectively.

Throughout the course, the recruit is well grounded in the various subjects. Every minute has its allotted task, and by the end of the term he is metaphorically soaking through and through with the knowledge imparted to him. The syllabus on pages 88-9 shows the time of day and the various days of the week at which instruction, both mental and physical, takes place. In the syllabus, physical training comprises Swedish drill, games, jiu-jitsu, gymnastics, deep breathing, and maze drill. Police duties include instruction in giving evidence, court procedure, crime detection, road sketching, testing of brakes of motor vehicles, and practical police work with an experienced constable. Swimming includes life-saving. Both classes attend the roll-call parade at the School every week-day at 8.30 a.m., and at 8.40 a.m. they form up for drill.

It will be observed from the syllabus that the work of each forenoon for the week is identical. The First Class always returns from the Court at 10 a.m. but the Second Class is sometimes allowed to stay until the Court is over. Attendance at the Police Court is necessary in order that a knowledge of the procedure may be acquired.

Elementary instruction in the conduct and responsibilities of a constable is imparted at an early stage of the course of training. He is taught the use of his note-book, and that when attending an occurrence notes should be made as quickly as possible, so that very little may be left to memory. He is also advised to learn shorthand for rapid note-taking; the advantage of shorthand for note-taking is quite obvious.

As regards the Court, each recruit is taught the correct way to address the Magistrate; that when he attends the Court as a witness he should always be clean and properly dressed in his uniform; that he should be punctual in his attendance and ready to answer when his case is called; that he should be careful to speak the simple truth, giving his evidence without exaggeration, and without concealing anything that may tell in favour of the accused. There is a police court in each of the eleven police divisions of Glasgow. The Stipendiary Magistrate presides at the Central Police Court,

which is in the same building as the Training School, and it is at this Court that the recruits attend.

The recruit usually comes from outside the city, and so does not start with a first-hand acquaintance with the streets in Glasgow. For the purpose of instructing the prospective constable on this subject, he is frequently sent a message to a police station in a certain part of the city.

On three days of the week each recruit in the First Class goes on beat duty from 6 p.m. till 10 p.m. in the company of a senior constable. On each alternate Saturday the beat duty is performed from 10 p.m. till 2 a.m. instead. Before a recruit goes out on beat duty he has an elementary knowledge of what is expected of him. He knows that constables on beat duty are responsible for the protection of life and property and the maintenance of order while they are on duty. An endeavour is made to impress on the mind of each man the fact that a policeman's difficulties often come upon him very suddenly, and that he may have to act at once, without having time to consult his instruction book or even to seek advice from another officer. It is also pointed out to him that one of the purposes of his training in the School is to help him to act with discretion in such emergencies, by having his mind well stored with the necessary information. He is advised to learn the position of the fire-alarms and the places where he can get the use of the telephone, and he is warned that he is not on any account to receive drink from anyone; that he should not be anxious to make arrests for trifling offences, and he is specially instructed as to the manner of making an apprehension. He also knows how to act in the event of a fire occurring on his beat. The recruit's initiation to beat duty is in the company of an experienced policeman. Here he sees the actual conditions under which he has to serve; and what he learns in this way is thought by some to be more valuable than much of the instruction which he receives at School.

The initial instruction in police duties, as already stated, consists mainly in infusing slowly into the mind of each recruit what his conduct and demeanour towards the public and his superiors should be. He should have an alert mind and a clear perception that he has to do exactly what is right.

He is specially warned to be civil and respectful to the public in manner and speech, and to show a readiness to help elderly and infirm persons and children, so far as duty permits ; to keep a perfect command of temper, and not allow himself to be excited by threats, abuse, or jeers ; that he has nothing to fear if he acts uprightly and tries to do his duty faithfully and honestly ; that he will not be punished for an error of judgment if he has only tried to do his best ; that it is only if he misconducts himself and brings discredit on the Service or is inattentive to his duties that he will get into trouble ; that he should avoid making a frivolous complaint ; that while total abstinence from intoxicating liquor is not compulsory, it is the course recommended as safest and most beneficial, and that a man who spends his leisure time in public houses cannot be considered a good policeman. He is also warned to avoid getting into debt, and about taking tips.

With regard to physical training, nothing very new can remain to be said upon a topic about which so much has been written. 'There is a manliness in the athletic exercises of Public Schools, which is as seductive to the imagination as it is utterly unimportant in itself. Of what importance is it in future life, whether a boy can play well or ill at cricket ; or row a boat with the skill and precision of a waterman ? If our young Lords and Esquires were hereafter to wrestle together in public, or the gentlemen of the Bar to exploit Olympic Games in Hilary Term, the glory attached to these exercises at public schools would be rational and important. And yet such a ridiculous stress is laid upon the manliness of the exercises customary at public schools, exercises in which the greatest blockheads commonly excel most !' So wrote Sydney Smith in the *Edinburgh Review* in 1810. It might be said now : of what importance is it that two policemen should be made strong to wrestle with each other in the street ? But it is not for the purpose of wrestling with one another that physical culture is a part of a policeman's training. It is taught rather to enable him to grapple with the wrongdoer when force is necessary, and among other things to harden him for the wintry weather he will be called upon to face, especially during his tours of night duty.

Physical exercises with and without apparatus are practised under the direction of gymnastic instructors. These exercises are well calculated to develop the frames of the recruits. The course begins with Swedish drill, and other exercises not requiring apparatus, designed to bring every muscle of the body into play. Next in simplicity come exercises with movable apparatus, in which many of the exercises of the first group are carried out while dumb bells, bar bells, or Indian clubs are held in the hands. The last group of exercises are performed with immovable apparatus, such as ladders, horizontal and parallel bars, but only a few of such exercises are really essential. Each recruit is provided with an outfit for Physical Training, consisting of vest, shorts and shoes, for which a charge of approximately 12s. is made. These articles remain the property of the recruit at the termination of the course.

Although the police are essentially a civil body, still it is necessary that they should receive a certain amount of drill, so that when required they may be able to act together in bodies. One of the secrets of good drill is efficient instruction from the very beginning. With careful tuition each man soon acquires the smart military appearance that every man in uniform should bear.

Drill is a very important part of a recruit's training, not only because of its physical value, but also because of the difference it gives to a man's carriage. An untrained constable has usually a slovenly appearance in uniform. The necessity of drill is impressed on each man, if he wishes to advance to the higher ranks of the Service in this force, as promotion above the rank of sergeant is only attainable by officers who are in possession of a certificate for having passed an examination in foot drill, the *Manual of Military Training* issued by the War Office being the text-book. It is considered essential that an officer should possess a sufficient knowledge of drill to enable him to drill bodies of men, and give him confidence when in charge of a party. Recruits receive elementary instruction in squad drill, platoon drill and company drill. Drill by squads in the standard traffic signals is also frequently given, so that the signals may be given dis-

tinctly when on points duty, and not in the cursory manner frequently complained of by motorists.

A good practical grounding in the art of rendering First Aid is given by the Physician to the Force who is also Ambulance Lecturer to the Force. A knowledge of this important subject enables a policeman to render the assistance to injured persons that is often the means of saving lives. There is no excuse nowadays for a constable to be ignorant as to how to meet ordinary emergencies.

Friendship's blind service in the hour of need,
Wipes the pale face—and lets the victim bleed.
Science must stop to reason and explain;
Art claps his finger on the streaming vein.

O. W. HOLMES.

At the end of the course, certificates are given to those who pass an examination held by the St. Andrew's Ambulance Association. Although he has a knowledge of ambulance a constable is advised that if an accident occurs, and any person is injured or insensible, he should at once get the nearest doctor and send for the ambulance waggon. In a city like Glasgow an ambulance waggon can be obtained at any time of the day or night. He is instructed to keep the crowd from pressing on the injured person and to accompany the ambulance van to the infirmary and there learn the nature of the accident and the name and address of the injured person, so that he may be able to report to the officer on duty.

Instruction in the rudiments of swimming and diving, combined with the most approved methods of rescuing and resuscitating the apparently drowned, is given by capable instructors once weekly in one of the Corporation Swimming Baths. This instruction is obviously necessary in a city with canals, a large tidal river and several tributaries.

Under the heading of Police Duties is included Road Sketching. This consists in instruction in the making and reading of conventional signs, maps and simple sketches.

It is not intended to suggest in this article that the Glasgow Police Training School is such an excellent institution that there will be no need for a Police College, the establishment of which was discussed at the recent Police Councils in England

and Scotland. It is not what may be facetiously termed a 'brass hat factory,' but nevertheless there may be occasionally among its pupils a Chief Constable in embryo, all unconscious of his destiny. Although instruction is confined more or less to the first essentials of police work, the fact that criminals nowadays are making use of science to assist them is a very good reason why policemen should be better informed than formerly. The formation of a good solid foundation on which to build up a reliable structure is aimed at and never lost sight of throughout the course, care being taken not to confuse the mind by introducing unnecessary matter. There is no attempt to regard the paragons of excellence produced by this school as amateur doctors or lawyers. There may be an odd precocious policeman or two among them. The dominant aim is, as it is in similar institutions throughout the country, to equip a policeman in the best manner possible for the performance of his ordinary duties. 'The weightier matters of the law' are left to aspirants for promotion at a future time.

The mental training is mostly on police duties, a few exercises in arithmetic and general knowledge being given to vary the monotony and to test the intelligence. Arithmetic is not considered to be so important as police subjects, on account of the moderately high standard of education set before candidates are accepted. It shows, however, to a certain extent, whether the recruit is careful and not dull of comprehension. Nothing is given in the nature of an intellectual puzzle, the rule being that advised by one of H.M. Chief Inspectors of Schools when discussing examination papers set for policemen—'Simple questions for simple men.'

On joining the police each recruit is given a copy of the *Glasgow Police Instruction Book*; and at the School this is the text-book used for reading, dictation, and catechism, from which sets of questions are selected for written answers. Much writing is given as an aid to the writing of reports, a subject which tests a recruit's knowledge of English and his power to think. In catechising the class, the men are not only asked what they would do in certain circumstances but they are also required to state where they get their powers. This *Instruction Book* has been described as a most valuable piece

of literature. It details the duties to be carried through by all ranks, followed by an excellent review of the law as it affects everyone.

The following is a list of the subjects in which instruction is given. The list is in alphabetical order and not in the sequence in which the subjects are selected for instruction :

1. Accidents.
2. Apprehensions.
3. Beat Duty.
4. Brokers and Pawnbrokers.
5. The Children Act, 1908.
6. Crimes.
7. Dead bodies and sudden deaths.
8. Deserters ; Prostitutes.
9. Destitute persons, and insane persons.
10. Dogs.
11. Evidence.
12. Fires.
13. General conduct and responsibilities.
14. Licensing Acts.
15. Lost and Found Property.
16. Motors and Hackney Carriages.
17. Pedlars and Hawkers.
18. Street Traffic.
19. Vagrants and beggars.
20. Miscellaneous Police Offences.

In connection with these subjects a mass of literature in the form of question and answer has accumulated in the course of the past thirty or forty years.

There is occasional revision of work, especially when a new batch of recruits arrives and the classes are put back a week or two, so that all may begin together. When it is not convenient to put the classes back, the new arrivals are formed into a third class.

Books on police law published in England are seldom of any use to the Scottish police, on account of the difference in the law and procedure. Very few treatises on the powers and duties of the Scottish police have been published.

The Burgh Police (Scotland) Act, 1892, with its amendments, applies to every existing Burgh in Scotland, except Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, Dundee and Greenock,

which have special private Acts of their own. These Burghs, however, may adopt the Act in whole or in part. The County Police are governed by the Police (Scotland) Act, 1857, The Road and Bridges (Scotland) Act, 1878, and the Local Government (Scotland) Acts, 1889 to 1908. In modern Scottish use, the term Common Law is employed in contradistinction to Statute Law. It is derived from various sources, written and unwritten, and is defined largely by decisions of the Court. The Common Law powers of a police constable in Scotland have not altered greatly since the early days, although some of the ancient Acts make curious reading. For instance, an Act passed in 1617 states that a constable may apprehend 'any suspect men who for the most part sleepeth all the day and walketh in the night.' He could arrest 'all vagabonds, sturdy beggars, and Egyptians (gypsies),' and 'all idle persons whom he knows to have no means to live upon and will not take to themselves any labour, trade or occupation.'

Besides the *Instruction Book* compiled by the Chief Constable of Glasgow, which is the text-book for the Glasgow recruits in the Training School, there is the *Police Manual*. This will be the text-book for recruits from other forces. The *Police Manual* is prepared by a Committee appointed by the Chief Constables' (Scotland) Association, and is intended as a general instruction book for use in the forces that do not possess an instruction book of their own. The Committee revise and amend it from time to time. In the preface they state, among other things, that they have studiously avoided everything in the nature of Orders or Regulations and endeavoured rather to compile an epitome of common law and statutory offences for the information and guidance of constables in the discharge of their duties.

Some remarks regarding the extension of the facilities afforded by the School to other forces in Scotland may be here appropriate. The idea of granting facilities to other police forces in Scotland to send their recruits to Glasgow for a course of training was first suggested by Lieut.-Colonel W. D. Allan, O.B.E., now Inspector of Constabulary for England. In a speech made in the City Chambers after the Annual Inspection of the Force in 1929, he said that it was quite

obvious to him that some of the smaller forces in Scotland did not have the same opportunity for teaching the recruit, and he could not see why those small forces should not be able to take advantage of the system of instruction given in the larger forces. 'The question of recruits' training had been fully considered by him, and he said that he had recommended the Scottish Office to approve that the School in Glasgow should be utilized by other forces, provided they wanted to send their men. Certain preliminaries had to be completed before such a scheme could be introduced ; but it has now been approved of by the Corporation of Glasgow and by the Scottish Office, thanks to the efforts of Mr. Duke, D.S.O., M.C., and it will be in operation, no doubt, by the time this is published.

At the end of the course, a report is furnished showing the progress of each man, and those obtaining the requisite marks for passing are to receive a certificate. A charge of 6s. per week per recruit, or £3 per man for the course, will be made to the Police Authority of each force sending recruits. This charge is necessary to cover the expense incurred for the Ambulance and Swimming training, the cost of the stationery, and the general wear and tear of police clothing, equipment and furniture. On the termination of the course, the account is to be furnished to the Chief Constable concerned. Rules have also been made regarding sickness, injury on duty, and the pay of recruits from other forces. If any recruit does not show an aptitude for police work and attention to the instruction given him, he is discharged in terms of the Police Regulations as not likely to become an efficient constable.

When the course is finished, recruits from outside forces return to their respective units, and Glasgow recruits who have been proved suitable are drafted to divisions as vacancies occur. While in the division, he is required to continue his study, and is provided with a copy book for that purpose. This book is examined periodically by the Superintendent who must report to the Chief Constable if his progress is not satisfactory. At the end of twelve months' service, he undergoes another examination at Headquarters, before his appointment as a constable is confirmed. If he fails, he may be dis-

charged, or he may be continued for a further period of probation, but not beyond eighteen months.

Although the training school, or preparatory class, as it used to be called, has been in existence for many years, recruits from other forces have not yet been admitted, as in Birmingham, Liverpool and Manchester schools, but it has now been decided to do so.

'There is no new thing under the sun.' The following extract from 'The First Report of the Constabulary Force Commissioners, 1839,' with which this article is concluded may be interesting and not out of place :

'Good training can only be obtained in a systematically organised and extensive force, such as that in the Metropolis ; or in a force requisite for the larger cities or towns, as Bristol, Liverpool, Manchester, or Birmingham. But at present the only available trained force is the Metropolitan Police. It is found that, with all the advantages supplied by the superintendence and settled routines of a large force, a private constable rarely becomes competent to the performance of the general duties of a constable with less than six months' training. He is not deemed qualified as an officer until he has carried one or more cases through all the stages, until finally disposed of by a court of justice ; it is only when he obtains some general knowledge of the nature of legal evidence, and especially of circumstantial evidence, that his attention is directed to the proper points, or that he can be considered properly cautioned against rash, arbitrary, or vexatious interferences with the subject.

For less than the usual pay of a police constable, the physical qualifications may, we have no doubt, be obtained ; but unhappily the intellectual and moral qualifications—a sound understanding for the exercise of discretion under difficult circumstances, in a manner with which neither the magistrate nor the judge can find any just fault, habitual vigilance, firmness to act promptly and efficiently, coolness in action under strong provocation, perfect sobriety and invincible integrity under daily temptations—are combined qualifications which are not always to be found in candidates, but are carefully to be sought for at wages of twenty shillings per week.'

Mounted Police in India : The United Provinces M. P.

By C. R. PETERS

Indian Police, Lucknow

THERE is perhaps no part of the Indian Police force about whose utility opinions differ so much as the mounted police. This difference of opinion is very prevalent even in the ranks of the police officers themselves, and seems to have existed from the time a regular police force was first introduced in Upper India in the year 1860. The same arguments which are present in the old records are made over and over again, and quite recently a movement was made to reduce or abolish the mounted police. That they are expensive is admitted by even their most staunch supporters ; and whether the money could not be better spent on mechanical transport is a matter for conjecture. For the present they are with us ; and now that communal riots have become so common, they have completely justified their retention if only for the purpose of quelling such disturbances.

The origin of the United Provinces Mounted Police is somewhat obscure. After the Mutiny a certain number of mounted men seem to have been left in every district over the Province and they appear to have done police duties. In 1860 a regular police force was for the first time constituted in the Province, and a Police Committee assembled at Naini Tal recorded as their opinion, in opposition to the views of a Commission which had sat at Calcutta, that they considered a complement of mounted police necessary in each district. They said : ' Just in the degree that their situations are more valuable than those of the foot-men, they, as a general rule, are better behaved and more respectable.' The Committee

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MOUNTED POLICE IN INDIA

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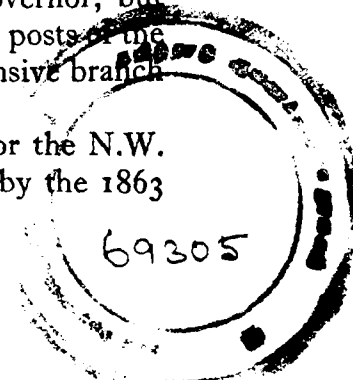
maintained further : ' As patrols for the Grand Trunk Road and other main lines of traffic, they are far more efficient than foot constables. The criminals who infest the roads have a great dread of the mounted police. In a country like the North West Provinces (of India), in most parts of which there are tribes which breed and keep horses, and in the disturbances of 1857-58 turned out large bodies of cavalry, a force which is to take the place and duties, to a great extent, of the Native army, and which should be able to put down at once all local outrage and nip in the bud all local disturbances, and compete efficiently with all classes of criminals under all circumstances, would, without some cavalry, be insufficient.'

The then Lieut.-Governor of the North West Provinces, or, as it is now called, the United Provinces, concurred generally with the opinion of this Committee and pronounced in favour of maintaining mounted policemen, ' not only for purposes of patrol, but also in order that at the headquarters station of each district there might be a small number of mounted police constables prepared at a moment's notice to accompany the Magistrate or District Superintendent of Police, whenever the presence of either may for any reason be urgently called for.'

In 1863 a Police Commission assembled at Naini Tal ; its terms of reference were ' to report upon the establishment of the police which has been organized in the N.W. Provinces in 1860 with a view to recommending any such reduction of expenditure as may appear practicable and at the same time suggesting any changes that may appear to be necessary for the purpose of promoting the efficiency of the force.' This Commission of 1863, after quoting the opinion of the Police Committee of 1860, added further : ' They had in their own report provided separately for the patrol of grand lines of roads and had also decided to add a small number of mounted men to the police establishment of each district, not only to serve the purpose contemplated by the late Lieut.-Governor, but also to be distributed if necessary among the police posts of the interior. We have endeavoured to keep this expensive branch of the service at its lowest limit. . . .'

The strength of the mounted police in 1860 for the N.W. Provinces was 2,115. This was finally reduced by the 1863

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7/14/63 to 2,100
N2814



Commission to 821, 288 being for road patrol, 525 for general duty and 8 for jail duty. These were distributed throughout the thirty-two districts which constituted the Province at that time.

In para. 78 of the report of the Indian Police Commission of 1902-03 the following reference is given regarding the mounted police : ' In Assam, Bengal and Madras there are no mounted police (except in the two Presidency towns) and the evidence shows that they are not required in these Provinces. In Burma they appear to be used only as messengers, and their utility for police duties is doubtful. Elsewhere, the Commission are of opinion that some force of mounted men is required. They are useful in large cities, in places where dacoity is rife, especially if the dacoits themselves are mounted, and on the borders of Native States, but they are a very expensive branch of the police organization and they should not be employed unless the necessity for them is clearly established. Except perhaps in the North West Frontier Province, they are not required, for example, as orderlies, for which duty men mounted on bicycles are more efficient and less costly. It was urged strongly by officers who gave evidence before the Commission in Sind that, owing to the almost universal practice of travelling on horseback, the long distances to be traversed and the character of the work on the borders, the employment of mounted police is there a matter of first importance.' The Commission made the following comment : ' The Commission admit that there is force in this argument, but there is evidence that the necessity for mounted men has been somewhat overstated. In this, as in other matters, the isolation of Sind has prevented a comparison with methods employed elsewhere, and that may have conserved this expensive force in undue measure. The Commission found some bodies of mounted police armed with lances. They consider that a lance is not a suitable weapon for mounted police, who should be armed with sword and carbine and used rather as mounted infantry than as cavalry.'

When the Report of the 1903 Police Commission had been received by the Government of India, it was the subject of a comprehensive review. Their remarks on the subject of



RIOT PRACTICE
THE MOB HAS SURROUNDED THE MOUNTED POLICE



PREPARING FOR A 'RIOT PRACTICE.' THE MOB ARE DRAWN UP ON THE FLANK



A DISMOUNTED POLICE SOWAR



A POLICE SOWAR, IN WORKING DRESS

MOUNTED POLICE IN INDIA

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mounted police are found in a Resolution of the Home Department of the Government of India, of the 21st March, 1905, in the following terms :

'The Commission admit that some force of mounted police is required, especially in large cities and in places where dacoity is rife ; but in view of the expense, they consider that they should not be employed unless the necessity is clearly established. In so far as mounted police are required in the Presidency towns and Rangoon the subject is dealt with under the head of City Police. As regards their use in *mufassal* (up-country) areas, the Bombay Government represent strongly that it would be dangerous to diminish the force to the extent suggested by the Commission. They are prepared, however, to attempt some reduction in those districts of the Presidency proper, where the number of mounted police has already been reduced below ten. In Sind, where it is alleged that mounted men are the only efficient police, they deprecate any decrease at all. The United Provinces and Punjab Government consider it impossible to reduce the existing mounted establishment, which in the former case has already been brought down to the strength recommended by the Commission. The Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces is prepared, though reluctantly, to reduce the existing force to four *dafadars* (n.c.o.'s) and forty-six *sowars* (mounted constables). . . . The Government of India, however, are decidedly of opinion that the present strength of five *dafadars* and ninety-five *sowars* should be retained for use in pursuing dacoits and dispersing rioters. There have been serious outbreaks in Nagpur City, and there is no cavalry station nearer than Jubbulpore. In all these cases the view of the Local Government that the existing force should be maintained is accepted. There seems to have been some hesitation in carrying out the reductions in the number of mounted men which have already been effected, and the Government of India think that in areas in which they are found to be especially useful in suppressing disturbances, the Local Government should not be debarred from re-considering the question whether the numbers have not been too much reduced.'

After this reductions were made from time to time and

in 1912 the strength in the United Provinces stood at 260. The Inspector-General of Police contended that the strength should be increased, and Government asked him to justify this contention. On this an exhaustive report was drawn up by the Inspector-General of Police, two of his senior officers tracing the posting of the *sowars* and advancing arguments for their increase. Briefly the report is as follows :

In 1886 the strength was returned as 630 *sowars* when a reduction of 180 men was proposed, producing a saving of 50,000 Rs. annually. The proposal was sanctioned and in place of the 180 *sowars* an additional number of armed police were enlisted. In 1889 the number of mounted police was reduced to 448. In 1890 a further reduction of 31 *sowars* was proposed by the Inspector-General and was sanctioned by Government. Again in the same year it was proposed to reduce by nine more *sowars* which was sanctioned by Government, leaving the strength at 408 *sowars*. In 1891 there was a slight increase in the strength, which stood at 412 *sowars*.

In 1892 the United Provinces Government asked the Inspector-General to report on the redistribution scheme that was introduced in 1890, and his opinion as to the usefulness of the mounted force in the prevention or detection of crime, and to state whether their employment had proved an effective aid to the district administration. In his reply the Inspector-General pointed out that although the mounted police was useless for the detection of crime, they were of the greatest value in the prevention of crime and the hunting down of criminals. He said that in his opinion there would be grave objection to the abolition of the force on this account, and he also added that on the occasion of riots and disturbances they were invaluable and indispensable, and one mounted policeman was a being of more use than a number of foot police. He also pointed out the serious inconvenience and expense caused by having small parties of mounted police dotted about in districts instead of being kept at divisional headquarters, from where they could easily be deputed at any time in such numbers and to such places as occasions arose.

The United Provinces Government agreed that it was proved that small bodies of mounted police scattered about

districts were useless, but pointed out that the issue was not whether the system was good or could be improved, *but whether it was necessary to maintain the mounted force at all*, and if it was, whether their number could not with advantage be largely reduced. Finally it was ordered that the mounted force should be reduced to 260 officers and men distributed at nine district headquarters, at which figure it stood in 1912.

After tracing the history of the gradual decrease in the numbers of the mounted police the report then went on to give the duties performed by them. These are : (1) The prevention and suppression of disturbances of the peace, at political or quasi-political meetings, fairs and other large gatherings. (2) The prevention of dacoity (gang robbery), and in this connexion also pursuit and apprehension of wandering criminals and patrolling the border of Indian States. (3) Regulation of street traffic. (4) Miscellaneous duties (such as, for instance, providing escorts for senior officials). It was further stated that the widespread political unrest and increasing bitterness between Hindus and Mohammedans had given rise to serious disturbances of a class and magnitude which could only be effectively dealt with by an adequate force of mounted police. It quoted certain riots at Cawnpore and Agra as examples where the small mounted force available saved the situation.

Many other arguments were advanced for a substantial increase and maintaining a substantial force at troop headquarters ; and finally the recommendations were accepted by Government and a revised strength of 41 officers and 355 men was accepted, distributed over ten district headquarters.

The places at which mounted police are now posted are, with the exception of Cawnpore, the headquarters of the administrative divisions. They are all big cities and places in which communal strife is always a possibility. The large number posted to Agra is due to the fact that in addition to the ever present question of communal strife, the Agra district is also bordered by Indian States in which a large amount of gang robbery is rife, and gangs frequently come over the border and commit dacoities in British territory.

Up to a few years ago the mounted police was recruited from amongst the petty landowner class, and men on enlistment had to pay a donation to a special fund sufficient to cover the cost of a horse. For various reasons this system was abandoned, and at the present time the method of recruitment is the same as for the other branches of the police service.

Up to three years ago men were trained in the districts in which they were enlisted, as were new remounts, but now new enlistments and new horses are all trained at the Central Police Training School at Moradabad. The type of animal used is a small country-bred or stud-bred and these are purchased at local horse fairs which are held at several places annually in the Province. The weight of the men enlisted in the mounted police is limited to nine stones, as the weight carrying capacity of the horse is limited by the price which Government is prepared to pay. This at the present time amounts to 400 Rs. (about £30) per horse. In addition to a saving in original cost great economy is effected in maintenance by the use of a light type of animal.

There is a staff of roughriders at the Central School to train the remounts, which when ready are issued to districts. Horses are not fed as in the army by the men drawing rations, but a monthly horse allowance of 25 Rs. (37s. 6d.) per man is allowed to *sowars* (mounted constables) who are to some extent allowed a free hand in the feeding of their horses.

Mounted police are now armed with swords, lances and carbines, so they fulfil the dual rôle of cavalry and light infantry. Carbines are not carried usually but only when the men are employed as mounted infantry. The men have recently been armed in addition with the long baton used by the London mounted police. This is a cane weapon with a steel core and is carried slung on the front of the saddle. These have proved most effective in dealing with riotous mobs.

Communal riots have become more and more frequent. A great deal of time is therefore expended in training horses to stand and remain steady although pelted with brickbats or beaten with staves. Riot practice is done weekly in most mounted police lines, and in time the horses become quite indifferent to howling mobs or flying missiles.

The Jules Verne Cipher

By CHARLES W. R. HOOKER, O.B.E., M.A., B.Sc.

IN the October 1928 number of the *Police Journal* the reader was introduced to cryptograms of several types and varieties. If he had any previous acquaintance with these things he may have been a little surprised to find no mention of one well-known system, the so-called 'Jules Verne Cipher,' that author having woven a novel, *The Cryptogram*, round a secret message of this kind. The system is sometimes called 'Count Gronfeld's' cipher. The omission was intentional, such ciphers being of sufficient interest, variety, and importance to deserve a discussion all to themselves. Before proceeding, a brief description of this method of wrapping up a confidential document will not be out of place.

Any simple message will suffice as an example. Say, then, we wish to put into code :

'There are more things in heaven and earth than are dreamt of in your philosophy.'

Let a key number be chosen at random, of some half dozen figures or so, for example 1467283. The message is written out, broken, for convenience, into groups of an equal number of letters each, and the key number is repeated underneath, each figure under a letter thus :

THERE	AREMO	RETHI	NGSIN	HEAVE
1 4 6 7 2	8 3 1 4 6	7 2 8 3 1	4 6 7 2 8	3 1 4 6 7
NANDE	ARTHT	HANAR	EDREA	MTOFI
2 8 3 1 4	6 7 2 8 3	1 4 6 7 2	8 3 1 4 6	7 2 8 3 1
NYOUR	PHILO	SOPHY		
4 6 7 2 8	3 1 4 6 7	2 8 3 1 4		

The coding is effected thus :

(a) Replace (mentally by preference) each letter by the

the figures themselves. Now refer back to the simple coded message at the beginning. The key number contained seven digits, 1467283. Let the final coded message be broken into groups of seven figures thus :

ULKYGIU FQUYGBK JRMZKVK FEBLP IQ
EIGYVPW IETHTMG SIGTVWI JRE VWZS
IMRVUWS IC

Here the reader should recall that one of the commonest clues in this kind of investigation is given by the frequency of the various letters in an ordinary passage, the commonest letters in English being E, T, O, A, I, R, N, S, H, in that order. E is the commonest letter in most of the more familiar languages.

To facilitate reference, let us say that a letter which occurs first in any group of seven is in the first position, a letter which occurs second in any group of seven is in the second position and so on. Thus, for instance, in the example, the letters in the sixth position are I, B, V, I, P, M, W, Z, W. Taking the order of frequency stated and remembering that the first figure in the key is 1, the common letters in the first position will be F, U, P, B, J, S, etc., in that order of frequency. It will be noticed at once, to confirm this, that more than half the first position letters are in fact from this short list of six, and if the list had been extended to nine (N, S and H becoming O, T and I) all but one of the ten first position letters in the example would have been included. So also in the second position, the second figure of the key being 4, the commonest letters, in order, are I, X, S, E, M, V, R, W, L, and here all but two from the example are included. In the third position the agreement is not so striking, but even here 5 out of 9 are in the short list, leaving only 4 for the other 17 letters in the alphabet. The immediate point is that a different set of letters is common in each of the seven positions and the problem of finding the number of digits in the key number comes to this: how can the message be divided up into equal lengths so that certain letters occur more frequently in special positions? Of course any letter *may* occur in any

position. It is just a question of their occurring *more often* in certain positions. Y, for instance, occurs only in the fourth position—a striking enough fact. So also F occurs only in the first position. I, on the other hand, occurs eight times and in various positions. Of these, however, no less than three occur in the first position and two of the remaining five in the sixth position. If the message were to be split up into equal lengths of other than seven letters it is unlikely in the extreme that any such regularity in the frequencies would occur. Now, supposing that the number of digits in the key is known, how can the 'position' of any chosen letter be easily found? Clearly, if we number the place of any letter in the message from the start, calling the first letter (U) one, the next (L) two, the next (K) three and so on, down to the last letter (C) sixty-five, and then divide the number obtained by seven (the number of digits in the key) the remainders give the 'position' of the various letters. For example, the eighteenth letter is Z. Divide 18 by 7 and the remainder is 4. Hence the Z is in the fourth position. A little consideration here before proceeding will make this clear.

But these reflections are made with the knowledge of the length of the key in our minds. Supposing we were totally ignorant on this point. How is this number, seven—the number of figures in the key—to be discovered? Firstly, consider what happens if a pair of consecutive letters is repeated in the original message. Look, for example, at RE in 'there' and RE in 'dreamt.' The first pair, when coded, become YG and the second SI. These are different because they are associated with different digits of the key. If they had happened to be associated with the same digits of the key each pair would have been affected by the coding in the same way, so that, although altered by the coding, they would each have undergone the same transformation. This has, in fact, happened to the RE in 'there' and the RE in 'more'; each pair has become YG. When this has happened it is clear that the number of places they are apart in the whole message is an exact multiple of the number of figures in the key. Now pick out all the repeated pairs in the message and write against

each the place in the message of the first letter of the pair, thus :

YG	4, 11	difference	7
JR	15, 50	"	35
IG	30, 44	"	14
SI	43, 56, 63	differences	13, 20, 7

It will be noticed that all the differences are multiples of 7 except those arising from the first SI. This is most striking and is almost positive proof that the key number has seven digits and that the first SI is an accident. Sometimes a sequence of three, four or even more letters occurs twice in a message. In such a case it is practically a certainty that the distance apart of their places in the message is an exact multiple of the number of digits in the key.

But suppose there are no repeated pairs, as may happen, more especially when the key is a long one, or suppose,—which is less likely—there are enough accidental repetitions of pairs to fog or mislead the investigator. How shall he proceed then? Usually a little intelligent guesswork with trial and error methods will lead him on the right track. For instance, a sharp eye might easily have detected that there are three Ys in the message, that the first four are 7 letters apart and the third 21 places further on. Seven divides into 21 and so may give the length of the key. This would be confirmed by noting that the only two Js are 35 letters apart and the only two Fs 14. Both 35 and 14 are multiples of 7. Of the other letters which occur twice only, the Bs (11 apart), the Ls (23), the Qs (19) and the Zs (37), none suggest any special key number unless it is a long one, as these are all prime numbers. The two Ps are 8 apart, which might mean a key number of 4 or 8 letters, but there is little to confirm this.

But suppose nothing has suggested itself, intuition and luck are both unhelpful and sterile. Then a systematic plan may be tried. We have, let us suppose, no inkling as to the length of the key number. Proceed then as follows :

Make out a table, (P), showing in what place each letter occurs in the message, starting at U, 1, and going on to C, 65. Each number in this list can be divided by any number which is to be tried as the number of digits in the key, and there is no

reason why any and every number up to, say, 20 or more should not be tried. The remainders give the 'positions' of the letters relative to the key number for the length of key tried. The reader knows, as a matter of fact, that the required length is seven. The next table, (Q), gives these remainders obtained by trying in turn 6, 7, and 8.

TABLE (P)

A		N	
B	13, 24	O	
C	65	P	26, 34
D		Q	9, 28
E	23, 29, 37, 52	R	16, 51, 59
F	8, 22	S	43, 56, 63
G	5, 12, 31, 42, 45	T	38, 40, 46
H	39	U	1, 7, 10, 61
I	6, 27, 30, 36, 44, 49, 57, 64	V	20, 33, 47, 53, 60
J	15, 50	W	35, 48, 54, 62
K	3, 14, 19, 21	X	
L	2, 25	Y	4, 11, 32
M	17, 41, 58	Z	18, 55

TABLE (Q)

B	1, 0	6, 3	5, 0
E	5, 5, 1, 4	2, 1, 2, 3	7, 5, 5, 4
F	2, 4	1, 1	0, 6
G	5, 0, 1, 0, 3	5, 5, 3, 0, 3	5, 4, 7, 2, 5
I	0, 3, 0, 0, 2, 1, 3, 4	6, 6, 2, 1, 2, 0, 1, 1	6, 3, 6, 4, 4, 1, 1, 0
J	3, 2	1, 1	7, 2
K	3, 2, 1, 3	3, 0, 5, 0	3, 6, 3, 5
L	2, 1	2, 4	2, 1
M	5, 5, 4	3, 6, 2	1, 1, 2
P	2, 4	5, 6	2, 2
Q	3, 4	2, 0	1, 4
R	4, 3, 5	2, 2, 3	0, 3, 3
S	1, 2, 3	1, 0, 0	3, 0, 7
T	2, 4, 4	3, 5, 4	6, 0, 6
U	1, 1, 4, 1	1, 0, 3, 5	1, 7, 2, 5
V	2, 3, 5, 5, 0	6, 5, 5, 4, 4	4, 1, 7, 5, 4
W	5, 0, 0, 2	0, 6, 5, 6	3, 0, 6, 6
Y	4, 5, 2	4, 4, 4	4, 3, 0
Z	0, 1	4, 6	2, 7

The length is the more likely to be correct the more repeated remainders are found for any letter. Ignoring cases like B, where no division yields a repeated remainder, and like E, where the frequencies of repeated remainders are the same for each divisor, each letter will give an order of preference for the three divisors. Thus M yields a repeated remainder for 6 and for 8 but not for 7, and taken by itself this would suggest 6 or 8 as more likely than 7.

Taking each letter in turn :

F gives first place to 7	
G gives first place to 7	
I gives first place to 7	
J gives first place to 7	
M suggests 6 or 8 as equally likely	
P gives first place to 8	
R suggests 7 or 8 as equally likely	
S gives first place to 7	
T suggests 6 or 8 as equally likely	
U gives first place to 6	
V gives first place to 7	
Y puts 7 first and the rest nowhere	
Final score. 6—one and two halves	2 points
7—seven and one half	7½ „
8—one and three halves	2½ „
	—
	12 „

The very marked preponderance of 7 is most striking. It is unlikely that the correct length will be overlooked once it is tried. It is rarely necessary to go to the extreme limit of making out such a table for any large number of divisors. Something usually suggests the number of digits in the key and then a remainder-table like the above, constructed for that number, can be made to confirm it.

Having settled the length of the key the determining of the actual figures is not difficult. In fact, in view of the hopelessness of Judge Jarriquez, it is surprisingly easy.

The method of procedure will best be seen by examining Jules Verne's actual cryptogram right away. The paragraph cited in the story is as follows :

Phyjslyddqfdzxgasgzzqqehxgkfndrxu
jugiocytdxvksbxhhuyppohdvrymhuhpuy
dkjoxphetozsletnmpvffovpdpajxhyynoj
yggaymeqynfuqlnmvlyfgsuzmqiztlbqgy
ugsqeubvnrcredgruzblrmxyuhqhpzdrgr
crohepqxufivvrplphonthvddqfhqsntzhh
hnfepmqkyuuexktogzgkyuumfvijddqdpzj
qsykrplxhxqrymvklohphotozvdksppsu
v
jhd

The reader may like to try and find out for himself how many digits there are in the key before proceeding. It is very easy ; so easy that no expert other than Judge Jarriquez could have overlooked it for long. The problem is much easier when there is such a long message to work upon, as repetitions are so much more likely to occur.

* * * * *

The length of the key has probably by now been found out. If it has not, a little help may not be amiss.

In the first place, the sequence KYUU occurs twice, near the end. This almost certainly represents a group of four letters which occupies the same position each time with regard to the key. The distance of the first K from the second is 12 letters. The length of the key is probably a sub-multiple of this—six, or four, perhaps. Or it may be 12. Again there are two groups of HHH, very conspicuous and noticed, be it observed, by the learned Judge. The distance of the first H of the first HHH from the first of the other HHH is 54. The length of the key is a sub-multiple also of this. This suggests 6 or 9. The other repeated group also suggested 6. Six it must be. A dozen facts can be noticed to confirm this. For example, YU catches the eye in two other places. Both times the distance from YU in either of the repeated groups KYUU is a multiple of 6. There are three and only three As in the document. They are letters number 16, 94 and 106 from the beginning. The difference between the first two is 78 and between the second 12—both multiples of 6.

Let it be assumed then that this six is correct. Notice, *en passant*, that W nowhere occurs. This suggests that the message is in a Latin language and that W is not used. It will

be reasonable, at a first attempt, to ignore it and reckon on a 25 letter alphabet. The whole message is then broken into lengths of six letters. Letters occupying the same 'position' are thus easily placed for comparison. Consider now the letters which occupy the 'first position' throughout. They are :

P, Y, Z, Z, X, R, I, X, H, H, M, Y, P, S, M, P, H, Y,
E, Q, Y, M, B, S, N, G, R, Q, R, E, I, P, V, Q, H, M, E,
Z, M, Q, S, X, M, H, V, S.

And their occurrences are as follows :

A	0	F	0	K	0	P	4	U	0
B	1	G	1	L	0	Q	4	V	2
C	0	H	5	M	6	R	3	X	3
D	0	I	2	N	1	S	4	Y	4
E	3	J	0	O	0	T	0	Z	3

The commonest letter here is M, which suggests that this was originally E and the first figure in the key 8. But in that case the five Hs would represent Z, which is very unlikely, Z being quite a rare letter. But since no digit in the key will exceed 9 M must be the coded form of one of the nine letters before it, *i.e.*, a letter after C and before M. The next commonest to E in this group is I, which would make the first figure of the key 4. Now it is very helpful at this stage to consider the rare letters—J, K, Q, X, Z, and perhaps V. If the guess of 4 is correct these letters when coded would become N, O, U, B, D, and A. It is noticed at once that O, U, D, and A do not occur at all and N and B only once each. If 4 is correct the four common letters P, Q, R, S were before coding L, M, N, O; H was D; X, Y, and Z were S, T, and U. All this agrees well with the suggested figure 4. An incorrect guess is almost certain to point to an improbably large crop of a somewhat rare letter in the original before coding. A couple of Xs or Zs or Ks are quite enough to suggest that the guess is wrong.

If the reader has followed this it will be unnecessary for him to be helped further. The full key is 432513. The solution is in French but the method is so general that it can probably be arrived at even without any knowledge of that

language. The differences in the frequencies of the letters of the alphabet in French and in English is not sufficiently great to make a solution impossible, especially as the vowels E, I, A and O are always common.

The solution of this particular problem is, as already observed, an easy one. It should certainly not have taken more than half an hour. The original short message discussed at the beginning of the article, though quite soluble, would have presented more difficulty.

In this case the first position letters are I, three times, F and J, twice each, U, E and S, once each. Here I may have been, before coding, E, making the first figure of the key 4, and the original letters would have been E (three times), B (twice), F (twice), and Q, A, O once each. Again F may have been E; the first figure of the key would then have been 1 and the letters before coding, H (three times), E and I (twice each), and the T, D and R once each. Or J might have been E, making the first figure 5 and the other letters D (three times), A and E (twice each) and the other letters P, Z, and N. It is unlikely that all these guesses are wrong. Note that the two which are in fact incorrect yield each one rare letter, a Q and a Z. If 9 letters are chosen at random from a piece of English it is unlikely that a Q or a Z will occur. On the other hand, it would not be so very uncommon to find no E at all in a collection of only nine letters. But if a first attempt to identify each digit of the key gives some of the figures correctly, a reconstruction of the original message can be made in which some of the letters are sure to be right. The incorrect letters can then be adjusted by remembering the very obvious fact that the original message consisted of real words. And it should be noticed that if a single letter is correctly guessed it determines a figure of the key and hence all the letters in that position throughout the whole message. For example, suppose there is clearly something wrong with the solution and that the combination IQG appears in the translation. This is obviously impossible. But ING is a common syllable. Now a figure has been assumed in the key to give Q. Try increasing this by 3. This will give N for Q and should clear up a number of other doubtful letters throughout the message.

The reader is now advised to get a friend to take a piece of ordinary English, to choose a key number of, say, not more than ten digits, and to code the message with it. With a little practice he will find it surprisingly easy to find the key and decode the message. It always appears from books on cryptograms that the 'arbitrary alphabet' type—*i.e.*, the type in which a definite symbol is used to represent each letter—is the easiest kind to solve. The writer would rather be given Jules Verne's type any time that he wanted an easy task.

Once the points of the system in its simplest form as given above are quite understood, other varieties may be considered. They will not be touched on at any length now, but it will be as well to refer to them.

The message may be made safer by lengthening the key. As a key is safer from intruders in the memory than written down, and a long key may be forgotten, a number can conveniently be chosen which is easily obtained by a division sum. For example, 1/7 is easily remembered. If 7 be divided into 1 until it recurs we get the six figures 142857. In this way quite long keys can be obtained with only a short number to remember. But the choice must be carefully made. There was a key fixed on a certain occasion, to be obtained by dividing 1 by 37! Keys up to about twenty figures do not usually present insuperable difficulty to an expert, even if the message is only three or four times as long as the key. They may require monumental patience but the solution is very pleasing when achieved.

Again, the key may be a word, each letter being regarded as equivalent to a number—its numerical position in the alphabet. The process is as before. The solution may be a little more difficult, as with a number key a letter is never shifted more than nine places from its normal position in the alphabet, whereas with a word key it may be shifted to any extent. Since, however, the key itself is a word, the determination of some letters in it is a help with the others. For example, if the letters of the key appear, at a first attempt, to be PBTRIOTISX, it is clear the right solution is 'PATRIOTISM,' the second and last letters having been wrongly guessed.

A more difficult type of key is obtained by using a long word or short phrase and agreeing to omit certain letters, *e.g.*, all the vowels. This may yield a problem only to be solved by much knitting of brows and burning of midnight oil. Sometimes the key is subtracted instead of being added. Again the alphabet may be numbered from 0 to 25 instead of 1 to 26. One must be on the look-out for such little variants. They may increase the time necessary for the solving but should not make the solution less certain.

Words being easier to remember than numbers, the key may conceivably be a fairly long phrase. There was a good example of this some years ago which found its way into the Courts and the Press. The incident in its details is best forgotten, but the key to the cryptogram was the phrase:

'We'll hang Lloyd George on a sour apple tree.'

There is no reason why the key should not be much longer. In fact, it may be a continuous piece of prose, from a pre-arranged book. The solver then has no repetition in the key to guide him. He is faced with the problem of splitting up a string of letters into two pieces of English, one the key and one the message. The type can be recognised and the solution—with luck and infinite patience—achieved. But that is another story.

The reader may like to try and solve the following two examples. The first is in English, the second is either in German, in French or in Spanish. They have already been solved by one who had no knowledge of the subject beyond what is provided by the foregoing article.

(1)

XJXXW JPZPF CJOQS JMPUJ VGTYM PHFRF JSWVS
ZGVJA ICUFR ASFXG UMEPB HVQTX AQSIT TPGPG N.

(2)

LKWSX ZFKNE QKGJF GRBVK SPHWT KGIWL VJFJD
PTKDI TBKRW SXZFO SEQVW YTSPT GYEEF JQXEU
XLXUV WGLXO FDHUC MJVDP PYJ.

The Assassins

FROM time to time in the course of history, the world has been startled by outbreaks of that alarming phenomenon known as mass-murder.¹ It is safe to say that, of all the outbreaks of murder on a large scale, that of the Assassins was certainly the most terrible, and inspired the most widespread dread ; by reason of its carefully organised character, its utter ruthlessness, its long duration, and the—in general—high rank of its victims, it stands out in sinister pre-eminence. In virtue of the fact that all the Assassins' murders were perpetrated at the decree of the Grand Master, the supreme head of their formidable organization, their deeds may not inaptly be described as ' homicide-to-order.'

Anyone who was rash enough to oppose or even abuse the Assassins would be marked out for death at the hands of their fearless emissaries, and would almost inevitably lose his life. The Assassins were no respecters of persons ; it made no difference to them how well guarded or how exalted in rank an opponent or detractor might be ; in fact, the higher his rank, the more likely he would be to incur their wrath, and consequently their vengeance.

This Order—for such in a sense it was—was founded in Northern Persia in the latter part of the eleventh century A.D. by a Persian of Arab descent named Hasan-i-Sabbah.

Hasan was a man of very considerable ability who, having been given a post at the court of Sultan Malikshah, the Seljuq ruler of Persia, and part of what is now Afghanistan, lost his position, as some say, owing to his passion for intrigue. According to other accounts, Hasan's great abilities and his growing influence with the Sultan aroused the jealousy of the latter's chief Vizier, who by means of a trick brought about Hasan's fall.

¹ See *Mass Murder* by L. C. Douthwaite, London, 1928.
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A VIEW OF ALAMUT FROM THE NORTH

(face p. 120)



A VIEW OF THE ALAMUT VALLEY FROM THE NORTH-WEST END
OF THE ROCK

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THE ASSASSINS

Leaving the Court, where he had made numerous enemies, Hasan devoted himself to a special study of the heretical Isma'ili doctrine, first at Ispahan and later in Egypt. On his return to Persia in 1080 A.D., Hasan began an active propaganda in favour of the Isma'ili sect. At the same time, he nursed in secret a fierce desire to revenge himself on those who had brought about his disgrace.

In his capacity as an Isma'ili propagandist, Hasan gathered together a number of followers, and at some time or other the idea occurred to him to utilise his position and influence to satisfy his ambition and also his thirst for revenge. The next step was to obtain possession of some strong places to serve as bases, and also as refuges when, as was often the case, Hasan's enemies took the field against him in superior force. This end Hasan accomplished by securing, at times by force of arms, but more often by a cunning stratagem or ruse, a number of castles in the mountainous country in the north of Persia. Of these castles, the most important was the fortress of Alamut; this was situated on the top of a gigantic and almost unscalable rock in the very heart of the Elburz Mountains, some forty-five miles to the NE of the town of Qazvin.

Having made Alamut his headquarters, Hasan proceeded to give a considerable amount of attention to the organization of his Order, which he divided into nine divisions or grades. His followers were allocated to these different grades, according to the extent to which they were initiated into the mysteries of the Isma'ilis, and those which he himself had evolved. Hasan himself, of course, was the sole occupant of the first grade, having the title of 'Chief Propagandist' or 'Grand Master.'

Although now possessed of considerable military strength, Hasan realised nevertheless that, if he had to defend himself against any very concerted effort on the part of his enemies or if, above all, he was to realise his aims by increasing still further his power and influence, he would have need of some weapon of a very special order. This weapon Hasan found in the persons of the Fida'is or 'Self-Sacrificing Ones,' the members of the lowest grade in the Order. These Fida'is, though bound by solemn vows, were scarcely initiated at all, being for the most part young and ignorant peasants and

mountaineers, who were selected more for their courage and bodily strength than for their intelligence.

In order to induce these Fida'is to serve him and his Order with the utmost possible degree of zeal, bravery and obedience, Hasan invented and put into practice a truly remarkable procedure which may be summarised as follows :—

On being pledged to secrecy, the Fida'is-to-be would be admitted, several at a time, into the presence of the Grand Master, who would inform them that he had the power to transport them at will into Paradise, if they would serve him faithfully and well. The youths would then be invited to a feast, in the course of which they would, unbeknown to themselves, be drugged with hashish.¹

While under the influence of the drug, the youths would be carried from the castle into a beautiful garden, surrounded by high walls, which Hasan had had specially constructed in a valley near Alamut. This garden was so designed as to comply as closely as possible with the description of Paradise given in the Koran. Marco Polo describes the garden as follows :—

' He (the Grand Master) had caused a certain valley to be enclosed, and had turned it into a garden, the largest and most beautiful that ever was seen, filled with every variety of fruit. In it were erected pavilions and palaces the most elegant that can be imagined . . . And there were runnels too, flowing freely with wine and milk and honey and water ; and numbers of ladies and of the most beautiful damsels in the world, who could play on all manner of instruments, and sang most sweetly, and danced in a manner that it was charming to behold. For the Old Man (the Grand Master) desired to make his people believe that this was actually Paradise. So he had fashioned it after the description that Mahomet gave of his Paradise . . . And sure enough the Saracens of those parts believed that it *was* Paradise !'

¹ At the time of which we write, the properties of this drug were kept a closely guarded secret by the few people who then knew of it. It was owing to the Fida'is being drugged with hashish that the whole Order were called by some Arab and Persian writers the 'Hashishiyyun' or 'Takers of hashish.' The Crusaders and travellers like Marco Polo used corrupted forms of this word such as 'Ashishin' from which our word 'Assassin' is derived. See also *The Police Journal*, Vol. III., p. 99 regarding this intoxicating drug.

When the drugged youths came to, amid such surroundings, it was not difficult to persuade them that the Grand Master had fulfilled his word and that they were indeed in Paradise. After some days of enjoyment in this pleasant place, the youths would be drugged once more and taken back into the Grand Master's presence at Alamut. When they had regained their senses, the Grand Master would inquire where they had been. On their informing him of their experiences in 'Paradise,' he would say that, although he had, as a mark of favour, allowed their *souls* to enjoy a brief foretaste of the joys of Paradise, actually their *bodies* had never left his presence. He would then ask whether they wished to return to 'Paradise,' and, on their replying in the affirmative, he would promise to transport them there again if they would zealously carry out his behests.

To quote Marco Polo again : ' So when the Old Man would have any Prince slain, he would say to such and such a youth, " Go thou and slay So-and-so, and when thou returnest my angels shall bear thee into Paradise. And shouldst thou die, nevertheless even so will I send my angels to carry thee back to Paradise." '

The credulity of the youths being thus imposed upon, it is not in the least surprising that they would, at the word of their Master, endeavour to fulfil any task and face any danger with complete contempt of death. The commission of a murder was not a crime in their eyes ; how could it be so when ordained by their revered and all-powerful Master and when the deed had, as they thought, the *certainty* of Paradise as its reward ?

It was not long before Hasan-i-Sabbah had occasion to make use of his new instruments. His old enemy, the Nizamu'l Mulk, the chief Vizier of Sultan Malikshah, on hearing of Hasan's seizure of Alamut, dispatched an army against him which closely besieged the fortress. Hasan, however, dispatched a Fida'i who worked his way through the enemy's lines and, disguised as a religious mystic, stabbed the Vizier to death. The whole kingdom was thrown into such confusion by the murder of the Vizier (who had been the real ruler of the country) that the siege of Alamut was raised, and Hasan and

his followers were left in peace. Shortly afterwards Sultan Malikshah died very suddenly, and some suspected that he had been poisoned by an emissary of the Assassins.

Before many years had passed the list of victims had assumed a most formidable length, and since the murders were almost invariably committed in the most public and spectacular manner possible, the dread inspired by the Assassins became proportionately great. Thus, after a time, it was not always necessary for them actually to slay. Once, when Sultan Sanjar was conducting a campaign against the Assassins, a Fida'i somehow made his way into the Sultan's tent at night and stuck a dagger into the ground beside his sleeping form. Shortly after awaking in the morning, the Sultan received a note from the Grand Master of Alamut stating, 'Had we not been well-disposed towards thee, we might have plunged the dagger into thy heart instead of into the ground.' Sanjar, deeming discretion the better part of valour, promptly withdrew his troops and so escaped with his life.

The Syrian branch of the Assassins, though founded in the lifetime of Hasan-i-Sabbah, did not come into much prominence until the Grand Mastership of the able Rashidu'd-Din Sinan, the contemporary of Saladin and Richard Cœur de Lion.

Under Rashidu'd-Din's skilful leadership, the Syrian Assassins became for a time independent of Alamut, and frequently came into contact with the Crusaders, sometimes as enemies, and at other times as allies or neutrals.

Once, when the Assassins and Crusaders were on friendly terms, an incident occurred which is a most striking example of the implicit obedience of the Fida'is and of their utter contempt of death.

Henry, Count of Champagne, while on a visit to the Grand Master, was walking in a garden with his host. As they were passing close to a lofty tower, the Grand Master made a sign to some youths who were stationed on the top. Without the least hesitation two of the youths flung themselves from the tower, and were instantly killed. The Grand Master then turned with a smile to Count Henry, and asked whether he could exact a similar degree of obedience from his own

subjects. The Count was forced to admit that he could not do so.

The Assassins made two attempts to kill Saladin, who narrowly escaped with his life on each occasion. After the second attempt, Saladin found it prudent to enter into an alliance with such dangerous opponents.

At a later date, shortly before the death of Rashidu'd-Din, the Assassins were responsible for the murder of Conrad of Montferrat. Some say that Saladin was the real instigator of this murder, while others accuse Richard Cœur de Lion.

The actual territory over which the Grand Master held sway was limited in extent; but, consisting as it did mainly of mountain fastnesses and the land in their immediate vicinity, it was of considerable strategic importance and strength. The chief power of the Assassins lay, however, in the influence which they had acquired over neighbouring rulers by means of their terrible methods. The Assassins had, moreover, a widespread and efficient secret service which, by means of a pigeon post, was able to send to headquarters any news of importance in what seemed to their enemies an incredibly short space of time.

The importance of the Assassins' position can be gauged by the fact that when the Mongol hordes invaded Persia in 1256, they were under orders from the Great Khan to attack and exterminate the Assassins before attempting to go further west to capture Baghdad and overthrow the Abbasid Caliphate.

Hulagu, the Mongol leader, faithfully carried out his orders. One by one the Assassins' castles were taken by assault or surrendered, and in 1257 the Mongols captured Alamut, Ruknu'd-Din Khurshah, the eighth and last Grand Master, having previously been taken prisoner.

The power of the Assassins was broken for ever. Although the Syrian branch did not share the fate of the main body at the hands of the Mongols, it gradually sank into insignificance, becoming in time a mere appanage of the Egyptian Sultans.

As Alamut has been referred to so frequently in the above account of the Assassins, it may be of interest to give some description of this unique stronghold.

Although in recent years considerable progress has been made in road construction in Persia and work on a railway from the Caspian to the Persian Gulf has actually been begun, the district around Alamut has, by reason of its extremely mountainous character, as yet nothing more than mere mountain tracks, difficult in places even for mules. As a result, Alamut has not often been visited.

Two British officers, Colonels Monteith and Shiel, went to Alamut in 1831 and 1837 respectively, and subsequently gave some account of the fortress in articles contributed to the Journal of the Royal Geographical Society.

Professor Herzfeld, the celebrated German archæologist, visited Alamut in 1927, but he has not, so far as the writer is aware, published any account of his visit: this is much to be regretted, as Professor Herzfeld is, of course, particularly well qualified to describe the place.

In the summer of 1928, the present writer, in company with two friends, travelled to Alamut *via* Qazvin, the Simiar Pass and the Shahrud and Alamut valleys, and found the fortress, ruined though it is, well worth the toils and troubles of the journey there.

The castle—or rather, all that now remains of it—is situated on the top of a gigantic rock which juts out from the side of the mountain of Alamut. The top of the rock, which is 6,200 feet above sea level, is in the form of a narrow ridge some 400 yards in length, running from NNW to SSE; the breadth varies from thirty-five yards at the widest point to only a few feet at the extremities. On the side of the rock away from the mountain, that is to say on the SW face, the angle of inclination is very steep, the height above the valley being fully 900 feet. The rock is skirted at either end by deep ravines which run up into the side of the mountain; at the NNW end, which is practically perpendicular, the height of the rock from the bed of the ravine is 750 feet, while at the other end, owing to the eventual downward inclination of the ridge (it is practically level for the 400 yards mentioned above), the altitude is somewhat less.

On the NE face, which is particularly steep and actually overhanging in places, the rock is connected with the mountain



ON THE TOP OF ALAMUT—SHOWING THE RUINS

(face p. 126)



THE ROCK OF ALAMUT, FROM THE SOUTH

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by a high 'neck'; this neck joins the rock at a point close to its NNW extremity and some 200 feet below the summit.

The only means of access to the ridge is by a narrow and in places very much worn path which, after crossing the ravine to the north-west, mounts that side of the neck. After descending the other side of the neck for a short distance, the path follows along the north-eastern face of the rock for some 200 yards, and then mounts in a series of very steep zig-zags to the summit. Here and there the remains of steps are still to be seen, while just before reaching the top, one comes upon the ruins of what must have been the outer wall of the fortress.

On the top of the ridge, which is divided into three sections by two small gaps a few feet in width and depth, are the remains of a number of buildings, but these are for the most part in so ruined a state that it is almost impossible to form any idea of what the 'lay-out' of the place had been. The central section was evidently the most important, for at either end strong walls run transversely across the rock, and the ruins there are more extensive than on the other sections. There are a number of tunnels or caves cut into the rock which were doubtless used as store places; in addition, there are three reservoirs, also, of course, hewn out of the rock itself. These reservoirs were half-full at the time of our visit.

Some forty to fifty feet down on the SW side of the rock are the remains of a wall or possibly a series of buttresses to increase the width at the top.

Building material was mainly stone, but burnt brick of excellent quality was also used to a considerable extent. The quality of the mortar used was also excellent, much of it being as hard to-day as it was 800 years ago.

Fragments of pottery are strewn about everywhere, not only on the rock itself but also on the upper slopes of the neck.

When at the village of Gazar Khan, which is situated a mile to the SW of the rock, the writer made inquiries as to the site of the famous garden of Alamut. The inhabitants, however, had no idea of where this garden had been, although the headman of a neighbouring village had some knowledge of Hassan-i-Sabbah and of the general history of Alamut.

LAURENCE LOCKHART.

Dick Turpin: Fact v. Fiction

PART I. GREGORY'S GANG

'REPUTATION,' says Shakespeare, 'is an idle and most false imposition; oft got without merit, and lost without deserving.' Truly it is an unstable thing. Though we set a high value upon our own, we have no more control over it than we have over the moon. It is at the mercy of every Tom, Dick or Harry who cares to lift up his voice against us. Yet if there is one man in all history whose ghost has no reason to complain, that man is Richard Turpin; for in the course of time his reputation has undergone a complete revolution. As gunman, gangster, and murderer he is unknown to-day; we picture him as a dashing highwayman, leaping six-barred gates with the grace of a film actor, out-distancing all pursuers, even robbing with courtesy. The hero of countless broadsides and penny dreadfuls, 'he must be regarded,' says one of his biographers 'as one of the most distinguished public characters familiar to the country in which he figured.'

But before we assign definitely a niche in the Hall of Fame to this distinguished public character, who, at his latter end, was hanged by the neck till he was dead, let us examine his qualifications to eminence. I will rely throughout on contemporary newspaper accounts, proclamations, notices in the *Gazette*, Treasury papers, and various official documents; sifting, so far as I am able, fiction from fact.

At the outset I must pour a little cold water on the reputation of this distinguished public character by remarking that the famous ride to York is not fact but fiction. And as for Black Bess, there never was no such animal. There is some evidence that a highwayman did once actually ride from the neighbourhood of London to York in a day; but the hero

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of this ride (who is said to have bestriden a *bay* Arab mare) was not Richard Turpin. Most likely it was John Nevison, a highwayman of a very different kidney with whom I have already dealt.¹ It was a novelist, Harrison Ainsworth, who immortalised this feat and assigned it to Turpin, and to his imagination also is due the creation of Black Bess.

In the north-west corner of Essex, some five miles from Saffron Walden, there is a small village called Hempstead; and in the main street, standing back a little from the road, is an old-fashioned inn known as 'The Crown.' In 1705 the tenant of this house (then known as 'The Bell') was John Turpin, and here, in September of that year, his wife Mary gave birth to her third child, Richard, whose baptism at the village church is recorded in the parish register as having taken place on the 21st of the same month. Turpin is not an uncommon name in the district, and indeed there are Turpins in the neighbourhood of Hempstead to-day; but I hasten to add that they disclaim all relationship with the subject of this memoir.

Of Master Richard's early years no anecdotes appear to have been preserved; so presumably his childhood was no more distinguished than that of the ordinary village urchin. But as he developed into a broad-shouldered man, 5 ft. 9 in. tall, he was probably a sturdy youngster. In addition to keeping the village inn, John Turpin was also the village butcher, and, as soon as Master Dick was old enough to shift for himself, his father took him in to London and bound him 'prentice to a butcher of his acquaintance in Whitechapel, where, according to the biographer who claims so eminent a position for him, 'he was conspicuous for gross impropriety of behaviour and brutality of manners.' Thus early in life did this distinguished public character begin to show his mettle.

On the expiration of his apprenticeship he is said to have married a respectable girl from East Ham named Hester or Esther Palmer,² and to have taken up his abode at Buckhurst Hill, in the southern confines of Epping Forest.

¹ *The Police Journal*, vol. i. p. 499.

² I can find no authority for this name. One of the witnesses at Turpin's trial (a native of Hempstead) stated that 'he married one of my father's maids.' Apparently there was only one child of the marriage.

In order to support a wife it was necessary to embark in business, and having no capital with which to start, and, if our biographer's account of his apprenticeship be correct, precious little credit, he was obliged to adopt the principles of Communism.¹ The butcher with whom he had served his time had been accustomed to buy beasts from a farmer Giles at Plaistow. As soon, therefore, as Turpin decided to set up in business for himself, he naturally turned to Farmer Giles as the most convenient source of supply. Arriving at Plaistow in the middle of the night, he drove home the two beasts which he had selected, and before the day was out, their flayed carcasses were hanging in his shed. Giles's men, however, put two and two together and paid a visit to Turpin's house, where they saw the carcasses—but no hides. But knowing already that he had been in the habit of selling hides to a tanner at Waltham Abbey they went there, found and identified what they sought, and proceeded to the nearest magistrate. A warrant was issued and the officers knocked at Turpin's front door. Turpin departed by the back one and took to the woods.

The sale of fat beasts being difficult, now that that confounded warrant was out against him, he became a smuggler, and presently, to extend his business, took to stealing deer. But the limited market at his disposal soon becoming glutted, he cast about him for another means of subsistence. For a time he kept an ale-house; but finding that even this pursuit required a certain amount of honesty, he soon gave it up, but whether voluntarily or through *force majeure* I know not. There was really only one profession open to him; he decided to 'take to the road.'

Epping Forest, when King George the Second came to the throne, was not a very healthy place at night. It was too near London. Any 'wanted' man who could put the river Lea between himself and his pursuers was virtually as safe as though he had crossed the Channel. Even in the daytime it was well to go in company when journeying through it, and then to make a display of pistols. Yet at least its perils were regulated. By this I mean that its thoroughfares were divided

¹ 'Community of property among all the inhabitants of a state.' *Nuttall's Dict.*

into recognised areas, each under the control of a particular footpad, or murderer as the case might be. You need never have had the slightest fear of being attacked by Ginger Haines when once you had entered Nobby Walker's area. You were as safe, from Ginger, as you would have been on Finchley Common or Hounslow Heath. There was no haphazard robbery in Epping Forest; it was extremely well organised and, in fact, a credit to the highwaymen of England.

When, therefore, Turpin appeared among the woods his reception by the inhabitants was somewhat chilly. He was obliged to keep to the open spaces and thereby run considerable risks from the blunderbusses of officious coachmen. So he had to resort to a stratagem. He made himself look as much as possible like an exciseman, and, to perfect the impersonation, levied taxes, in the King's name, from all solitary travellers who in any way resembled well-to-do tradesfolk. Alas! one evening he approached a genuine exciseman of robust build who was also well supplied with pistols. . . . Fortunately the road was bounded by trees.

In Epping Forest Turpin continued to ply his trade until the autumn of 1734 (he being then twenty-nine years of age), when he appeared upon the stage in a more ambitious rôle. In the course of his work he had come across several men who were in a like condition to himself, and one of these, a blacksmith named Samuel Gregory, was a rascal of the utmost daring. Although younger than Turpin ('about 23 years of age,' according to the newspapers) and standing but 5 ft. 7 in. high, he was the inspirer of a series of crimes which was to invoke leading articles in the newspapers, terrorize the inhabitants of every secluded house in the home counties, and finally bring himself, with some twenty companions, to the gallows. Throughout the winter of 1734 and following spring, the phrase 'Gregory's Gang' had the same effect as had 'Jack the Ripper' in our own times. With this desperado Turpin now joined forces. The other members of the gang will appear as the story unfolds.

According to the popular—and therefore usually untrustworthy—account, the vestry of Chingford church was the first object of the gang's attentions, and this was followed by a visit

to the parish church of Barking. But the contemporary newspapers which I have scanned are silent on the subject, and I see no reason therefore to credit this legend. The first authentic robbery committed by the gang, so far as I have been able to discover, was at Woodford on Wednesday the 29th September, 1734. Near the 'Loggerheads' public-house stood a grocer's shop, and at about seven o'clock in the evening the gang knocked at the door, overpowered Peter Splitt, the shopkeeper, when he opened it to them, threatened to shoot him, his wife and daughter if they stirred, ransacked the house, emptied the flour out of some sacks and filled them with everything of value upon which they could lay hands, and carried off their booty without any man venturing to say them nay.

Two days later, on the 1st of November, they forced an entry into the house at Walthamstow of one Eldridge, who is described in the newspapers as 'a gentleman belonging to the Office of Ordnance in the Tower,' and plundered it of all its brass and pewter, its window-curtains and clocks, most of the beds and bedding, two fine fowling-pieces, 'and many other things'; and, after either drinking or destroying all the rum, brandy, ale and other liquors in the cellar, loaded several horses with loot to the value of 200 l., and made off. The inhabitants were away at the time. There were eleven men in the gang, and they were masked and armed.

Throughout November reports of burglary and highway robbery by the gang continued to reach London. Towards the end of the month a friend of these rascals, who had been convicted at Chelmsford assizes of deerstealing in the Forest, was taken to Epping by the Sheriff's men in order to be stood in the pillory of that village as part of his sentence. On arriving at Epping twelve of the gang, well armed, surrounded the officers, rescued the prisoner, and carried him in triumph to a neighbouring public-house. Having regaled themselves here they all rode off together, without paying their bill, no one daring to attack them.

On the 19th December—I pass over several robberies reported in the papers during the early part of the month—at about seven o'clock in the evening, six of the gang, with their

faces muffled and disguised, came to Longbridge Farm, between Ilford and Barking. In those days it must have been a lonely house, and it is no wonder that Ambrose Skinner refused them admittance. But help for him was a mile and more away, and the gang battered down the front door at their leisure. The farmer was overpowered and bound, and, with a pistol at his head was forced (I quote from the Proclamation issued from Whitehall on January 3rd following) 'to walk about his said house with them from one room to another, to discover where his money and effects lay; after which they took his purse and keys out of his pocket, and therewith attempted to open all the trunks and chests belonging to him, his son and daughter-in-law.' Not obtaining sufficient booty in this way, they broke open every trunk, chest and cupboard in the house, taking upwards of 47 l. in cash, with plate and valuables, linen and clothes, to the value of 300 l. Then, having taken two of the farmer's horses out of the stable, they loaded these with their booty and rode away.

Two days later, on Saturday 21st December, encouraged by their success, they committed an even more outrageous crime. At six in the evening they came to Hainault Lodge, near Chigwell Row, at that time occupied by William Mason, keeper to the Earl of Tilney. This time they had disguised themselves by blacking and chalking their faces. Having forced an entry and being opposed by the keeper, they immediately fired at him, happily without effect. They then fell upon him and his wife and beat both of them severely. Managing to break away from them Mason tried to make his escape, whereupon, according to the Proclamation subsequently issued, they fired three times at him, 'that is to say once in the passage of his house and twice after he had got out of the house.' However, he, his wife and daughter 'with great difficulty escaped with their lives.' The gang then ransacked the house, 'broke several chimney glasses, great quantities of china, tables, corner-cupboards, chests, and glass windows, and took from the said house 140 l. in ready money, nine silver spoons, 12 guns, and wearing apparel,' with other valuables.¹ The reason why they broke 'great quantities of

¹ Proclamation in the *London Gazette*, No. 7364.

china' appears to have been that, while searching a cupboard for valuables, one of them accidentally broke a china punch-bowl, which immediately disgorged 120 guineas.

Presumably the booty acquired from these two outrages was sufficient to last most of the gang over Christmas; for it was not until mid-January (1735) that they appeared in the newspapers again. At Charlton in Kent (between Woolwich and Greenwich) lived a well-to-do farmer named Saunders, and in the evening of Saturday, January 11th, four of the gang arrived there. Having knocked at the front door, they asked if Mr. Saunders was at home, and being answered in the affirmative they all rushed in. Mr. Saunders, his wife, and some friends were playing cards in the drawing-room. Holding the company at the point of a pistol, one of the gang informed them that no one would be hurt if they made no disturbance, at the same time pocketing a silver snuff-box that lay on the card-table. Saunders was then forced to open a desk, whence the ruffians abstracted cash to the amount of 100 l., after which they proceeded to go through the house, collecting a considerable quantity of plate and other valuables.

While this performance was going on, one of the maidservants managed to run upstairs and, barring the door of her room, put her head out of the window and screamed 'Thieves! Murder!' But the door was forced 'with a great poker' and the alarm stopped. The gang then adjourned to the dining-room, where they regaled themselves with mincepies and wine. During the upset Mrs. Saunders was like to faint with fright; whereupon, says a contemporary journal, the gang 'got her a glass of water and put some drops in it, and were very careful of her.' Then, having said goodbye, they packed up their loot and departed, after informing the company that if anyone stirred for two hours the gang would return and murder them, and that if they advertised the marks of the stolen plate 'they must take what followed.' It is good to be able to add that a fortnight later the *London Evening Post* reported that 'one of the gang of villains who have committed such robberies of late as are without example, being taken last Saturday in Southwark, was by Sir John Lade, Bart., committed to the new jail there; since which Mr. Saunders and his wife... have

positively sworn against him; so that there are hopes that his accomplices may be discovered.'

On the 16th January the rectory at Great Parndon, near Harlow in Essex, was broken into and the Revd. Mr. Dyde despoiled of his valuables; and on the 18th the gang appeared before the house of Mr. Sheldon at Shirley, near Croydon. They arrived—five of them this time—at seven o'clock in the evening, as was their custom, masked, and armed with two pairs of pistols apiece. Having knocked at the door they were admitted by a servant, whom they immediately bound. They then tied up Sheldon and his wife, eased them of money, jewellery, lace and plate, collected their plunder in the hall, and filled five sacks with it. As they were about to leave, one of the gang handed Sheldon two guineas and begged his pardon for disturbing him.

I will relate only one more robbery before I come to their *chef-d'œuvre*. On the 1st of February, again at 7 o'clock in the evening, Trap's Hill Farm at Loughton in Essex was visited by the gang. It was inhabited by an elderly widow named Shelley, her son, and a maidservant. Forcing their way in, they bade the old lady inform them of the whereabouts of her money, and on her obstinately refusing to assist them, they not only threatened her with death but said that they would 'lay her across the fire if she did not instantly tell them.'

At this point I would remark that I have found no evidence in support of the popular story that the villains actually sat her on the fire and held her there until pain forced her to tell them what they wanted. Indeed, the most authentic contemporary report—that contained in the *Weekly Journal* for 8th Feb., 1734/5, and therefore written within seven days of the event—says that as soon as they laid hands upon her, her son cried out that he would tell them everything if they would not murder his mother. 'Whereupon,' continues the *Weekly Journal*, 'they went upstairs and took near 100 l., a silver tankard, and other plate and all manner of household goods. They afterwards went into the cellar and drank several bottles of ale and wine, and broiled some meat. While they were doing this, two of their gang went into Mr. Turkle's, a farmer's, who rents one end of the widow's house, and

robb'd him of above 20 l. ; and then they all went off, taking two of the farmer's horses to carry their luggage. The horses were found on Sunday in Old Street. They stayed about 3 hours in the house.'

This event, I have said, took place on the 1st of February : the 4th was to witness the crowning outrage of these atrocious villains, an outrage so appalling that one must go back almost to the middle ages for its counterpart, an outrage which, so far as I am aware, has been surpassed only once since—I refer to the murder of Galley and Chater by the Hawkhurst Gang some twelve years later.

In Broadway, Westminster, at this time stood a public-house known as the Black Horse, and this inn was a house of call for several highwaymen who 'worked' the roads out of London. From one of these gentry the gang learnt that there was a secluded farmhouse near Stanmore in Middlesex, owned by a Mr. Lawrence, which might yield a rich booty. Accordingly at half-past two in the afternoon of February 4th, 1735, six of them, on horseback, met at Holborn Bars. Turning their horses' heads to the west, they rode along Oxford Street, turned down the Edgware Road, and a little before 4 o'clock came to the Queen's Head inn near Stanmore. Here they baited their horses and themselves. The landlord of the Queen's Head, Wood by name, not being easy in his mind regarding their bona fides, endeavoured to scrutinize their features ; but the cold damp of a February afternoon had caused them, no doubt, to muffle the lower part of their faces and to pull wide-brimmed hats low over their ears, and they pushed him from the room when he would have waited upon them. But he went out into the yard and memorized their horses to such good intent that not only was he able, later, to furnish the authorities with a description of them but to recognise them immediately when he saw them outside a public-house in Holborn shortly after.

At 5 o'clock the gang entered Stanmore and stayed a couple of hours at a small inn called 'The Ninepin and Bowl,' smoking and drinking, while one of their number spied out the lie of the land. At seven they rode up to the gate of Earlsbury Farm, where Mr. Lawrence lived, and here they dismounted

and left their horses in charge of one of their number. Going forward, they met a boy, who told them that he had just been folding some sheep and was now going into the house. Tying his hands behind him, they put a pistol to his head and bade him lead them to the back door. Arrived there, they knocked and told the boy to bid the manservant admit him ; but he being too terrified to speak, one of the gang asked for Mr. Lawrence ; whereupon the servant, thinking it was a neighbour, opened the door, and in they went.

Lawrence, the farmer, was a man upwards of 70 years of age, and with him lived his two sons, a manservant, and a maid. The sons were absent at the time but appear to have arrived on the scene later, in time to identify some of the ruffians. Having pinioned Lawrence, the gang, following their usual custom, forced him to accompany them over the house in their search for valuables. They broke open chests and cupboards, collecting money, plate, and everything of value upon which they could lay their hands. Unhappily, however, on this occasion the drink which they had imbibed during their long wait at Stanmore had disastrous effects ; for it inflamed their brutality to its highest pitch. Not content with continually striking and kicking the poor old man, they beat him savagely with a stick till it broke. Even this did not satisfy their lust for cruelty. Threatening him with instant death, one of the ruffians snatched up a kettle from the hob and poured its contents over him. Fortunately the water was not hot enough to scald. Then, tearing down his breeches, they thrashed him again savagely and threatened to burn him alive.

In the meantime, the maid, Dorothy Street, who had been in the dairy and now approached the house, hearing a noise and rough voices within, would have fled back to the outhouse ; but being discovered by Gregory was carried indoors and raped. Her screams but urged the gang on to further outrages. Swearing that they had not got nearly enough loot, one of the gang took up a chopper and threatened to cut off Lawrence's legs unless he gave them more. He being unable to satisfy their demands, the ruffians then beat his scalp with the butts of their pistols, dragged him about by the hair, kicked him brutally, and made as though to cut his throat.

At long last their brutality was spent, and having now completely pillaged the house, they herded the wretched inmates, more dead than alive, into the drawing-room, bound them, fastened up the windows, locked all the outer doors, and threw the keys away. The manner of their return to London is unknown.

This atrocious crime made a considerable stir even in an age in which brutality and violent crime were common. Walpole at once reported it to the King, who, on his advice, forthwith ordered a proclamation to be issued, offering a reward of 50 *l.* for such information as would lead to the apprehension of the gang, and a free pardon to any of the gang ('save and except the person who ravished the maid-servant') who would turn King's evidence. A description of the gang and their horses followed. Unhappily they were to set the law at defiance on the grand scale once again before they were finally broken up.

The attack at Earlsbury Farm was on the 4th February: on the 7th six of the gang met at the White Bear in Drury Lane and planned to rob the house of a farmer named Francis, whose property, called Dagot's Farm, lay just to the north of what is now the Marylebone Road. On this occasion the householder, his wife, daughter and maid were all beaten and otherwise maltreated, and property to the extent of 100 *l.* in money and 100 *l.* in plate and other valuables was carried off.

This fresh outrage, following so soon upon the Stanmore affair, prompted a new proclamation offering a further 50 *l.* reward, and on February 11th a lucky event enabled the authorities to lay their hands on three members of the gang, Fielder, Saunders and Wheeler by name. On the evening of that day these three came to a public-house in Holborn and sat down to a bowl of punch, leaving their horses tethered outside. And Providence ordained that Mr. Wood, the landlord of the Queen's Head at Stanmore, who had taken such pains to memorize their horses, should pass by just after they had gone into the house. Where he had intended going at that time I know not, but where he actually did go was to the nearest watch-house. Of the subsequent happening I have seen no account, the newspapers contenting themselves with

recording merely that the three ruffians 'were taken' and carried before Hind J.P. at Great Ormond Street, 'who at first committed Fielder and Saunders to New Prison; but upon Wheeler's turning evidence against his comrades, and declaring that they had been concerned with him in robbing Mr. Mason of Epping Forest, Mr. Lawrence near Edgware, Mr. Francis near Marylebone, together with a great many others, and having given in the names of all his accomplices in the said robberies, Fielder and Saunders were sent to Newgate, and Wheeler to New Prison.'

On Wheeler's information the following notice was issued to the Press (Saturday, 15th February, 1735):

'The undermentioned persons are charged, by Informations upon Oath, for committing the several Robberies and Burglaries lately in the neighbouring Counties and Towns to this City, for whom a Reward of 50 *l.* each is advertised in the *Gazette*.

John Wheeler, in New Prison.

Joseph Rose, a fresh colour'd Man, about 5 ft. 8 in. high, about 40 years of age, a Blacksmith.

Richard Turpin, very much mark'd with the small pox, about 5 ft. 9 in. high, a Butcher, about 26 years of age.

John Fielder, in Newgate.

Samuel Gregory, a Blacksmith, about 23 years of age, 5 ft. 7 in. high, a long cut in his right Cheek, ravish'd the Maid of Joseph Lawrence the Elder of Earlsbury Farm in the Parish of Edgware, in Middlesex.

William Saunderson, *alias* Schoolin, in Newgate.

Thomas Roden, a little thin Man, about 31 or 32 years of age, a Pewterer, wears a light natural Wig.

Herbert Haines, a very pale Man, about 25 years of age, wears a brown Wig, about 5 ft. 7 in. high, a Barber by Trade.

Humphrey Walker, a lusty Man, about 50 years of age, fresh colour'd, a little mark'd with the small pox, wears a light Wig.'

This publicity resulted in two more of the gang being taken almost immediately. At ten o'clock on the following

Monday night news reached the parish constable¹ of St. Margaret's, Westminster, that some of the wanted men were at a chandler's shop, kept by one Lloyd, in Thieving Lane (*alias* Bow Street). It seems most likely that the information was obtained by Lawrence's two sons, who apparently were in London endeavouring to trace their father's assailants; for they both accompanied the constable. In the room behind the shop they found Joseph Rose, Humphrey Walker, and a woman named Mary Brasier, who passed as Rose's wife, drinking punch. Lawrence's sons recognised Rose and Walker at once and promptly went for them. After a severe struggle the three were secured and five pistols taken from them. They were carried immediately to the lock-up in Westminster Gatehouse and next day were examined before Justice Blackerby. The daughter of Mr. Francis, the farmer who had been robbed at Marylebone, swore to a piece of gold that was found in one of their pockets, 'it having a hole in it by which she knew it to be the same piece,' as also to a quantity of linen found in a trunk in the room where the three were captured. Other goods to the value of 60 *l.* were also found and identified. After further ample corroboration the prisoners were committed to Newgate, to stand their trial at the forthcoming sessions.

Unhappily the arrest of five of the gang in no wise deterred those still at large. On the evening of the very day (17th Feb.) on which Rose and Walker were taken, five of the gang came to a farmhouse inhabited by a Mr. Berry at Gravesend and brutally assaulted its inmates. Berry, his wife, and children were bound and blindfolded, while the gang plundered the house. Not finding so much as they expected, they asked Mrs. Berry where the money was kept, and on her answering that she knew of none, they struck her across the face with a pistol, cutting her severely. It should be added that her children were infants and that at her request the ruffians consented to blindfold them only. They then took the farmer's keys from his pocket and found about 160 *l.* which he had received only that day, in a desk. Having collected a considerable amount of loot they forced a stable hand to saddle

¹ Let his name be recorded; it was Pulleyn.

three of the farmer's best horses and rode off, saying that they would turn the horses loose about Greenwich or Deptford, which eventually they did. Before they left, Mrs. Berry begged to be unbound as otherwise they must all perish. 'Damn you, madam,' said they, 'somebody will release you all in the morning, and that is time enough.'

The report of this outrage was immediately followed by the names and descriptions of the culprits: Samuel Gregory, Herbert Haines, Richard Turpin, and Thomas Roden or Rowden. Turpin was described more particularly as 'a tall fresh-colour'd man, very much mark'd with the small pox. Lived some time ago in Whitechapel, and did lately lodge somewhere about Millbank, Westminster. Wears a blue grey coat and a light natural wig.'

On 22nd February the *Gazette* informs its readers that 'Mary Johnson *alias* Brasier *alias* Rose has been committed to the Gate House, Westminster, as being accessory in receiving the goods knowing them to be stolen.' I have not troubled to trace her subsequent career, but most probably she was transported, this being the usual fate of receivers.¹ A newspaper² of current date has an interesting note in this connection: 'Since the Act³ for Transportation of Felons took place, Jonathan Forward, Esq., has transported from Newgate upwards of 6000, and from the several county jails between 5 and 600; for which he is allow'd by the Government 4 *l.* each Felon, &c., so transported.' It was a sentence easily incurred. Here is a paragraph of very ordinary news contained in *The Weekly Oracle* for 14th Dec., 1734: 'The convicts in Newgate for transportation were at first order'd to be ready as yesterday morning at ten o'clock, but the covered lighter coming up to Blackfriars last Thursday with the evening tide, fresh orders came for them to be carry'd down the same night, and they went accordingly. Amongst them is Anne Knight, about 19 years of age, lately condemned for coining, whose sister (a little girl) was transported a few months ago for the like offence, and the mother burnt.'⁴ It is best not

¹ 4 Geo. I., cap. 11. This statute enacted that receivers of stolen goods, knowing them to be stolen, should on conviction be transported for fourteen years.

² *Weekly Journal*, 28th Dec., 1734.

³ 1718 (4 Geo. I., cap. 11)

⁴ i.e. branded (burnt in the hand).

to think of the conditions on the ships which transported these unhappy victims of a mistaken social principle, nor of the food supplied to them by a contractor. The only marvel is that any of them ever reached their destination.¹ It was indeed an age of cruel sentences. At the Old Bailey on Wednesday, 17th September, 1735, sentence of death was passed on Mary Wooton, 'a girl not ten years old,' for a theft of money from her employers.²

On 26th February the Sessions opened at the Old Bailey, and on the second day John Fielder, William Saunders, Joseph Rose and Humphrey Walker, being indicted for the raids on Lawrence and Francis, were convicted and sentenced to death. Their sentences were confirmed by the King on 4th March, and the same evening the death-warrants arrived at Newgate, ordering the prisoners to be executed at Tyburn on Monday, 10th March.

At the beginning of March a substantial report appeared in the papers to the effect that Samuel Gregory had been taken. 'On Wednesday last' (i.e. 26th Feb.) 'a countryman going to Mousham near Chelmsford in Essex saw at an alehouse Samuel Gregory (one of those who robb'd Farmer Lawrence at Earlsbury near Edgware and who ravish'd the maid) whom he knew. Whereupon, without taking any notice, he went and got proper assistance, well arm'd, came to the house, and there seized him, chain'd and handcuff'd him. He was well dress'd and had above 4 score pounds about him. And on Thursday morning, being handcuff'd and put on a horse, and his legs chain'd under the horse's belly and padlock'd, he was conducted, under a proper guard, to Justice Pratt's at Stratford, in West Ham, who had granted warrants out against him and others, where, after an examination, he was committed, and it is thought will be brought to Newgate, to be tried this Sessions.'³

For some reason which I have not been able to discover, Gregory next appears in Winchester Gaol. On 13th March the *Old Whig* reports: 'Letters by yesterday's post from

¹ Transportation was to the American Colonies (chiefly Maryland) until the American War of 1775.

² *Weekly Journal*.

³ *Weekly Journal*, 1st March, 1735-6.

Winchester confirm that Gregory the blacksmith, who robb'd Farmer Lawrence and ravish'd the maid, is taken there; the farmer's men have been down and swore to him, and he is expected at Newgate the latter end of this week.' While a few days later the *Daily Journal* reports that: 'On Sunday night (i.e. 16th March) Gregory . . . was brought to Newgate, under a strong guard, from Winchester Gaol, in order to take his trial at the next Sessions at the Old Bailey.' It looks rather as if Gregory escaped after his committal by Justice Pratt, or that he was not committed at all, and that he was recaptured in Hampshire; for some weeks later we are told that 'Jeremiah Gregory' (his brother, who was taken at the same time) 'is dead of his wounds.' A further puzzle is provided by the report on 22nd March that 'the man called Samuel Gregory, who was brought up to London, from Winchester, declared all along that his name was John Lyndon.' He was carried to New Prison and confronted with Wheeler the informer; whereupon Wheeler said that he was not Gregory and that he 'had never seen the man before.'

But early in May the matter was cleared up; for one of Lawrence's sons went to Winchester and positively identified Gregory, who thereupon admitted that he was the man they sought. He informed young Lawrence that he and the gang waylaid him, his father, and the manservant at the Ninepin alehouse, 'in order to have hanged them up,' as they were returning from giving evidence against Gregory's companions, but missed them.

On 13th May Gregory was actually brought to Newgate, and in the afternoon he was shown to Wheeler, who swore to his identity. The maidservant whom he raped was unable positively to say that he was the man, being so upset when confronted with him. However, evidence sufficient to hang him several times over was speedily forthcoming. He was put on trial, convicted, and sentenced to death.

It should be mentioned here that Joseph Gregory, another brother, being taken in Essex, received the death sentence at Chelmsford assizes on 8th March; Herbert Haines, also a member of the gang, receiving a like sentence at the assizes held in the same town on 26th July following.

Gregory's courage never failed him. He refused to listen to the ministrations of the chaplain, and taking a last drink at 'the Crown Tavern by St. Giles's Pound' on the way to Tyburn, swore that he valued being hanged no more than he did the drinking of a glass of wine. After the chaplain had gone out of the cart he turned to the spectators and laughed heartily. The following day, 4th June, his body was hung in chains at Edgware Bury. There is reason for believing that Turpin witnessed the execution of his friend; but if this be so it had no more effect upon him than Gregory's glass of wine; for that very evening he was seen with a companion in Fulham, and, after talking to a young woman whom he knew, proceeded to rob an old French gentleman of his money, watch, and sword.

I must return now to the four members of the gang whom we left in Newgate awaiting execution. As might be expected, most of the newspapers gave accounts of what must have been a most popular spectacle. A squad of the Foot Guards, consisting of 50 men under a sergeant, met the cart at Holborn Bars and escorted it to Tyburn. 'The fellows appeared at Tyburn very bold and undaunted,' says one. But another informs us that 'Rose was so sick that he could scarce stand.' The executioner was new to his job, in fact this was his first execution; and the moment the chaplain had got out of the cart, before even the caps had been pulled down over the condemned men's faces, the hangman drew the cart away. The result was that the criminals' faces were in full view of the crowd all the time they were hanging. Fielder, Saunders and Rose were the first of the batch to be cut down, and their bodies were put into a cart and taken to Edgware Bury, where they were hung in chains. Humphrey Walker escaped the gallows; for he died in his cell in Newgate the night before the execution. The jury found that he had died a natural death, and by the Sheriff's order his body was hung in chains with his companions.

Several other less conspicuous members of the gang had already been apprehended and suitably dealt with, and by June, with Gregory's death, the gang was virtually extinct. Only Turpin, Rowden, and a man named Thomas Winter were now at large.

Three of the minor lights had been arrested in rather a curious way. Here is the newspaper account of it *verbatim*: 'The beginning of this week three fellows were stopt at Thaxted, and are now in custody for counterfeiting the hand of a Justice of the Peace and a Constable to a warrant for raising Hue and Cry after the aforesaid gang, by virtue of which they demanded the use of a horse of a butcher at Leytonstone. But he denying it to them, they had the impudence to threaten to indict him at the next Quarter Sessions. And then went on for Thaxted, where, the cheat being discovered, they were secured. It is thought their design was to ride clear off with the horses they might have procured under this sham pretence. It seems one of them is brother-in-law to Joseph Rose, now in Newgate on the information of Wheeler.'

Another member of the gang, Arnold, was taken somewhat dramatically. The hue and cry was raised after him and a companion, and his pursuers gained on him rapidly as he rode through Chelmsford. His companion passed over the bridge safely and escaped; but as Arnold neared it, a waggon came up from the opposite side, and the waggoner, hearing shouts and seeing what was happening, pulled his team so nearly athwart the bridge that Arnold's mare was jammed between the waggon and a post, and its rider 'taken easily.'

Throughout the summer Turpin, Rowden, and Winter continued to practise their profession of highwaymen; but there were no more wholesale outrages as had been witnessed during Gregory's *régime*. Winter was taken on 8th September, and on being examined prior to his committal to prison confessed to 36 highway robberies, 2 rapes, 1 assault whereof the victim died of his wounds, and 12 horse thefts. He also impeached about twenty minor lights, and with the execution of the warrants issued against these, the Gregory-Turpin *régime* may be said to have come to an end. It was about time.

A. M. P.

(To be continued)

THE QUARTERLY RECORD

A POLICE COLLEGE FOR ENGLAND AND WALES

READERS of *The Police Journal* will recall the descriptions of the Police Colleges which have comparatively recently been established in two important capitals: the Police Institute at Berlin, established in 1927 for furnishing special courses of study for chief officials of all branches of the service and also for undertaking research work (vol. ii. p. 243); and the Police College at New York, established in 1929 for providing general and special instruction and research in every branch of the Department's activities (vol. iii. p. 342). Lt.-Col. J. Hall-Dalwood in his article on Police Training and Education (vol. ii. p. 636) envisaged for England a curriculum leading up to a diploma.

On the 4th March, 1930, the views of the Secretary of State for the Home Department as to the institution of a Police College for England on certain specific lines, and subject to certain specific conditions, were placed before the Police Council of England and Wales, a body of representatives of Police Forces and Police Authorities constituted under the Police Act of 1919. The salient features of his proposals were: (a) a resident two years' course; (b) entry by selection, subject to a qualifying examination; (c) the maintenance of a record of 'passed police college' officers; and (d) the eventual enactment of 'passed police college' as a necessary condition for appointment to Chief Constable. On the 14th April, 1930, a Sub-Committee of the Police Council was appointed to consider and report upon the scheme; and the Report of this Sub-Committee (H.M. Stationery Office, 1930, 6d.) was issued on the 25th September, 1930 (after the October issue of *The Police Journal* had gone to press). It was recommended by this Sub-Committee that all Police Authorities, Chief Officers of Police, and all ranks of the Police Service, should have an opportunity of considering the scheme in the light of the Report.

The following analysis of the Report will show how far it met the two lines of criticism to which the original scheme was subjected: on the one hand, that it was unneeded, that it would be a needless expense, that it would turn out theorists; on the other hand, that it did not go far enough. The Home Secretary had himself outlined in Parliament, on the 7th May, 1930, that the scheme was intended for the double purpose of providing officers who have special qualifications with opportunities for widening their horizon and of instituting a centre for research; and that the scheme was not primarily intended as a means of providing instruction in the everyday work of the Police Force.

The conclusions and recommendations were chiefly as follow: The Sub-Committee were confident that a Police College established on the lines proposed would conduce to a higher standard of police efficiency. The course should be for two years, and should include travel study, to enable officers to gain experience of police work elsewhere, at home and abroad. Entry should be governed by a Central Selection Board and should be limited, so far as England and Wales are concerned, to 50 per annum from those who

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have had at least five years' police service and have passed for Sergeant; a certificate should be given to those who pass out successfully, with money grants for those achieving distinction; and a register of all passed officers should be maintained at the Home Office. The College should provide (1) a full course for higher training for instructors, detectives, staff officers and Chief Officers; (2) facilities for higher instruction in particular subjects, and (3) facilities for research. As regards the syllabus for the first part, the instruction falls into the following main groups: (a) *General Subjects*, to provide a general background, including English, History and Geography, Law, Administration, Office Methods, Ethnology, Modern Languages; (b) *Police Administration*, including History of Police and Police Administration, Police Acts and Police Organization and Finance, Personnel and Discipline, Mechanical Equipment, Buildings, Uniform, Supplies; (c) *Police Duties*, including Criminal Law, Prevention of Crime, Criminal Investigation, Traffic Emergency Duties, Special Constabulary; and (d) *Supplementary Subjects*, including Psychology, Treatment of Offenders, Firearms, Drill and Horses. The Sub-Committee pointed out, however, that the functions and technique of the police service are constantly changing; and so they put forward these suggestions in no dogmatic spirit.

The Sub-Committee further proposed that the College should be under a Principal, to be assisted by a General Purposes Committee; and that the cost should be part of the normal police expenditure of the country, to be met in equal parts by the Exchequer and local funds, and should cover all the pay, rent allowances, and separation allowances of officers taking the course. The total capital cost was estimated at £150,000 as a maximum figure and the recurrent annual charges at about £70,000, including pay to be charged to funds among the given charges to be shared among the forces in proportion to strength, etc. The gross annual charge on local funds was estimated at £130 for a force 100 strong, of which one half would be recovered from the Exchequer.

It was foreshadowed that a scheme of this nature might with advantage serve the purposes of the Scottish Forces as well as those of England and Wales, and it was suggested that the possibilities of extension to other forces within the Empire be explored.

The Editor will welcome any contribution on the subject of the establishment of a Police College for England and Wales, or on its extension to other Police Forces.

THE THIRD INTERNATIONAL POLICE CONGRESS, ANTWERP, 1930

(From *The Police Journal* Correspondent at Antwerp)

THE *Third International Police Congress* was opened on the 25th September, and terminated on the 30th September, 1930. There were present representatives of the following countries: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, China, Czecho-Slovakia, Denmark, Finland, France, Great Britain, Germany, the States of Prussia, Saxony, Bavaria, and the Free Hanse Towns of Hamburg and Bremen, Greece, Holland, Hungary, Irish Free State, Italy, Latvia, Monaco, Norway, Palestine, Poland, Roumania, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United States of America, Yugo-Slavia (see vol. iii. p. 497).

Monsieur Louwage, Commissioner-in-Chief aux Délégations Judiciaires, Brussels, opened the Congress by presenting Monsieur Servais, a Belgian Minister of State, who had been delegated by Monsieur Janson, Belgian Minister of Justice, to preside at the opening meeting.

Monsieur Servais, on behalf of the Belgian Government, welcomed the representatives of the various countries present, notably those from such distant lands as China, Palestine, and the United States of America. He said he had a personal interest in Criminal Police matters as he had taken a very active part in the foundation, after the Great War, of the Belgian State Criminal Detective Department.

He dwelt upon the necessity of close collaboration and co-operation between the criminal police services of all countries for the suppression of international crime and hoped that the Congress would materially assist in attaining these ends.

Monsieur Matkovic then took the chair, and during the succeeding sittings this office was filled in rotation by the Vice Presidents of the International Criminal Police Commission, Monsieur Louwage, Herr Menzel, Monsieur Matkovic and Mr. Norman Kendal.

The Congress occupied itself in the examination and discussion of a large variety of questions of international importance, including: the traffic in dangerous drugs; extradition; forgery of currency and of commercial documents such as cheques, bills of exchange, etc., and wireless communication between the Police of the various countries. Sub-committees were formed to inquire closely into these subjects.

Reports concerning these matters had also been prepared by delegates to the Congress, and during the ensuing proceedings these were delivered, together with other papers suggesting measures for the creation of an organization for the identification of criminals of international interest and the collection and classification of data concerning them.

Full accounts were also read dealing with the various activities of the International Criminal Police Commission during the past four years.

The Congress was fortunate in securing the assistance of a number of distinguished criminologists, who delivered lectures upon subjects in which they had specialized for many years. These included a lecture by Professor S. Türkel, of Vienna, showing the value of research in microphotography, and by Dr. de Rechter, the director of the School of Criminology and Scientific Police of Brussels, who described the most modern and up-to-date methods of detecting forgeries of documents and Old Masters, accompanied by lantern illustrations of the work made possible by X-ray and ultra-violet photography. Dr. de Rechter also delivered a further lecture on the evils of the indiscriminate distribution to the public of lurid and repulsive photographs and details of crimes of violence, published in a continental newspaper.

Dr. S. Ottolenghi, University Professor and Director of the Police School at Rome, spoke with enthusiasm on Criminal Biology.

At the last sitting of the Congress, the sub-committees submitted their reports and the following resolutions were passed:

1. That delegates of the International Criminal Police Commission be appointed to attend the Conference which will be held at Madrid in connexion with Wireless Telegraphy, in order to bring forward certain points which concern Police.
2. (a) That the delegates present should transmit to their respective Governments the desire that all laws concerning dangerous drugs should be uniform.
- (b) That central offices of information regarding this matter and of the identification of individuals concerned, be created, with an International Office at Vienna.
- (c) That delegates shall, upon invitation from the League of Nations, be sent to Geneva to attend the conferences concerning opium and

other drugs. It is suggested that, in cases where the delegate to the League of Nations is not a member of Police, a Police Official be nominated to accompany him.

3. Regarding false currency, the Congress note with interest that an International Office is functioning at Vienna, in co-operation with national central offices. The hope was expressed that delegates from the International Office at Vienna would continue to assist the Conferences of the League of Nations pending the creation by the League itself of an International Office. It was also suggested that the Convention of Geneva dated 20th April, 1929, dealing with bank notes, should be extended to include cheques, bills of exchange, letters of credit and other valuable documents.
4. With regard to White Slave Traffic, it was resolved that delegates should propose to their Governments that effective laws be passed in order that this scourge can be fought and a surveillance be kept on the centres where the trafficking of young girls is carried on.
5. Concerning extradition, it was resolved that the examination of the project of Monsieur Louwage for an International Convention shall be continued, in conjunction with the various international judicial authorities.

The Congress then terminated.

At a meeting of the International Criminal Police Commission held immediately afterwards, the propositions put forward by the Congress were considered and a programme arranged for future activities.

The President of the Commission, Herr Schober, will continue in this office, and the representatives of France and Poland—Monsieur Ducloux and Dr. Nagler—were elected as Vice-Presidents in place of the two retiring Vice-Presidents—Monsieur Louwage of Belgium and Monsieur Matkovi of Yugo-Slavia. A fully representative committee will assist these gentlemen in the activities of the Commission during the forthcoming year.

IMPERIAL CONFERENCE

BEFORE these notes appear the Imperial Conference, 1930, will have done its work and may have issued its report. The importance of this Conference is great, but its significance is by no means plain to the ordinary citizen except on the economic side of its task. The man in the street may well wonder why the great peoples of the British Commonwealth of Nations should find it necessary to send prime ministers, ministers, lawyers and experts to discuss legal and constitutional problems which he believes to be of no practical importance. If something can be done to stimulate inter-Imperial trade and to relieve industrial depression, well and good. But why should an army of lawyers and civil servants be allowed to tinker with the British Empire and to split hairs over constitutional problems of their own invention? Why keep on pulling up the plant by the roots to see how it is growing?

This point of view, so frequently expressed, is not very easy to meet. There can be few people who are not at heart proud to have some share in the world-wide organization now called the British Commonwealth of Nations. It widens the horizon of all of us and distracts our attention from the politics of the parish pump; but most of us would find it difficult to express the feeling it provokes except in terms of vague satisfaction and of loyalty to the Crown. Sir John Marriott recently observed (in an article published in the *October Fortnightly Review*) that 'The Crown—the symbol of British monarchy—evokes a passionate loyalty among millions to whom forms of

Government are merely a matter of verbal controversy.' That is well said; and we may be sure that the delegates at the present Imperial Conference who have to tackle the problem of adjusting the relations to each other of the nations of the British Commonwealth will lay stress once more on the famous declaration of the Conference of 1926, that these nations are 'united by a common allegiance to the Crown.' We observe that the items in the published agenda of the Conference include one subject which is directly connected with this allegiance—a subject in which many police officers have some concern, viz. nationality. We all know, or think we know, what British nationality is. It is the nationality possessed by British subjects, and it covers the nationality of all British subjects, whether they live in Great Britain, Canada, Australia, or any other part of the British Empire or abroad. This constitutes a personal link between each of the individual inhabitants of the Commonwealth though their homes may be ten thousand miles apart. The practical application of this principle has hitherto been comparatively simple, apart from the difficulty (to which police officers are by no means strangers) of deciding whether a particular person is or is not a British subject. For example, an apparent Chinaman may claim to be a British subject on the ground that he was born in Hong Kong; and if he proves that he was born in Hong Kong he clearly became at birth a British subject. But new problems of nationality may arise from the creation of different 'nationalities' within the British Commonwealth in order to distinguish the various groups of British subjects who belong to particular Dominions, e.g. Canada or South Africa. It will be interesting to see what the Imperial Conference has to say on the subject.

THE LAW OF NUISANCE, CIVIL AND CRIMINAL

It is not always easy to see where is the dividing line between civil and criminal law. Some time ago in these notes we had occasion to refer to the difficulty in which a police constable is sometimes placed when, on his assistance being sought by a member of the general public, he has to make up his mind whether the matter is one in which it is proper for him to intervene. Broadly speaking, it is not the business of a police officer to interfere in any matter in which the preservation of law and order is not involved, or which affects only the *civil* rights and remedies of the citizen. But as there are many kinds of acts or conduct which may give rise either to civil or criminal proceedings, or both, the problem is not an easy one. One of the most conspicuous examples of such acts is to be found in the law relating to 'Nuisance.'

The principle underlying the law of nuisance is peculiarly English, or perhaps one should say British. It is an old invention of the common law of England which has found its way into almost every part of the King's dominions. A 'nuisance' in its broadest sense was once described with great elaboration by a Vice-Chancellor of the nineteenth century as 'an inconvenience materially interfering with the ordinary comfort physically of human existence, not merely according to elegant or dainty modes and habits of living, but according to plain and sober, simple notions among the English people.' We may resort to simpler language and say that nuisances are either 'public' or 'private'; that a public nuisance is a matter for the criminal law only, unless special loss is suffered by an individual, in which case he may have a civil claim for damages; and that in the case of a private nuisance (which is so called because it is something which interferes with the 'personal enjoyment of land'), the law provides a curt remedy only. A public nuisance is an indictable misdemeanour at common law, and it may cover an infinite

variety of things which are dangerous to public health or safety or to the property, morals or comfort of the public, or which obstruct the enjoyment of rights common to all His Majesty's subjects. The law reports contain many examples of cases in which indictments have been laid in respect of such matters. For instance, it is a nuisance indictable at common law to keep gunpowder or other explosives in dangerous proximity to streets or houses; or to leave an unfenced excavation or quarry near a highway (see *Hardcastle v. South Yorks Railway Co.*, 28 L.J. (N.S.) Ex. 139); or to keep a 'fierce and unruly bull' in a field crossed by a public footway (see Archbold, *Criminal Pleadings*, p. 1317). The doing of certain things is declared to be by statute a nuisance at common law, or as it is sometimes called 'a common nuisance.' Thus, the making and selling of fireworks, or throwing them about in the street, was declared to be a common nuisance under an enactment passed more than 200 years ago and now repealed (9 and 10 William III, c. 7). In order to find out how boys who throw fireworks about in the street may now be dealt with and punished summarily, one has to look at Section 80 of the Explosives Act, 1875. But an indictment at common law might still be preferred against any urchin who does this if it amounts to a 'nuisance.' Indeed the remedy by indictment is still preserved in most, if not all, of the many kinds of 'nuisance' which have now become punishable summarily under various statutes, including the Public Health Acts.

ROAD TRAFFIC ACT, 1930

THIS new and important code of law on a subject which affects every inhabitant of the realm is a fine achievement. It is the result of prolonged study and consideration by the members of the Royal Commission on Transport and others who are in a position to draw sound conclusions from the experience gained in the last thirty years. Something had to be done to protect civilization against the advancing tide of motor traffic, which has already nearly swamped our roads. This Act may well prove to be a model code of great assistance to those overseas Dominions who may now or hereafter be faced with the necessity of dealing with this problem in comprehensive fashion.

The Act contains and sets up an entirely new scheme for the licensing and control of 'public service vehicles' engaged in motor transport. Previous enactments designed to discourage the drivers of all kinds of motor vehicles from doing any avoidable mischief on the highway are re-enacted and extended, and new provisions based upon new principles are introduced with regard to the fitness of motor vehicles and their drivers. Among the latter are Section 12—which relates to what is called "careless driving"—and Section 15, which creates what has aptly been called 'vehicular drunkenness' and which imposes penalties on persons who drive motor vehicles when under the influence of drink or drugs to such an extent as to be incapable of having proper control of the vehicle.

The Courts will in due course, no doubt, be called upon to elucidate doubtful points as to the meaning and application of these new provisions. What, for example, is driving 'without due care and attention, or without reasonable consideration for other persons using the road'? What is the standard of care required and in relation to what circumstances is it to be determined? Is the Section intended to cover only such want of due care and attention as exists where a driver fails to keep a proper look-out? The motorist has hitherto been and still is liable to a penalty if he drives on a road recklessly, or at a speed or in a manner which is dangerous to the

public, having regard to all the circumstances. Danger to the public is not an element of this new offence, and the carelessness which may constitute the offence would appear to be very much the same thing as negligence which constitutes a cause of action in a civil claim for damages. Again, if, on a muddy day, a motorist drives so close to a pavement as to splash mud on to foot-passengers, he may obviously be guilty of the offence of driving without reasonable consideration for other persons using the road.

We may add that one of the most interesting, and we hope effective, provisions in this Act is to be found in Section 10 (6), which deals with the growing mischief resulting from attempts by the drivers of public service vehicles to keep to time tables issued by their employers. This has been the cause of much excessive speed and, in one case—*Newman v. Overington* (1929), 93, J.P. 46—the employers were held to be liable for aiding and abetting the offence of exceeding the speed limit committed by their employee in an effort to adhere to the time table. Section 10 (6) facilitates prosecutions in such cases by providing for the production of the time table as *prima facie* evidence that the employer 'procured' the commission of the offence.

POLICE GOLD MEDAL ESSAY COMPETITION.

Owing to the resignation of Colonel M. M. Hartigan, C.M.G., D.S.O., certain alterations have been made in the Council of the Police Gold Medal Essay Competition. The following are the present members :—

SIR LEONARD DUNNING, Bart., late H.M. Inspector of Constabulary.

SIR MALCOLM SETON, K.C.B., Deputy Under-Secretary of State, India Office.

BRIG.-GENERAL SIR WILLIAM H. MANNING, G.C.M.G., K.B.E., C.B., late Governor of Ceylon.

SIR REGINALD CRADDOCK, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., late Governor of Burma.

SIR HESKETH BELL, G.C.M.G., late Governor of Mauritius.

LT.-COL. J. F. C. CARTER, C.B.E., Deputy Assistant Commissioner, New Scotland Yard.

SIR JOHN G. CUMMING, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., M.A., late Indian Civil Service.

REVIEWS

FÄLSCHUNGEN (FORGERIES). Contributions by various writers, edited by DR. S. TÜRKEL. 1930. (Publications of the Vienna Criminological Laboratory : Ulr. Moser's Verlag, Graz.)

THIS publication is of considerable interest to those engaged in the scientific investigation of cases of forgery. The present number contains eight articles, illustrated by photographs, and includes two by the editor, Professor Dr. Siegfried Türk, Director of the Laboratory of Criminology in Vienna (see vol. iii. p. 469).

Of recent years cases of forgery of works of art have been a common occurrence ; pictures long supposed to be genuine Old Masters are frequently discovered to be worthless frauds ; it is therefore instructive to read of the progress which has been made in the scientific examination of pictures with a view to detecting forgeries. Such articles as 'The Use of the Röntgen Rays,' 'Identification of Pictures,' 'Faked Drawings and Prints,' 'Microscopical, Chemical and Micro-Chemical Investigation of Works of Art,' are all valuable contributions to this branch of criminology, as is one which deals with faked natural objects, such as zoological specimens, fossils, crystals, etc.

'Counterfeit Seals' treats of sealing-wax of different kinds, its constituents, imitation seals and their manufacture, and the methods used in their detection.

There is also an article on faked book-bindings, formerly a rich field for the forger ; also an interesting essay entitled 'A Schubert Forgery,' the work of a student, describing his investigations of a note purporting to have been written by the composer.

A list of the scientific publications of the Vienna Criminological Laboratory includes works on 'The Single Finger Print System,' 'Cypher Systems,' 'Imitation Pearls and Jewels and their Detection,' 'Faked Prehistoric Objects,' 'The Eye as Basis of Identification,' 'Picture-telegraphy in the Service of the Police,' 'Album of Pencil-writing,' 'Invisible Rays in the Service of Criminology,' and others.

FAMOUS AMERICAN POISON MYSTERIES. By EDWARD H. SMITH. 18s. (Hurst & Blackett, Ltd.)

THE thesis maintained in most of these nineteen cases is that the poisoner is not a diabolically clever person but the reverse. In history poison has passed from the strong and has become the weapon of the weak and timid. Detection is sure, even if microbes of disease are employed ; the source of rare poisons will be traced, and hence the preference for the commoner kinds, though their effects are readily recognizable. Poisoners, if they escape conviction, are ruined and demeaned : many are maniacs, fitter for the asylum than the electric chair.

Thus Mrs Botkin is found unbalanced, Harris an emotional cripple, Buchanan a fool ; Molineux, years after trial, went mad ; the ale-bottle

poisoner was distracted by his wife's death; Mrs. Schenk, if guilty, was inconceivably stupid; Mrs. Vermilya, with her arsenic pepper-pot and her nine victims (2 husbands, five relatives and two boarders), was a necrophile. Mrs. Monahan, who poisoned a niece and three husbands (the last out of habit), was a killer, but mentally abnormal. Mrs. Archer-Gilligan, who despatched two husbands, besides four and perhaps twenty-four or more of the inmates of her Home, was mad and irresponsible. Mors, who confessed to murdering eight inmates of a German Home, was a necromaniac. Waite, who poisoned his wife's father and mother, was a 'sick optimist.'

The reader may demur and question whether the preservation of such types would not be a danger to besides an unnecessary burden on the community. The opinion of the residents of Croydon might be more emphatic. Why e.g. is the execution of the Baptist minister, who tricked his betrayed fiancée into poisoning herself in order that he might marry an heiress, called a judicial murder?

Richeson was a 'poor epileptic' possessed of a 'dual personality' and 'hermaphroditic beauty,' but surely, if ever, *ὡς ἀπόλοιτο καὶ ἄλλος*. . . .

Two of the cases would be impossible for fiction.

Johann Hoch, executed 1906, married certainly twenty-four, probably thirty-five, and perhaps fifty women, about half of whom he poisoned and the remainder he deserted. Physically repellent, he attributed his success to flattery and pretended wealth. Like the 'baths' Smith, he apparently possessed hypnotic powers, and his fellow-prisoners and even the jail chaplain were convinced of his innocence.

Dr. Bowers, after poisoning two wives, was in April 1886 sentenced to death for poisoning a third. He appealed, and in October 1887 induced one Dimmig, who had married his housekeeper, to poison the third wife's brother and forge a confession that he, the brother, had murdered his sister. Dimmig was tried in 1888, but one jury disagreed and a second acquitted. Therefore the confession was adjudged true and Bowers emerged triumphant to marry a fourth wife.

This is not the sole attack on American criminal procedure. In five of the cases the investigation was mainly conducted by the Press, and one accused is stated to have been tried by newspaper.

Harris, sentenced January 1892 and Buchanan April 1893, were executed May 1893 and July 1895. Billik, sentenced July 1907 to death for five poisonings, owing to agitation headed by a priest had his sentence commuted, but not till January 1910. Hyde, sentenced 1910 to life-imprisonment, had three subsequent trials and was discharged 1917. The sentence of hanging on Mrs. Archer-Gilligan, November 1917, horrified the women of Connecticut and she was sent to an asylum, but not till January 1919.

The narratives are so picturesque and dramatic that the gruesomeness of the subject escapes notice. Perhaps the chief lesson to be learnt is that in the investigation of an obscure poisoning case the possibility must not be ignored of the existence of an inveterate slayer, mad and motiveless.

RAFFLES IN REAL LIFE. The Confessions of GEORGE SMITHSON, *alias* 'Gentleman George.' 12s. 6d. (Hutchinson & Co.)

THE author, the most notorious English burglar of recent years, discloses his history as follows. Aged nineteen, in 1910 robbed his father, ran away from home and after two small beginnings burgled profitably in thirteen counties; November 1910, sent to a Borstal institution for three years; January 1913 rented with an associate a furnished house in a Buckinghamshire village, posing as an American medical student, and burgling various country houses

throughout England till May, when sentenced to five years in Maidstone and Portland. Early in 1917 was enrolled in the Marines, but deserted, and in a subaltern's uniform burgled in the north of England till December, when he received five years in Parkhurst. After November 1922 occupied a flat in Kensington with a wife, who believed him a commercial traveller; burgled some £100,000 worth of property from country mansions in England and Scotland till April 1923, when sentenced to eight years in Dartmoor; released 1929 and became respectable.

Smithson's depredations were often attributed to a gang, but he generally worked singly and simply. He merely selected a country seat from Debrett, travelled by night to the neighbourhood, effected entrance after a prowling round, and returned to London with his booty, sometimes despoiling other large houses near by, on the same night.

The reader, while recognizing George's skill, coolness and courage, will probably conclude that his dress and speech must have been exceptional to earn him his sobriquet, although he did once refuse to share with a bigamist in return for a share in a lady. Many of his observations, some of which are quoted below, deserve careful attention.

He does not support the view that a burglar's profession since the war has become more profitable. Though property worth some £250,000 passed through his hands, he depended for its disposal on a cowardly and treacherous associate, who was fleeced by fences. He considers a burglar's a dog's life; every convict contemplates death by his own hand; there is no money in crime except in company-promoting on a large scale.

Borstal is a ghastly failure, due chiefly to want of classification; the best Borstal boys develop into the worst criminals; initial imprisonment might possibly have checked his own career. He found the worst of his prisons the Scotch and the best Parkhurst, where he knew and describes Trebitch Lincoln, Stinie Morrison, and the Dartmoor Shepherd. In criminals brute force and brains seldom go together; the worst prisoners curiously imagine they get their own back by misbehaviour. Flogging never cures. In a prison official visits are a farce, there is no such thing as secrecy, no one wants religion, and it is impossible to concentrate on any intellectual pursuit; escape is not difficult but not worth while. Prisoners do not have enough suitable work; the chief reform needed is a system of allowing convicts to earn money they can use on release. The hopelessness of a ticket-of-leave man's future is the worst feature of the English prison system.

When unknown to the police, a man can commit almost any crime in England. The carelessness of servants is unbelievable; up to a certain point burglary is fatally easy. A burglar's best weapons are stealth and silence; he should never carry firearms and should hide any found; dogs and burglar-alarms can be disregarded. There is a fascination for burglars in retaining a mass of incriminating unrealizable property. Crooks will often help a destitute crook, but never one trying to reform. The average British crook of to-day is a dirty sycophant.

Some passages will provoke antagonism, but the book is instructive to a policeman, and its interest is undeniable.

CRIME AND DETECTION. 2s. net cloth; 3s. 6d. net leather. (Humphrey Milford.)

THIS is volume 301 of the well-known Oxford University Press series, 'The World's Classics,' first published in 1926 with an introduction by the late Mr. E. Murray Wrong. It contains twelve stories of crime and detection, not

necessarily the best examples of their kind available, as Mr. Wrong says, but representative tales selected for the literary quality of the writing as well as for the ingenuity of the plot.

Mr. Wrong traces the genre back to Herodotus and the Apocrypha, but notes that it is only within the last eighty years that it has become a branch of art. From this point of view it begins with Poe (1841), who in his three tales set for all time one of the two lines on which the detective story has grown, viz. a private investigator's feats chronicled by an unimagined friend. Wilkie Collins in *The Woman in White* and *The Moonstone*; Dickens in *Edwin Drood*; Gaboriau, Du Boisgobey and others carried on the tradition, but in the alternative and less rigorous form, the confidential friend being eliminated and the narrative set forth in the third person. Forty years after Poe we return to the Dupin canon with Conan Doyle's *A Study in Scarlet* (1887). Since then the successors of Sherlock Holmes have been legion. Mr. Morrison's Martin Hewitt, Dr. Freeman's Thorndyke, Miss Christie's Poirot, Mr. Mason's Hanaud, Mr. Bentley's Trent, Mr. Chesterton's Father Brown, Mr. Bailey's Mr. Fortune, Mr. Bramah's Max Carrados and Mr. Milne's Antony Gillingham are a few of the most famous.

The appeal of the detective story is mainly intellectual and its most devoted adherents are found principally among the highly educated who appreciate its subtle and ingenious mechanism. But there must be emotion in it as well, though subordinated to the intellectual interest, and our moral sense must be satisfied by the triumph of virtue in the form of the detective over vice in the shape of the criminal. The most artistic stories have dealt with a single crime, preferably a murder. Tales of universal master-criminals or of giant conspiracies against civilisation have been less successful and it is interesting to note that the narrative of crime pure and simple has not proved capable of such high development as the detective story proper.

In the present collection Poe is represented by two of his tales, the gruesome 'Murders in the Rue Morgue' and 'The Purloined Letter,' and Conan Doyle by one of his own favourites, 'The Adventure of the Red-Headed League.' For elaborate scientific effects and ingenuity, the pick of the bunch are perhaps 'The Case of Oscar Brodski' and 'The New Jersey Sphinx,' by R. Austin Freeman, while G. K. Chesterton's 'The Invisible Man' is a good example of his freakish and ironic humour. Arthur Morrison, Ernest Bramah, H. C. Bailey, E. W. Hornung and Barry Pain are the other authors represented.

All the tales are by master-hands and the little volume will repay close study.

LAW BREAKERS. By CHARLES KINGSTON. 12s. 6d. net. (John Lane.)

THIS volume by Mr. Charles Kingston, the author of several similar compilations, consists of thirty chapters divided into four parts entitled 'Criminals with Two Personalities,' 'Miscarriages of Justice,' 'Unique Cases,' and 'Strange Stories' respectively.

This classification is loose and not very logical. For instance Chapter XVI, 'The Case of Dr. Smethurst,' Chapter XIX, 'The Silence of Edmund Pine,' Chapter XX, 'Acquitted yet Guilty,' and Chapter XXI, 'Wrongfully Acquitted,' in Parts 3 and 4 might equally well appear in Part 2, 'Miscarriages of Justice.'

In the first Part an outstanding case is that of Thomas Griffiths Wainwright, artist, art-critic, friend of Charles Lamb, dandy and *poseur*, forger and poisoner. Other interesting examples of double personality are James Townsend Seward, usually known as 'Jim the Penman,' barrister and forger,

William Palmer of Rugeley, doctor and poisoner, described as the supreme hypocrite, Charles King, detective and thief-trainer, and Levi Weil, doctor and burglar.

'Miscarriages of Justice' include the cases of David Leany, hanged owing to cocksure but mistaken medical evidence, Charles McLoughlin executed for the murder of his stepfather, largely thanks to the obstinate silence which he maintained in his determination to shield his worthless mother, the real culprit, and William Habron convicted of the murder of police constable Cock who was actually one of the victims of the notorious Charles Peace as the latter subsequently confessed.

Among 'Unique Cases' are the cold-blooded murder of Isabella Banks by Dr. Thomas Smethurst with his wife's connivance, and the remarkable record of Christiana Edmunds, who, having failed to kill Mrs. Beard with chocolates impregnated with strychnine, resorted to the wholesale circulation of similar poisoned sweets, reckless of the result, in order to throw suspicion on the confectioner and divert it from herself. 'The Skeleton in the Barn' shows how several prosperous farmers in a small Worcestershire village bribed a local carpenter to murder the parson and then made away with the murderer because the police were on his track and they feared detection. Another lurid case is that of Mrs. Bacon's murder at Chatham by her young maid, Elizabeth Laws, which resulted in a failure of justice.

The chapters in these first three Parts deal each with a single crime or individual criminal, but Part 4 is somewhat scrappy and discursive and does not lend itself to summary review. It contains, however, many good stories such as that of the fall of Edwin James, Q.C., and that of Cooper who inherited a fortune of £80,000 while a convict at Dartmoor and went mad because he could not enjoy it.

The book is written in a racy style and will prove entertaining to those interested in the details of almost-forgotten crimes.

COPS AND ROBBERS. By JOHN RUSSELL. 7s. 6d. net. (Thornton Butterworth.)

ALL these stories are more or less thrilling, but the thrills are of very different kinds. Some of the detective stories will appeal chiefly to boys, big and little. These, with their many Americanisms, are mostly told in a vivid, snappy, hustling way that leaves one little or no time to reflect on the probability, or improbability, of the tale.

But one of them raises a question about the effect of a knock-out blow that may well interest some police officers. For many of the police nowadays are qualified first aiders, with an interest in elementary physiology, while every policeman worth his salt is something of a psychologist. And here is a question of alcohol and injury, and their combined effect on consciousness.

Does a slight degree of alcoholic exaltation—the bane of the motorist—tend to increase or diminish the effect of injury? And, conversely, does injury tend to minimise or aggravate evidences of slight intoxication?

Some of the stories are concerned with neither 'Cops' nor 'Robbers,' but these, with their unexpected denouements, have a rather pathetic interest of their own, especially the very weird ghost story with which the book opens. And some of these stories tell of an unselfishness which is rare indeed; others make the career of crime seem exciting, but none glorify it. The criminal never wins in the long run, and the run is by no means always long.

INSTIGATION OF THE DEVIL. By EDMUND PEARSON. 10s. 6d. net. (Charles Scribner's Sons. New York. London. 1930.)

THE chapters of this book are, the author tells us, reproductions of articles he has contributed to *Vanity Fair*, with additions to most of them of half a page to four or five pages. A chapter is devoted to the Tichborne Case, but apart from this the book deals mainly with the subject of murder, and most of the cases dealt with are murders of bygone days in America, though cases as modern as the Bywaters murder are touched upon in the course of his observations on murder and murderers in general.

The murderers whose deeds are narrated at length range in social rank from a French duke to a full-blooded Alabama negro. Though none of the cases presents any remarkably unusual method of killing, there are circumstances about most of them that put them outside the commonplace, and many are interesting for the insight they give into the life and procedure of the times and localities.

Throughout the book one finds passages indicating the author's contempt for American methods of dealing with murder trials, particularly when the person accused is a woman. 'New York,' he says, 'has executed only one woman in thirty years and only four or five in more than a century. All this time women have been murdering blithely, right and left.' His observations on detective novels, crook plays, female liars, imaginative witnesses, and misplaced public sympathy with murderers, add to the interest of the book.

HISTORY OF THE CRIMINAL TRIBES IN THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY. By E. RAMACHANDRA SASTRI. (Sri Rama Press. Madras.)

THE prime object of this book is presumably to instruct police officers and others concerned with the administration of the criminal law in India in the history, customs, and criminal methods of certain tribes in the Madras Presidency habitually addicted to crime. The matter is set out on the lines usually followed in manuals of this kind, and the book should prove useful to the class of reader for which it is intended and to all whose interest in the peoples of India extends beyond the more conspicuous elements of the population.

TRIAL OF MOTOR CAR ACCIDENT CASES. By A. D. GIBB. 20s. (Sweet and Maxwell, Ltd.)

THIS book—an adaptation of an American work by a member of the New York Bar and (as the author states in his preface) in part 'sheer translation' of that work—has the merit of novelty for those who study legal text books compiled on this side of the Atlantic. The method adopted is to set out *verbatim* all the questions which in varying circumstances should be put to the witnesses called on behalf of the plaintiff and defendant in a 'running-down' action; and the points involved in each branch of the subject are fully and carefully explained in the text. It is thus not only an 'A B C' guide for the practitioner in the preparation and conduct of 'running-down' actions, but also a useful text book on the law of negligence on the highway.

A considerable part of the book is devoted to the two most important witnesses—the driver and the injured pedestrian. Among other important points affecting the driver we are told on page 62 that his legal position on approaching a 'cross-roads' is now, thanks to a series of Scotch decisions, pretty clearly defined, and that drivers on a main road have no rights superior to those of drivers on a side road at a junction. It will be interesting to see

what the Traffic Code, shortly to be issued by the Minister of Transport for the guidance of road-users, may have to say on this point.

We think that the author might well have elaborated the sore subject of 'skidding' which, though referred to in the index, is not expressly mentioned anywhere in the text. The mere fact of skidding may be evidence that a car is being driven too fast having regard to the state of the road; and, if a collision results, the *onus* will usually be on the driver of that car to show that it was not his negligence which caused the accident. On the other hand, if one motor car collides with another as the result of the skidding of both cars, either party will have great difficulty in showing that it was the negligence of the other which caused the accident.

Police officers are often concerned, as witnesses, in litigation of this kind. If any police officer were to take the trouble to study the very useful notes provided by the author, he would find that the form in which the subject is presented in this work would bring vividly before him the issues which arise in a 'running-down' action and of the effect of his own evidence in relation to those issues.

FAMOUS AUSTRALIAN TRIALS: TRIAL OF R. G. GRIGGS. 13s. 6d. (Law Book Company of Australia: Sweet and Maxwell.)

MR. BUCHANAN has given us in this book an interesting and exhaustive account of one of the most remarkable criminal trials that have ever taken place in Australia. The accused, a Methodist parson, was tried in March 1928 on a charge of murdering his wife by arsenic poison. At that trial the jury were unable to agree and were discharged. A second trial was held in April 1928, and he was then acquitted. The motive suggested by the prosecution was that the accused wanted to get rid of his wife because he had become infatuated with a girl who lived in the same district and with whom he had admittedly had intimate relations.

The evidence against Griggs was circumstantial, as it must be almost necessarily in all such cases. In an introduction to the long *verbatim* record of the proceedings (which fills more than 250 pages of this book), Mr. Buchanan gives us, with a wealth of detail and local colour, the rather sordid story of the events which led up to the death of Mrs. Griggs. In describing the progress of events, the author shows much shrewd observation and our only regret is that he should have allowed himself to lapse at times into the language and style of melodrama. His comment on the whole matter is, in effect, that it puts in issue the jury system as applied to capital cases. He thinks there must be something wrong with a system which makes it possible for a jury to refuse to acquit at one trial and for another jury to acquit after hearing the same evidence at a second trial. He suggests that the cause may be found in the fact that a jury shrinks from a verdict which carries the death penalty; and he is evidently of the opinion that it would tend to the better protection of the community to abolish the death penalty, or at least to allow the jury a voice in deciding whether the extreme penalty shall be inflicted or not. We commend this book to those who are in search of material which may throw light on this difficult problem.

CRIMINAL LAW FOR EXAMINEES. By R. W. FARRIN. 6s. (Sweet and Maxwell, Ltd.)

IN carrying out the task of making the path easier for examinees Mr. Farrin has prepared answers to 134 well-chosen 'Questions' arranged under such headings as 'General Principles,' 'Offences against the State,' 'Offences

against Property,' etc. He has, in our judgment, done his work so efficiently that the result may well appeal, and be of real help, to many persons who have no intention of becoming 'examinees'; and among these persons we include police officers. As an example of the way in which Mr. Farrin has been able to combine the often mutually-destructive virtues of brevity and thoroughness, we may mention the reply which he gives on page 57 to the question, 'What are the circumstances in which the finder of lost goods may be guilty of stealing them?' The reply sets out clearly in less than a single page all that one need know of the governing principles and their application. Finally, we may observe that the author shows a sensible restraint in the citation of judicial decisions; and those to which he does refer are well chosen and helpful.

THE JAMESON RAID. By HUGH MARSHALL HOLE. 15s. (Philip Allan & Co.)

THE troubles and disputes which caused and were aggravated by the famous Jameson Raid are now happily removed from immediate controversy, and we can read the account of that extraordinary adventure without the danger of having our judgments blurred by violent partisan prejudices. At the time, as this book vividly reminds us, it was not so easy. The Uitlanders, our countrymen in the Transvaal, were denied many of the privileges of citizenship by Kruger's corrupt government. Our British racial sympathies at home may have helped to exaggerate the degree of those disabilities. Anyhow at the time, the dashing invasion of the Transvaal by Dr. Jameson, with his handful of men, fired the imagination, and the amazing telegram of congratulation sent by the German Emperor to President Kruger further helped to make him a hero. Nevertheless the raid was a serious crime. It was an attack by an armed force on an officially friendly country, and it added materially to the difficulties of the Colonial Office in a peculiarly delicate situation. The story, its causes and results, are admirably told in these pages. And the conclusions which are drawn are fair, without being merely colourless.

The publishers desire to obtain some copies of the July 1929 issue (Vol. II. No. 7) for binding purposes. They will be pleased to hear from any reader who possesses a clean copy of this number and is willing to part with it.

THE POLICE JOURNAL

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JULY 1931

Notes on Recent Crime

JAMES VAUGHAN, a miner and lay preacher, was tried at Monmouth Assizes before Mr. Commissioner Cave for attempting to murder his wife by putting sulphuric acid in her early morning cups of tea. Vaughan had contracted a liaison with a war-widow, and it was suggested by the defence that the wife had herself put the acid in the tea to punish him. The judge told the jury they had to 'choose between a diabolical act on the part of the wife and an equally diabolical act on the part of the husband.' The man was acquitted. An Italian of good family, named Martinucci, killed his English wife, to whom he had been married a year, in a fit of rage upon a confession by her of adultery. 'The punishment for adultery is not death, but the Divorce Court,' said Mr. Justice Humphreys, and he left it to the jury to say whether the provocation was great enough to reduce the crime from murder to manslaughter. The jury took the merciful view and the man was sentenced to seven years' penal servitude.

Wallace, an insurance agent and chess player, apparently devoted to his wife and of a kindly peaceable disposition, was found guilty before Mr. Justice Wright at Liverpool Assizes of murdering his wife by battering her head in with eleven ferocious blows. The evidence was unconvincing—fifteen minutes, at the most, opportunity for the crime: a mysterious telephone call which, unless one assumed the man to be guilty, proved nothing: a rather suspiciously cool demeanour; and that was all. The jury must have argued, 'if he didn't do it who did?'—a quite illegitimate way of looking at circumstantial evidence. The Court of Criminal Appeal have taken the unusual course in a murder case, for the second time in twenty years, of quashing the conviction,

under Section 4 of the Criminal Appeal Act, 1907, on the ground that 'the verdict could not be supported having regard to the evidence.' The case of a man, O'Connell, convicted of an indecent assault, before Judge Holman Gregory, at the Old Bailey, also illustrates that the Court of Criminal Appeal are not slow to quash a conviction where they think a real miscarriage of justice has taken place. The story told by the girl was, they considered, incredible, and the conviction was upset, though no misdirection was alleged. The man had been a bad witness and had created a bad impression by excessive volubility.

The Criminal Statistics for England and Wales in 1929 have just been published and contain, as usual, an interesting introduction. Indictable offences known to the police again show an increase—134,581 as against 130,469 in 1928. But there is no corresponding rise in the number of persons convicted, and this is put down to the modern humane custom of taking all outstanding charges into consideration on sentence. It is suggested that offenders trade on this, and that the 'serial' offender constitutes a new problem. A detailed comparison is made between the figures of persons, classified according to sex and age, who were convicted of indictable offences in 1907 and 1929, the figures in the meantime not being available. The figures show a considerable decrease in adult women convicted (6204 to 4848), a small decrease in adult males convicted (27,547 to 26,868), a small increase in the number of girls between 16 and 21 convicted, and a large increase in the number of boys and youths convicted (14,684 to 19,591), much the largest increase being in respect of boys under 16. The increase in juvenile crime was mostly in respect of shopbreaking, housebreaking and larceny. An attempt is made by comparison of figures for the North and South of England to discover how far this juvenile crime is due to industrial depression. The conclusion is reached that, while industrial depression has not added much to adult crime, it has enormously increased crime among young lads. Mr. Justice McCardie's view expressed to the grand jury of Surrey that

drink and poverty have little to do with crime, and that 'the great causes of crime still remain as they have been largely in the past—lust, greed, vanity and jealousy'—may or may not be true generally, but it does not seem to be true of juvenile crime.

There is an all-round increase, the Criminal Statistics show, in crimes of fraud, and there has been a large crop of them before the courts. The most important has been the Nottingham Corporation case, which lasted nine days before Mr. Justice Talbot at Nottingham Assizes. Leonard Ball, an order clerk to the gas department, who had in ten years passed £67,900 worth of bogus invoices for payment without discovery, was sent to seven years' penal servitude; and the tradesmen, who worked in with him, were sentenced, three to penal servitude, three to imprisonment, while two were bound over. A pay clerk, named Browne, and the treasurer of the Plymouth Co-operative Society were at Exeter Assizes sent to three and four years' penal servitude for gambling with the Society's money. In Scotland, Mr. Robinson, plaintiff in the Mr. A. case, and another man named Cavendish, have been sent to three years' penal servitude for obtaining £2000 to put on a horse on the old story that they could so hedge that the backer 'could not lose.' Charteris, bogus Bishop of Coventry and later of the Falkland Islands, who, as George Augustine Jennings, once stood for Parliament on spurious cheques, was at London Sessions sent to three years' penal servitude for fraud and conspiracy. Brynar James Owen, consulting engineer and ex-official of the Ministry of Agriculture, was sentenced to four years' penal servitude for obtaining £65,000 from two tractor companies by forging a Treasury letter. 'A genius out of touch with realities,' said the defence: 'but not out of touch with £65,000,' commented Mr. Justice Charles.

'Smash and grab' raids are a serious problem, particularly in London. The Criminal Statistics for 1929 show an increase in the Metropolitan Area from 135 in 1925 to 230 in 1929. The Common Serjeant at the Old Bailey has

said, 'These crimes have to be put down, for they have reached such a pass that nobody is safe,' and he followed his words with sentences of penal servitude for principals in the raids. Blackmailers, when convicted, continue to receive as a rule terms of penal servitude, but there is to be noted a tendency for juries in small cases, where they take a strong view against the prosecutor, to acquit. A somewhat unusual case was that of a man, Merrick, sentenced to three years' penal servitude, and a man, Shuttle, sentenced to twelve months' imprisonment for demanding £500 so that they should not attack a man in a paper called *The Financial Outlook*.

An arson case tried at the Old Bailey before Mr. Justice Avory raised interesting questions as to insanity. The prison doctor gave evidence that the man, Hopkins by name, was insane. He had a delusion that his wife had given him appendicitis. The judge cross-examined the doctor, and the jury found that the man was sane. In passing sentence of twenty months' imprisonment, the judge said that the man was more bad than mad. Some may ask how far judge and jury ought to decide against the medical testimony?

A real attempt seems to be in progress in America to deal with the gangs. After twenty-seven hours' deliberation, in the course of which twenty-four ballots are reported to have been taken, a Chicago jury convicted a gangster of the murder of Jake Lingle, a crime reporter and himself not unconnected with the crime he reported. The gangster was sentenced to fourteen years' imprisonment. Sixty times arrested, sixty times he had established an alibi. This is said to be the first big gang murder case ever to be tried in Chicago.

The Southampton Garage Murder (THE PODMORE CASE)

PART I.

AT 6.45 p.m. on 10th January, 1929, the following telephone message was received at Scotland Yard from the Chief Constable of Southampton (Mr. McCormac):

'A case of murder has occurred here. A man has been found shot in a room the door of which was padlocked. The body was found to-day and has probably been in the room some eight or nine weeks. Will you please send an officer down to investigate the matter.'

In response to this message Chief Inspector Prothero of the Central Office of the Criminal Investigation Department (now Superintendent Prothero) was instructed to proceed at once to Southampton, taking with him Detective Sergeant (now Detective Inspector) Young. Early next day he commenced, in co-operation with the borough police, one of the most difficult and complicated criminal investigations on record. This account of it necessarily gives only an outline of the case, and represents but a small selection from the vast mass of information collected and sifted over a period of more than a year.

The body had been found at No. 42 Grove Street, a garage or warehouse (hereinafter referred to as 'the garage') in a back street of a poor quarter of Southampton. The corpse was in an advanced stage of decomposition, but had been identified as that of a man named Vivian Messiter, who had been missing for about ten weeks. His disappearance had been reported at the time by Mr. Parrott, an ex-policeman, in whose house, (which was in another part of Southampton), he had been lodging. Mr. Parrott had informed the police that his lodger had gone out as usual after breakfast on the morning of 30th October, saying that he had an appointment, and had never returned.

It was not considered at the time that there was anything

particularly sinister about this disappearance ; it was ascertained that Messiter had recently come from America and had been receiving cablegrams in code from New York, and it was thought that he might have gone back there, or that his sudden departure might have something to do with American entanglements. He had arrived in Southampton in September to take up an appointment as agent for the Wolf's Head Oil Company of London, and 42 Grove Street, where his body was found, was the local depot of the Company. He had been living alone in a bed-sitting-room at Mr. Parrott's and was not known to have any acquaintances or friends in Southampton.

A few days after his disappearance the garage was visited by Southampton police officers in company with Mr. Parrott, because the Wolf's Head Company had asked the latter to find out whether the Morris Oxford car which they had supplied to Messiter was still at the garage. The entrance gates or doors were found locked, and the gates had to be opened from inside by Mr. Parrott climbing into a narrow alley or yard from the low roof of a small public-house next door. The doors of the warehouse building which constituted the rest of the garage were padlocked, and, after an unsuccessful attempt to force them, Mr. Parrott mounted some wooden steps leading to a loft over the garage and, after inspecting the loft and finding nothing there, he came down, and looking into the garage through a window, saw that there was a motor-car just inside. There were no signs of disorder, so the police and Mr. Parrott departed through the yard, opening the gates from the inside by withdrawing the bolts and pulling the doors inwards ; and the result of their visit was reported to the Company. Some days later the landlord of the public-house next door discovered that children playing in the street had managed to open the yard gates, as they were no longer bolted, and had tampered with the contents of the letter-box fastened to one of them ; he therefore secured the gates with a padlock.

Various other inquiries were made by the Wolf's Head Company, one of whose directors was a personal friend of Messiter, and a description of Messiter was circulated in the *Police Gazette*, but the garage at 42 Grove Street remained



THE SOUTHAMPTON GARAGE MURDER
THE TWO OUTER GATES OF THE GARAGE

THE SOUTHAMPTON GARAGE MURDER 327



THE SOUTHAMPTON GARAGE MURDER
INTERIOR OF THE WAREHOUSE BUILDING

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locked up and unvisited until the morning of 10th January, when a new agent, appointed in succession to the missing Messiter, proceeded to the garage in company with another man to take possession. Being unable, owing to the absence of the landlord of the public-house, to obtain the key of the yard gates, they climbed over into the yard, by way of the roof of the public-house, and then, with the assistance of a workman engaged in rebuilding the public-house, forced the padlock on the doors of the building. Entering it and walking past the car to the rear of the premises they were horrified to come upon a dead man lying on his back in a narrow space or passageway between wooden cases containing tins of oil. They jumped to the conclusion that it was the body of the missing Messiter and at once telephoned for the police, who quickly arrived on the scene and summoned the police surgeon. He made a preliminary examination of the body, noting its position and surroundings and taking specimens of what appeared to be splashes of blood on the floor and the packing cases.

The case was considered at first to be one of suicide, and so the body was removed to the local mortuary where the surgeon carried out a post-mortem examination the same afternoon. This disclosed a number of fractures to the skull and other injuries. The conclusion arrived at was that Messiter had been shot through the head, a clear-cut wound above the right ear with much splintering of the bone and a large wound above the left eye being thought to mark the entrance and exit of a bullet. The nature of the head injuries put suicide out of the question, and all the circumstances pointed to murder.

The features, being much decomposed and eaten by rats, were not recognisable, but the identity of the body as that of Messiter was established by Mr. Parrott, who recognised his former lodger by the colour of the hair, the shape of the head, the shoes, and the latchkey found in one of the pockets. Search of the body and the clothing yielded a locket containing a war service badge and photographs of a lady, a signet ring and a pair of links, all of which were identified as Messiter's property, but no money was found.

As soon as the Scotland Yard officers had been informed of the facts already in possession of the Southampton police,

they proceeded, with the assistance of Detective Inspector Chatfield and other local police officers, to prosecute inquiries about the murdered man and to direct an exhaustive search at the scene of the crime. Information obtained from the director of the Wolf's Head Company and from a married sister of the murdered man with whom Chief Inspector Prothero quickly got into touch (a letter from her having been found in Messiter's room) suggested a number of lines of inquiry which were followed up, but nothing came to light as regards Messiter's past which pointed to any possible motive for his murder, although his life had been not without incident and had been spent largely in Mexico and the Wild West. Educated at a small public school in England, Messiter had studied for the medical profession at Edinburgh University, but, throwing up this career, he went out to America and became an engineer. Coming back to England after twenty years, shortly before the Great War, he had served through it as a commissioned officer in the Northumberland Fusiliers and in 1919 had gone to the United States again. He had returned to England in the summer of 1928, and after a short tour on the Continent had taken up the agency for the Wolf's Head Company at Southampton as a means of livelihood. Such friends as he had in this country had not visited him at Southampton and knew little or nothing of the last few weeks of his life.

Regarding what was discovered at the scene of the crime, the garage was full of wooden cases stacked on top of each other and of drums of oil. A space about three feet wide between a pile of cases and four cases which had been placed on the floor was where the body had been found with legs outstretched and the head touching one of the cases which, together with others close by, was splashed with blood. Where the head had rested on the floor was a quantity of congealed blood with hair adhering to it. None of the blood splashes were at a height of more than three feet from the ground, which suggested that they were the result of blows delivered when Messiter had already been struck down and had fallen on the wooden cases. The body was clothed in a lounge suit, but the deceased had taken off the jacket of the suit and was wearing a dungaree coat and working gloves, which pointed to his having been

engaged in handling the oil or otherwise working just previously to being attacked. His body had probably been turned over on its back on to the floor by his assailant in order to search the clothes for valuables.

With the help of the police surgeon an attempt was made to reconstruct the crime on the assumption that Messiter had been shot from some little distance away and in falling had struck his head against a wooden case. No trace could, however, be found of any bullet or bullet marks.

On the back seat of the Morris Oxford car were six wooden cases containing tins of oil, which had presumably been placed there for delivery to customers. On the front seat of the car was a book containing names and addresses in Southampton and district and the following entry :

'Oct. 30/28 Received from Wolfs Head Oil Company commission on order S. Gover 5 gall. heavy at 6d. 2/6. (signed) H. F. Galton.'

The next page in this book had been torn out, and then came a page with the name and address 'Cromers & Bartlett, 25 Bold Street, 5 gallons heavy.' Both entries turned out to be in the writing of the deceased (except for the signature H. F. Galton). The first entry is referred to again later. As regards the second, inquiry showed that there was no Bold Street in Southampton nor any such firm as Cromers & Bartlett in the town.

There was also found in the car an invoice book with two carbon sheets. One of these sheets bore impressions of invoices to 'Cromer and Bartlett, 25 Bold St., Southampton,' and the other impressions of invoices to 'Baskerfield, Clayton Farm, Bantley Road, Nr. Winchester,' and 'Ben Jervis, the Crescent, Bassett.'

Other discoveries made at the garage were :

1. On moving one of the wooden cases at the spot where the body had been found the head ring (apparently gold) of a watch was picked up ; the ends of it had been forced apart as though the watch had been wrenched off.

2. On the floor behind one of the drums of oil a dirty piece of paper was picked up among the sawdust: it turned out to be part of a receipt written in ink :

' 5 Cranbury Avenue, October 20th.
ith thanks. Horne.'

3. In a small inner room at the back of the garage a small ball of paper was discovered on the top of an empty wooden case ; when unrolled and opened out it was seen to be a sheet of notepaper with the printed heading of the Wolf's Head Oil Company, and on it was written in pencil :

' Mr. W. F. Thomas,
I shall be at 42 Grove Street at 10.0 but not at noon.
V. Messiter.'

4. Near the door of the garage, some twenty-eight feet away from where the dead body was, a hammer was found between two oil drums in a position which indicated that it had been thrown or fallen there. On the hammer were hairs and stains as of blood, and its discovery, coupled with the extent and nature of the injuries to the head, opened up a new view as to how the crime had been committed.

These finds at the garage were made in the course of a most thoroughgoing search of the premises carried out by local officers on the 11th, 12th and 13th January.

The bed-sitting-room occupied by Messiter in Mr. Parrott's house had also been searched, and among the various papers, account books and memoranda the following letter found in a trunk clearly bore upon the discoveries at the garage :

' W. F. Thomas,
5, Cranberry Avenue,
Southampton.

23 Oct. 28.

Sir,

re your advert of the present inst. being in the motor trade and having a good connection among farmers and garage proprietors, I am sure I can do you good service in oil lines. I am constantly asked my opinion of such and I am sure that I can build up a good connection of same.

Trusting I shall have a reply to the favour of such.

I am Sir,

Yours truly,

William F. Thomas.'

Meanwhile other inquiries had been prosecuted by Chief Inspector Prothero in Grove Street, with a view to learning when Messiter had been last seen at the garage and whether anyone had been observed there with him. Opposite the garage was a small grocer's shop and the shopkeeper, Mr. Card, proved to be the first person to put the police on the track of the murderer. His information was to the effect that he had constantly observed Messiter during September and October coming to and leaving the garage in his car ; they had exchanged remarks occasionally and Messiter had made purchases at his shop ; just prior to Messiter's disappearance he had more than once noticed a man in his company, and the last time he saw them together they had spent most of the afternoon outside the garage together as if waiting for someone. Mr. Card had seen them still outside the garage when he went in to his tea that afternoon, and when he looked for them again shortly afterwards they were gone and the premises locked up. The afternoon in question, which was subsequently established to be that of Monday, October 29th, was the last time that Messiter was seen alive at the garage by anyone other than the murderer.

The shopkeeper described the individual he had seen in Messiter's company as about five feet high, clean shaven, dressed in a blue suit and a trilby hat and having the appearance of a commercial traveller. Further information as to his identity was not long in coming to hand. Inquiries at 5 Cranbury Avenue, the address on the letter found in the trunk at Messiter's lodgings, showed that it was the residence of a Mr. Horne and his mother, and Mr. Horne identified the torn piece of paper ((2) above) as part of a receipt given by him on 20th October to a Mr. W. F. Thomas in respect of a deposit for a room at 5 Cranbury Avenue taken by Thomas the same day for himself and a woman whom he described as his wife. Thomas had stated to Mr. Horne, ' I am here permanently,' but ten days later, on the morning of Tuesday, October 30th, he had announced that they were returning to London on Thursday, November 1st. They had, however, remained until Saturday, November 3rd, when they left, ostensibly to catch a train to London, and they

gave an address in London to which letters were to be forwarded. The description of Thomas given by Mr. Horne agreed in several respects with the description of the man seen at 42 Grove Street with Messiter and, more important still, Mr. Horne recounted how a stranger in a Morris car had visited 5 Cranbury Avenue on the 23rd October and again on the 25th to see Thomas and had spent some time sitting with and talking to Thomas in the car. The particulars he was able to give of this stranger left little doubt that it was Messiter. Not much could be ascertained about Thomas's movements or occupation during the fortnight that he was at Cranbury Avenue. Mr. Horne was, however, able to state that on Sunday, 28th October, Thomas had left the house wearing a dungaree suit, saying that he was going to take stock of oil and petrol, and had returned about two hours later; and on the evening of 30th October just after six o'clock he had paid Mrs. Horne 15s. and was then dressed in dungarees which were dirty, as also were his hands and face.

The other source of information was Mr. Mitchell, a builder and contractor in business at Downton near Salisbury, who rang up Chief Inspector Prothero on the evening of 12th January to say that he had read about the case in the papers and was sure that the man for whom the police were looking, as having been seen in the company of Messiter, was a man named Thomas who had been with him (Mr. Mitchell) during November and December as a fitter and lorry driver, and who was residing at 5 Cranbury Avenue, Southampton, when he had engaged him. He added that Thomas had left his service recently and was suspected of having stolen £130 from him. Arrangements were at once made to interview Mr. Mitchell and his clerk, and full details were obtained from them with regard to Thomas and the circumstances of his engagement by Mr. Mitchell. The most significant points which emerged were:

(a) Thomas had told Mr. Mitchell that he had been in the employ of The Allied Transport Road Association, Bold Street, Southampton, a non-existent firm with the same bogus address as the other non-existent firm—Cromer & Bartlett;

(b) that Thomas had driven over to see Mr. Mitchell in a car on October 30th, arriving at about 1 p.m.;

(c) that, although Mr. Mitchell did not want him to start work until November 5th, Thomas appeared extremely anxious to come earlier; and

(d) that Thomas, accompanied by his 'wife,' had arrived at Downton on November 3rd.

Following on this interview at Southampton Police Station with Mr. Mitchell and his clerk, Chief Inspector Prothero visited Downton and called at the cottage where Thomas had lodged with a Mr. and Mrs. Green during the period of his employment by Mr. Mitchell. It was found that Thomas and his 'wife' had left these lodgings just before Christmas an hour or two after the local police had questioned him with regard to the theft of £130 from Mr. Mitchell. The pair had decamped, leaving their baggage behind them—two suit cases and a quantity of clothes, including a blue suit very dirty and so oily that stains on it could not be analysed. Mrs. Green had picked up in their room two counterfoil receipts on pink paper which bore the name of a Manchester firm: the Manchester police were at once communicated with by Chief Inspector Prothero and they got into touch with the firm in question, who, on the receipts being produced to them, stated that they must have been taken out of their books by a man named Bert Podmore, who had been in their employ for about a month prior to 17th October, 1928, and had absconded with a motor-car. This, coupled with other information which the Manchester police had about Podmore, enabled them to identify him with Thomas, and they forwarded the information to Scotland Yard with particulars of his Criminal Record Office file.

Scotland Yard had in the meantime caused a description of Thomas to be published in the Press on 17th January, and the Chief Constable of Stoke-on-Trent, Staffordshire, had telephoned in the afternoon that the description fitted W. H. Podmore who was wanted at Manchester for stealing a car, thus confirming the information received from Manchester. Later the same evening the Chief Constable of Stoke-on-Trent rang up again to say that the woman with whom Podmore had absconded from Manchester after the theft of the car had just returned to her home in the Potteries and that it had been ascertained from her that she had come from Birmingham.

where she had been in a situation with Podmore. Podmore, she said, had left Birmingham *en route* for Southampton in order to interview the officer in charge of the Messiter case, and was spending the night in London at a hotel in Vauxhall Bridge Road.

Podmore, alias Thomas, was found at this hotel on the morning of 18th January by two detective officers of B division of the Metropolitan Police, who entered his room while he was still in bed. On seeing them he said: 'I know what you have come for, but I can explain all my movements while I was at Southampton. I came here to London to explain my movements as I saw that the police wanted me. The Stone job kept me away before. I telephoned the Yard from Euston Station on my arrival last night and was told that the line was out of order.' Podmore had a singular idea of the extent of Scotland Yard's telephone facilities and equally inadequate was his excuse about 'the Stone job.' He was referring to the fact that he had come under suspicion of having stolen jewellery from a house at Stone, Staffordshire, where he had been employed as a domestic servant. This had occurred some time before he went to Southampton and, at the instance of the Staffordshire police, he had been questioned about it by the Manchester police at the time. Nothing had subsequently happened in this Stone case which could possibly explain any delay on his part in coming forward about the Southampton case.

Podmore expressed his willingness to proceed to Southampton to give any information he could and he was accordingly taken there at once in a Flying Squad car. On arrival he was interviewed by Chief Inspector Prothero and after being cautioned made a statement in which he admitted answering an advertisement inserted by Messiter in the *Southern Daily Echo* for 'an experienced man with a knowledge of local conditions to sell lubricating oil on commission' and subsequently working for Messiter. He also described how he had answered Mr. Mitchell's advertisement about the same time and had been engaged by him. As regards his association with Messiter, he gave an account of visits to the garage at 42 Grove Street on Saturday, 27th October, Monday, 29th October, Tuesday, 30th October, Wednesday, 31st October, and Thursday, 1st

November, and stated that Messiter had had with him at the garage on Saturday, Monday and Tuesday an agent whose name, as far as he could remember, was Maxton or Baxton. He had last seen Messiter about 9.30 a.m. on Tuesday, 30th October, when he left Messiter and Maxton or Baxton together in the garage. After lunch he, Podmore, had gone out in Messiter's car, as previously arranged with Messiter, taking five cases of oil for delivery at a garage on the road to Salisbury. As the people at this garage knew nothing of the oil having been ordered he had, he explained, taken the opportunity of going on to Salisbury to see Mr. Mitchell and, on returning to Southampton, had left the car in the yard, turned the petrol off, pulled the gates to behind him and gone home. The next morning (Wednesday, 31st October) he went down to the garage and found the gates locked, so he put a note into the letter-box to tell Messiter that the oil he had been sent to deliver the previous day had not been ordered; he called again that night but found the garage still locked up. The next day (Thursday, 1st November) he again went to the garage and, being once more unable to get in, left another note for Messiter to say that he was going to his new job, about which he had already spoken to Messiter on the Tuesday, and on Saturday, 3rd November, he had proceeded to Downton to take up his employment with Mr. Mitchell.

After this statement had been taken an identification parade was arranged for in the Parade Shed at Southampton Police Station. Podmore was made to stand with a number of men of the same size and appearance, and Mr. Card, the grocer who kept the shop opposite 42 Grove Street, was invited to attend and was asked whether he could pick out the man he had seen in Messiter's company: after some hesitation between Podmore and another man he picked out the other.

Mr. Marsh, an engineer at a local motor repair depot, had identified the hammer found in the garage as one he had lent to a stranger two or three months before which had not been returned, and, as Mr. Penn, the foreman at this depot, had been present when the hammer was lent, both of these men were asked to inspect the individuals lined up in the Parade Shed; they failed to pick out from them the man to

whom the hammer had been lent. Unfortunately the light in the Parade Shed at the time was rather poor, which probably accounted for these failures in identification.

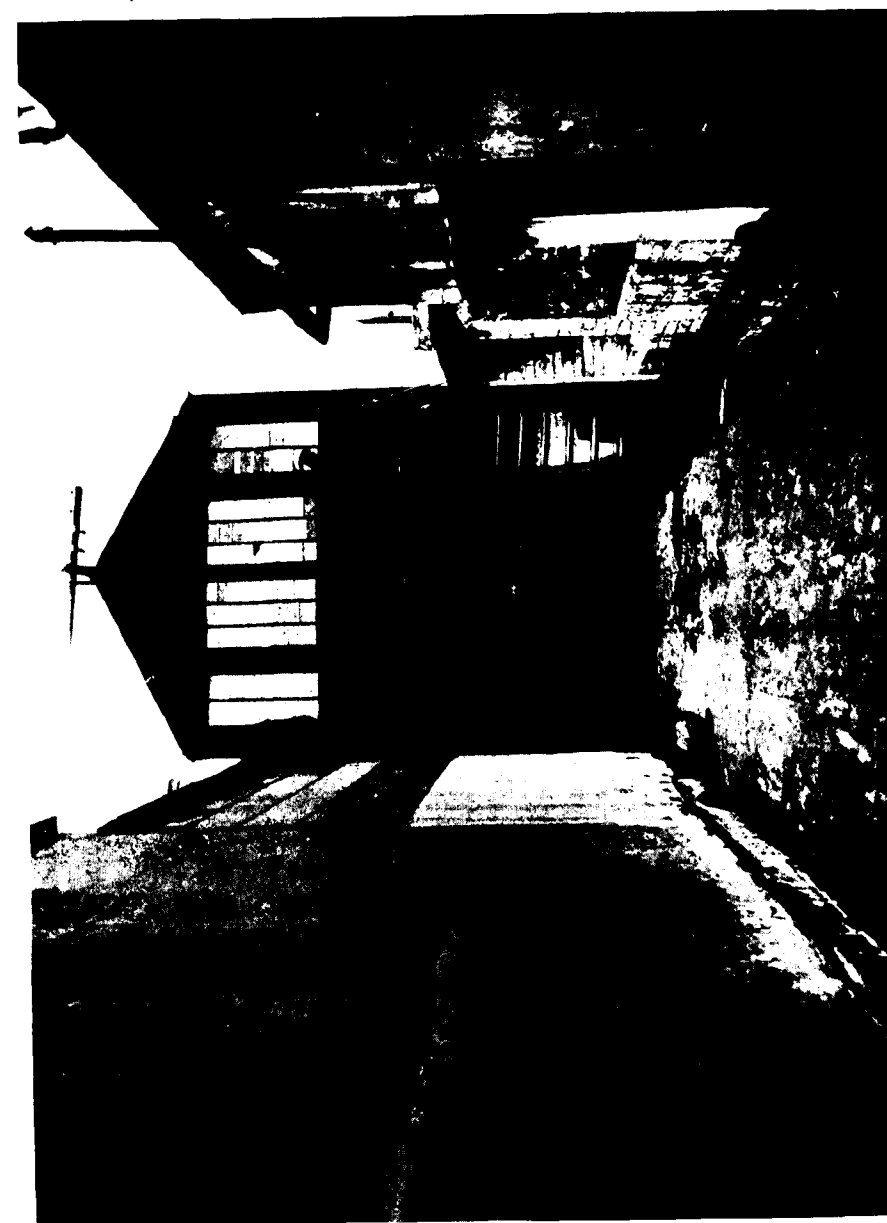
The following day a further statement was taken from Podmore in which, when asked to explain why he gave the address 'Bold Street' to Mr. Mitchell, he stated that he had seen the name in Southampton, but he professed to have no knowledge about the entry 'Cromer & Bartlett, 25 Bold Street' in the two books found in the car. He also denied ever having borrowed a hammer in Southampton.

As regards the hammer, it was submitted to Dr. Roche Lynch, the Home Office analyst, and the stains on it were proved to be blood stains. Recourse was also had, after the discovery of the hammer, to Sir Bernard Spilsbury, the pathologist, who came down to Southampton and examined the body in conjunction with the police surgeon. As a result of this further examination it was definitely decided that there was no bullet wound and that there were four distinct fractures of the skull caused by a blunt instrument such as the hammer in question.

When Podmore was found in the hotel in Vauxhall Bridge Road the Manchester police had at once been notified and two Manchester detectives had arrived at Southampton to arrest him on the charge of stealing a motor-car; he was accordingly taken away by them on 21st January to be charged at Manchester Police Court, where he was duly found guilty of the crime in question and sentenced to six months' imprisonment.

Notwithstanding what had been discovered about Podmore and his identity with Thomas, there were as yet no sufficient grounds for charging him with the murder of Messiter, and indeed, simple as the case may look on the facts as here stated, the police were only at the beginning of their inquiries. The further stages of the case and, in particular, the discoveries made with scientific assistance regarding the papers and books found at the garage and the entries and marks on them will be explained in Part II.

(To be continued)



THE SOUTHAMPTON GARAGE MURDER
THE YARD OF THE GARAGE

(See p. 336)



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THE SOUTHAMPTON GARAGE MURDER
WHERE THE CORPSE WAS FOUND

Natal Mounted Police

By COLONEL W. T. CLARKE

Formerly Officer Commanding Natal Mounted Police.

THE Langalibalele Rebellion in 1873, and the unfortunate loss of three members of the Natal Carbineers, might have been prevented had the Natal Government had at its disposal a force to move into the Putini Location when the first signs of rebellion appeared. The want of a police force, therefore, led to a vote being introduced into the Colonial estimates for the year 1874, under the head of 'Colonial Defence,' and when the Treasurer made the announcement in the Legislative Council, he said :

'It was the policy of the Government to have at its command such a force, fully equipped and disciplined, as can move at once, so as to put down insubordination in any tribe before it has been able to extend to other tribes and lead to general disturbance. Such a force is a mounted police and its place cannot be supplied by any volunteers, however efficient, nor even by regular troops, although these forces would be most valuable in giving always their moral, and, in case of necessity, their material support. The necessity of a force was evident. The large Native population consists of a number of distinct tribes, not at present united by any visible bond of union but capable of being so should circumstances arise to cause, and time be given, to mature hostile demonstration.'

The demand for a semi-military police force, as above described, will be apparent when the character of the population is taken into consideration, and when it is considered that the duties are principally in dealing with an uncivilized race of natives numbering a million and a half and an Indian population of 120,000, scattered over a mountainous country, and in some districts, where tracts of land (known as locations) have been specially reserved for natives, almost inaccessible.

The Force, when first raised, numbered but 200 Europeans and 150 Natives—an inadequate body when the nature of the country is considered—and was split up into four detachments—Pietermaritzburg, Greytown, Estcourt, and Harding. The rate of pay offered was 6s. per diem for troopers, out of which a man had to provide himself with horse, saddlery, uniform, food for himself, forage for his horse and shoeing, in addition to which he had to subscribe to a library fund, a remount fund, purchase cleaning gear, and as no transport was provided he had to pay carriage for his extra kit when removed from one station to another. Horses, clothing, and equipment were supplied on repayment at the rate of £2 per month, forage cost 1s. to 1s. 4d. per diem, and messing 2s. to 2s. 4d. per diem, so it will be seen that a man could draw very little pay during his first year of service, after which he received an additional 1s. per diem and a further 1s. on re-engaging after having completed three years' service. These terms failed to attract men of a good stamp within the Colony, so authority was given to enlist men in England, where a very superior class of recruit was obtained, most of them being public schoolboys.

The first Commandant appointed was Major J. G. Dartnell, late 27th (Inniskilling) Regt.

The first duty of the new Force was to patrol the disaffected Langalibalele Location and watch the passes of the Drakensberg Mountains to see that no rebels returned from Basutoland, a duty which kept the detachment on the move for some weeks. As no transport was provided, each man carried half a bivouac tent on his saddle and one tent pole slung to his rifle, each tent providing for two men. The detachment when recalled was sent to Alfred Country where a native chief had set the magistrate at defiance, and the presence of the Police soon showed the value of the Force, because the chief at once submitted.

This duty completed, the Detachment proceeded to the East Griqualand border to await the arrival of the G.O.C., South Africa, Sir Arthur Cunningham, and escort him to Pietermaritzburg.

In 1875 the Government sanctioned the purchase of pack horses to carry men's tents, blankets and food, the propor-

tion being one pony for each ten men. These pack animals were led by native constables on foot, leaving the mounted men free for other duties.

Very soon another recalcitrant chief in Umzuito Division called for the presence of the Force, and here again their appearance on the scene had the desired effect. A second time the Force marched to the East Griqualand border, where there was unrest among the natives but no active hostilities occurred.

In 1877 the N.M.P. escorted Sir Theophilus Shepstone to Pretoria to annex the Transvaal to the British Crown. On reaching the Transvaal border a number of Boers interviewed Sir Theophilus, who moved on to Standerton where an address of welcome was read. A cordial reception awaited the party at Heidelberg, also, and when nearing Pretoria, President Burger's carriage came out to meet the Commissioner with an enthusiastic crowd to escort him, while the horses were taken from the carriage, which was drawn through the streets by the citizens. The Police remained in Pretoria until the 13th Regt. arrived, when both took part in the Queen's Birthday parade, after which the presence of the former being no longer necessary, they were ordered to return to Natal.

Early in 1878 the Force was again mustered to deal with a rising of Griquas in East Griqualand, on the Natal border, and a forced march was made to the Umzimkulu River, where the 3rd (Buffs) Regt. also arrived. The Cape authorities managed to quell the insurrection and all that was left for the N.M.P. to do was to escort ninety-nine Griqua prisoners to Durban for embarkation to Cape Town.

As far back as 1874 Sir Garnet Wolseley had placed on record his opinion that 'the Zulus were a great danger to our Colony and to all S.A.' In the latter part of 1878 the Zulu Chief, Sirayo, entered Natal, carried off two native women whom he put to death, for which redress was demanded, and the N.M.P. were sent to the Zulu border in November of that year, their services having been placed at the disposal of the Imperial Government.

The invasion of Zululand having been decided upon, four columns were formed, the N.M.P. being attached to the third,

under Col. Glyn, which was accompanied by the G.O.C., Lord Chelmsford.

On the morning of the 9th January, 1878, the column marched to Rorke's Drift and consisted of the undermentioned troops :

132 R. Artillery with 6-7 pr. guns.

320 Cavalry, Mtd. Infantry, N.M.P. and Volunteers.

1275 Infantry, 2 Batts. 24th Regt.

2566 Native Levies, under European Officers and N.C.O.'s.

The operation of crossing the Buffalo River—the boundary between Natal and Zululand—was commenced on the 11th January, the flooded state of the river rendering the task a dangerous one, but, after crossing, Lord Chelmsford took the police and volunteers on a reconnaissance to the Itelezi Hill, where he met Colonel Evelyn Wood, commanding No. 4 column.

On the 12th January a reconnoitring party, to which the N.M.P. were attached, was sent round to the right of the Nqutu range of hills, where, as they were crossing a deep ravine, a heavy fire was opened on them by the enemy, who were hidden in rocks on the hill side 200 yards distant. Dis-mounting and extending in skirmishing order the Police stormed the hill and cleared out the Zulus, the latter losing a good many men, among them being a son of the Chief Sirayo.

One month's supplies for the column were left at the Mission Station at Rorke's Drift—on the Natal side—with one company of the 24th Regt. to protect the laager, and three of the N.M.P. were left there, sick. The main column, taking fifteen days supplies on ox wagons, moved on the 20th January to Isandhlwana, where camp was pitched. At 3 a.m. on the 21st January the N.M.P. and Natal Volunteers moved from the camp to make a reconnaissance towards Matyana's stronghold, but no rations were taken as it was expected that the party would return to camp by midday. Of the 772 Europeans left in camp, 34 were members of the N.M.P. This reconnoitring party, during the morning, covered a considerable extent of country and early in the afternoon effected a junction with the Native Levies, who had worked along the

valley of the Buffalo River. The combined force then moved towards Matyanas where small parties of Zulus were reported to have been seen. Late in the afternoon dense masses of Zulus were seen on a hill to the north and the O.C. considered they were too numerous to attack with the few mounted men available, the Native Levies not having come up, being too tired and hungry after their long march ; so the Force decided to bivouac and attack on the following morning, a messenger being sent to the General that the Zulu army had been seen. The bivouac was picketed by the Natives who, about 11 p.m., were seized with panic, fired some shots and rushed pell-mell into the square formed by the mounted men. Thinking the attack was coming from the enemy, the mounted men, who were nearly all asleep, quickly fell in and remained steady until the cause of the panic could be ascertained. The discipline of Colonial troops could not have been put to a greater test, as will be understood by those who took part in the campaign and who can remember the waste of ammunition that followed scares of a similar kind, even when the troops had a laager to fall back on. The Natives ran into the square for protection, and their officers and N.C.O.'s refused to go out again with their men. When daylight broke on the 22nd January, Lord Chelmsford came out from the camp with four guns of the R.A. and six companies of the 24th Regt., but it was found that the enemy had retired from the position it had occupied the previous night. Several hours were spent in chasing a few stragglers, and when the midday halt was ordered a rumour was circulated that the camp was being attacked, the smoke of gun fire and rifles having been seen from the top of a hill near by. The G.O.C. thereupon decided to return to camp with the infantry and volunteers, together with the four guns, leaving the N.M.P. and native contingent to bivouac on the ground to which it was intended to move the camp on the following day. In expectation of receiving food, which the General promised to send out, the Police started gathering fire-wood, but were stopped by a staff officer who galloped up saying that the Force was to retire at once ; so they made a forced march and overtook the General about two miles from the camp just as darkness was coming on. The General

addressed the troops saying 'that the Zulus had taken the camp, which must be retaken, and he expressed confidence in the ability of his men to avenge the death of their comrades and to uphold the honour of the British flag.' After giving three cheers, the column advanced in the darkness upon what appeared to be a desperate venture; there was no spare ammunition and there had been no food for two days, while many of the men had passed a sleepless night, and there was the depressing influence arising from the consciousness that the enemy which could, in open day, annihilate one half the column, might, with equal certainty, favoured by night, demolish the other half. The troops halted about 1000 yards from the camp to enable the artillery to shell the crest of the Nek over which lay the line of retreat. Dense clouds obscured the light of the full moon, so that nothing could be seen as the men advanced, but they were continually falling over dead, mutilated bodies and the debris of the massacre. Horses were not off-saddled but were linked together in rings, and the men spent a very anxious, sleepless, and foodless night. The scene at the plundered camp has often been described, but no pen could adequately express the feelings of those who spent the night at that ghastly halting place, amidst the debris of the plunder and the mutilated bodies of men, horses and cattle. Tired as the men were, it was impossible to sleep, for the sorrow of these long hours of darkness, the constant expectation of an attack, the anxiety to know the fate of their comrades, the knowledge that the Colony of Natal might be overrun by the victorious Zulus, all tended to wakefulness and, by the bright glare seen in the direction of Rorke's Drift, it was feared that the enemy had successfully attacked that place, in which case retreat was cut off and starvation looming. The native contingent again caused an alarm during the night, but no enemy appeared; and, at last, when daylight broke upon the scene, the horrors of the situation revealed themselves—mutilated bodies in all directions, all disembowelled and some naked, others in shirts and nearly all without boots. It was but a hurried glance over the battlefield because the order came for an early march, the N.M.P. forming the rear guard, which gave them time to see more of the battlefield and to

identify their comrades who had fallen on the Nek and close to the road. When descending the hill to the Bashi River, a body of the enemy was seen a few hundred yards to the left of the road and this proved to be the defeated impi returning from Rorke's Drift. Owing to the scarcity of ammunition the impi could not be attacked. On reaching the drift on the Buffalo River, white men could be seen on the walls of the laager at Rorke's Drift, and there was considerable rejoicing on finding that the Zulus had been defeated at this point. The men, who had been without food for sixty hours, were now supplied with rations, after which they took part in burying 389 bodies of the enemy who had been killed round the laager. Of the three men of the N.M.P. left at Rorke's Drift, one had been killed and another wounded by a bullet which grazed his cheek. Of the thirty-four men left in camp at Isandhlwana, twenty-five were killed and nine escaped. Archibald Forbes, the well-known war correspondent, wrote:—'On reaching the crest at Isandhlwana I found the dead lying thick, many in the uniform of the N.M.P. In a patch of long grass lay Colonel Durnford's body (the O.C.) a central figure of a knot of brave men who had fought it out around their chief to the bitter end. Around him lay twenty N.M.P. and fourteen Natal Carbineers. Clearly they had rallied round Colonel Durnford in a last despairing effort to cover the flank of the camp and had stood fast from choice, when they might have essayed to fly, for their horses were close by at the picket line.'

On the 24th January twenty men of the N.M.P. were selected to escort the G.O.C., Lord Chelmsford, from Rorke's Drift to Pietermaritzburg, whence messages were despatched by ship to the nearest cable station—St. Vincent—asking for reinforcements.

A party of ten Police, under a N.C.O., accompanied Major Black to Isandhlwana to search for the missing colours of the 24th Regt., one of which was found on the bank of the Buffalo River, on the return journey, at Fugitives' Drift, and near the bodies of Lieuts. Melville and Coghill.

Great hardships for the men ensued, there being a dearth of tents, blankets, clothing, eating utensils, etc. Transport riders considered the roads near the border unsafe, so that no

stores arrived for some weeks, while enteric fever broke out and carried off several men, the N.M.P. losing six men therefrom.

On the arrival of reinforcements in Natal, the N.M.P. were ordered to join the column then being formed at Dundee, under General Newdigate. Lord Chelmsford inspected the Police on the 30th April and took them as his escort to Balte Spruit, after which they were sent to Helpwakaar to relieve the 24th Regt.

The Prince Imperial of France having been killed on the 1st June, a detachment of Police escorted the body to Durban for embarkation to England.

On the 20th June another party of Police marched to Rorke's Drift to join a cavalry column, under General Marshall, proceeding to Isandhlwana to recover as many of the abandoned wagons as could be brought away.

When Sir Garnet Wolseley arrived in Natal, an escort of N.M.P. met him in Pietermaritzburg and escorted him to Ulundi, in Zululand, leaving the former place on the 29th July and reaching the latter on the 10th August, too late to take part in the battle. On the following day the Police went out and found the two 7-pr. guns lost at Isandhlwana.

On the 13th of August the whole of the N.M.P. left in search of Cetewayo, the fugitive Zulu king, the men covering a distance of fifty miles on that day. On the 16th Cetewayo's pet herd of cattle was found and taken possession of, and on the 29th August the Force returned to Ulundi with the king, who had been captured by Major Marter at the Ngome Forest.

The Police, later on, formed a portion of the column which was led by Sir Garnet Wolseley to the Transvaal, *en route* to Sekakunis' country, but at Utrecht the G.O.C. received a message from the Natal Government asking that the N.M.P. should be allowed to return to Pietermaritzburg, which was permitted.

In 1880 an escort of twenty N.C.O.'s and men were provided for the ex-Empress of the French on her tour to the spot where her son lost his life—a duty which occupied seven weeks and six days. General Sir Evelyn Wood was in charge of the expedition, and the late Private Secretary to H.M. the King, Lord Stamfordham, accompanied it. On the con-

clusion of the journey, Sir Evelyn wrote :—' I am anxious to express to you, at the conclusion of our fifty-five days journey, my great satisfaction with the efficient manner in which the escort of Her Imperial Majesty performed their duties. They evinced on every occasion a cheerful willingness to carry out all my wishes, and this spirit tended greatly to overcome the difficulties inseparable from such an expedition and did so much to secure the comfort of all.'

In July 1880 all the Police were called out again, this time in connexion with the Basuto War, as it was feared that the Basutos might invade Natal. The force marched to the Drakensberg Mountains, the passes of which were patrolled and picketed for a period of five months. During this period wagon transport was impossible owing to the rugged nature of the country, so the men used only pack ponies, often with but scanty rations, while a very rainy season caused great hardships. General Colley, the Governor of Natal, visited the camp on one occasion, and after witnessing a parade of the men, he said ' he was pleased with the smart, clean appearance of the parade and drill, the lines having been perfect when marching past. He considered that, in the N.M.P., he had under him a body of men who would do credit to any Colony and whom any General would feel proud to command.'

Trouble then arose in the Transvaal, where the 94th Regt. met with disaster at Bronkhorst Spruit, and steps had to be taken to reinforce the garrisons in that country; so General Colley, who had no cavalry at his disposal, called up the N.M.P. from the Basuto border to form part of a column to attempt the forcing of the pass at Laing's Nek. In January 1881 the Police reached Newcastle, whence they made a night march of fifty-eight miles to accompany Major Poole on a reconnaissance to Laing's Nek. The Boers, hearing of this movement, sent a party of men to entrench and hold this point. The column moved from Newcastle on the morning of the 24th January and reached Mt. Prospect on the 26th; the 27th turned out to be misty, and on the 28th an attack was made on the Nek by the 58th Regt., but was repulsed. The N.M.P. covered the left flank of the column and came under long range fire but suffered no casualties. Fearing that the Boers might attempt to

seize Newcastle and thus sever the line of communication, the G.O.C., after the battle, ordered the Police to make a night march to that town and to defend it. A few days later the same fear arose in regard to the Biggarsberg Nek, and some Police were detached from Newcastle to that point until General Sir Evelyn Wood arrived with reinforcements. In the meantime, the Police holding Newcastle were employed in escorting convoys to and from General Colley's camp at Mount Prospect until the 8th February, when the Boers occupied Schuins Hoogte which lay on the road between the two camps; so the General came out from his camp with some R.A. guns and the 60th Rifles with the intention of driving the enemy off. The Police, during the battle, were endeavouring to get through with mails and dispatches but were stopped by the Boers. At night, both the British and Boers retired, so the mails were safely delivered. On the following morning the Police took out empty wagons from Newcastle to bring in the wounded who had been left lying out all night on the battlefield.

When General Sir Evelyn Wood came along with reinforcements from Durban, the Boers took up a position on the heights overlooking the Ingangane River, but as they retired to their bivouacs at night-time the Police made a night march and occupied the heights, which kept the Boers away when the troops crossed the drift. After handing over his reinforcements at Newcastle, General Wood returned to Durban to meet other troops and, in the meantime, General Colley made a night march to occupy the Majuba Hill, from which the troops were driven by the enemy on the following morning and General Colley lost his life. A detachment of twenty N.M.P. which, with a company of the Gordon Highlanders, under Major Napier, was holding Schuins Hoogte, proceeded to the foot of the Majuba, when the firing commenced and was instrumental in helping fugitives into Mount Prospect camp. The final duty of the Police, in connexion with the first Boer War, was to meet President Brand at Mullers Pass and escort him to Laing's Nek, where a convention was signed, and on the 30th March the Police were ordered to return to Pietermaritzburg. Before leaving, they were inspected by General Sir

Evelyn Wood, who said: 'A convention with the Boers has been signed and I feel that in justice to you your services for the present should be dispensed with, for you have already been eight months on active service and have done excellent work. I am aware that the late General Colley spoke in the very highest terms of the valuable services rendered by the Natal Mounted Police, and in the event of a resumption of hostilities I shall only be too glad to give you an opportunity of adding to your very high reputation.'

Before the fighting in Natal commenced, and when the Police first arrived in Newcastle, there was some difficulty in procuring supplies for them owing to the high price paid for stores by the Imperial authorities. The matter was referred to the G.O.C., who gave orders for the supply of rations at the cost of 3s. per diem per man. Besides these rations, the men had to provide themselves with extras: there was the wear and tear of clothing and equipment which was exceedingly heavy during an exceptionally wet season; and the loss of horses from horse sickness made such calls on the remount fund that an increased subscription became necessary. Whereas the Imperial Troops received field allowance, the Police received nothing but were put to much additional expense, while the only man who could have remedied this—General Colley—lost his life. As Sir Henry Lawrence's biographer says: 'The rough and ready men are used (and wisely used) to scour the country for intelligence, for escorting convoys, for making reconnaissances in front, or diversions on the flanks. They are kept in the saddle from morning to night and sometimes during the night; they hold posts, they skirmish, they stop all kinds of gaps; in short, they are used remorselessly on all occasions to save the regular troops who are most precious material and the ultimate stand-by of the expedition. This, indeed, is their right and proper use, but their service is seldom acknowledged when the campaign is over.'

Not until 1884 was the Force called out again and then in connection with disturbances in Zululand, where Cetawayo and Usibepu were fighting. A detachment of eighty men was sent to patrol the Zulu border from Kranz Kop, where they

remained for four months, and so intense was the cold that nearly every horse died from pneumonia. Another detachment watched the drifts of the Lower Tugela River, while a third detachment was posted along the southern border to stop gun-running into Pondoland.

Owing to a financial strain, Parliament decided to reduce the pay of the Police in 1887, and men were paid, therefore, only 5s. 6d. per diem, but the extra 6d. was returned as a bonus during the following year.

In August 1890 the N.M.P. were assembled at the Pondoland border in consequence of trouble arising between the paramount Chief, Sigcau, and his uncle, Umhlangaso, the dispute extending to the tribes in Natal, one of which was assisted by armed Pondos. The Police disarmed many natives. Umbono, Chief of the Amaci tribe, was taken to Pietermaritzburg, where he was fined £650 by the Supreme Chief. As affairs in Pondoland remained unsettled, the whole Police Force was employed on the border, protecting refugees and patrolling the boundary line continually. In April 1891 a Pondo impi of about 10,000 men assembled on the border, with the intention, it was believed, of raiding into Natal; but the Pondo Chief was told that the Police would fire on anyone crossing the river, so the impi was withdrawn. After two years service on the border all the Police returned to Maritzburg, except thirty men; but, in 1893, further reinforcements had to be sent, because fighting recommenced in Pondoland and was carried on spasmodically until March 1894.

In 1894 the Force was re-organized. Hitherto, each magistrate had under him one European Constable and Messenger of the Court and from ten to fifteen Native Police, and had, also, the control of the Gaol. There was a separate force, known as the Water Police, which patrolled the wharves in Durban, and there was a Railway Police Force under the control of the General Manager of Railways. The new system absorbed all these into one Force, to be known as the Natal Police. Previously, no man had been permitted to marry, and the advantage of the absorption was that men of long service and good conduct were permitted to transfer to the dismounted branches and to marry. A C.I.D. branch was also established,

into which only men conversant with the Native languages or the Indian dialects, were admitted. The mounted branch of the Force still contained only unmarried men, which was necessary because the men were so frequently being called out for active service, besides which, a man drawing only 6s. per diem could not afford to keep a wife. Every man, on first joining, had to serve in the mounted branch, and as extra pay was given for languages, there was an inducement for linguists to enlist. About 150 outstations were opened.

A reserve, known as the Field Force, was instituted, numbering about 300 men, to avoid the necessity of calling men away from outstations when trouble arose. The advantage of this was seen when the Lefleur Rebellion occurred in East Griqualand, on which occasion the Field Force marched to the border and remained out for a period of eighteen months. In January 1898 a detachment of the Field Force met Dinizulu, the Zulu Chief, on his return from nine years' confinement at St. Helena and proceeded with him to his kraal in Zululand, remaining in the vicinity for some months to keep the peace between that Chief and his rival Usibepu. Every horse and mule died, either from horse sickness or tsetse fly, on this expedition.

In September 1899 hostilities with the Boers became imminent, so the outstation men were withdrawn from the Newcastle and Dundee Districts and were assembled at Dundee, where they took part in the battle of Talana, where General Penn Symons was mortally wounded. They took part, also, in the subsequent retirement of the troops, under General Yule, to Ladysmith. When General Sir Redvers Buller arrived in Natal he selected twenty men of the Field Force as his bodyguard, and these men remained with him as long as he served in South Africa.

A further detachment of the Field Force was attached to the Mounted Brigade, under Lord Dundonald.

In 1906 a Native Chief, named Bambata, for whose arrest a warrant had been issued, defied the Greytown magistrate who went out to visit the disaffected kraal and was fired on. 150 men of the Field Force were dispatched to the scene, and hearing that some women and children were in danger at

Keats Drift, on the Moor River, it was decided to bring them into Greytown. Leaving the camp at Burrups, at 4 p.m., the force reached the drift at 6 p.m., but it was not until after dark that the families were ready to leave. The valley which the party had to traverse was densely covered with thorn trees, so orders were given for the men to dismount and march outside their horses, which were linked together in sections of fours. After covering about four miles in this fashion the advanced guard, finding themselves overtaken by the main body, mounted their horses to get ahead, and had not gone more than 100 yards when the native rebels, who were lying on a bank above the road, suddenly pounced on the rear sections, of whom they killed four, wounded two, and killed and wounded thirteen horses. The leading portion of the advanced guard wheeled about and drove the natives off, picking up their dead and wounded, who were placed in the carriage in which the families had been riding, and the latter mounted horses for conveyance to the camp. The following day the Volunteers were called out and drove the valley, but found that Bambata and his followers had fled into Zululand, to which place the Police marched in pursuit. They arrived at Nkwelhla (Nkandhla) where they remained until reinforcements arrived, and then took part in the engagement at Cetawayo's grave, where Bambata was killed and the impi dispersed. As it was found that Dinizulu had given assistance to Bambata, another expeditionary force was sent to Zululand later, when the former was arrested and was removed from his chieftainship.

In 1910 the Union of the various Provinces of South Africa was established, and in 1912 the Natal Police formed two regiments of the S.A. Mounted Riflemen, the permanent military force, while the policing of the provinces was left to the S.A. Police.*

The N.M.P., during its thirty-eight years existence, took part in several minor expeditions which space precludes from mentioning, but it will be admitted that it had an adventurous career.

* See also 'The Police Force of South Africa' in *The Police Journal*, Vol. ii, p. 247.

Cargo Pilferage and Dock Thefts at Liverpool

BY SUPERINTENDENT WILLIAM HUGHES

Liverpool City Police

IT is curious to compare the state of commerce at the Port of Liverpool in the eighteenth century with the equivalent statistics of modern times. The first wet dock was completed in 1720, and in 1757 we find the first figures relating to the total number of ships which paid dock dues in that year. The number is 1371, and the average tonnage was less than 100 tons. In 1929 dues were paid in respect of 20,583 ships, and the average tonnage was 750.

Probably most readers of the *Police Journal* would agree, if they were asked, that Liverpool plays one of the foremost parts as a port for the exportation of British goods. But they may not realize that in most years the exports shipped from Liverpool are greater than the combined exports shipped from Hull, Manchester, Glasgow, Southampton, Bristol, and Newcastle. In 1928, for instance, British goods to the extent of 443 million pounds were sent from Liverpool. It must be clear that the police responsibility for protecting the port from theft and damage is heavy. The concentration of so much wealth and the continual passing of goods through the port is a temptation to a particular kind of criminal.

Moreover the topographical features of the docks provide in some respects facilities for the thief. The docks cover six and a half miles. They are separated from the town by a fence about ten feet high, with entrances, fitted with gates, which give direct access to the avenues dividing the sheds used by the shipowners. Running parallel with the line of docks is the Liverpool Overhead Railway. Most of the staircases

leading to the stations are outside the dock fence. Some, however, are within : and these have provided in the past an outlet for the removal of stolen goods.

How is the work of policing the docks carried out ?

The general system is similar to that of town duty, *i.e.* an organized beat system is in force, which is worked in the ordinary eight-hour tour of three watches. Each gate or entrance to the docks is guarded by a constable who is provided with a hut, in which he may examine persons, etc., as the occasion demands. The more important police huts are equipped with telephones, whilst the duty at the dock gate is included in the beat system and is numbered as such. There are a number of dock gates which are known as 'Specials,' and these are closed at the end of an ordinary working day. In addition, there are also constables who perform what is known as 'Private duty,' being exclusively engaged by certain of the shipping companies in the sheds of their appropriated berths ; —the companies being charged for such service.

The actual strength of police serving on the docks in 1857 was 314, and, although the system has probably been trebled since that period, the total strength now utilised for this duty is 373. It comprises 1 inspector, 1 sub-inspector, 30 sergeants, and 341 constables. The adequacy of the existing strength is, from time to time, the subject of discussion between the Chief Constable and the Mersey Docks and Harbour Board.

The dock police are part of the strength of the City Force which, including the 314 dock strength in 1857, totalled 906 ; whereas to-day the total strength of the combined force, including the 373 dock police, is 2261. These figures indicate the growth of the port during the past 73 years. Whilst the docks have grown almost in proportion to the city, the increased police strength only numbers 59 for the docks, and 1296 for town duty.

Until quite recently the system for the removal of cargo from the Liverpool Dock Estate in vehicles left much to be desired from the point of view of protection. Formerly the driver of a vehicle, when leaving the docks with a complete load, merely produced to the constable at the dock-gate his cartage-note, showing that he had a specified number of pack-

ages, etc., in his load for delivery at a particular destination, where he delivered the note. Following the departure of a load of this type, the constable had no record except in his memory, and it could hardly be expected, in view of the heavy flow of traffic leaving certain dock gates, that he could count the packages on every individual load ; he had simply to arrive at a conclusion by the way the load was packed.

In most instances where a part load left the docks, the police insisted on the production of a pass or note for retention, as this was considered, in the light of experience, an avenue for removing stolen property.

Eventually a system was introduced, known as the 'Tri-plicate Pass System.' This means that for all cargo leaving the docks by vehicle, the counter-off, or quay foreman, an official representing the shipping company, enters particulars in a book in triplicate form. This official retains one copy and hands the other two to the driver of the vehicle. He, in turn, hands one to the constable at the dock gate, who initials the pass, showing the time and date the goods passed out of the docks. This pass is retained and filed in the police hut for reference, whilst the driver retains the other copy for subsequent delivery with his load. Disputes do periodically arise between the traders and shipowners regarding the delivery of goods which have left the docks, following which a representative will apply to the police for permission to examine and, if necessary, collect the passes for examination.

Members of the ships' crews bringing ashore personal effects, etc., are provided with a pass signed by a senior officer of a ship which must be delivered to the constable at the dock gate or Overhead Railway Station entrance, who checks the articles with the particulars supplied on the pass. This is initialled and retained as in the other pass system.

A very small percentage of personal effects of ships' crews are brought ashore in this way, as they are mostly packed up, addressed, and handed to a baggage carrier for delivery. A carrier of this type may have handed to him one hundred or more packages, and he receives from an officer on board an authority to remove the goods from the ship for delivery, together with such Customs clearance notes as may be required.

It would be ridiculous to expect a constable to make a systematic search of a load of this type, and the method adopted is that, with the assistance of members of the C.I.D., specially engaged on this duty, periodical surprise examinations are made of packages at random, with effective results from a police point of view. This procedure is understood by the crews and baggage carriers, and certainly acts as a deterrent.

The following case, in which eight persons were arrested for larceny and receiving West African produce, is interesting from many points of view. The principal, although probably not the most active, was the master porter, who, by virtue of his important office, was responsible to his employers for all the handling of cargo both inward and outward, and had complete control of the appropriated berth and a number of unappropriated berths used by his company for the discharge of a particular type of West African produce. His office was in the shed of the regular berth, and, at the time of his arrest, he had served with the company for nineteen years. Six of the other offenders were directly subordinate to him, and included the head quay foreman, who was always in touch with him at the main berth. This man served the company for no less than fifty years. Two of the others were foremen at the same berth, and each had approximately thirty years' service with the same employers. Two other foremen, each with over thirty years' service, were in charge of the unappropriated berths, and one of them was in charge of the stitchers and reconditioning gang of workers in the sheds.

The prisoner in charge of the warehouse and yards had nearly forty years' service, and was the father of the youngest prisoner, who at an earlier period had served the company for some twelve years. He commenced as an office boy, and later, with a view to earning more, obtained employment at the berth, and served in the various capacities as a stitcher of bags, checker, and counter-off. He left the employ, with a good knowledge of the company's methods of handling cargo, a few years before proceedings were commenced, to start business as a dealer in West African produce. It later transpired that, a few months prior to leaving his employ, he opened a banking account, although living in humble circumstances and earning

only £3 10s. per week. About this period, it was afterwards discovered, he had sold a quantity of palm oil and scrapings to a manufacturer outside the city to the value of nearly £600, a sum which was traced by the cashing of the cheque received for the goods. This was prior to the master porter taking charge, and, following this, the dealer established himself by renting a seat in an office near the docks for a short period. Having taken up his residence in a more exclusive area, he then used his home address for business purposes, and for some time stored quantities of produce in local warehouses, by permission of the warehousemen, but not of the owners. Subsequently, he leased a warehouse and, although established as a dealer in waste material, he kept no books or anything one would expect in a person employing business methods.

For some time after leaving the company's employ he made some purchases from reputable local firms, but none from his former employers, at least not with the knowledge of the managers and directors. Records were, however, traced to prove that he had obtained from the company quantities of produce, which were delivered direct to manufacturers on his behalf. They were carted by an outside firm from the warehouse in charge of his father, and loaded by the other prisoners. Apparently no difficulty was experienced by the dealer in removing property from the docks to the warehouses.

With the arrival of the accused master porter, this ceased for about two months, when he appears to have become involved in the conspiracy. It is assumed that he discovered a theft in which the father and son were involved, and, being of an exceptionally shrewd type, perceived the possibility of acquiring riches quickly, and availed himself of the opportunity. Once in the swim, no difficulty presented itself to the other offenders; reconditioned bags were not filled with the correct weight, and produce was abstracted from bags over the average weight. When a sample was required and a bag slit, considerably more sound produce than was necessary was extracted and classed as sweepings.

A more favourable method appears to have been adopted when deliveries of produce were made to local manufacturers whose premises were such as to make water transport possible.

The goods were stacked in piles on the quay, and loaded into barges by means of skipping the contents of the bags down a chute, to fall loose into the hold of the barge. A checker employed by the company was standing by entering particulars into his book, and the bags, when empty, were stacked in piles of twenty-five.

The checker, who periodically went away, on return might find two piles of empty bags—fifty—and would assume that this quantity had gone into the barge. With a dishonest foreman and a gang of men who were only employed on the understanding that they could be trusted from the thieves' point of view, the extent of the loss to the manufacturers, who accept the weights of the shipping companies, can be appreciated; the only guarantee of delivery being the number of empty bags and the checker's entry. The barges on arrival at their destination were discharged by mechanical means and the produce not re-weighed.

In the early stages, following the entry of the master porter into the conspiracy, on one day three loads were delivered; one from the quay and two from the warehouse, as palm kernel sweepings. The weight was approximately 15½ tons, whilst the invoice from the company to the fraudulent dealer was slightly under five tons, showing a deficiency of over eleven tons actual weight. The goods passed over a registered weighing machine, and both weights and quantities were manipulated by the master porter to represent the lesser quantity in his invoices. The produce was accepted by the manufacturer as sound, which in fact it was, and the difference in the price paid by the dealer to the company and that received by him was over £220. This, for one day's work, gives an excellent idea of the magnitude of the fraud, which was pursued with the knowledge and assistance of the master porter for about two and a half years.

The only records kept by the dealer were made in a book relating to genuine purchases, which he naturally had to make periodically. Produce was also removed from the quay in handcarts, and this method alone accounted for some hundreds of bags of palm kernels. It was ascertained that a number of labourers, who were regularly used for this particular form of

loading, were selected by the head quay foreman. They were sent to one of the accused foremen, who supplied them with a cart note and instructions to convey the goods to the warehouseman. It was proved that the latter on occasions did not trouble to collect the note, which was returned to the dock foreman.

When the principal offender took charge of the portage department, it was the rule that before delivery could be taken from the company's warehouse a delivery note should be obtained from the town office and presented to a special representative at the dock. On receipt of this the latter, who was not concerned in the fraud, would issue a sub-delivery order to the accused warehouseman. This system was continued for some time after the arrival of the new master porter, but was discontinued, and it was ultimately discovered that deliveries were taken by the dealer from his father by instruction of the master porter, without the delivery order. The abolition of the system only applied to transactions with the accused dealer. When the proceedings had taken practical form and the police entered the warehouse occupied by the dealer, they discovered 120 bags of sound kernels, 15 bags of loose collected kernels, 60 bags of ground nuts, and 33 barrels of palm oil, which had recently been stored. At this period the dealer had paid an account, bringing the settlement of his alleged legitimate purchases up to date, but no mention was made by him of the goods referred to. As they were delivered without the necessary order it was obvious that they had been deliberately stolen, and this was true of many similar instances, in all of which the manufacturers and importers were the losers.

Respecting the period covered by the prosecution, about two and a half years, some figures will be useful to show the extent of the fraud. From invoices and receipts traced, the total amount received by the company from the dealer in respect of goods supplied to him was slightly over £7000. From the description of this produce it would be assumed that it was practically worthless from a manufacturing standpoint. The amount received by the dealer from one manufacturer was over £26,000 for produce sold by him, from another manufacturer over £2000. Whilst taking into consideration the

goods found in his warehouse, and the quantity legitimately acquired, it was proved that by his illegal transactions, with his confederates, he had cleared about £22,000 in the stated period. This is exclusive of palm oil and other goods, and relates only to palm kernels and ground nuts. A definite charge was preferred respecting palm oil, which had been sold by the dealer to a manufacturer outside the city. In view of the fact that over 100 witnesses would be required, many from long distances, this charge was not proceeded with. The banking accounts of the dealer and master porter were examined with the necessary authority and the deposits of both offenders for the period concerned supplied useful material for the prosecution.

The short summary of this huge conspiracy can hardly be expected to convey to the reader the magnitude of this important case.

It was handled by a senior officer of the Criminal Investigation Department, who has dealt with some of the most important cases affecting cargo pilferage on the Liverpool side of the port. During the ordinary course of his duties, he ascertained that small quantities of produce were being stolen from a warehouse used by the shipping company, but not connected with these proceedings. As a result of some quiet investigation the pilfering ceased, and the matter was not pursued by the police for some eighteen months. By this time the offenders had apparently regained the confidence they had lost, and the officer with a few subordinates resumed the inquiry. As a result it was definitely ascertained that at least three separate gangs were operating from all the berths used by the company. This was in addition to the warehouses and store yards, and nearly all the foremen and regular dock labourers were involved. Even casual dock labourers were carefully selected, and no person could hope for employment who could not be trusted to keep his mouth closed. It seems incredible that the conspiracy could progress to the extent that it did, and had the merchants re-weighed their goods when taking delivery the opportunities given could not have presented themselves.

The police had to proceed carefully, for if suspicion had

again been roused the matter could not have been brought to the successful issue which resulted. Ultimately, definite evidence was obtained, and simultaneously the officer in charge interrogated the master porter, whilst a subordinate visited the dealer, and they were arrested. A third officer took possession of the warehouse rented by the dealer. At varying intervals later, evidence was obtained to connect the other six prisoners, who were arrested some weeks later.

The preparation of the case occupied nearly three months, and the hearing for the committal to the Assizes no less than twenty-two days. At the Assizes the indictment was made out for thirty-eight counts of stealing and receiving goods on various dates. The alleged owners of the goods were cited as the Shipping Company and the Mersey Docks and Harbour Board, and in each count the master porter and the dealer figured. A further indictment charged the eight prisoners with conspiring with persons unknown, during a period, to steal produce valued at £30,000.

Persons not experienced in procedure of this kind can hardly conceive the mass of evidence, with exhibits, necessary to complete such a case, which, so far as this port is concerned, is without precedent.

The proceedings were unexpectedly concluded at the Assizes owing to the fact that the master porter, who had been granted bail to appear the following morning, had committed suicide.

A similar type of case was handled during the War period, when the docks were not policed as efficiently as could be desired. The property stolen, which was all subsequently recovered, consisted of 7½ tons of beeswax and 10 cwts. of Para rubber valued at over £1000, and this formed part of the general cargo discharged from a ship which had been on fire and sunk in the dock. No complaint had been received of pilferage, but information came to hand regarding the activity of an alien dealer, who was suspected of receiving stolen property.

He used a warehouse, which was searched, and 6 tons of beeswax and the rubber quoted was found there. Failing to give a satisfactory account of his possession of the goods, he

was arrested, and it was later ascertained that he had disposed of 1½ tons of beeswax. This was found stored in a warehouse in a town some distance away and was recovered, and claimed by the Liverpool Salvage Association, acting on behalf of the Insurance Companies. Simultaneously with the arrest of the receiver a foreman at the docks, responsible for the landing operations, disappeared, but was later arrested and charged with stealing the goods mentioned. It was then discovered that the system adopted to remove the goods was by using empty railway vans, which were left in a siding adjoining the dock sheds. By this means the property was taken off the dock estate and the goods removed, with assistance, by the thief to the premises of the receiver.

The original wrappings were removed and the wax scraped to remove the effects left by the sea water, but in the case of the rubber this point appeared to have been overlooked. Expert evidence was called, and the City Analyst testified to the effect that as the rubber was affected by the salt water, this would also apply to the original wrappings, but the wrappings on the rubber when it was found by the police were not stained by salt water, so that it was obvious they were not the original wrappings. This point was considered to be most important by the judge and jury at the Assizes, and both persons were found guilty. The receiver was sentenced to three years' penal servitude, and the thief to nine months' imprisonment with hard labour.

It is possible that, under the circumstances, such valuable property would not have been missed but for police action, and the two officers who handled the case, one of whom was the officer who dealt with the fraud previously referred to, were commended by the judge.

A type of theft somewhat different from those quoted occurred in the early days following the War, and in this the police of Liverpool might not have been concerned except for an unusual coincidence. A large consignment of cameras had been shipped in America to the order of a well-known camera manufacturing company in this country and was landed at the Liverpool docks.

The first intimation that the goods had been tampered

with was through a letter sent to the consignees by one of their dealers, resident in a town in the south of England, to the effect that three dozen cameras had been offered to him at a very low figure by a person who was not a dealer. That person was seen, and it was then ascertained that the cameras had been sold to him by a friend in Liverpool, and the latter, on being interrogated, said that he had met a person in a public-house, who showed him a sample camera, and from whom he ultimately bought forty.

Later it transpired that the seller was a labourer, not employed at the docks, and he in turn said he had purchased forty-one cameras from a dock labourer engaged in discharging the cargo which included the consignment in question. Another dock labourer engaged with the cargo had six cameras traced to his possession, and all three men were arrested.

The two dock labourers were charged with stealing forty-one and six cameras respectively, and the labourer not employed at the docks with feloniously receiving forty-one cameras. Search warrants were obtained, and although no other cameras were recovered six other persons were arrested in respect of other property stolen from the docks. For their part in connexion with the cameras the three prisoners were sentenced to four months' imprisonment with hard labour. When the consignment was examined it was discovered that no less than 257 cameras, valued at £730, had been stolen, whilst the forty-eight recovered were valued at £86. There was little doubt that the major portion of the pilferage had occurred in America at the port of shipment and during the voyage.

The following case, which differs from the employer and servant type, serves to show the depredations committed by the systematic thief, with a ready receiver available.

During the War period large consignments of metal were shipped to the order of the Ministry of Munitions and discharged at the docks. This was made up in ingots and bars, each weighing approximately 140 pounds. A police inspector passing a shop heard a clinking of metals at the rear, and, on going to investigate, discovered a lorry containing metal, which was being carried into the yard. He entered and discovered fifty-five ingots of branded copper, some of which were

broken, in addition to a number of new spelter plates, brass, and a quantity of raw rubber.

The C.I.D. was at once informed, and it was ascertained that the occupier of this shop, who was supposed to deal only in second-hand furniture, was the wife of a metal dealer, who occupied separate premises. These premises were searched and a large quantity of metal of the type described was found. This, with the metal found by the inspector, was later identified as having been stolen from the various parts of the docks and had been discharged from the ships of various companies during a period covering a few weeks.

Subsequent inquiry proved that the metal had been stolen by two young men who were evading military service, and sold to the woman acting in collusion with her husband, who paid his wife after she had purchased the metal at a ridiculous price.

It was proved that the woman was not acting under the influence of her husband, she having her own business and a separate banking account. The two young thieves were later arrested; one of them seriously assaulted the detective who effected his arrest, and was identified as having incapacitated a constable at the dock by striking him with a broken ingot when engaged in removing the stolen metal from the docks. The four prisoners were committed to the Liverpool Assizes, the young men for stealing, and the man and wife for receiving, about five tons of copper ingots, etc., valued at £700. Whilst the case was under trial a peculiar incident occurred, when it was discovered that one of the jury had been convicted of feloniously receiving stolen metal. Counsel made an objection, and the case was transferred to the Manchester Assizes. The two thieves were sentenced to six and four months' imprisonment respectively, the male receiver to three years' penal servitude, and his wife to eighteen months' imprisonment with hard labour. In addition to the metal forming the subject of the charges, other metal was traced to the possession of the offenders, the total of which was valued at £1000. It was taken over by the Ministry of Munitions.

Many thieves specialize in a particular form of theft, and in the year following the War, when all records were broken in pilferage, a certain gang was responsible for the heavy losses

in cloth and other textile goods which were exported by manufacturers in various parts of England and Ireland. Although no complaint had been received in respect of a particular case, it came to the knowledge of a member of the C.I.D. that small lengths of cloth were being sold in a public-house near the dock estate. It is customary for detectives to visit such premises and eating-houses, disguised as labourers.

The activities of a certain gang who resort to violence, and who do not specialize in any particular form of theft, are of more recent date. When not undergoing sentences for some offence, they are employed as dock labourers, and so obtain useful information regarding the type of goods being exported and imported. Seeing that they visit the docks for a legitimate purpose, *i.e.* seeking employment, they can hardly be treated as undesirables and excluded under the authority given.

A bale of cloth containing a number of rolls was lying in a shed awaiting shipment on a vessel about to sail and was placed near a spare covered gangway in the shed. In the space of a few moments the bale disappeared and a search was made, it being ultimately found, with the wrapping torn, in the gangway. Inquiry was made through the carriers from the manufacturers and it was ascertained that a roll of serge valued at £30 was missing. No trace was obtained of the cloth which, as is customary with small pilferages of this type, would probably be sold by the thieves in suit lengths, by hawking it from door to door. The type of person who would purchase in this manner is resident in a district near the docks, and the police could not expect assistance from him.

During the course of investigation it was ascertained that a dock labourer had seen a man leaving the covered gangway in a bulky condition. From the description supplied, the detective in charge of the case had no doubt as to who the offender was, but, owing to the violent nature of the man described, the witness declined to make a statement, and the matter was left in abeyance. Subsequently, this man, with two other known offenders, was arrested on a charge of stealing a barrel containing two cwts. of block tin, made up in small bars. The barrel had been left for five minutes on a lorry and, when the carter returned, was missing. A search was

made, but as the work for the day was ended, the detective was unable to obtain particulars. He returned early next morning and, when near the shed, noticed three bulky looking men wearing overcoats, and at once recognized them as well-known thieves. The officer mingled with some workmen, but was observed by the thieves, and they began to move away from him. He called to them to stop, and being as familiar with the officer as he was with them, they did so. He seized two of them and found they had quantities of tin concealed in their clothing. A struggle ensued, and one of the arrested offenders, with the man not already caught, escaped.

On searching the prisoner, 25 lb. of tin was found in his pockets, and a further quantity was later recovered, having been concealed on the dock estate, which provides ample facilities for thieves in this direction.

The other two men were subsequently arrested by the detective, who, but for timely assistance, ran grave risk of personal injury.

Most of the cases quoted have been connected with the shore worker, but the following isolated case illustrates the loss which may be caused by dishonest members of a ship's crew.

In September, 1920, a case containing rolls of cloth was shipped from this port to Salonica. For some reason, ten months later, it had to be returned and was shipped intact on another vessel which arrived here in September, 1921.

On arrival, the Captain complained he had reason to believe that some of his cargo had been broached. His suspicion appeared to be based on the grounds that several members of the crew had been drinking and were rather free with money during the ship's stay in foreign ports. At this stage there were no grounds for detaining the crew, and they were allowed ashore, but whilst their personal effects were being examined by the Customs officials for dutiable goods, several members of the C.I.D. took the opportunity of making an examination. At this time it was not known what, if anything, was missing, and the search produced a negative result. The following day, when the ship had commenced discharging, the case which had contained the cloth was found broken open in the hold and the contents missing. The manu-

facturers in Glasgow were communicated with, as a result of which it was ascertained the case had contained cloth to the value of £756.

The inquiry was pursued and several members of the crew who were alleged to have been spending freely were interrogated by an experienced officer. One of the men made a statement admitting his complicity in the theft, and this was followed by several others. The result was that nine members of that crew, including a quartermaster, were arrested.

From the admissions of several of the men it transpired that the case had been broken open in Constantinople, and lengths of cloth cut and wrapped around the bodies of several of the prisoners. They were assisted in this direction by a Turkish watchman employed on the ship, and a quantity of the cloth was sold to a Turk, who was said to have paid fifteen Turkish pounds for it. The remainder of the cloth was taken ashore and sold at a port in Greece.

Two of the prisoners were discharged, three sentenced to six months' imprisonment, and the remaining four to four months' imprisonment. None of the cloth was recovered. However, although this at one time was a very common class of offence, it is now rarely heard of by the police at Liverpool.

Petty pilferage must result in enormous losses to traders and others, as it is difficult to detect offenders in this direction when leaving the dock estate. The watch on the dock gates is strengthened during the period the workers leave at meal times, and also when the day's work is finished, when hundreds of men pass out *en masse*. Apart from the uniformed constables, members of the C.I.D. are posted at points of vantage during these periods, and a person in possession of stolen property naturally endeavours to obtain a position in the centre of a crowd leaving the docks. In one instance, a man appeared to be over-developed in a particular region, and, when challenged, denied having anything in his possession. On being searched a 16 lb. ham was found under the front of his trousers and waistcoat.

Some of the shipping companies, during the time their vessels are in dock, engage charwomen to scrub saloons, etc., and instances are recorded where they have participated in

pilferage. Should it be found necessary, a female searcher is detailed to examine the women when leaving the docks, but in many cases a constable would examine the bucket in which they carry their scrubbers, etc. In one instance a garrulous old cleaner was leaving, and, on being challenged by a constable, remarked as she touched her head with her forefinger, 'It's up here you want it.' The constable, concluding this might be so, asked her to remove her hat, under which was concealed four small tins of sardines.

A certain persistent thief, who has a reputation for stealing personal property from the quarters of the crews on board ships in dock, is regarded as a slippery individual, and even when in custody very difficult to hold. He usually selects a ship about to sail, and steals money and jewellery from the clothing of the crew. The difficulty of dealing with a man of this type must be apparent, as usually, by the time he is arrested and due to appear in Court, the witnesses have left the port. During the past few years he has definitely been connected with thirteen offences, and only sent to prison on four occasions. In a recent case he was found on board a ship by a constable, to whom he explained that he had been promised work. He was searched, and in his possession was found a wallet containing money which he had just stolen. A gold ring and some German money was also found on him, and this property was found to have been stolen the same day from a German sailor on another ship. By the time the prisoner appeared before the Court the owner of the wallet had sailed, and the charge had to be withdrawn. The German, who owned the ring and the money, however, was available to give evidence, and the prisoner was sentenced to six months' hard labour.

Until the opening of the new Gladstone Dock, a favourite method of removing stolen property was for a member of a gang to leave the dock and post himself on the adjacent sands at low tide, when property would be thrown to him by his confederates.

A very small percentage of the investigations made by the police into dock pilferage arise, in the first place, from complaints made by the owners or custodians of the stolen pro-

perty. The owners, indeed, are usually ignorant of their loss until the police discover it. When, however, they are informed, they give all the assistance they can to the police in pursuit of the investigation. It is, therefore, true that most of the big fraudulent conspiracies of the type being considered have been detected in the first instance by the police, in ways by no means mysterious, and brought home to the perpetrators through the co-operation of the police and commercial organizations.

[See also 'Cargo Pilferage and the Police' in *The Police Journal*, Vol. ii, p. 132.]

The Spanish Civil Guard

BY HIS EXCELLENCY LIEUTENANT-GENERAL DON JOSE
SANJURJO, MARQUIS DEL RIF

Translated

'Honour is the chief emblem of the Civil Guard; it must therefore be kept spotless. Once lost it is never regained.'—*First article of the Manual.*

PART I.

THE history of the last 86 years bears ample witness to the value, the justification for and the conduct of the Civil Guard in Spain. Its prestige, enhanced by high examples of self-abnegation, has spread over the whole country. Beyond the frontiers, various American republics have copied the organization of the force, creating similar bodies under the leadership of Spanish chiefs and officers.

When the civil war ended, the Government considered it impossible to delay a day longer the establishment of public security, which is the first of social requirements and the basis for the development of all activities, and decided accordingly to ensure it. On the 26th January, 1844, was published a decree signed by Queen Isabel establishing Commissaries and Wardens of public security, in place of the old local functionaries. One article of the decree stated that an organization of public security would be created.

Two months later appeared the Royal decree creating the Civil Guard in Spain. On the 28th March, 1844, the original authority was given which served for the foundation of the Civil Guard. The Government here set out the necessity for its existence and indicated that the Guard should serve as a civil force in order to preclude the frequent inter-



(face p. 368.)



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THE SPANISH CIVIL GUARD

intervention of the Army in civil affairs, an intervention which might be injurious to the prestige of the regular forces, exercise a pernicious influence on their discipline and training, and politically react unfavourably on the development of the constitutional system.

The peculiar character of the new body was considered in defining its organization. Its principal value lay in the fact that the force was divided into many units. Hence resulted the establishment of divisions, squadrons and companies, and smaller sections, which were best suited to the nature and usual duties of a protective force.

The decree further indicated that the most careful attention should be given to recruiting. Except in rare cases, enlistment was to be limited to discharged soldiers of excellent character, both before and after leaving the service. The same consideration required that the pay and gratuities proposed should be rather above the average. If it was necessary in the public interest that salaries of civil servants should be regularly and exactly paid, this was the more necessary in the case of a body of men in some degree independent of higher authority, likely to be the recipients of important secrets, and frequently exposed to vindictiveness or to attempts at corruption.

There were, however, some defects in the Royal decree. These were the excessive independence of the civil authorities possessed by the corps, and, as far as concerned its organization, the lack of a chief who should be responsible for the exact carrying out of regulations, and act as liaison between the civil and the military authorities. But the Government found a man who corrected these defects and gave life to the new institution.

Major-General D. Francisco Javier Giron y Ezpeleta, Duke of Ahumada, a brilliant soldier to whom Spain owes lasting gratitude, was charged with the organization of the Guard. His great gifts as organizer and his tenacity brought the work to success.

Uniform and equipment was the first question to be considered, and as the Guard was to be constantly on active service these were settled for all seasons, stations and places.

The copying of uniform and equipment used by other nations was avoided, so as to establish a purely Spanish body.

Inspiration was derived from that possessed at the time of its greatest glory by the Santa Hermandad, an institution which gave centuries of service to Spain. Finally the various units received the names proudly borne by the old regiments of Spanish infantry which had distinguished themselves in Flanders, Africa, Italy and America.

The next decree of 13th May, 1844, actually marked the foundation of the Guard, since it altered completely its original basis. The establishment was fixed at 5,779 men, divided into 14 divisions. Regulations were drawn up. The Duke of Ahumada was appointed Inspector-General and the town of Leganés was chosen for training the infantry and Vicalvaro for the cavalry.

On the 1st September of the same year the contingents left their depots and were reviewed on the outskirts of Madrid by the Minister of War and the Duke of Ahumada. This review sealed the official approval of the Guard ; its organization promptly followed.

Objects of the Guard and its Relation to the Various Ministries

The object of the Civil Guard is to ensure the preservation of public order, to protect persons and property, and to assist in every way the enforcement of the law.

The organization depends on the Ministry of War for its organization, personnel, discipline and equipment ; on the Ministry of the Interior for its service, quarters, pay and gratuities ; on the Ministry of Public Works as regards services of rural and forest guard ; and finally on the Ministry of Justice and Religion as regards legal powers.

General. The Civil Guard is an integral part of the Army. Its personnel is subject to military law ; its individual members, when they are wearing regulation uniform, must receive the notice which under military regulations is given to a sentinel. The military authorities deal with any insult to or attack upon the force, even if those responsible are not connected with the Army.

The corps is distributed over the whole of Spanish territory. Each small detachment is called a ' Station ' and has assigned to it a fixed area, so that there is no portion of Spanish soil of which the Guard is not in charge.

Stations must be of infantry, of cavalry, or of the two forces mixed. Their minimum strength is four guards and a commandant who is called ' Station Commandant ' and is either a corporal or a sergeant. The Commandant may also be given to a warrant officer, though this is unusual except in posts of exceptional importance, since the real duty of warrant officers is to act as assistants to captains and colonels.

A group of stations, varying from five to eight, constitutes a section commanded by a Second Lieutenant or Lieutenant. A group of three or four sections constitutes a company or squadron, according as these belong to one or the other arm. Sections, as well as companies, and squadrons have their allotted boundaries.

The group of Companies and Squadrons which garrison each province constitutes the Command, which takes the name of the province. An officer of the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel is in command. The staff is completed by a second officer of the rank of Major.

Every two commands grouped form a Division, commanded by a Colonel entitled Sub-Inspector, and the Division is an administrative unit. In addition to the Colonel its staff includes a Major, three Captains and a Warrant Officer. The Captains act as Adjutant-Secretary, Paymaster and Quartermaster respectively, while the Warrant Officer assists the Colonel in the orderly room and performs such other duties as he may impose.

When the cavalry assigned to a Division is very numerous, it is constituted into an independent cavalry command, ready to act as a separate administrative unit.

The commands which garrison the Balearic and the Canary Islands do not belong to a division, but govern themselves. Their Lieutenant-Colonel exercises the function of Sub-Inspector and possesses a staff analogous to that of divisions.

A mobile division is quartered in Madrid. It has no fixed area, but can be concentrated at any point as required.

The supreme control of the Divisions is entrusted to general officers of the corps of the rank of Brigadiers. They are termed Inspectors, and have under their orders a Major as Aide-de-Camp. The group of provinces garrisoned by Divisions and entrusted to an Inspector is termed a 'Zone.'

A Divisional General belonging to the Corps, and the only officer of this rank, exercises the functions of Sub-Director. The Director is an officer of the rank of Lieutenant-General belonging to the General Staff. He has under his orders the staff of officers needed for Headquarters. These are organized in three sections commanded by Colonels, and embody the staff required for the various services, such as personnel, quarters, arms, accounts, horses, discipline, colleges, and schools, special services, etc.

Functions of Various Ranks

Station Commandants (Corporals, Sergeants and Warrant Officers) have to see that the men carry out their duties correctly. They are responsible for discipline and training and for the upkeep of arms and material, etc. They keep a constant watch over their area, ensure the protection of persons and property, and suppress any disturbances.

Officers of a Section (Second Lieutenants and Lieutenants) are responsible for the training and discipline of the force under their orders and for maintaining a spirit of harmony in the force. Through these officers the Captains remit credits and pay for distribution.

Captains in command of companies or squadrons are charged generally with surveillance over the service, training and police duties, discipline and administration.

Captains who are chosen by vote to act as paymasters or quartermasters are obliged to follow the army system of accounts, and the army system of administration generally, as far as it does not conflict with the special character of the Guard.

Majors who are second officers of a command replace their chiefs where these are absent. To this end they must be acquainted with all details of the service and know per-

fectly the topography of the province. By virtue of their office they are responsible for the training of their commands and make confidential reports on the junior officers. Officers chosen for the office of Major are obliged to be acquainted with the law relating to accountancy and internal administration.

Lieutenant-Colonels in charge of a Command are the centres of action for their district. Their office entails continual zealous attention to the welfare of their command. They must set an example of continual activity, justice and impartiality to those under them. They have to render an account to higher authority for the training, policing and discipline of their Command.

Colonels who are sub-inspectors of Divisions are in charge of the inspection of every branch of activity. They have to consider themselves permanently on duty and to inspect any stations as they may consider necessary, in order to keep the various services keyed up to efficiency.

Personnel—Officers. The cadre of officers of the Civil Guard is filled by the entry into the corps of infantry and cavalry lieutenants and by promotions from the ranks to the grade of Second Lieutenant. All vacancies in that rank are thus filled, as well as two-thirds of the vacancies in the rank of Lieutenant. The remaining third is filled from the two previously mentioned branches of the services.

Lieutenants of the regular army who wish to enter the Civil Guard must be at least 20 years old, possess a good reputation and a clean record, be clear of debt, be at least 1.590 metres tall, and have passed a satisfactory entrance examination.

The examination takes place before a tribunal presided over by the Colonel in whose district the entrant lives or is to serve. The subjects comprise Corps and Field regulations, knowledge of the duties of rural and forest guard, laws regarding public forests, fishing and game, and criminal prosecution. Candidates from the infantry must be acquainted with cavalry tactics and the care of horses, and candidates from the cavalry with infantry tactics. Approved candidates are commissioned in the following order of precedence :—

- (1) Officers with the laurelled Cross of San Fernando.
- (2) Military Medal.
- (3) Promoted Lieutenants for distinguished service in the field.
- (4) Cross of Maria Cristina.
- (5) Those who possess none of the aforesaid qualifications.

Among officers thus qualified, those of the greatest merit are further preferred, and all things being equal, those who have been wounded in action, who have most feats of arms to their credit, or who have served longest in the regular forces, expeditionary force, the Division, or in Auxiliary services. In accordance with this procedure, vacancies are filled from the first names on the list, and no one with a lower order of precedence enters the Guard before those of superior merit.

On entering the Guard officers are allotted to Commands, and the Colonel of the Division nominates them to their Sections. Before they take over their duties, the Captain of their company or squadron has them under training for three months, after which they take definite command of their sections.

Academies

Other ranks who are to be promoted have first to pass through the Special Academy of the corps in Madrid. They study for two terms of six months each. The curriculum covers military subjects in general, and, in the second term more particularly, the various duties of the Guard as Police officers. These touch practically the whole of national life. In addition a course of general education is given.

The Directorate General gives yearly notice of the beginning of each course and decides the number of men from the cavalry and infantry who are to be accepted. Warrant Officers who desire to enter give in their names; those of doubtful character or with unfavourable history sheets are rejected. The Directorate fills the places after considering the antecedents of the petitioners, and informs them whether they have been approved. Due regard is given to the men of

longest service. If there are not enough Warrant Officers to fill the vacant places, Sergeants are accepted, but in such cases they must be considered fit for promotion to Warrant Officers' rank.

Once the courses are over, the men are classified in the order of the results of their examination and are promoted according to these when posts of second lieutenants fall vacant. Until such vacancies occur, they carry on their former duties. Officers who enter the Guard from the regular army form the so-called active section of the corps, and those who come from the Special Academy the reserve section. Their services and pay are identical, but it is rare for an officer of reserve to rise beyond the rank of captain, on account of the age at which he becomes a second lieutenant.

Recruiting

Recruits are accepted for the Civil Guard from Spanish subjects who belong or have belonged to the lower ranks of the Army and Navy, sons of officers and men of the Guard, and pupils from the College of Young Guards. Those only are rejected who have already been members of the Guard but have been discharged either for administrative reasons or following judicial proceedings.

Intending recruits must be fit for military service and possess a clean history sheet and crime sheet. With the exception of recruits from the College of Young Guards, they appear before a tribunal presided over by the Lieutenant-Colonel of the Command in which they live, and are put through an examination designed to test their military aptitude and their general knowledge. Before the results of the examination are approved, they must present documents showing that they have never been in trouble with the civil authorities or guilty of criminal offences. Station Commandants also present a report upon the conduct and morals of the recruits, their wives and friends. Unfavourable reports bar entry to the Guard.

Recruits of various qualifications are thus classified.

Entrants from the College of Young Guards. These must

have proved proficient in the course of instruction, be of good conduct, 19 years old, and 1.647 metres tall for an Infantry or Cavalry Guard or 1.620 for a bugler or trumpeter.

Recruits decorated with the laurelled Cross of San Fernando. Nineteen years old minimum and thirty-five maximum, with at least six months' service in the ranks. No limit as to height in consideration of the services needed to acquire this decoration.

Military Medal. Age as for the Cross of San Fernando. No limit as to height, but service in the ranks must extend to one year.

Sons of personnel of the Guard. Age limit as before, minimum height 1.650 metres for Guards and 1.620 for buglers and trumpeters. Previous service in the ranks is not necessary on account of the familiarity with military life already possessed. The efficiency test is the same as for other classes. If a recruit is to be entered in this class, his father must have had at least ten years' service in the Guard with good conduct.

Sons of Officers of the Army and Navy. Conditions as above, but one year's service in the ranks is necessary.

Discharged members of the Guard. These may re-enlist once, until they reach the age of 50 years, however long the period since their discharge, provided they count at least two years' previous service with good conduct.

Recruits from the Army and Navy. Age limit 20 years' minimum and 35 years' maximum; height 1.677 metres for Guard and 1.650 for buglers and trumpeters; four years' service in the ranks, unless the recruit has been wounded on active service and rewarded with the Cross of Maria Cristina, in which event the period of service is reduced to one year.

Recruits fulfilling the above conditions are classified in two groups: sons of generals and other officers of the Army and Navy and of members of the Guard, and former members of the Guard who desire to renew their service, form the first group; non-commissioned officers and men of the Army and Navy the second.

The groups are further sub-divided into classes, the first of sons of officers, of veterans and discharged members of the

Guard; the second of warrant officers and sergeants, corporals and private soldiers.

Preference in enlistment is given in the following order:—

1. Men wounded on active service or decorated with the Cross of Maria Cristina.
2. Classes or individuals who have served four or more years in the Royal Guard.
3. Orphans of Officers and members of the Guard who have been killed on active service or in the discharge of duty.
4. Men who have taken part in three or more engagements.
5. Men who have served in the ranks in the Zone of the Protectorate in Morocco for at least one year.
6. Sons of officers and veterans of the Guard who have served a year in the ranks.

First preference is further given to men decorated with the laurelled Cross of San Fernando or the Military Medal and to pupils from the College of Young Guards.

Once they have entered the Corps, recruits are posted to stations. Here they serve a period of probation under the Commandants and Guards of long service. They do not go on patrol until their chiefs ask and obtain the permission of the officer of the section, who satisfies himself of the men's efficiency.

Station Commandants train recruits during the first six months in the special duties of the Guard. Within one year recruits must acquire the rest of their instruction and be familiar with the regulations of the Guard.

Recruits considered unsuitable on various grounds after their first six months' service are discharged, otherwise their enlistment is finally ratified.

There are actually about one thousand candidates for the Guard from infantry and cavalry officers and more than seven thousand from the ranks. It often happens that a man fails to secure enlistment either because as an officer he has reached the rank of Captain or as a ranker because he has attained 35 years of age.

Uniform. Several sections of the 'Manual of the Civil Guard' lay stress on the importance of correct uniform and insist that slovenliness breeds contempt.

There have been few variations in the essentials of the uniform since the Guard was created. The public is frequently heard to remark that the distinguishing marks of the Guard, such as the headdress, should not be changed. These differentiate it from the remainder of the Army and render it easily picked out when its services are required.

The Guard possesses four regulation uniforms: one for ordinary service; another for festival days; a full dress or 'gala' uniform; and one still more elaborate called 'de gran gala.'

Ordinary service uniform is of grey-green cloth, with a hat with an oilskin cover when on duty on wet days, and for walking out a black felt hat with a white band and a cockade of the national colours. On duty the force carries the regulation arms, and for walking out and orderly duties in barracks an automatic pistol, and the regulation sabre for cavalry or infantry.

The uniform for festival days consists of a blue coat and trousers. It is not worn during the summer, when ordinary service dress is used.

The full dress uniform consists of blue tail coat and trousers with scarlet collar and cuffs; the uniform 'de gran gala' of a blue coat and white trousers, with which the infantry wear blue leggings and the cavalry riding boots and spurs.

As a protective garment infantry wear a blue cape and cavalry a blue riding cape.

Generals, chiefs and officers use the same badges of rank as the rest of the Army. Their uniform is like that of other ranks except that their headdress has edgings and a band of silver braid instead of white cotton, and the reverse of the collar of their capes is of red cloth with the badges of the corps and of rank in silver. Officers may also wear a blue cloak and, on wet days, a blue waterproof.

All ranks wear brown gloves with service and white with full dress uniform. When on ordinary duty other ranks do not wear gloves.

Training

The College of Young Guards. This college was founded on 1st April, 1853, and is established at Valdemoro. It gives military and professional training to sons of members of the Corps who desire themselves to serve in the Guard. Entrants are accepted in the following order of preference:—

1. Sons of fathers killed on active service or decorated with the laurelled cross of San Fernando.
2. Sons of members of the Guard disabled in the course of their duty.
3. Sons of retired members.
4. Sons of serving personnel.

The pupils are further classified in three groups:—

1. Sons of members who have distinguished themselves in the field and in special service, or who have received rewards such as the Cruz de Beneficencia or Merito Militar.
2. Sons of other ranks.
3. Sons of Officers.

Pupils of the college who have gone successfully through the course of studies and are of regulation height, passed automatically into the Corps on reaching the age of 19 years. Pupils of exceptional merit take an additional course, the marks obtained in which serve to qualify them as corporals when they reach the requisite age.

The College possesses a branch in Madrid called the College of the Infanta Maria Teresa, which trains youths of outstanding merit for the following careers and professions:—Preparation for entry into the General Academy of the Army, Posts and Telegraphs, Magistracy, University, skilled mechanics, electricians, etc.

There are also workshops for training in printing, cabinet-making, carpentry and machinery those pupils who so desire or who are either unable to follow other studies or wish to take up these trades.

Schools for orphans (of both sexes) of the Corps are also established at Valdemoro, where appropriate training is given.

The male pupils pass eventually to the Infanta Maria Teresa institution.

Equipment

Arms. On service of any kind, except railway escort, infantry guards carry a Spanish Mauser rifle, 1893 model, with bayonet and 150 cartridges; for walking out and orderly duties they carry an infantry sabre, like that of infantry sergeants of the rest of the Army, and an automatic pistol of 9 mm. calibre, 'Star' model, with 16 cartridges.

Patrols escorting trains carry a rifle, 'Tigre' model, with 150 cartridges.

On service of any kind, cavalry guards carry a Mauser carbine of the same model as the infantry and 100 cartridges; for walking out and orderly duties they carry the regulation sabre of the cavalry arm and the same pistol as the infantry.

Members of the Guard go through two firing courses every year, in spring and in autumn. They use as ammunition the cartridges which have been longest in their possession, so that ammunition is renewed in a comparatively short time.

Means of Locomotion. Chiefs and Officers are mounted, as they usually have to carry out their duties on horseback.

In order to ensure quick transport and to carry out certain protective duties on the roads motor transport is used. This service is centred in Madrid, where the Guard has a motor park and repair shops. Cars are now being acquired in the proportion of one to every Command and District, for the use of the commanding officers.

For the rest the Guard is equipped with motor bicycles, lorries, cars and motor coaches.

(To be continued.)



A BATTALION OF THE SPANISH CIVIL GUARD



INFANTRYMAN



CAVALRYMAN

THE SPANISH CIVIL GUARD



CAVALRYMAN PREPARING TO MOUNT

Fraudulent Conversion

A NEW ASPECT OF PREVENTION AND DETECTION

By JOHN STEVENSON

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Fellow, Incorporated Secretaries' Association ;
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THAT ' Prevention is better than cure ' is an old but very true saying. During the past year there have been signs of the legislature awaking to realization of the necessity, in the general public interest, to make one of the most prevalent crimes, fraudulent conversion, less easy of accomplishment. Particularly has interest been shown in the solicitors and estate agents professions, and Bills are now before Parliament (or in draft) designed to secure greater protection to the large body of lay clients who place trust money in the care of members of those professions.

In addition, the New Year crop of ' Slate Club ' tares has been accompanied by more than usual publicity, with the result that more efficient control of such concerns may also materialize in the reasonably near future.

WORDING OF THE STATUTE

By Section 20 (1) of the Larceny Act, 1916, it is provided that every person who

- (i) being entrusted either solely or jointly with any other person with any power of attorney for the sale or transfer of any property, fraudulently sells, transfers, or otherwise converts the property or any part thereof to his own use or benefit, or the use or benefit of any person other than the person by whom he was so entrusted ; . . .

- (iv) (a) being entrusted either solely or jointly with any other person with any property in order that he may retain in safe custody or apply, pay, or deliver, for any purpose or to any person, the property, or any part thereof or any proceeds thereof; or
- (b) having either solely or jointly with any other person received any property for or on account of any other person; fraudulently converts to his own use or benefit, or the use or benefit of any other person, the property or any other part thereof or any proceeds thereof;

shall be guilty of a misdemeanour and on conviction thereof liable to penal servitude for any term not exceeding seven years.

Section 21 of the same statute deals specifically with frauds by trustees, and lays down conditions antecedent to prosecution.

CONVERSION BY SOLICITORS

It is regrettable, but nevertheless true, that some of the frauds involving the largest sums of money have been committed by solicitors when acting in a fiduciary capacity for their clients. In proportion, of course, to the total number of members of this profession in practice (some 15,000 in England and Wales alone) the number of criminal charges brought in any average year is far less than 1 per cent. But when even that small percentage may be responsible for losses running into hundreds of thousands of pounds sterling, it will be agreed the situation cannot be regarded with equanimity. To deal with it, two rival remedies are being proposed, one by the Council of the Law Society and the other independently by Sir John Withers, head of a distinguished legal firm and a Member of Parliament for Cambridge University.

The former seeks to make all practising solicitors members of the Law Society (at present only about two-thirds belong) and to build up with the additional revenues obtained, a fund to reimburse clients who have lost money through the fraud or gross negligence of their solicitors. The Society are also

insisting that all solicitors shall have separate banking accounts for clients' moneys.

The latter would establish a system of fidelity guarantee bonds somewhat similar to those in common use in most of the Dominions, and providing powers for a competent Court, in cases of fraud or negligence, to reimburse the loser from the capital sum guaranteed.

CONVERSION BY ESTATE AGENTS

Police officers will be aware that there has of late been a serious recrudescence of cases of fraudulent conversion by estate agents. In 1930 practically every Assize Calendar of any size contained at least one. While in some instances it was doubtful whether the offender could ever have been looked upon as a genuine practitioner, there is no blinking the fact that in many more he began on perfectly straightforward lines. The origin of the crime, in nearly all cases falling within the latter category, is traceable to 'bad times' followed by the use of a single bank account into which all moneys, whether his own or his clients, were paid, and from which all cheques were drawn.

CONVERSION BY GOVERNMENT AND MUNICIPAL OFFICERS

As regards the permanent Civil Servant coming under direct control of Whitehall, extremely few cases of fraudulent dealing with public moneys have occurred for many years past. It is only to be regretted that there is, seemingly, far less safeguarding of the funds contributed by local taxpayers. Possibly the revelations in the recent Nottingham case may lead to a tightening-up of control, both as to payments and the securing and carrying out of contracts. In general, the smaller the authority the greater the risk of malversation, for the majority of exposures show the losers there to be the areas administered by the less important boroughs, or urban, or rural district councils.

CONVERSION BY BANK OFFICERS, ACCOUNTANTS, ETC.

Happily, it is relatively seldom that one comes across prosecutions for criminal conversion by bank officers. Within

the past thirty years, and still more since the coming into being of the 'Big Five' among banking corporations, the systems for detecting anything in the nature of irregularity have been made as near crime proof as is humanly possible. While the few exceptions may on occasion involve comparatively large sums of money, the fact that public confidence is in no way disturbed is proof positive of the general correctness of this inference.

Accountants' registration was, in 1930, fully discussed by a representative Committee appointed by the President of the Board of Trade. The Committee came to the conclusion that frauds by the accountants' profession were few. So far as the Chartered Accountants, Incorporated Accountants, and London Association were concerned, the status of members of these bodies had received recognition in Acts of Parliament. The majority of offences committed by persons styling themselves 'accountants' were not traceable to members of professional bodies of standing. The Committee came to the conclusion that there was no sufficient demand on the part of the public for statutory registration of accountants, and reported accordingly.

Apart from the above, solicitors, estate agents, local officials, bank servants, and accountants, it may be doubted whether any other professions or businesses call for especial remark in this connexion, with, perhaps, the possible exception of insurance. Here too, however, as with banks, 'rationalization' has made very great strides, and, concurrently with improvement in administration, defalcations by collectors at the expense of their employers or of insured persons have been reduced to what must be very nearly the minimum possible.

DETECTION AND PREVENTION

I remarked, in opening this article, that 'Prevention is better than cure.' Police officers, I am sure, hate having to investigate and expose offences committed by folk who may for years have been known to them in the character of well-reputed men of business. A bad case of fraudulent conversion has far-reaching effects on the morals of a community. Many other and subsequent crimes are indirectly traceable to

its having occurred, and thus the police have a very real interest in nipping fraud in the bud, rather than allowing it to grow to its full and noisome strength.

For my own part, I feel very much could be done if the police and the professional societies increased their co-operation. At present it very often happens that either the police or a professional society possess information likely to be valuable in hastening discovery of a fraud being committed. By not disclosing such information the fraud may grow to a large proportion before the necessary action is taken.

To illustrate my point: A—now in prison for frauds in Lancashire—had been carrying on a bogus estate agency business. The Court, in passing sentence, took into consideration thirty-seven different charges, from five police areas. Less than a year previous accused had been convicted of similar offences within the same county, and on that occasion, also, thirty charges were given cognisance!

Surely here the extent and gravity of the public loss incurred could have been lessened by means of early inquiry from recognized bodies, representing estate agency, who are themselves only too glad that these frauds should be brought to book without delay.

In view of the pride Britain has enjoyed over a long period for being a 'free country,' it is unlikely the *carte d'identité* system will ever find favour, but in the absence of this, or of the legislature making provisions regarding all who are habitually in charge of trust moneys to furnish satisfactory guarantees of their financial standing and personal character (already demanded in nearly every Dominion and Colony) it is difficult to expect the police authorities, especially in large communities, to keep constant track of comings and goings. Hence, therefore, my conviction that greater use may, with propriety, be made of those who should be the custodians of their own calling's good name, giving back to them something of the authority their predecessors enjoyed in the days of the Guilds. One cannot build up *esprit de corps* unless there be a feeling of trust imposed, but once this has been grafted, it is surprising how beneficial results can be, and are, achieved with what at first appeared most unpromising material.

A Select Book List for Students of Police Administration

BY SIR JOHN CUMMING, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., M.A.

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THE literature dealing with subjects in which the professional police officer is interested is already large and is increasing. Much that is published, however, is of ephemeral or of purely local interest. It has been suggested to me that a list of the books which either have become classics or have more than a temporary value would, if accompanied by descriptive analysis, be of value to all those who realize that the police service has become a profession; and that, while practical experience is of immense importance, it should have, just as all other professions have, a background of knowledge based on the recorded experience of others. The practical difficulty in preparing such a list is to decide what proportions are reasonable. Every area in the Empire has its own literature of text-books dealing with local laws and local legal procedure. The object in view is to include the literature which has the widest range of application throughout the British Commonwealth. To achieve this object the wide margin of at least fifty entries, but not much more than 100, has been suggested. Not every student will have an equal interest in all the items included; but it may be said that every police library at the headquarters of any police force of any size would be ill equipped if it did not include a fair proportion of the publications mentioned below.

Publications which should be of interest for any serious student of the prevention and detection of crime, who belongs to a police force, may be conveniently grouped under the following main heads:

A SELECT BOOK LIST FOR STUDENTS 387

- A. History of Various Police Forces.
- B. Police Administrations and Methods.
- C. Principles and Results of Criminal Investigation.
- D. Studies of Individual Criminals and Criminal Trials.
- E. Study of Crime in General, its Prevention and Cure.

These have various sub-heads which will be shown later.

A. HISTORY OF VARIOUS POLICE FORCES

(1) *London*—The Metropolitan Police has had its annalist from within in *Police*, by C. T. Clarkson and J. H. Richardson (Leadenhall Press, 1889), and *Scotland Yard*, by J. F. Moylan (Putnams, 1928). It was studied from an American point of view in the *Century Magazine* for September 1910 by William McAdoo, the then Police Commissioner of New York. In the *Life of Sir Howard Vincent*, by Jeyes and How (George Allen, 1912), and *Annals of an Active Life*, by Sir Nevil Macready (Hutchinson, 1924), the point of view of the Commissioner of Police of the Metropolis is given. The old-time conditions before Peel's reforms can best be studied in Dr. Patrick Colquhoun's *Treatise on the Police of the Metropolis* (H. Fry, London, 1797), in which, in addition to explaining the police system of 1792, the crime of the Metropolis was examined and remedies suggested for its prevention. Capt. Melville Lee's *History of Police in England* (Methuen, 1903) deals with the same subject a century later and is another classic.

(2) *Ireland*—*The Royal Irish Constabulary*, by R. Curtis (Dublin, 1871), is the history of that force up to that time from its establishment in 1814.

(3) *Australia*—There are two chronicles: the *Black Police of Queensland*, by E. Kennedy (Murray, 1902), and *The Trooper Police of Australia*, by A. L. Haydon (Melrose, 1911).

(4) *South Africa*—The Natal Police is now a provincial division of the South African Police, whose headquarters are at Pretoria; but the *Mounted Police of Natal*, by H. P. Holt (Murray, 1913), gives the story of a separate unit (see p. 337).

(5) *Canada*—The romance of the North-West Mounted Police has inspired many writers. It is now a Federal Force

with its headquarters at Ottawa, with the title Royal Canadian Mounted Police: horses have given way to a large extent to dogs, motors and launches as a means of locomotion. It is well described in *The Silent Force*, by T. Morris Longstreth (Philip Allan, 1928), and two good volumes of individual reminiscences are *Mounted Police Life in Canada: A Record of Thirty-one Years' Service*, by Captain R. Burton Deane (Cassell, 1916), and *A Policeman from Eton*, by Captain R. W. Campbell (Murray, 1923). Another account written with close inside knowledge is *Policing the Plains, Being the Real Life Records of the Famous Royal North-West Mounted Police*, by R. G. Macbeth (Hodder & Stoughton, 1921).

(6) *India*—Though there are some published reminiscences of Indian police officers, there is no history available other than official publications; and these are mainly the annual reports of the police departments of the nine major provinces. The last available all-India publication is the *Report of the Indian Police Commission of 1902-03* (H.M. Stationery Office, 1905), since which time much progress and many improvements have been made. The student should refer to the chapters on Law and Order in the publications of the India Office under the title of *Statement Exhibiting the Moral and Material Progress and Condition in India* (H.M. Stationery Office, annual); and to the references to the Indian Police Service in the two volumes of the *Report of the Indian Statutory (Simon) Commission* (H.M.S.O., 1930).

The history of the Bombay Police is to be found in *The Bombay City Police: A Historical Sketch, 1672-1916*, by S. M. Edwardes (Oxford University Press, 1924).

(7) *Foreign*—One example of the record of a foreign police force may be mentioned. *The Diamond Jubilee of the Vienna Constabulary*, published in German in Vienna in 1929, is a well illustrated and comprehensive account of a Police Force, the head of which became the Chancellor of the Austrian Republic.

B. POLICE ADMINISTRATION AND METHODS

Certain American writers have produced, so far, the best critical and comparative studies of police administrations in

different countries. Such are: *Police Administration—A Critical Study of Police Organisations in the United States and Abroad*, by L. F. Fuld (Putnam's, N.Y., 1909); *European Police Systems*, by Raymond B. Fosdick (The Century Co., N.Y., 1915), and *American Police Systems*, by Raymond B. Fosdick (Bureau of Social Hygiene, N.Y., 1920). Mr. Fosdick's comparisons of the English system with the American and Continental systems form an illuminating analysis, worthy of study by all serious students of the police profession. New editions are in preparation.

A volume entitled *The Police and the Crime Problem*, edited by Thorston Sellin (The American Academy of Political and Social Science, Concord, New Hampshire, 1929), is a collection of articles written by various American and European police authorities on Police Organization, Personnel and Investigation.

The *Report of the Committee* appointed by Sir Robert Peel in 1828 indicates the origin of the system in the Metropolis of to-day: the Report which produced the modern forces throughout England and Wales is *The First Report of the Commissioners appointed to enquire as to the best means of establishing an efficient Constabulary Force in the Counties of England and Wales*, of 1839. The English police administration of to-day is given in *The Police Service of England and Wales*, by Stanley Savill (Police Review Publishing Co., 1923).

The principles underlying the use of police powers are given in *Justice and Police*, by F. W. Maitland (Macmillan, 1885), and *Executive Powers Relating to Crime and Disorder and Powers of Police in England*, by T. W. Haycroft (Butterworth, 1897). The latest pronouncement on this subject, still within the public memory, is the *Report of the Royal Commission on Police Powers and Procedure* (H.M. Stationery Office, 1929).

The reminiscences of leading police administrators include two which have a special reference to the City of London Police: *From Constable to Commissioner*, by Lt.-Col. Sir Henry Smith, at one time Commissioner, City Police (Chatto & Windus, 1910), and *Fifty-two Years a Policeman*, by Sir

Wm. Nott-Bower, who retired as Commissioner, City Police (Arnold, 1926). The biographies of Sir Howard Vincent and Sir Nevil Macready have already been mentioned under the heading A (1). The recollections of the great M. Lepine of Paris are in *Mes Souvenirs* (Payot, Paris, 1929).

The *Instructions* issued to the Liverpool City Police in 1911 by Mr. L. (now Sir Leonard) Dunning, who has lately retired from the post of H.M. Inspector for England and Wales, have a permanent value for the professional reader. Practical instruction in the rights and duties of the police officer in England is to be found in *A Police Constable's Guide to his Daily Work*, by B. M. Gregg and J. E. Lightburn (Effingham Wilson, 1929), in *Police Procedure and Administration*, by C. C. H. Moriarty (Butterworth, 1931), and in similar books of instruction written by the professional officer.

C. PRINCIPLES AND RESULTS OF CRIMINAL INVESTIGATION AND DETECTION

(1) *General Principles and Methods*.—Here again for logical arrangement and comprehensiveness we have to go to other than British literature. *Criminal Investigation*, by Hans Gross, has been published in translation (Higginbotham, Madras, 1906; Sweet & Maxwell, 1924). There is also *L'enquête Criminelle et les Méthodes Scientifiques*, by Dr. Edmund Locard of Lyons (E. Flammarion, Paris, 1919); but it has not been issued in an English translation. An earlier work was *Manuel de Police Scientifique*, by R. A. Reiss (Lausanne, 1911). Dr. C. Ainsworth Mitchell, the Editor of *The Analyst*, has published *The Scientific Detective and the Expert Witness* (Heffer, 1930, being a revision of *The Expert Witness*, Heffer, 1923). Another work dealing with the service of science in criminal investigation is *Some Persons Unknown*, by Henry T. F. Rhodes (Murray, 1931). There is an expert discussion on the art of the detective in *The Criminal as a Human Being*, by G. S. Dogherty, formerly Chief of Detectives, New York Police Dept. (Appleton, N.Y., 1924). The analysis of criminal methods is described in *M.O. (Modus Operandi) in Criminal Investigation and Detection*, by Major

L. W. (now Major-General Sir Llewelyn) Atcherley, 1913. Much progress has, of course, been made since, at places such as Wakefield, Birmingham, Liverpool and London. Among books written by those who are not professional police officers there is *Great Detectives and their Methods* by G. Dilnot (G. Bles, 1927).

(2) *Systems of Identification*.—The Bertillon system is described in *Identification of Criminal Classes by Anthropometry*, by A. Bertillon (Methuen, 1889). The classic on the finger print system is of course Sir Edward Henry's *Classification and Uses of Finger Prints* (first published, Wyman, 1900; latest edition, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928). An Indian officer, Rai Sahib H. C. Bose, wrote *Hints on Finger Prints with a Telegraphic Code* (Thacker, Calcutta, 1916). The Scotland Yard expert, Chief Inspector Battley, has issued *Single Finger Prints: A New and Practical Method of Classifying and Filing* (Finger Print Bureau, Scotland Yard, 1930).

(3) *Medical Jurisprudence*.—The classic work is *The Principles and Practice of Medical Jurisprudence*, by A. S. Taylor (Churchill; latest edition, the 8th, in 1928). The subject of poisoning has quite a literature by itself: we may include *Forensic Medicine and Toxicology*, by I. Dixon Mann (Griffin; latest edition, the 6th, in 1922).

(4) *Reminiscences of Detective Work*.—Under this head there is a large mass of material from which to make a selection. Some overseas literature has also been examined.

(i) *England*.—Some interesting and instructive records of a past generation are in *A Life's Reminiscence of Scotland Yard*, by A. Lansdowne, Detective Inspector, C.I.D., Metropolitan Police (Leadenhall Press, 1885); *Reminiscences of Chief Inspector Littlechild* (Leadenhall Press, 1894), and *At Scotland Yard*, by John Sweeney, late Detective Inspector (Grant Richards, 1904). Sir Melville MacNaghten, Chief of the C.I.D., Scotland Yard, described his experiences in *Days of My Years* (Edward Arnold, 1914). More recent are *Rogues and Others*, by Charles Arrow, Chief Inspector (Duckworth, 1928), *Reminiscences of an Ex-Detective*, by Francis Carlin (Hutchinson, 1927), and *Detective Days*, by F. P. Wensley, Chief Constable (Cassell, 1931). There are several others.

(ii) *Scotland*.—There is much common sense in *Experiences of a City Detective*, by James McGowan (James Menzies; Edinburgh, 1889).

(iii) *France*.—There is much that is attractive in the individualism of the French detective methods. There are two outstanding volumes: *The World of Crime*, by M. F. Goron, Chief of the Detective Staff, Paris (Hurst & Blackett, 1907), and *La Police Parisienne*, by Gustave Macé (5 vols., Charpentier, Paris, 1885-89; 2 vols., Eugene Fasquelle, 1897-1904). Amongst modern literature *Dramas of French Crime*, by René Cassellari (Hutchinson, 1930), should be specially mentioned; Cassellari was for twenty years Commissary of the Sûreté Générale of Paris. Another is the *Underworld of Paris*, by Albert Morain, Police Préfet (Jarrolds, 1930).

(iv) *Canada*.—Here we have one of the finest characters in real detective literature described in *Memoirs of a Great Detective—Incidents in the Life of John Wilson Murray, late Supt. C.I.D., Toronto* (Heinemann, 1904). It was said that he had the heart of a lion. The present writer was in Toronto on the day of his funeral in 1905, and can bear testimony to the universal respect in which he was held.

(v) *America*.—There is a mass of literature: two names stand out, Pinkerton and Burns. Two books may be named: *Professional Thieves and Detectives*, by A. Pinkerton (Dillingham, New York, 1890), and *The Masked War*, by William J. Burns (Hodder & Stoughton, 1914).

(vi) *India*.—Tropical conditions create a very different environment for the exercise of the detective faculty. *Some Records of Crime*, by General Charles Harvey (Sampson, Low, 1892) is a classic dealing with the efforts to extirpate the practices of the Thugs. *Police and Crime in India*, by Sir Edmund Cox (Stanley Paul, 1911), describes detective work in Western India, and *Life in the Indian Police*, by C. E. Gouldsbury (Chapman & Hall, 1912), refers to experience in Eastern India.

D. STUDIES OF INDIVIDUAL CASES AND CRIMINAL TRIALS

(1) *Criminal Cases*.—Here we enter upon a very wide field, with a prolific crop, over which there have been many gleanings and re-gleanings. As the subject is the frailty of

human nature, many writers with varying degrees of literary skill have produced books for the general reader; but there are a few which have much instructional value for the police student. A careful selection has therefore to be made.

(i) *Autobiographies of Criminals*.—There are two, one English and one American, which perhaps might repay study: *Nights with an Old Lag*, by W. J. Wintle (Ouseley, 1911), and *You Can't Win*, by Jack Black (Macmillan, 1926).

(ii) *Individual Studies*.—The life-story of one crook, Charles Williams, is given in *A Master of Crime* (Odhams, 1918); and of another, George Barrington, in *The Prince of Pickpockets*, by R. S. Lambert (Faber & Faber, 1930).

(iii) *General Studies*.—Certain writers, such as H. L. Adam, G. Dilnot, C. Kingston, G. B. H. Logan, F. A. MacKenzie, A. S. McNulty, C. Pearce, H. Wyndham and several others have specialized in writing up in popular form from various sources the stories of crime and criminals. Murder is the form of crime which has most attraction for such compilers. *Murder and its Motives*, by F. Tennyson Jesse (Heinemann, 1924), is a serious study. Poison cases have been collated by C. J. S. Thompson in *Poison Romance and Poison Mysteries* (Scientific Press, 1902); imposture in *Famous Impostors*, by Bram Stoker (Sidgwick & Jackson, 1910); financial roguery in *Princes of False Finance*, by Charles Carew (Long, 1931); and fraud generally in *Confidence Tricks and Blackmailers*, by B. Tozer (Werner Laurie, 1929). N. B. Penzer is editing various issues of the *Library of Impostors* (Robert Holden, 1926). A real student of criminality, though his own profession of the stage was on a different plane, was the late H. B. Irving, whose books, *Remarkable Criminals* (Cassell, 1918), and *Studies of French Criminals of the Nineteenth Century* (Heinemann, 1901), are classics.

Crime in India has been the subject of several monographs. Among those which have recently appeared through British publishers are *Crime in India*, by S. M. Edwardes (Oxford University Press, 1925); *The Land Pirates of South India*, by W. J. Hatch (Seeley, Service, 1928), and *Indian Village Crimes and Crime in India*, by Sir Cecil Walsh (Benn, 1929, 1930). There is much instructive literature published

by the Local Government Presses in India : *Notes on Criminal Classes of the Madras Residency*, by F. S. Mullaly (1892); *Notes on Criminal Classes in the Bombay Residency*, by M. Kennedy (1908); *Manual of Criminal Classes Operating in Bengal*, by F. C. Daly (1916), and others.

(iv) *Criminal Trials*.—There are two valuable sets of Criminal Trials, which have been carefully edited, with full transcripts of evidence : *Notable British Trials Series* (Wm. Hodge, Edinburgh), and the *Famous Trials Series* (G. Bles, London). In the former series the 50th was published in 1930, being the Trial of George Chapman, edited by H. L. Adam; and in the latter series fifteen Trials had been published by May, 1931. This type of book gives every opportunity for study to those who wish to examine the methods of presentation of evidence. Under this head many compilations have been made by more or less competent literary hands. It is over a hundred years since Cobbett's and Howell's State Trials were published in 1809-26. Amongst recent books three are of outstanding merit—on account of their comparative analysis—*Famous Trials of History and More Famous Trials*, by the Earl of Birkenhead (Hutchinson, 1926, 1928), and *Historical Trials*, by Sir John Macdonald (Oxford University Press, 1927).

E. STUDY OF CRIME IN GENERAL : ITS CAUSES, PREVENTION AND CURE

(i) *General*.—The philosophical study of crime has to a great extent been the province of writers other than British. There are four outstanding classics on Criminology, all by foreigners : *Criminology*, by Arthur Macdonald (Funk, New York, 1893); *Criminology*, by Baron Raffaele Garofalo (Heinemann, 1914); *Criminology*, by Maurice Parmelee (Macmillan & Co., New York, 1918), and *Criminology*, by E. H. Sutherland (Lippincott, 1924). A useful American study is *Modern Crime, its Prevention and Punishment*, by Clyde L. King (American Academy of Political and Social Science, Concord, New Hampshire, 1926). There are, however, books of considerable value written by British writers : among such are *Crime : Its Amount, Causes and Remedies*, by F. Hill (Murray,

1853); *Crime and Criminals*, by R. F. Quinton (Longmans, 1910); *The Criminal and the Community*, by Dr. James Devon (Lane, 1911); *Crime and Criminals*, by C. Mercier (University of London Press, 1919); *The Criminal*, by Sir Basil Thomson (Hodder & Stoughton, 1925), and *The Prisoner at the Bar*, by A. R. L. Gardner (Philip Allan, 1931). The first was an Inspector of Prisons; the next three approached the problem from a medical standpoint, and the next with police experience; and the last from the point of view of the prison visitor. A quite modern study from the non-professional standpoint is *The Report of the C.O.P.E.C. Commission*, Pt. VI. (Longmans, 1924). An elaborate study from the social standpoint is *The Elements of Crime*, by Boris Brasol, formerly Prosecuting Attorney of the St. Petersburg Supreme Court (Oxford University Press, 1929). The Lombroso school is best illustrated in *Criminal Man*, by C. Lombroso (Italian edition, 1876; Putnams, 1911). A later book is *Crime, its Causes and Remedies*, by C. Lombroso, translated by H. P. Horton (Little, Brown & Co., Boston, U.S.A., 1917). The environment school has an exponent in *The Child of Circumstance*, by Dr. Albert Wilson (Bale, Sons & Danielsson, 1928). There are many others, but all the above are good books of their class.

(ii) *Female Crime*.—A student should start with Lombroso and Ferrero's *Female Offender* (Unwin, 1895). One other monograph is *The Unadjusted Girl*, by W. J. Thomas (Routledge, 1924).

(iii) *Juvenile Crime*.—One outstanding characteristic of the practice of the twentieth century is to give the young a chance. The literature on juvenile delinquency is steadily expanding. English and American writers predominate. A student will find a wonderful contrast between the conditions revealed in Mary Carpenter's classic *Juvenile Delinquents* (Bennet, London, 1853) and the *Report of the Committee on Juvenile Delinquency* (H.M. Stationery Office, 1927). The latest study of adolescent crime is *Boys in Trouble*, by Mrs. Le Mesurier (Murray, 1931).

(iv) *Psychology of Crime*.—This subject has been much studied by Continental writers. Dr. Maurice Fleury in *The*

Criminal Mind (Downey, 1901) and Hans Gross in *Criminal Psychology* (Heinemann, 1911) are valuable contributions. An English authority, Dr. Hamblin Smith, has written on *The Psychology of the Criminal* (Methuen, 1922). The aspect of insanity is treated in *Crime and Insanity*, by Dr. Charles Mercier (Williams & Norgate, 1911), and *Crime and Insanity*, by Dr. W. C. Sullivan (Medical Superintendent of Broadmoor Criminal Lunatic Asylum) (Arnold, 1924). A specialist, Dr. Forbes Winslow, wrote an account of some famous criminal lunacy cases, both English and American, in *Recollections of Forty Years* (Ouseley, 1910). Two special studies of homicide are *The Psychology of Murder*, by A. Bjerre of Sweden (Longmans, 1927), and *The Mind of the Murderer*, by Dr. Harold Dearden (Bles, 1930).

(v) *Police Courts*.—Magistrates, clerks, lawyers, journalists, philanthropists are all represented in studies of police court work. A praiseworthy classic is Thomas Holmes' *Pictures and Problems from London Police Courts* (Arnold, 1900). Amongst magistrates' recollections are those of J. A. R. Cairns in *The Loom of the Law* (Hutchinson, 1924); of H. T. Waddy (of Thames Police Court) in *The Police Court and its Work* (Butterworth, 1925); of C. Chapman in *The Poor Man's Court of Justice* (Hodder & Stoughton, 1925), and of H. L. Cancellor, who was at the Marylebone, Thames and Marlborough Police Courts, in *The Life of a London Beak* (Hurst & Blackett, 1930). A good description of the machinery is given in *Justice and Police in England*, by A. Lieck, who had many years experience as magistrate's clerk (Butterworth, 1928). The memoir of *Sir Richard Muir*, by S. T. Felstead (Lane, 1927), gives a first-hand description of the work of the prosecuting officials; and the *Life of Sir Edward Marshall Hall*, by Edward Marjoribanks (Gollancz, 1929), deals with many outstanding criminal trials as viewed by one of the greatest Counsel of his day. A more popular account of the police courts is *Thirty Years at Bow Street Police Court*, by W. T. Ewens (Werner Laurie, 1924).

The subject of Penitentiary and Reformatory Systems opens up a long vista of writings on penology, recidivism and allied subjects; but an analysis of the works under such heads

would probably be too great a departure from the main objective of this article, which is to cover most of the points encountered before the actual incarceration of the convicted criminal begins.

The list of works mentioned so far numbers about one hundred and thirty. As the *Police Journal* is a 'Quarterly Review for the Police Forces of the Empire,' it is hoped that this list will provide material for selection for professional police libraries in Great Britain and different parts of the Empire. In the *Police Journal* itself have appeared since 1928 articles on police administration in England and Scotland; on various Continental systems; and on systems in practice in the Dominions, Colonies and Dependencies overseas.

Printing Telegraphs for Police Communications

By F. W. ABBOTT, M.V.O., M.B.E.

Chief Constable, Metropolitan Police

NEARLY a century ago, when Samuel F. B. Morse in America and Charles Wheatstone in England were struggling to convince an unbelieving and apathetic world that the electric telegraph could be something more than an interesting scientific toy, a circumstance occurred which focussed public attention in dramatic fashion upon the new invention.

In 1845, shortly after Wheatstone had prevailed upon the Great Western Railway to instal his apparatus on their lines between London and Slough, a murder was committed at Salthill near Slough. The police at Slough availed themselves of Wheatstone's new telegraph to send to Paddington the description of a suspect who had been seen to take a 7.30 train from Slough to London. On arrival the man was followed to a lodging-house in Cannon Street where, to his great surprise, he was promptly arrested. In due course he was tried, found guilty, and hanged. This first practical use of the new means of communication by the police for the apprehension of a criminal aroused public interest to a high degree, and served to establish definitely the value of the electric telegraph as a public utility of the first importance.

Since that time the efforts of a host of research workers and inventors have resulted in the development of various types of highly efficient printing telegraph machines, which have found their principal application in the public telegraph services, such apparatus being usually of costly construction and requiring highly trained operators as well as skilled engineering attention.

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The need for a printing telegraph machine of simple construction and of moderate cost, capable of being operated by typists or by persons without special training, has long been felt, and the problem has been at last satisfactorily solved by the appearance of the teleprinter.

The teleprinter may be described as a machine for type-writing over a telephone wire. It resembles an ordinary typewriter in appearance, and is similarly operated. When a key is depressed the letter or figure selected is instantly recorded on the distant teleprinter, as well as on the sending machine. Thus, by simply operating a typewriter keyboard, a message may be sent from one teleprinter to another at a distance, or to as many such machines as may be desired. When it is considered that by this method urgent and private messages may be transmitted instantly from a central point to any number of stations which may be switched 'in,' and without risk of being overheard or intercepted in unauthorized quarters, the possibilities of usefulness of the teleprinter in police work may be appreciated.

Printing telegraph machines of this description are already in successful use in the United States where the apparatus is known as the 'telephone typewriter,' designated thus to explain the facility with which it operates over telegraph or telephone lines. Happily the rapid extension of its use in that country has been encouraged through its adoption by the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, which, with its subsidiary operating telephone companies, maintains a vast network of telephone lines reaching every city, town and village in U.S.A. Thus not only are the police departments of large cities like New York, Chicago, Boston, St. Louis and Philadelphia equipped with the telephone typewriter, but there are installations covering whole states with switching arrangements whereby all stations in a broad area or in any portion of it may be promptly connected with general or district headquarters for the broadcasting of an important message. Furthermore, facilities are often provided whereby any one office may be connected to any other office through a switch-board at general headquarters, or by means of special selective calling devices.

Fig. 1 shows telephone typewriter lines radiating from police headquarters to district police stations in Chicago. Similar layouts are employed in other cities, *i.e.* lines arranged radially or in loops, and each line serving one or more sub-stations up to a maximum of about ten stations on a line. The new equipment is usually installed on existing telegraph lines, replacing manual (Morse) telegraphy, but alternatively the

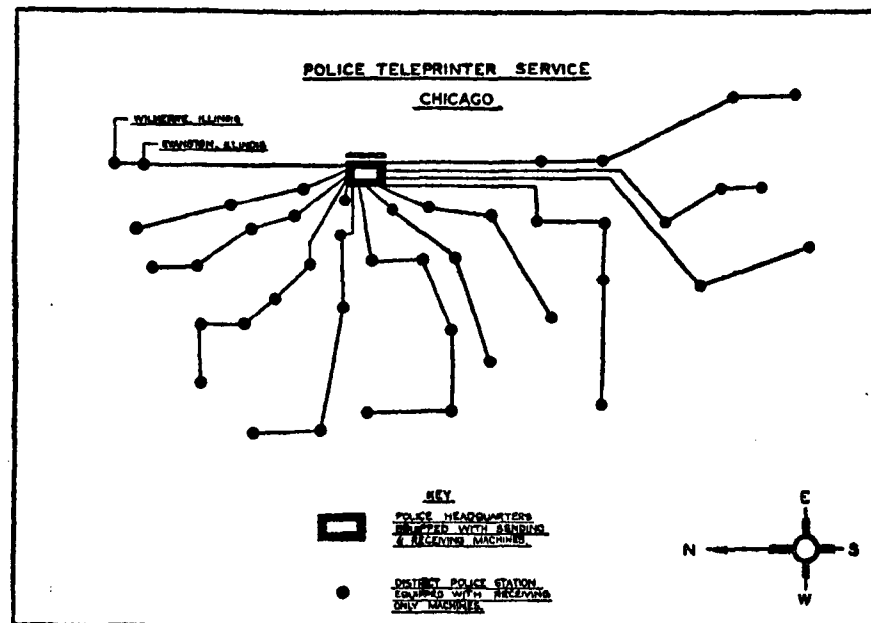


FIG. 1.

machines may be operated over telephone lines without the least interference with their normal use for speech.

These teleprinter systems carry most of the important and urgent police communications, namely instructions and orders from headquarters to subordinate offices, news of crimes and descriptions of criminals, missing persons, stolen property, reports of absentees, subpoenas served, fire reports, etc.

It seems fairly safe to predict that the telephone trunk lines will in time provide the means for linking up the many police teleprinter systems of the United States into one vast intercommunication network. Thus it will ultimately be possible to establish telephone typewriter communication between

any two police offices between the Atlantic seaboard and the Pacific coast.

While it is true that printing telegraph machines of this type were first adopted for police work in America, it is nevertheless a fact that the police administrations of some of the leading cities of Europe have evinced the keenest interest in developments of this nature since the teleprinter first made its appearance.

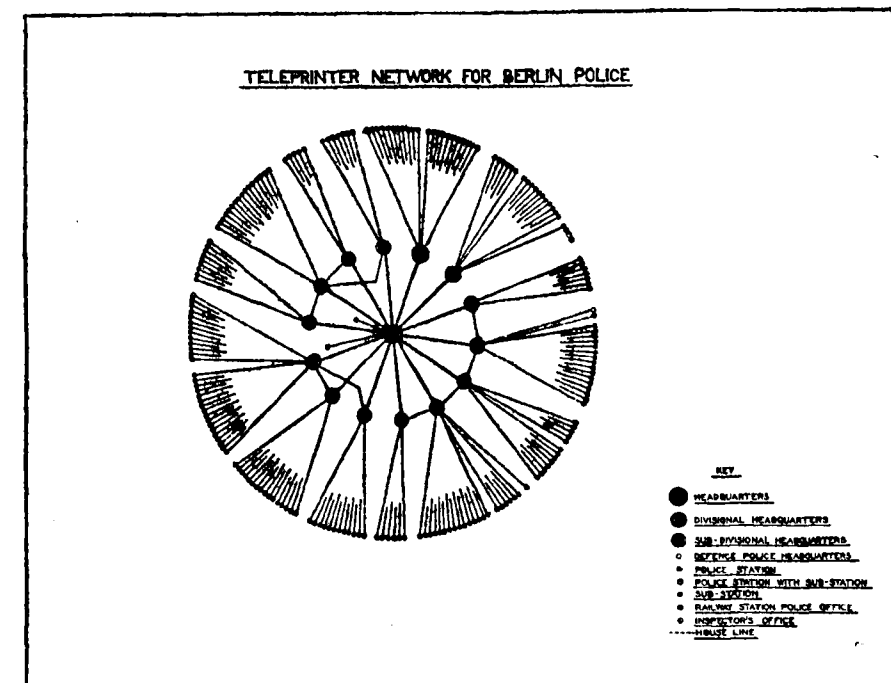


FIG. 2.

In 1927 the Police Administration of Berlin decided upon the installation of a complete network of teleprinter equipment covering the various divisional headquarters offices of Greater Berlin with their numerous sub-stations. Fig. 2 is a diagram of the general scheme.

A very ingenious switching system was devised by the engineers of the technical department at police headquarters, based on the latest practice in telephone switching and modified to provide for the special requirements of police work. The machines and working accessories installed at all stations

were of a uniform type and interchangeable. In view of the possibility that any station, even the smallest, might at any moment become the most important communication point, provision was made so that any station could establish connection promptly with any other in the metropolitan area or, in emergency, with all of the others simultaneously.

Headquarters (The Police Presidency at Alexanderplatz) is normally in direct communication with the six main divisional offices :

Central Division, controlling four sub-divisions.

Western Division, controlling five sub-divisions.

South-Eastern Division, controlling two sub-divisions.

Southern Division, controlling four sub-divisions.

Eastern Division, controlling two sub-divisions.

Northern Division, controlling three sub-divisions.

Each of the twenty sub-divisions in turn maintains communication with the local police stations, railway stations, police offices, etc., within its jurisdiction. The six main divisional headquarters, while in continuous connexion with general headquarters and with their respective sub-divisions, can also communicate with each other direct or through the central office. The police teleprinter communication system of Greater Berlin has functioned with conspicuous success since its inauguration, and is regarded as a model by the police organizations of many other European cities.

In Great Britain the Metropolitan and Provincial Police Administrations have long been considering the means of speeding up their communications by substituting the teleprinter for less efficient equipment. Trials of teleprinters especially designed for police work, which have been made in the Metropolitan area between Scotland Yard and Croydon and at various provincial centres during the past few years, have been observed with very great interest by the responsible officials concerned, and have demonstrated the obvious advantages of the apparatus. The British Post Office has led the way by installing over two thousand teleprinters on the busiest traffic arteries of the public telegraph service. The leading British railways have also adopted the teleprinter.



TAPE TELEPRINTERS AT SCOTLAND YARD,
SHOWING SWITCHBOARD FOR CONNECTING OUTLYING STATIONS

(Face p. 402)



PAGE TELEPRINTERS OPERATING BETWEEN SCOTLAND YARD
AND CROYDON POLICE STATION

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It is expected that some of the first police installations in England will be effected during the present year in London and certain provincial areas and that the further adoption of the system, tending toward the ultimate creation of a national police network, will proceed as the initial installations demonstrate their usefulness.

Those who have not seen teleprinters in action may be interested in some non-technical details concerning the machines and the work they do. As already stated, the teleprinter is in effect a long-distance typewriter, as it resembles an ordinary typewriter in appearance, is similarly operated, and is used to send or receive messages over a telegraph or telephone line. One illustration shows the newly developed teleprinter which is suitable for police work. While ordinary typewriters print in page form only, teleprinters are designed not only for page printing, but also, by a variation in the paper-carrying mechanism, for printing along a narrow paper tape $\frac{3}{8}$ in. wide. This latter method is generally employed in public telegraph services where the tape bearing the printed message is after receipt cut into suitable lengths and gummed to printed forms. For police service, however, the page-printing method is in favour and has obvious advantages, since the message appears in compact form, can be read at a glance and dealt with at once without the delay and inconvenience incident to the cutting and 'gumming up' of tape. The message is printed on a continuous roll of paper $8\frac{1}{2}$ in. wide, which, as it issues from the machine, may be torn off in sheets of any desired length by means of a cutting edge with which each machine is fitted.

Both types of teleprinter are driven electrically, so that only the keyboard operating is done by hand, the other functions being automatic. Power is derived from any ordinary electric light supply and at any voltage, the connexions to the machine being effected by a cord and plug. The operations of returning the paper carriage at the end of a line and turning the platen to advance the paper are done by hand on the ordinary typewriter, whereas on the teleprinter the sending operator controls these actions from the keyboard of his machine.

In many phases of police work the teleprinter method of communication has distinct advantages over the telephone. Let us suppose, for instance, that headquarters wishes to send an important message to twelve stations by telephone. Normally it is necessary to ring each station separately, to dictate the message which has to be written down at the receiving end, and to listen while it is being read back. For a message of about thirty to forty words this would take about two minutes for each station, or a total for the twelve stations of twenty-four minutes. If the message contained figures and initial letters such as motor car index marks and numbers, the process would be slower. With the teleprinter such a message could be broadcast to all twelve stations, or to a much larger number, in less than a minute. There would be no danger of misunderstanding nor need of calling the message back, for it would be delivered plainly and accurately printed. Apart from the question of delay in delivery, telephone transmission would, in the case stated, fully occupy the attention of the person receiving and taking down the message in each station for two minutes, and that of the person calling twenty-four minutes.

An important advantage claimed for the teleprinter system is that it is not necessary to wait for stations to answer before messages can be sent, because the machine at the station called commences automatically and continues to print without attention.

A further difficulty in connexion with the telephoning of important communications is in determining the responsibility for errors due to misunderstanding of the spoken word, whereas with the teleprinter the question of phonetic errors does not arise.

In an article entitled 'Decentralization and the Police Box System,' by F. J. Crawley, Chief Constable of Newcastle-upon-Tyne,¹ attention was drawn to the problem of providing means whereby police at a distance may receive their instructions. The value of the teleprinter for police box work is not difficult to realize, because the printed message for the beat constable is awaiting his arrival, thus obviating the loss of time

¹ *Police Journal*, vol. i. p. 118.

associated with telephone calling from the box and taking down the answer.

On the economic side, the great expense involved in the erection and maintenance of lines has always presented a serious problem in connexion with the setting up of a widespread system of telephonic or telegraphic communication. The solution of this problem has, however, been greatly facilitated by the development of methods whereby existing telephone lines may be simultaneously employed for telegraphic use without interference with speech.

Such methods have already been used to some extent by the British Post Office telegraphs for the establishment of teleprinter circuits between London and provincial points as far north as Glasgow. As the telephone network now extends to every portion of the British Isles it may be said that the facilities already existing for the expansion of teleprinter communication are ample for all probable requirements for many years to come.

Without undue optimism it may therefore be confidently predicted that it will be possible at no far distant date for Scotland Yard or the police of any city or town in these islands to communicate instantly by teleprinter with the corresponding authorities in any other place. The value of such a means of rapid communication in the service of the police for their normal activities and during times of national emergency would be difficult to over-estimate.

The Unquestioned Alibi¹

BY T. MORRIS LONGSTRETH AND HENRY VERNON

WHEN a small town, anywhere, is lifted from its everyday obscurity into the spotlight of modern publicity, its inhabitants may be expected to behave abnormally for a while.

Yavo was no exception. In the spring of one of the War years this small Saskatchewan village showed all the signs of the feverish excitement that filled its every corner. Yavo was a bit of old Galicia, a community of families related by tongue and often by marriage, alien and reticent and lonely in a large land. One Anglo-Saxon in Yavo's midst would have been conspicuous, two a portent and a cause for suspicion. But on this April morning there were whole groups of strangers hurrying about, asking unintelligible questions to which the villagers replied with a shake of the head. A murder was bad enough, but these young fellows poking into everything, laughing, writing things down in notebooks, were worse. But the breezy newspaper reporters need not be feared so much as the close-mouthed Mounted Police. They could do things to one, so Yavo huddled about its door-sills and wondered what would happen.

For there had been a murder, and not only one murder but six! Six people of their little community wiped out at a blow, the whole Manchur family and John Lycheluk, Mrs. Manchur's brother. It was as mysterious as a blow from heaven. The Galicians looked askance at each other. The murderer was in their midst, very likely, but who could he be? Worse still to have the stern-faced man in the bulky fur coat ask that question. Where everything was mystery and suspicion, it was best to keep quiet. So Constable Day, who had been sent over from the nearest Mounted Police detachment,

found himself confronted by a wall of silence, and silence in a foreign language can be very repellent indeed. Persistence at length uncovered the salient facts. John Manchur, the father of the murdered man, Prokop Manchur, had noticed from a distance that his son's farmhouse was afire. At the same time a blaze on the farm of Steven Takahone, a quarter of a mile south, was discovered. This was between midnight and one o'clock on the morning of 6th April. John Manchur hurried to his son's farm, but the fire had already got control of the house, the stables, and the granary. With the aid of the arriving neighbours a house window was broken open and the body of John Lycheluk was discovered and dragged out. It was only while attempting to resuscitate him that someone noticed there was a hole in his forehead, a bullet hole to be sure, and searching, they found another bullet wound in his chest. His body had been slightly burned.

By now the fire was too hot to do anything further; nothing had been seen of the rest of the Manchurs. Next morning the fears of the community were confirmed.

Constable Day arrived before the ruins had ceased smouldering. His interest lay less in the cluster of newspaper men and the huddling Galicians than in the evidence before him, and he went at once to exploring it for the secret. Of the Manchur farmhouse, the stable with its eight animals, the granary, nothing remained but the floor and one wall of the single-storey domicile. Steven Takahone's barn with its animals and granary had been similarly consumed. A preliminary survey of these premises promised little, but by this time two other mounted policemen had joined Day and the real investigation began.

The Manchur log cabin had been divided into two rooms with a small hall separating them. The only door opened into the hall, from which one could go into the living-room at the right, which was also the bedroom of the family, or into the kitchen at the left where Mrs. Manchur's brother, John Lycheluk, slept. Beneath the living-room was a cellar.

The household had consisted of Prokop Manchur and his wife, Mary, with their three daughters, Paulina, aged twenty, Onosa, fifteen, and a child of three, together with Lycheluk.

¹ By courtesy of the Century Co., New York.

It was now cool enough to search the ruins, and they gave up the badly charred bodies of Prokop, Paulina, and Onosa upstairs, while Mrs. Manchur and the child were found lying huddled together at the foot of the ladder leading to the cellar. Bullet wounds were discovered in all five, through head or heart or lungs. The mother only had escaped instant death, the wounds in her arms, received while presumably trying to protect the child, being slight, but she had fallen or been pushed through the cellar door and her skull had been fractured on the stones below. Curiously enough for so late at night in a rural community, these victims had been fully dressed, Lycheluk, only, being without his shoes and socks. The frenzied murderer, who had discharged his rifle twice into each victim, had taken the pains even to shoot the oxen escaping from the burning stable. Clearly the law was to match its wits with either a madman or an incredibly brutal destroyer.

The newcomers of the Mounted Police detachment had foreseen linguistic difficulties and had brought a reliable interpreter with them, and armed with him and their official status, the three men arrived, bit by bit, at a complete account of the movements and associations of the Manchur household on the previous evening.

The fifth of April, it developed, had been a day of religious observance among the Galicians. That evening the bells of their small church rang out to call the faithful together. Old John Manchur, together with his son Prokop's wife and their daughter Onosa wended their way to the church, a mile and a quarter south of the Manchur home. Although twenty persons had assembled, the minister failed to appear. So the congregation conducted the service for themselves, finishing about 10.30.

John Lycheluk, also at church, started home with his people, and on the way the party stopped at a neighbour's to get warm. Others dropped in for the same purpose, and it was eleven o'clock before the Manchurs started home. Lycheluk could not be persuaded to leave so soon, the warming-up evidently being agreeable, and it was nearly 11.30 before he departed. Mike Syroishka and Pete Cheremata left with him.

The destinations of the three men lay north of their stopping place, and the trails soon branched off like a three-pronged fork. Mike Syroishka lived with his brother-in-law a mile-and-a-half out the north-west prong; Pete Cheremata took the north-east prong; and Lycheluk pursued the middle prong for three quarters of a mile before coming to Steven Takahone's where the second fire had occurred, then beyond for another quarter-mile to Prokop Manchur's farm. Actually the three men had only been together for a few yards before swinging off on their respective trails, but this was important to establish, since Mike and Pete were the last people to see Lycheluk alive, and also they were able to assure Constable Day that it was fully 11.30 at night before Lycheluk had left them.

The fire had been first noticed at about midnight. As Mike and Pete were certain of their 11.30 parting with Lycheluk, and as he was one of the victims it required little calculation to fix the probable time of the murders. The trail from the point where Lycheluk left his two companions to Prokop's house was a mile long. The state of the trail at that season was so bad that—as an actual test corroborated—it could not have been covered at a normal pace in less than twenty minutes. It was fairly obvious that the murderer had waited for Lycheluk to arrive and had then shot the entire household, firing the building, stable, and granary, killing the oxen, and then hastened south to Takahone's place where he had started two more fires.

But if this were so it had required fast working. By the most generous allowance of error, the murderer could not have had more than a quarter-hour in which to kill six people and the oxen and start five fires. It seemed incredible. Yet there were the facts. A whole congregation attested to the time the church service had finished; the length of stay at the neighbour's place was only slightly less definite; the distance of the trails could not be gainsaid. Mystifying as it was, Constable Day and his comrades felt pleased to be able to pin down the times and the movements of the principals so accurately. Furthermore no stranger had been observed in that neighbourhood so quick to notice the outsider. It seemed more than probable, therefore, that this wholesale murder and

arson had been committed by someone living in the vicinity. The pity was that he had been so thorough ; but he had taken the time to clinch each horrible deed, one bullet in the chest and then one on the head to make sure, or *vice versa*, and even the fires had been carefully kindled, despite his hasty hand. There was but one avenue left open, more questioning on lines of greater delicacy and difficulty to disclose motives, to discover if it was for money or from hatred or fear or revenge that the family was wiped out. The Mounted Policemen now set about an exhaustive review of the Manchur household history, through their interpreter of course, and soon discovered that it was only necessary to *chercher la femme* to alight on a promising trail.

Fourteen years earlier old John Manchur, then nearly sixty, had come from Galicia to Canada and settled at his present location. One year later his son, Prokop, brought his family to the next quarter-section. The news they sent home was so good that a married daughter of old John's induced her husband, Steven Takahone, to emigrate and take up land on the same section. The three houses were only three hundred yards apart. In due course Prokop's brother-in-law, John Lycheluk, arrived from Galicia and took up quarters in the Prokop home. About the same time Prokop's eldest daughter, Paulina, married Mike Syroishka.

It was about this stage of the story that the Mounted Policemen began to take heart, for little by little the details of unpleasantness in the Syroishka home came to light. As an upshot of ill-treatment, and at the instigation of her father, Paulina returned to her parents after three years of married life.

The strained relations growing out of the marital quarrels and the separation intensified rather than diminished as time went on. There was a money muddle in which Syroishka claimed that Prokop was indebted to him for \$100, a charge which Prokop denied. Threats verged upon physical violence. Syroishka began to carry a revolver, for defence as he claimed, but Prokop feared something else and in the end had his son-in-law arrested. After that incident Syroishka was heard to say openly that he would kill the entire Manchur family. It

looked very much to the constable in charge that one thing remained to do—to swear out a warrant for murderous Mike's arrest on the most serious of charges.

In consideration of the difficulties met earlier in the day, the lack of direct evidence and the unwillingness of the Galicians to talk, in their own language or any other, it must be admitted that the Mounted Police had worked fast. They had gone about as far as they thought proper on their authority without communicating with the detachment. At once they set about notifying their superiors and were assured that Inspector Duffus, the officer commanding nearby, would arrive as soon as possible next day.

But fast as the police had worked, the local coroner worked faster, and when Inspector Duffus came, bringing Staff-Sergeant Prime with him, he found that the bodies had been removed from the ruins, a post-mortem—necessarily a hurried one—had taken place, and burial certificates already had been issued to the surviving relatives. The officer's reaction was equally swift and direct. Tactfully but with a quite obvious firmness he convinced the coroner that his action seemed unwisely precipitate and that the burial certificate had better be recalled, the post-mortem left open, and the inquest set for that same day be adjourned until further notice. Meanwhile he hastened to interview Mike Syroishka, who together with the relative he lived with had been put under arrest, on his order, by Day.

Syroishka attempted to deny nothing. His more than strained relations with Paulina, with Prokop, with the entire household and tribe of Manchurs, he admitted, were quite true. The quarrel about the money had taken place. His conviction for carrying the revolver had taken place all right. He had indeed threatened Prokop, had not everybody heard him? Only one thing he disclaimed, and that was any connexion with the crime. He hadn't been near the place, he said, he hadn't even set foot on the Manchur place for a year. He swore that, after leaving Lycheluk and Cheremata, he had gone straight home to his relatives, the Stefanikus, arriving about midnight. Everyone but his mother was asleep. He had a bite to eat, and on stepping outside for a moment before

retiring had seen the reflection of a fire to the east. His mother's excitement had wakened the rest of the household and they debated the advisability of going to see where the fire was. For himself, he didn't care to go, it was too late to run to fires, and finally the rest decided not to either. Next morning a neighbour's boy told them whose place it was that had been burned down. He was sorry for Takahone, who was his friend.

Inspector Duffus listened with growing concern to this outpouring. If true it destroyed the case which had seemed so simple and direct. The Stefaniuk household corroborated the important features of the affair. When asked how he was so sure about the time, Syroishka said that his mother had asked him what time it was and he noticed that the Big Ben alarm clock registered exactly midnight. To the inspector the alarm clock was not so convincing, for it has often proved extremely simple to put the hands of a clock ahead, call attention to the time, and then return them at a later hour. But the Galician was clearly not acting. He was perfectly willing to show the clothes he had worn the night before and they showed no signs of smoke, fire or blood.

In addition to the now almost childlike willingness of these people to aid, the question of times and distances seemed to throw Syroishka beyond the pale of suspicion. To have carried out the murders he would have had to skulk behind Lycheluk until the Manchur house was reached, shoot down the men, women, and girls, not to mention the oxen, set the fires, and wait around to see that they were successfully set, retrace his steps to Takahone's farm and kindle his barn and granary, and then continue back along the trail in the face of those pressing to the fires for three quarters of a mile before striking his own trail to the Stefaniuk farm. It was as good as impossible in the time given, and a check showed that Syroishka had not cut across country, the snow was without trace of anyone's passage. And finally Syroishka and Takahone were good friends, nor was the suspect of so crafty a calibre as to think of burning down a friend's stable in order to throw suspicion on another man. Syroishka might harbour unfriendly feelings toward the Manchurs, he at least did not

conceal them. Inspector Duffus was forced to the conclusion that he was concealing nothing; the police were up against a real puzzle. There was but one plan of procedure, to begin again and build up another theory from observation. Accordingly he divided the field of observation into two, the ruins and the families of the township; each to be sifted and delved into for some fresh motive that would promise a solution.

The work at the ruins was slow and very tedious. Everything had been charred and smoked past recognition, and the grimy searchers groping on hands and knees through layers of soot and mud—for it had rained—were upheld by no special hopes. Apart from possibly some empty rifle cartridges what could there be to find? That, too, was the question which the ring of watching Galicians asked each other, and to them all this solemn perseverance seemed part of a mysterious ceremony which might yet place a noose around the neck of one of their number.

The haul could not be called encouraging: three bullets in the standing wall, and six .32 calibre centre-fire Winchester cartridges from the dust heaps. It was of course a satisfaction, if not a very surprising one, to be certain that all were of the same type as those which had killed the oxen and the six human beings, and that they could not have been fired from Syroishka's rifle. It was less satisfactory to find the fatal rifle itself, covered with clay and debris from the roof and protected from the flames, since it removed the possibility of discovering it on the murderer's premises. However the next step was plain, and Inspector Duffus instigated inquiries and an intensive search as to the owner of this rifle. But though every settler in the district, twenty miles square, was interrogated, the police were no surer of the owner. And this was strange, too, because of a certain trait—the Galician is so proud of a new possession that he must show it and boast of it.

'I can't understand it,' said Staff-Sergeant Prime to Inspector Duffus after reporting his inability to locate the rifle owner. 'Nobody in this settlement could have bought a rifle without all his friends knowing about it.'

'Are you satisfied that his friends aren't holding back on you?' asked Duffus.

'Absolutely satisfied. They've an air you can't put on. They're mystified, too.'

'And to think how simple it should be,' exclaimed the inspector. 'The time, the place, the people, everything should make this an open and shut case, instead of which it's a blank. We're farther from the solution than when we started out.'

'Much farther,' assented Prime. 'On the first day we knew who did it and his motives. Here's the fifth and we're at a standstill, without a clue. If everything didn't point to the murderer's being local, I'd say he was a stranger, but I've asked that question a hundred times. These Manchurs had no dealings with strangers. Like most others here they lived to themselves. People don't just come in from a distance, bump off families by the half-dozen and clear out so easily. Besides everybody likes this lot.'

'Except Syroishka,' prompted the inspector. 'I wish they'd had more enemies. Can't we find someone who was on the outs with Prokop, Prime?'

'Nobody except Lycheluk,' said Prime, smiling a little, 'and he's in no condition to suspect with two bullets in him.'

'What've you heard about Lycheluk?' asked Duffus, seeing that Prime had not shared all the gossip.

'Too fond of the women, and too lazy to look for them. He took the first to hand.'

'But Mrs. Prokop was his sister?'

'Not her, but Paulina,' said Prime. 'Prokop didn't like that any more than Steven Takahone liked Lycheluk's attentions to his wife. But Takahone's alibied, and besides he wouldn't likely set his own granary afire. And Prokop with a bullet in his head and chest isn't any more likely to have shot Lycheluk than Lycheluk with those holes in his head and chest could.' He paused, for the officer, with furrowed brow, was a picture of intense concentration.

At last his expression changed, brightened. 'Prime,' he said, slowly, 'you've given me a theory. See if you can dig up the coroner for me. He won't like it, but he'll like it still less if my hunch is right. If I can satisfy myself on one point, I can put my hand on the murderer at any time.'

Prime stared at his officer, who was exhibiting as much excitement as he ever allowed himself to show. He left at once.

The coroner obeyed the summons sulkily, but the inspector began in his smoothest manner with 'Doctor, there are one or two points about which I'm still in doubt. You examined all those bodies?'

'Of course,' the coroner replied grumpily.

'Including corpse number six?'

'Yes, I say yes,' snapped the coroner, 'you know that.'

'Well, doctor,' still smoothly, 'I've an idea about this case and it revolves about the wounds in number six's body, John Lycheluk's. He had a bullet wound in his head and another in his chest, you will remember. I understood you to say that either wound would have caused death instantaneously?'

'And I'll say it again,' growled the sleepy coroner.

'Well, doctor, for argument's sake let us assume that the chest wound wouldn't have caused instantaneous death.'

'But it would,' burst out the now choleric coroner, 'what's the sense in going over all that?'

'Quite so, doctor,' pursued Duffus, his voice dripping the honey of appeasement, 'but hear me out. Merely for the sake of the point I wish to make please answer me this, if death had not been instantaneous there would have been an internal hemorrhage, would there not?'

'Certainly, but why . . . ?'

Duffus held up his hand, 'But if death had been instantaneous there would have been no internal hemorrhage?'

'Y-e-s. In general terms, that's the case,' admitted the coroner grudgingly.

'Then, doctor,' and this time the voice was not ingratiating, 'I want an autopsy made on that body immediately. I must be convinced that John Lycheluk did or did not commit suicide before I proceed with my investigation.'

'Stuff and nonsense,' stormed the coroner, 'there'll be no autopsy. I've made my examination and I say and stick to it that either wound was instantly fatal. I've held the burial of the bodies up too long on your account as it is. I'm going to issue the burial certificates to-morrow.'

'In that case,' replied the inspector coolly, 'I shall be

reluctantly compelled to advise the Attorney-General of my suspicions and to ask that the Provincial Bacteriologist at Regina be sent here. If that happens and I'm wrong, it will not matter very much ; but if you are wrong, well . . .'

The coroner saw the unpalatable alternative and gave in.

'But how could he commit suicide?' asked Prime, when the coroner had departed in a huff for his implements.

'It's a theory, I'll admit,' replied Duffus, 'but a theory, even if wrong, may lead to something which just running around in circles as we've been doing can't do. Have you looked at chest wound?'

'Yes, and it looks to me as if the coroner's right, sure and sudden death.'

'Did you look closely? And at the hole in the forehead? I know the body was pretty well scorched, but under the grime . . .,' just then the coroner returned.

It was an intensely interested trio which sought the new evidence, an irritated coroner burning to say I told you so, and two gentlemen of the law equally anxious to wind up the mystery. Suddenly the chest cavity was shown to be swimming with blood, so much so that the coroner was forced to admit that life had lingered for some time. 'But just what does that prove?' he asked stubbornly.

'It proves that Lycheluk is the murderer we've been seeking,' said the inspector. 'It is clear enough now. Perhaps the man went temporarily insane, or berserk, or perhaps his fear of Prokop or Takahone brought this horror about. At any rate he did his shootings in a frenzy of haste, kindled the fires, and then shot himself in the heart. But he missed the heart, as you know. He was dying, but not fast enough. The hell he had himself made was engulfing him. He felt the heat, in a moment he would be in the flames. With some upward surge of will-power he fumbled for the rifle, leaned it to his head and shot.' Ignoring the coroner's snort of derision, the officer took a sponge, wet it, and gently pressed it to the forehead of the corpse. He stooped, peered closely, and straightened with a hardly restrained expression of triumph. 'There's the proof, if any is still needed,' he said. The powder marks are absolutely distinct around the wound.'

As if only waiting for some such development, a confirmation of the officer's suspicions now came from all sides. The coat which Lycheluk had worn to church had been found outside Prokop's home by old John Manchur and removed for safety from the flames, and forgotten until now. In the pocket was a box still containing a few .32 calibre centre fire Winchester cartridges, together with the name of the store from which it had been purchased. It was now easy to jog that store-keeper's memory, and a record of the rifle's sale was produced. Details of Lycheluk's amorous leanings multiplied. 'Of course Lycheluk did it,' was now heard everywhere in Yavo, as if it had been the obvious solution right along.

'But what made you think of him, sir, when we had passed him over so often before?' asked Prime of Inspector Duffus on their way back to Saskatoon when the jury had brought in the verdict predicted.

'Perhaps that's the reason. I felt that we were being misled by some point we had accepted at face value without its due of scrutiny. It almost *had* to be Lycheluk. Don't you see the steps of suspicion—his unusual refusal to accompany the Manchurs home after the party after church, his leaving with Syroishka who was also hostile to Prokop, the secrecy of the purchase and possession of the rifle, and then you came along with the story of his irregularities to give us a motive. What put me off so long was that coroner's insistence on either wound giving instantaneous death. Never fail to question the obvious, Prime, there may be something lurking behind it.'

'Well, sir,' smiled Prime, 'I'm glad you questioned it and it turned out this way. It wouldn't look too good at the end of the year to show six unsolved murder cases, would it?'

A Prison de Luxe

MAKING MURDERERS COMFORTABLE

BY CAPT. W. CECIL PRICE

THE State Penitentiary of São Paulo in Brazil may fairly be regarded as a murderer's paradise. Brazilian law does not inflict the death penalty in the case of murder; its substitute is a sentence of thirty years' hard labour, but in the event of a man being twice convicted of the capital charge a life sentence is inflicted.

Perhaps the absence of the death penalty is an incitement to murder; certain it is that a convict does not fear to become an inmate of the very wonderful, I had almost said luxurious, prison belonging to the State of São Paulo. The fact remains that the jail is almost full and building operations for the addition of a further prisoners' wing are nearing completion.

During my recent visit to Brazil an invitation was extended to me to see the State Penitentiary—there is a recognized visitors' day, since the State of São Paulo is justifiably proud of its prison.

I might add, parenthetically, that São Paulo is the greatest commercial and industrial centre in the whole of the vast Brazilian Republic, and it is perhaps fitting that so progressive a State should possess such a model and up-to-date institution, easily the best of its kind in the world.

It is situated some three miles out of the city, and to all outward appearances it resembles a large country mansion bounded by some of the loveliest scenery imaginable.

Written large over the portals are the words: WORK, DISCIPLINE, GOODWILL. These represent the basis of life within the prison and form the theme of the little homily which is read to every prisoner by the Prison Governor (or Adminis-

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trator as he is known) on entering the jail. 'By work,' he is told, 'you will help to forget the crime for which you have been sentenced; by discipline you will learn how to become a useful citizen of the Republic when your time for release arrives, and goodwill to all is necessary both inside and outside the prison walls.'

On entering, the prisoner is divested of his civilian garb, which is, however, carefully packed and ticketed, and in exchange he receives the prison dress consisting of khaki-hued coat, trousers, and skull cap. No broad arrows to disfigure this 'rig out'; merely stencilled numbers which adorn the coat, back and front, and these in a not too conspicuous position. His initiation begins with his passage through the observation cell, which is visited daily by the Medical Officer who, at the expiration of a short period, reports on the general state of the prisoner's health and habits and the type of work of which he is deemed to be capable.

This probationary period over, he is allotted a cell on the lower floors (the higher floors are reserved for those men who have received good conduct marks) and is told off for duty in any trade that he might choose; or, where he is known from records to be fitted for a particular calling, he is at once sent to the workshops as a bootmaker, tailor, carpenter, etc. Here, after an interval of a few weeks, he is again reported upon and re-assigned to another department where his talents can be used to greater advantage.

The cells are large and lofty and contain parquet-flooring, spring beds, and fairly comfortable bedclothes; a chair, a table, and a set of shelves. In the cell which I was allowed to inspect was a 'first class' prisoner—good conduct had placed him in this category—thus, he was able to provide himself with an elegant floor rug, books, etc. In fact, this particular cell would do credit to many a single room in a fashionable European hotel. Everything was spotlessly clean and tidy, and the little pot of artificial flowers (made by the prisoner from bread crumbs!) rested daintily on the window-sill and gave a finishing touch to the bright-looking and wholesome cell. The shelves contained literature borrowed from the prison library, writing paper, and a supply of cigarettes. Each prisoner is

allowed ninety cigarettes each month by the prison authorities ; he may smoke these as he chooses, but the quantity of the allowance is never increased.

As a privileged visitor, and accompanied by a representative of the Mayor of São Paulo, I was received by the Prison Administrator and handed a small numbered disc, which I was advised not to lose, as it was my only means of unchallengeable egress—proof that I was a visitor and not an inmate.

Prior to passing through the prison itself I was led through a number of the administrative offices in each of which, seated at a long table, were a number of private detectives, C.I.D. men, who scrutinized me closely as I passed them. My guide volunteered the information that the majority of these men were ex-convicts ! On the principle of 'set a thief to catch a thief,' the authorities believe in recruiting their detective force from among those who have 'done time' and who know the haunts and ways of the criminal. Incidentally, I was given a complete description of my facial features by those detectives by the time I had passed into the exterior of the prison.

We went on to the exercise yard. A large open space with a raised platform at one end but with none of the usual safeguards of high surrounding walls. It was the hour for physical drill. Prisoners were drawn up in pairs, one short, the other tall: the idea being that in the evolution of the various exercises the taller man should assist his shorter comrade in any of the movements which might tax his strength. The officer in charge is not a prison official but an expert physical drill-instructor—Major Garrido—an army officer who specializes in novel forms of 'physical jerks' of a type considered by him to be suited to the life and health of prisoners.

In a far corner of the yard was a brass band—as fine a military band as I have heard anywhere. The cornet player attracted my attention. A man of splendid physique, intelligent-looking, with well-cut features. Wearing gold-rimmed spectacles he looked for all the world like an Oxford don. 'A murderer of the deepest dye,' informs my guide, 'he's been accused of killing three people at different times and in three different parts of the State. On two occasions the evidence was barely sufficient to secure a conviction, but in

the third case he was caught red-handed. He is undergoing thirty years' imprisonment.'

The prisoners represent almost every nationality to be found in Brazil ; Italians and Portuguese predominate—if the large proportion of the black population, the biggest law-breakers, is excepted.

Physical drill instruction is based on novel lines. Parts consist of step-dancing and toe-dancing to music. At the end of the exercise flags are handed to the men, and holding these aloft they perform many amusing gyrations. Finally the National flag is unfurled and the prisoners group themselves around a painted emblem of the jail representing Work, Discipline, Goodwill ; then to the strains of the National Anthem they march away to their various cells.

At short intervals during the progress of physical drill the prisoners are given an 'easy,' during which period they are permitted to talk to one another, to collect into groups, to smoke and to roam the 'yard' at will. There are not more than half a dozen warders, in plain clothes, on duty on the exercise ground, and these are entirely unarmed, a fact which made a deep impression upon me. There were over 300 men on parade—an amazing tribute to the code of honour and discipline instilled into the minds of these prisoners.

'How could you defend yourself against these men if they suddenly took it into their heads to attack you, or, to make attempts at escape?' I asked. The instructor smiled his reply. 'These men, most of them convicted of the worst possible crimes, recognize that they are treated as human beings within the limits of the regulations. It would be a heinous offence against their own code of loyalty for any one of them to raise a finger against me, or to break jail. These men are my protection. I would wager that if any man dared make the merest attempt to 'go for' me he would receive such handling from the others as to make it hardly worth the effort, to say nothing of the extra punishment he would receive.'

The workshops throughout the jail are excellently equipped. The bookbinding department, carpenter's shop, tailor's shop, mattress-making factory, brush-making rooms,

boot-making shop (this has a capacity for 300 pairs of boots per day), all produce goods for use in the prison or by various Government departments. The standard of workmanship is high indeed, the majority of the prisoners being artisans and skilled workmen. The exhibition of portrait painting which I was asked to inspect would do credit to any art gallery. A feature of life in this jail is the assistance rendered to prisoners to follow their bent for art, literature, engineering, architecture, etc. Every facility is afforded them to maintain their knowledge and experience, so that upon release they may renew their occupation without difficulty.

A special cell has been set apart and used as a drawing office. This is at present occupied by a man serving a thirty years' sentence for murder. He is one of the best-known architects of São Paulo. My guide shook hands with this man and greetings took place in the usual Brazilian fashion—clasping each other around the shoulders,—an astonishing procedure! My guide explained that this man was a personal friend and a man much respected throughout the city. In a fit of jealousy he murdered his wife after accusing her of carrying on a liaison with a mutual friend. Whilst the wife was preparing some coffee and her back was turned the husband stabbed her. The authorities being kindly disposed towards so eminent a man permit him to carry on his profession without let or hindrance, but he works exclusively for the prison authorities. The extension to the prison buildings, which are now in progress, are being made from his plans and drawings.

A tour through the various offices was a liberal education. There are two main penal establishments with 920 cells disposed on five floors; guard-rooms and departments for the guards; two large warehouses, kitchens, bakery, laundry, light and power stations, a photographic *atelier*, automatic telephone system all over the buildings, vigilance terraces, auditorium, cinema hall, a small pavilion for delinquent minors, laboratory for analytical studies, dental surgery, hospital, etc.

Each prisoner is credited with pay at the rate of about 6d. per diem; in addition, good conduct merits an award of chevrons. These are much sought after but not easily obtained. The possession of chevrons develops a sense of responsibility,

whilst the prospect of winning them is an incentive to the younger men.

The food is of the best, as I can testify, having eaten a dinner similar to that served to the prisoners. The portions are most generous; they are not microscopically weighed, if at all. The usual midday meal consists of a heaped-up plate of meat and vegetables, rice, and some kind of pudding. At the meal hour two prisoners are detailed, one to take the travelling food-trolley from cell to cell, the other to serve the meal and to enquire of the prisoner how much or how little he wants, or whether he would prefer less rice and more of something else, or conversely!

A further example of the remarkable freedom allowed prisoners is that when men are detailed to work in gardens outside the prison gates the escort consists of one unarmed warder. The prisoners rarely, if ever, attempt to escape, I was informed. To do so would break the code of honour, but in any event his freedom would be short-lived. The remarkable system in force for trailing a man is so perfect that a description could be flashed all over the city in less time than it takes to write it.

It might be of interest to mention that all prisoners receive a thorough examination by the dental surgeon on entering, and a complete plaster cast is made of their jaws and teeth. This serves two purposes; to inform the authorities of the care necessary to keep the prisoner's teeth in good and sound condition, to supply him with false teeth if necessary, and as a further means of identification additional to the usual finger print method. Cases and cases of plaster casts are maintained in the surgery, all ticketed, numbered, and arranged for easy guidance. And from time to time these are brought up to date should any prisoner's cast become obsolete by dental operations.

On a prisoner's release quite a little ceremony is enacted in the presence of the Prison Administrator. The ex-convict is addressed in a few comforting words upon his sufferings consequent upon his committal of a crime against the law. 'For misdeeds punishment follows as night follows day. But you have expiated your crime; let the years that you have spent

in prison always remind you of the necessity for observing the law. The discipline which you have been taught will stand you in good stead in your future life.' And then a warder produces the ex-convict's clothes which were taken from him on entering the prison. In every case, I was informed, the ex-prisoner casts these aside with contempt; he revolts at the sight of his dirty suit of clothes, socks, shirt, boots, and so on. He is now attired in a smart suit (which has been made in the prison) given him by the prison authorities, clean shirt, good sound boots, collar, tie, etc. His discipline has taught him pride in his person; he is now clean, smart, upright, wholesome.

But the Administrator insists that the ex-prisoner shall take his old clothes with him. This he does, and outside the prison gates can be seen to-day scores and scores of old suits which lie buried in the ground in a place known as the 'Old clo' shop.'

Now as to money. The sixpence credited to the prisoner for each day of his incarceration has accumulated and stands at a respectable sum. A proportion of this has been given to the man's wife during his absence. The balance is apportioned as to a sum sufficient to tide the man over the first few weeks during which time he is seeking employment; the remainder is left with the prison authorities and is dealt out as and when application is made by the prisoner upon proof that he is in urgent need of the money. Or, should he require funds with which to start a business, a sum is given him for that purpose after satisfactory assurances that the money will not be squandered but that there is a reasonable chance of its giving the ex-convict a successful start.

It has been proved conclusively that by 'Work, Discipline, and Goodwill' every prisoner on release proves himself a better citizen and becomes an example to others.



A HUNGARIAN MOTOR-CYCLIST POLICE PATROL



THE INSPECTOR-GENERAL OF THE SIAMESE GENDARMERIE

A Sketch of Siam's Gendarmerie

BY LT.-COL. C. H. FORTY

Royal Siamese Gendarmerie

IN 1862, King Mongkut of Siam, grandfather of His Majesty the present sovereign, commissioned an Englishman named Ames to raise Bangkok's first organized body of police. This was several years before the London men in blue discarded their top hats in favour of helmets. Judged therefore by police standards the Siamese policemen possess a pedigree with a reasonable claim to some antiquity. Before the year mentioned Bangkok's nearest approach to police officers consisted of a body of men clad in civilian clothing who carried bundles of canes and whose functions in assisting magistrates were somewhat akin to those of the Bow Street Runners.

Captain S. J. Bird Ames was a Kentish man and had commanded a sailing-ship in the Mercantile Marine before the attractions of Bangkok, in those days a comparatively unknown city, induced him to give up the sea and seek his fortune ashore. He is stated to have at first gone into business as a building contractor, and a bridge crossing a canal near the present Harbour Department still bears his name. It was of a vastly different order from the monumental structure Messrs. Dorman, Long & Co. are just now throwing across the Menam river, but it was a good bridge of its day, and may have served to bring to the notice of authority the quality of the stranger it was named after.

Ames was given the appointment of Superintendent of Police. His command at first consisted of Malays whom he had himself recruited from the ranks of men who had served in the army or police in Singapore. These were augmented, and in

time replaced, by Siamese and Indians, though a few individuals remained on in the capacity of detectives long after the original circumstances of their enlistment had been forgotten by the public.

From the little to be learnt from the scanty literature of that now remote period, and from tactfully questioning its few surviving veterans, one gleans that the infant force, whilst not infrequently exciting the ribald laughter of the townspeople and often being found fault with, justified its conception and was of service to the public.

We read the following observations in the *Siam Repository* of the year 1869: 'His Majesty the King has taken the trouble to introduce a foreign master of police with a liberal salary, and a police force that has been trained in the nearest English port of Singapore. He has tried this for several years and seems well satisfied with its operations. We are very glad the native population have so good a leader in the Englishman who now stands at the head of the police force which is to give protection to this city of "multifarious" races.' A striking tribute, as his countrymen would now allow, from the pen of the Revd. Samuel J. Smith, pioneer evangelist besides editor and proprietor of Bangkok's first monthly journal!

Mr. Smith was not destined to retain his editorial monopoly for long. He died in the town half a century later at the age of ninety-two and furnished copy for obituary notices in nearly a dozen local papers and many others in America. The *Siam Repository* has been long defunct, but a few copies have been preserved. To-day Bangkok publishes fourteen daily and four weekly newspapers.

In about the year 1887 a Siamese prince, who had been Minister at the Court of St. James's, returned to Siam. From all accounts His Highness had when there been much impressed with the appearance and work of the London Metropolitan Police. This diplomat on his return was appointed Minister of Local Government, an office which carried among other responsibilities direct charge of the town police. One of his first steps was to recommend that the police should be modelled on the lines of the officers he had seen in England.

As a result of this Ames and his men were provided with

blue uniforms and helmets. The constables wore the cut of trouser then in fashion, but the Siamese officers of commissioned rank continued to wear the panung¹ as a continuation to the new coat. There were a number of Sikhs on the strength, and as no consideration would induce them to dispense with their turbans, they were allowed to wear the new helmets on top of their customary covering. The blue bordering of their turbans seemed merely an extension of the helmet and in no way detracted from its appearance.

Capt. Ames, in the new régime, was still styled Superintendent of Police, though he afterwards enjoyed the distinction of being the recipient of a Siamese title. He was then known as Luang Rathiyah Tiban Bancha. He eventually retired after some thirty years' service and later on died in Bangkok. Major Richardson was for a time in charge.

The duties of the police were at this period becoming more onerous and difficult. The rapidly increasing population and growing importance of the Port of Bangkok were circumstances which in themselves were quite sufficient to account for this. Members of most nations traded with and resided in the town. Many of them were law-abiding citizens, but not a few were adventurers, the atmosphere of whose own countries had become too hot to be at all comfortable. There were white 'pimps' and other professional foreign criminals.

But, good, bad or indifferent, they enjoyed the right of trial for any crimes they might choose to commit by their own countrymen under their own laws. The police had to obtain search and arrest warrants from the various consuls and prosecute offenders in their respective courts often enough in their own language. Interpreters had frequently to be made use of. To be at all successful a police officer had to make himself acquainted with the procedure and laws of the different courts and to have some knowledge of several languages.

This state of affairs called for officers of considerable ability and education. The occupation of the police officer had risen and become a profession. Unfortunate episodes

¹ The panung may be said to be the national garment of the Siamese. It consists of a cloth forming a kilt which is twisted, passed between the legs, hitched up behind, and fastened to the waist band. It is worn by both men and women. The material is either silk or cotton.

from time to time happened which seemed to indicate that the efficiency of the force was not as high as it might have been, in spite of the reforms which had been instituted. It is said that in one such instance a diplomat who had driven over and injured a Chinaman was arrested by the constable on point duty on the charge of furious driving to the public danger. The station officer, who was quite unaware of the culprit's rank and did not understand what he said, mistook his great excitement for symptoms of intoxication, with exceedingly unpleasant results for himself and everyone concerned.

In yet another, a lady belonging to the diplomatic corps is reported to have been charged by a constable with the offence of picking some lotus lilies from a pond contiguous to the highway. These incidents, trivial as they may seem to readers unacquainted with the sacrosanct nature of the diplomatic body, must have occasioned a certain amount of trouble to the authorities. While either episode might have been regarded as a reflection on the police methods of the time, both of them offer fair examples of that good or bad luck which makes or breaks so many police officers. Soon afterwards it was decided to reorganize the force on the lines of the Indian Police.

The work of reorganization was given to Mr. Jardine.¹ This officer and several others were seconded from the Indian Police for service in Siam. Mr. Jardine was appointed Commissioner and the police under his jurisdiction soon rose to 3000 officers and men. The police were modelled on the Indian lines in nearly every respect. The system of registers then in vogue in India was adopted, and the same methods as far as it was found possible for the administration of the force and the prevention of crime were gradually instituted. Uniforms were again changed. Khaki jumpers and forage caps took the place of frock-coats and helmets. The only touch of blue which remained lay in the putties worn by all ranks when on ordinary duty and in the full-dress uniforms of the officers above the rank of head constable.

The appearance of all ranks was much improved by the introduction of the khaki uniforms. The jaunty caps, tight jackets, and putties were more suited to the men's somewhat

¹ Afterwards Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Burma.

short stature, which had seemed if anything lessened by the frock-coats and helmets of the London costume. Besides being more stylish the khaki uniforms were suited to the climate. The blue coats, when exposed to the fiery sun and torrential showers of Bangkok, often faded to such an extent that in a squad of constables parading for duty it was sometimes difficult to find two of exactly the same shade of colour.

That there was genuine need for more active methods in dealing with crime at about this period may be conjectured from the following anecdote, which Mr. Jardine was in the habit of relating as an illustration. One evening, not long after his arrival in Siam, he had occasion to call at a large station on the way from the club to dinner. He found the shutters down and the place closed. On ascertaining the reason from an old inspector who resided above the station, he was informed that they usually barred the station for the night to prevent theft of the rifles and other Government property.

Some years before Mr. Jardine became Commissioner another corps, called the Provincial Gendarmerie, was formed. Its object was to police the monthons or provinces which lay beyond the Monthon Bangkok. Captain Schau, a Dane at that time attached to the Siamese army, was selected to raise and command the new gendarmerie. A proportion of the officers were Europeans who had previously held commissions in the Danish army or military police.

General Schau, as he was destined to become, was a remarkably strict disciplinarian. The force, which in time numbered 8000 men, was essentially a military one and noted for its smartness on parade and the clean and soldierlike bearing of the gendarmes. Sometimes employed on service on the frontiers, the main duty of the gendarmerie was the protection of life and property in the interior and the safeguarding of the various lines of communication, including the railways at that time under construction.

Mr. Jardine, after accomplishing his mission, stayed on for a short while as Commissioner of Police. Apart from his work as a policeman, his name lives on in Bangkok as the man who made its record bag of snipe. This bag consisted of 102 couple, and is particularly remarkable as having been made in

a single afternoon. Its compiler used two sixteen-bore guns and employed a good number of trained men for gathering the game. The bag has not yet been exceeded.

Mr. E. St. J. Lawson, also of the Indian Police, became Commissioner on Mr. Jardine's return to India. He held the post for twelve years, during which time many improvements, extensions, and changes were made. Among the more important of them was the founding of the Special Branch, an institution very much of the nature of the London Criminal Investigation Department, the introduction of the system of identification by finger prints, and the opening of schools for the training of both officers and men. He also published a police manual in Siamese and English which filled a long-felt want.

While this officer was Commissioner the Penal Code of Siam became law, and by defining crimes and punishments provided for them proved of incalculable assistance to the police. In the year 1909 conscription was started in Siam. It was a measure which materially concerned the force, as besides having to organize the movement in the first instance, from then onwards its recruits were conscripts.

Among these recruits were individuals of high character, good ability and education, and there were others whose attributes were exactly the opposite. When after being trained for a year in the police school they appeared on the beats, the man in the street was afforded the opportunity, hitherto unpossessed by him, of seeing other average individuals like himself discharging duties which by the common law should belong to all citizens. After two years' service conscripts who were considered suitable were allowed to volunteer for permanent work, if the profession of a policeman appealed to them.

Some months before His late Majesty King Rama VI declared war on the Central Powers, the police and gendarmerie were amalgamated into a dual force under an Inspector-General and given the name of the Local and Provincial Gendarmerie. A Siamese officer succeeded to the Commissionership, and a prince, who held the rank of Major-General in the army, became Inspector-General.

The first operation in which the officers of the combined gendarmerie took part was the arrest and internment of several hundred enemy subjects then resident in Siam. Most of these lived in Bangkok. Some of them were public servants, others engineers and merchants.

To prevent any possible trouble, such as might have happened had the proposals of milder men been adopted, it was decided to intern them all without any exception and without the intention of the government being known to them beforehand.

The morning on which a state of peace ceased to exist happened to be Sunday, a day owing to its quietness more suitable for such a project than a week-day would have been. At dawn all members of the enemy community had the royal proclamation read and explained to them and were removed in motor cars with their hand luggage to a commodious building, where all possible arrangements had been previously made for their comfort. The whole undertaking was carried out before breakfast and before the inhabitants of Bangkok were aware that anything of the kind had happened.

The manner in which the internment was carried out, as compared to the more halting measures taken elsewhere, provided food for much favourable comment in the press of other countries at the time. No untoward incident occurred, nor was there anything which might have been taken exception to on any grounds. A touch of humour was not entirely absent, for one man was hurriedly stopped by an officer when apparently about to swallow some pink fluid which he had poured from a blue bottle into a tumbler. It was not poison as the officer feared but a lotion made use of for cleaning the teeth. The ladies and children occupied one camp and the men another. They were later sent to India with the exception of certain individuals who were released on the ground of old age.

The War killed extra-territoriality in Siam. It had been on the wane ever since Great Britain gave up the right of trying her own subjects some five years before hostilities started. Though a few countries still continued to hold on to their privileges they very shortly afterwards surrendered them.

The extra-territorial system was of course necessary in its

day, but it was open to many abuses. It was never popular with the police, in spite of the unique opportunities it afforded officers of making themselves acquainted with the law and procedure of so many countries, and the occasional journeys it provided on escort duty to other ports. Some of the consuls seemed singularly assiduous in supporting the principle that their countrymen must always be in the right. Others gave one the impression of often acting on the assumption that their subjects were bound to be in the wrong.

Apart from its more serious aspects many examples could be given of the drollery so frequently furnished by the extra-territorial right. I had not been a fortnight in Bangkok when screams attracted another officer and myself to a disorderly house near the mess. From the road we saw an obese scarlet-faced person seated astride a man on the floor apparently trying to beat his brains out with a large black bottle. To rush in and unseat this nightmare seemed the only possible thing to do. But this ordinary act led, as my friend said it would, to a complaint being laid against us for the heinous outrage of entering a protected house without a warrant.

Within a stone's-throw of Love Lane, where this house was situated, lived two publicans whose houses stood opposite to each other or nearly so. They were both prosecuted in their own courts on a first charge of keeping open after closing hours. One of them was fined five francs and the other was made to pay a fine of five hundred marks.

And it does not require much mental effort to see again a massive, thick-necked dredgerman standing in the middle of an Oriental crowd, with a swingle-bar in his hand and his yellow hair astir in the breeze. He had just killed a Japanese who lay crumpled up on the footpath. I was riding home to luncheon at the time. The dredgerman, who it appeared was on holiday in Bangkok, had spent the morning in a lady's house. He had an appointment and a servant was sent to find a carriage, but only a rickshaw could be obtained. It was not very suitable to convey seventeen stone of brawn, but he got into it and was hauled away. A hundred yards further along the road stood a livery stable, so he stopped the rickshaw and entered in the hope of hiring a carriage.

The owner was asleep in the stable, and on being roused failed to understand what his unusual visitor wanted. He bolted down the road. The dredgerman picked up a swingle-bar which happened to be at hand and ran down the road after him. The fugitive dashed into a laundry beneath the arm of a laundryman who was ironing clothes at the entrance. The dredgerman knocked the flat-iron out of his hand and smashed his head as one might an egg.

The sentence awarded was eighteen months' imprisonment; the facts that the prisoner wore no hat, and that his offence took place during the heat of the day in the hot season, were accepted by the court as extenuating circumstances. He was placed in the International Jail. Several months afterwards I happened to board a steamer which called at one of the islands in the Gulf of Siam. Several men were having gin slings on deck, among them an unmistakable burly figure. It was the dredgerman. A man also hailing from what he was apt to term as God's own country, whom I happened to know, came over and said, 'Don't give him away, I want him to pass as an ordinary passenger; I am in charge and he is being transferred to another prison, one more suited to his constitution.'

Although the closing down of consular courts relieved officers of much responsibility there were any number of new matters to engage their attention. Not the least among these was the problem of regulating traffic. Congestion and accidents were caused by much motor transport using ways on which rickshaws remained to compete with trams and taxicabs. The death of a constable on point duty, after others had been seriously hurt, led to the erection of small raised circular islands at the junction of streets. These were at first made of wood, but as they were too easily damaged solid cement and iron had to be called into use. As the traffic sense developed it was found feasible to supersede these by illuminated iron masts which tend to regulate traffic automatically and save man power.

There is one peculiarity which is not to be found elsewhere and which only an observant person would notice. The end of the near shaft of each rickshaw is painted white for about a foot as it protrudes beyond the puller's left hand. This

embellishment was suggested by myself, before the day of white lines, as a rough and ready method of inducing the pullers to keep to the left. Notices conveyed little, and orders often less, to the Chinese casual labourers who sometimes stood between the shafts, but a white object within a foot of their noses made matters easier for them, and helped them to keep to the left.

From about the year 1910, with the decline of extra-territorial privilege, the European officers slowly decreased in numbers. As they resigned or died their appointments were either absolutely abolished as in the case of the advisers, or if they were of an executive nature were filled by the Siamese. Promising boys were sent at the government's expense to Europe to be trained in the latest police methods. That it was only a matter of a short time before all outside assistance would be dispensed with was both inevitable and natural. As it was, Sir Edward Cook's retrenchment scheme, which took effect in April 1926, expedited matters by asking for the retirement of British and Danish officers who were still serving.

There was usually plenty of excitement of one form or another to break the monotony of life in Asia. Hunting dacoits in the outlying districts, which occupied me for two years, was a peaceful pursuit when compared with the work which some of the English officers stationed in Bangkok had to perform. In addition to the common round, they were frequently called upon to undertake such jobs as fire fighting and the arresting of drunken sailors and dangerous European criminals. They had in fact much to do which is undertaken elsewhere in hot countries by the heavier and younger material supplied by the ranks of European subordinate officers and sergeants. These grades were never employed.

The Commissioner himself was on one occasion smashed across the mouth with a bottle when heading a charge, thereby earning for himself the sobriquet of the 'bottle scarred veteran.' It was once said of the officers, some of whom had been refused service elsewhere owing to various disabilities, that it would have taken three of them to make up two perfectly whole men. This was an exaggeration with a grain of truth in it. The Commissioner did not believe in medical boards

for officers, on the ground that if Nelson had lived in our time he would either have never joined the navy or have been invalidated out.

One long-suffering officer who carried a bullet near his bladder was twice severely stabbed: once, when searching a suspect who was carrying a knife in his sleeve which he stuck into his captor's abdomen, and again, a slashing knife wound down the back which he got while trying to stop a fight. He was fat, otherwise the second injury would almost certainly have proved his last. As it was he lived to lose his front teeth and an eye before retiring on a pension which he enjoyed for only a few months.

The climate of Bangkok is not particularly unhealthy for the tropics, but before the present excellent water supply was instituted such complaints as cholera used to make themselves felt. We drank either rain collected from the dusty roofs of houses and stations, or water drawn from the middle of the river. It had to be boiled and cleaned. This lack of a supply of wholesome drinking water was perhaps the greatest of our deprivations, if only because it encouraged the habit of taking inordinate quantities of soda water.

The corps now numbers over 14,000 strong. Of these some 12,800 are available for duty. Without allowing for men on leave, in hospital, or otherwise absent, we find, taking as a basis Siam's probable population, that one gendarme is responsible for the safety of 805 persons. Mention has been made of the Special Branch. Its extended functions now include, as well as ordinary detective work, matters connected with vehicles, pawnshops, and prostitutes, the disposal of habitual criminals, the deportation of undesirable characters, and the care of lost lads and juvenile offenders.

Pawnshops are supplied daily with a list of property stolen in the previous twenty-four hours. Last year they gave assistance to the police in 125 cases and were instrumental in leading to the recovery of about £2000 worth of stolen property. Prostitutes are licensed. The bulk of undesirable characters deported are Chinese, the rest are for the most part members of the visiting Communist fraternity. Habitual offenders are persons who, having suffered three or more sentences of im-

prisonment, are awarded in addition to, or without other punishment, a sentence of not more than seven years restricted residence. They may be either restricted to reside in any specified area, or on the other hand to live where they please except in the towns or other prohibited places. They were at one time made to live on an island, but as they increased its accommodation became too small. They are now made to reside in whatever province they were born in. It is not always possible to ascertain this type of criminal's birthplace. Nearly all of them claim Bangkok as responsible for their origin. As their example is not a good one it seems likely that some uninhabited island or area will eventually have to be found for them.

It is of singular interest to note that the Inspector-General started his career as a constable and spent many years as a detective in the Special Branch. He worked his way up to the post of Commissioner of Police and held that appointment for several years before entering on his present office. He has no frills and is essentially an accessible man. Of very considerable linguistic attainments he has the massive head and absolutely imperturbable face which one was apt to associate with the leading bankers and merchants of the Far East.

He was succeeded as Commissioner by Colonel Phya Bolabarga Bhupal. This officer also rose from the bottom rung of the ladder and served eight years in the ranks before gaining his commission. Of frail physique he was fifty-three years old when he became Commissioner, and he may be said to have died in harness as recently as last May.

In this necessarily somewhat cursory sketch of a septuagenarian police force we see its first commandant Captain Ames, innocent probably of any knowledge of police work, but possessed in no small degree of that proverbial handiness and discipline which stamped the master mariners of his day. Then we find the influence of the world's most famous pattern police force brought into play by a diplomat who must have had many exceptional opportunities of seeing its officers on duty in London. Afterwards are found educated professional policemen and soldiers placing their experience, knowledge, and example at the disposal of the force. And finally we see

Siamese officers profiting by the training given them in charge of the present mature organization.

I had the pleasure of seeing the Inspector-General this year in Bangkok, and when I asked him for a photograph he made one condition only to its being published in the *Police Journal*. He requested me to mention in anything I might write how very grateful he was to his former Commissioner, Lt. Col. E. St. J. Lawson, for the sound training he had received at his hands: and also to add that his three most senior officers at present serving under him owed much of their knowledge to that officer's painstaking tuition.

[See articles by Lt. Col. E. St. J. Lawson in *The Police Journal*, vol. i. p. 335, and vol. iii. p. 40.]

The Internal Police Administration of England

PART I

BY HAROLD BENJAMIN, B.A. OXON.

The Seventeenth Century Police Administration

THE unit of police administration in the seventeenth century was the petty constable. He was its principal executive agent; the other police officers, the high constables and the justices of the peace, worked through him and it was upon his efficiency or inefficiency that the whole system stood or fell. The office was gratuitous and compulsory.¹ Every householder was liable to serve, with the exception, as in the case of the frank pledge, of certain privileged persons who were exempt *ex officio*.² The powers and obligations of the office were purely local, they extended only to the parish or township for which the constable was elected;³ and no one could be elected constable for a township or parish in which he was not a householder.

The election took place at the court leet of the district.⁴ This was a strictly local court held by the lord of the manor. It had once possessed extensive criminal jurisdiction, but by 1660 its powers had shrunk considerably—it had cognisance only of offences of the nature of public nuisances.⁵ But it continued down to the end of the eighteenth century to be the principal organ for the election of local officials. The method

¹ *The Exact Constable*, by E. W., of Gray's Inn, 5th ed. London, 1688, p. 13. 'For it is understood that constables have no allowance but are bound to perform their office gratis.'

² For a list of persons exempt, see *The Exact Constable* by E. W., of Gray's Inn, 5th ed. London, 1680, pp. 14-15, and *The Office of Constable*, by J. Ritson, London, 1815, p. 312; *The Parish Officer's Complete Guide*, by J. Paul, 6th ed., 1793, pp. 134 and 135.

³ *The Office of Constable*, by J. Ritson, London, 1815, p. 2.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 32.

⁵ Mr. and Mrs. Webb, *The Manor and Borough*, vol. i., London, 1908, p. 26.

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of election emphasizes the local nature of the office of constable. All the male inhabitants of the manor from twelve years old upwards were summoned to attend by the steward of the manor on the first day of the meeting of the court leet; and though the review of Frank Pledge was obsolete, 'the roll of the inhabitants was still supposed in 1689 to be called over and everyone had to answer to his name.'¹ 'Here the legal functions of the ordinary inhabitant ceased. But the bailiff or reeve had to summon two or three dozen of the more respectable and substantial inhabitants to serve as jurymen.'² This jury then proceeded to the election of the local officers; the procedure in each case being the same. The jury chose the number of men whom they considered suitable for the office and out of these the steward picked the required number to serve the office.³

The compulsory nature of the office is shown by the fact that after election the constable was bound to serve his office under penalty of a fine or imprisonment.⁴ He could be amerced by the leet jury⁵ or the justices and even imprisoned by the latter for such refusal.⁴

Where the court leet had ceased to be held or was not held through the neglect of the steward of the manor, the constables were appointed by the justices of the peace. This power of the justices to elect a constable in default of election by the court leet appears to have been exercised long before it had been given statutory sanction.⁶ By the statute of 1661 which legalized this practice the justices were given the additional power of appointing a successor in the event of the death or removal out of the parish of a constable after election by the leet.⁷

Theoretically the office of constable was one of great dignity and importance. It was one of the oldest offices of the

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 22.

² *Ibid.*, p. 23.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 28.

⁴ *Shropshire County Records*. Abstract of Quarter Sessions Orders, 1638-1888. Sir O. Wakeman and R. Ll. Kenyon, *passim*; see also below, p. 442, and Wm. Brown, *The Office of Constable*, Ed. of 1677: p. 11.

⁵ See *Court Leet Records of Manchester*, Manchester, 1884, vol. x. p. v. for instances of leet fines as late as the nineteenth century.

⁶ Sir John Fielding, *Extracts from the Penal Laws*, etc., London, 1768, p. 329.

⁷ 14 Charles II. c. 12, § 15.

realm ; compared with it the office of justice of the peace was of comparatively recent origin.¹ The wide range of his duties made the constable or should have made him the most important man in the township. He ' united in his person most of the functions of a police public prosecutor, exciseman, customs house man, collector and assessor of taxes, sanitary and building inspector, overseer, and a fully armed nineteenth century local board.' ² He had power summarily to commit offenders to the stocks for an hour or more : ³ he could demand help in the execution of his duty from any of his fellow inhabitants.⁴

But the very importance of the office proved its undoing. It was unpaid and its onerousness made it unpopular. Even the satisfaction of ' a little brief authority ' would not tempt the seventeenth or eighteenth century parishioner into desiring the office or rejoicing in its possession.⁵ By 1660 it had become recognized as an unwelcome but necessary burden which only the privileged few could avoid. The procedure of election was reduced to a mere formality. The office was served in rotation by the householders of the township, a practice which was deprecated by Coke early in the seventeenth century.⁶

Above the petty constable was the High Constable of the ' hundred.' Formerly he had been elected at the ' hundred ' court, a court which fulfilled the same functions for the hundred as the court leet did for the manor. But these courts had, for the greater part, long fallen into disuse. Not more than a score survived into the eighteenth century, though those that were still held continued to elect the high constables and even

¹ Cf. Kitchen, *The Lawful Authority of Courts Leet*, etc., 5th ed., 1675, p. 96 : ' by the common law before there was any justice of the peace constables of every town were keepers of the peace within their towns.'

² *Leigh in the Eighteenth Century*, by Josiah Rose, Leigh, 1882, p. 8.

³ W. Brown, *op. cit.*, p. 37 and p. 10.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 42 and p. 44.

⁵ Except in a few towns where the office of constable was the stepping stone to higher local offices, as at Manchester, where no one was eligible for the office of reeve unless he had first served that of constable. *Constables' Accounts of Manchester*, Manchester, 1891, vol. i. p. vii, or as at Minehead, where the constables were the heads of the town. *History of Minehead*, by F. Hancock, Taunton, 1903, p. 10.

⁶ Wm. Brown, *op. cit.*, p. 13 ; cf. also J. C. Cox, *A Calendar of Derby Records*, vol. ii. p. 110, a form of presentment to the office of constable by a leet jury, ' Wee . . . do present Thurston Dalle . . . to serve the office of constable . . . for the yeare next following for a messuage and lands thereto belonging in the occupation of him or his assignes lying and being in our quarter.'

the petty constables in some cases where there was no court leet for the manor.¹ But, generally speaking, election by the Hundred court was exceptional. ' The high constables of every Hundred, Rape or Riding,' says a seventeenth century writer, ' are chosen by the justices in each country most usually at their general or quarter sessions or in their several divisions. From the justices they receive their authority and are by them again discharged their office as they shall see cause.' ²

The nature of the high constable's office is best illustrated by the form of the oath he had to take on entering office : he had to swear that he would see to the keeping of the king's peace, that he would arrest all wrongdoers, levy hue and cry against all who resisted his authority, see that the watch was properly kept, observe faithfully all the statutes for apprehending night walkers, rogues, etc. ; that he would see that hue and cry was properly raised according to the statute of Winchester and that no houses were kept for playing unlawful games ; that he would present at sessions of the peace, assizes and courts leet, all contraventions of the statutes against inordinate drinking and tippling, all blood-shedding affrays and other offences against the king's peace and once a year at Quarter Sessions all Popish recusants in his liberty ; that he would ' well and truly execute all precepts and warrants ' directed him by the Justices of his county, that he would protect his neighbours against unlawful purveyance, make all suitable persons serve by day on the land in the harvest time and see to the selection of the surveyors for mending the roads at Easter.³

In addition to all this the high constable had to report to the justices any defaults or neglect on the part of the petty constables who, by virtue of their position as his assistants, had to carry out his orders.⁴

This office, like that of the petty constable, was originally one of great dignity. Men of position and honour had filled the post.⁵ But with the increasing onerousness of the office,

¹ Mr. and Mrs. Webb, *The Manor and Borough*, vol. i. p. 62.

² Wm. Brown, *op. cit.*, p. 4. Cf. also John Paul, *op. cit.*, p. 137.

³ Wm. Brown, *op. cit.*, pp. 5-7.

⁴ Wm. Brown, *op. cit.*, p. 20. J. C. Cox, *op. cit.*, vol. i. p. 98.

⁵ Cox, *op. cit.*, vol. i. p. 98.

and its inferior position to the office of Justice of the Peace, it was shunned as much as the lesser constableness. Though it never sank to so lowly a position in the eyes of the people as the office of petty constable, it became equally unpopular, and the justices were often forced to have recourse to threats or fines to compel men to take up the office or to punish them for refusing to take it up.¹

The constables were supervised by the justices of the peace. We have already seen how the latter generally appointed the high constables and had certain powers of appointing the petty constables. It was part of their general duty to examine into the negligences, disorders and misbehaviours of constables and other inferior ministers;² and they occupied much of their time in directing and controlling the local constabulary. Both high and petty constables had to attend the petty and general sessions of the peace held by the justices of their district, there to make presentments of offences and nuisances and to execute the warrants of the Justices under penalty of fine or imprisonment for non-attendance.³

The extent of the Justices' control over the constabulary can be best gathered from some of the entries in the quarter sessions records of the various counties.

Thus in the Shropshire quarter sessions records for January 1665 we read:

Thomas Dare, one of the High Constables of Bradford South, fined 20/- unless he bring the petty constable of Littlehall before the justices for not executing a warrant.⁴

William Lowe fined 10/- and discharged from the office of High Constable.⁴

In those for January 1689:

George Belton and William Stokes of Ruddleston elected petty constables refuse to take the oath. They are to be apprehended and

¹ *Shropshire County Records*. Abstract of the orders of Quarter Sessions, vols. i. and ii. O. Wakeman and R. Ll. Kenyon, editor. Shrewsbury, 1901-16, *passim*.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 18-19. E. Trotter, *op. cit.*, p. 86.

³ J. C. Cox, *op. cit.*, p. 100 and 104; *Shropshire County Records*, vol. i., preface, pp. xx. and xxi.

⁴ *Shropshire County Records*. Abstract of Quarter Sessions Orders, vol. i., by R. Ll. Kenyon, p. 87.

brought before a justice and if they still refuse the oath are to be bound with two sureties to answer the contempt at the next sessions.¹

And for January 1698:

The inhabitants of the townships of Church Stretton, Little Stretton—all Stretton and Menton fined 20s. each for not keeping watch and ward.²

And at the Middlesex Quarter Sessions for 1680 one Sydney was bound over in £100 to appear to prefer his charge against a constable for neglecting his duty.³

The whole country was liable to further police duties in the shape of watch and ward. This institution was still regulated by the statute of Winchester which declared that 'a watch is to be kept in every town and parish, village or tything every night from Ascension till Michaelmas from sunset to sunrise, which the constables must constantly cause to be set and that by two or four men according to the greatness of the place.'⁴ It was the duty of the watch to apprehend and examine all strangers and 'nightwalkers.' If any of those apprehended could not give a satisfactory account of themselves they were to be kept in custody until the morning. If they were then found harmless they were to be freed, otherwise they were to be handed over to the constable to convey them before a Justice of the Peace to be examined.⁵

Every householder had to serve his turn in the watch of his parish or township. But the constable whose duty it was to see to the setting of the watch could not compel anyone to serve out of his turn.⁶ For his conduct of the watch the constable was responsible to the court leet or, if elected by them, to the Justices of the Peace.⁷

The watchman had few privileges by virtue of his office. He had none of the peculiar powers of the constable and he

¹ *Ibid.*, 1638-1709, p. 124.

² *Shropshire County Records*. Abstract of Quarter Sessions Orders, vol. i., by R. Ll. Kenyon, p. 177.

³ *Middlesex County Records*, Sessions Rolls, vol. iii. p. 371.

⁴ Wm. Brown, *op. cit.*, p. 23.

⁵ *Ibid.*

⁶ Wm. Brown, *op. cit.*, p. 24.

⁷ See *Court Leet Records of Manchester*, Manchester, 1887, vol. vi. p. vi., for an example of control by the Leet and see above for example of control by the justices of the peace.

was allowed to do little without the authority of the latter's presence.

There was no definite system of correspondence between the constables of different townships. Besides, as there were at the most only two constables to each township, and in the majority of townships, only one, the constables would be physically unable to deal with a number of offenders. Some method of communication between the different townships and some method of ensuring assistance for the constable was essential to the success of the system. This was supplied by the ancient institution of Hue and Cry.¹ The law on this matter was definitely laid down by a statute of Queen Elizabeth's reign² which authorized the constables to distrain upon the goods of any inhabitants who refused to pay their share of the fine which their parish or township had incurred by failure to capture a criminal.

It is obvious that the seventeenth century police administration was founded on Anglo-Saxon principles. The constables, the mainstay of the system, exemplified by the nature of their office all the frank pledge principles of individual and local responsibility and of amateur service. The institution of hue and cry, 'the only practical agency for the pursuit and capture of delinquents,'³ as we have seen, was based on similar principles, except that whereas in the case of the constable one man vicariously performed the police duties of the township, in the case of hue and cry all members of the township had to perform, in person and simultaneously, a particular police duty.

The deficiencies of this system are self-evident. Each petty parish or township was a police district in itself. The only connecting link was the institution of hue and cry. But this mediaeval police machinery was cumbersome and unwieldy. It was practicable only in a simple state of society, when time was of little moment. As society increased in complexity, as industry and trade extended and the possession of arms became limited to the professional soldier, the ordinary inhabitant had neither the time nor the weapons with which to

¹ See W. A. Moins, *op. cit.*

² 27 Eliz. ch. 13.

³ Capt. Melville Lee's *History of Police in England* (1903), p. 104.

pursue offenders against the law. Though fines against the hundred continued to be levied the institution of hue and cry was gradually becoming obsolete.¹ Against the systematic thieving of the eighteenth century it is obvious that this decentralized system that divided the country up into a chaos of semi-independent police districts would provide little protection for life or property.

The office of constable was gratuitous and compulsory. Yet the constable was rarely well to do. He was generally an artisan or tradesman or farmer the pressure of whose private affairs left him with little time for gratuitous public appointments. The office was a burden and was recognized as such. It is true a loophole was left for the luckless appointee in the shape of a deputy; but deputies had to be paid,² they were often difficult to obtain and it was not until the middle of the eighteenth century that the system of service by deputy was generally adopted.

When a man considers his office a burden, however necessary, it is not to be expected that he will perform his duties efficiently. The central government seems to have recognized this. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries an elaborate system of checks by fines was established. Thus, for neglecting to carry any rogue or vagabond before a justice, the constable forfeited an amount varying from 5s. to £10;³ and for not setting in the stocks any person refusing to work in the hay or harvest time, he was liable to a fine of 40s.³ The mere existence of such a system of checks predicates the necessity for it; and that must have lain in the unwillingness of constables to spend their time in performing services for which they were not rewarded.

Even when service by deputy became common, the result was the same. Deputies as a rule were poorly paid. They rarely received more and generally received less, than an

¹ It was almost so by the middle of the eighteenth century. Cf. Saunders Welch, *The Office of Constable*, 2nd ed., London, 1758, p. 15: 'Perhaps most of the felonies of this kingdom are due to the non-execution of this excellent law' (the statute 8 Geo. II. c. 16, reinforcing the obligations of Hue and Cry).

² See below, pp. 446, 449.

³ Ritson, *op. cit.*, pp. 73-74; See *ibid.*, pp. 47-78, *passim*, for complete list of fines and punishments to which the constable was liable for neglect of duty.

annual sum of £10.¹ Few men of character would serve for such a trifling sum; and deputies became notorious for corruption and inefficiency. That this should be so is not surprising; for it is only to be expected that the poorly paid deputy would either shirk the onerous duties of his office or endeavour by corrupt action to make it a source of profit.

The same remarks apply equally to the watch except that this obligation being performed by night and carrying with it none of the compensating authority of the office of constable, was perhaps even more burdensome than the latter.

The Undermining of the System

Gratuitous public service is rarely performed when no honour accrues to the performer; and honour certainly did not accrue to the holder of the office of constable. The office was too commonplace, too much a part and parcel of everyday life to confer any distinction on the occupant. It was inevitable that such an office with all its innumerable duties and obligations, evasions of any of which might result in fine or imprisonment, would be avoided as much as possible. 'The imposition of the office,' writes Defoe in 1714, 'is an insupportable hardship; it takes up so much of a man's time that his own affairs are frequently totally neglected, too often to his ruin. Yet there is neither pleasure nor profit therein.'²

The result was increasing resort to the employment of deputies. These deputies were procured and paid by the persons seeking exemption from the office to which they had been elected. The deputy, in return for a certain monetary payment from the person seeking exemption, either allowed himself to be sworn into the office instead of his principal, undertaking full responsibility for it; or without being sworn into the office, he relieved his principal of all duties and burdens of office without relieving him of any of its responsibilities. In the latter case the elected constable would be responsible

¹ As late as 1829, deputies' wages ranged only between £5 and £15 even in London. See *Police and Crimes of the Metropolis*, by the Editor of the *Cabinet Lawyer*, London, 1829, p. 78.

² *Parochial Tyranny*, by Andrew Moreton, p. 17, quoted by Mr. and Mrs. Webb, *Statutory Authorities for Special Purposes*, London, 1922, p. 361.

for any negligence or misbehaviour on the part of the deputy.¹

Deputies were generally of the former type, and there were men who made a business of hiring themselves out as deputies. The spread of the system of deputy is illustrated by the case of the village of Culcheth. Between the years 1660 and 1708 no deputy constable was employed, while between the years 1709 and 1733, twelve constables served their office by deputy.² Particular individuals seem to have made it part of their business to serve as deputies. Toward the close of the eighteenth century, from 1774 to 1776, we read of a J. Blackburn who was hired as a deputy for the whole of the town for three consecutive years.³

It was a short step from the hiring of deputies by individuals to the payment of assistant constables by parochial or corporate authorities. As early as 1648 the Manchester Court leet decided that as 'much inconveniences was caused by paying deputy constables wages per particular,' such an officer should in future be chosen by the leet and paid £10 per annum.⁴ The Manchester deputy belonged to that class of deputies who did not relieve their principal of the responsibilities of the office, but merely performed most of the duties attached to it.

In 1727 we find the common Council of Liverpool deciding that in view of 'the great enlargement and increase of this burrough and for the more effectual putting the laws into execution especially against immorality and prophaneness,' there should be six assistant deputy constables annually elected.⁵

The system of service by deputy spread much more rapidly among the nightly watchmen. Their office was even more burdensome than the office of constable. They had few of the privileges of the constable, they were absolutely under

¹ J. Paul, *op. cit.*, p. 17.

² *Lancashire and Cheshire Antiquarian Notes*, edited by Wm. Duncombe Pink, Pt. I., September 1883, pp. 21-22, and pp. 54-55.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 55; cf. also Josiah Rose, *op. cit.*, p. 68. A Mr. Boydell served as deputy constable in the town of Leigh in 1726, 1727 and 1729.

⁴ *Manchester Court Leet Records*, vol. iv. p. 25.

⁵ *Municipal Archives and Records of Liverpool, 1700 to 1785*, by J. A. Picton, Liverpool, 1886, p. 29.

his command, and their duties were all the more odious as they had to be performed by night.

The custom of serving by deputy became so common that many parishes began to employ a definitely hired watch paid, not by the individuals whose place they took, but by the parish authorities, who collected the necessary monies from the persons seeking exemption.

In the records of the Liverpool corporation for 1727 there occurs the entry: 'that the sub-bailiffs shall collect the moneys for watch and ward,' and in 1745 the same corporation ordered 'that Mr. Pole do now pay the watch who have watched these three nights past 12 pence a piece night (*sic*), and for the future 25 men to be hired to watch every night and to be paid only 8 pence a piece night.'¹ In Plymouth in the middle of the eighteenth century the corporation were maintaining a certain number of watchmen paid four shillings a year, which most householders paid as composition in lieu of personal service.² The accounts of the Manchester constables contain numerous references to the payment of the watch by the leet in the eighteenth century.³

Thus almost imperceptibly and without any legislative interference a change was coming over the nature of the English police administration. The old principles of individual responsibility and of unpaid service were being weakened in practice, however firmly they were maintained in theory. The employment of deputies, especially by corporations, was directly opposed to the principle of gratuitous service; it opened the way for the appearance of a new principle of paid police service. But further these developments did not go. The deputies were no more professional police officers than were their principals. Though in many cases these deputies made a practice of serving the office, whether of constable or watchman, for a succession of years, they did not make a

¹ *Municipal Archives and Records of Liverpool, 1700 to 1785*, by J. A. Picton, Liverpool, 1886, p. 65.

² Mr. and Mrs. Webb, *Statutory Authorities for Special Purposes*, London, 1922, p. 249.

³ See *The Constables' Accounts of Manchester*, J. P. Earwake, Manchester, 1891, vol. iii., entry for 30th June, 1754; 29th January, 1763; 13th December, 1772; and *passim*.

special study of their duties, nor did they make them their only occupation. To do so would have been contrary to the very nature of the office which was not intended to be a whole-time duty.

The spread of the system of service by deputy had a far greater indirect influence on the course of the development of the English police administration. As we have seen above it was inevitable that these deputies would be either corrupt or inefficient and they were generally men of little character.¹ Their deficiencies helped to bring about the discontent with the existing police system that first begins to appear early in the eighteenth century. This discontent was a necessary preliminary to a change in the English police system.

Consciousness of the necessity of reform is the indispensable prelude to reform. So long as the English people were content to abide by the system which had satisfied their fathers, however inadequate, however corrupt it might be, the police administration of England could never be radically reformed. Previous to the eighteenth century people had been content to accept the existing police system with all its defects as an inevitable part of national life and they accepted the prevalence of crime with equal resignation. But in the eighteenth century there was a sudden change. The cry was raised that crime was increasing, and directly and by implication the existing police administration was adversely criticized. A class of writers sprang up who flooded the public with pamphlets about crime and police. Defoe, in a pamphlet of 1729, complained of the insecurity of the London streets and deplored the inefficiency of the nightly watch.² Fielding, in his *Inquiry into the causes of the recent increase of robbers*, drew the public attention to similar matters. The earlier writers contented themselves with a plea for the exercise of greater care in the choice of

¹ Cf. Edward Sayer, *Observations on the Police or Civil Government of Westminster*, London, 1784, p. 26: 'The constables are generally men of low degree and little knowledge, owing to the dangerous allowance of paid deputies permitted by law;' and *The Police and Crimes of the Metropolis*, by the editor of the *Cabinet Lawyer*, London, 1829, p. 78, where deputies are accused of making up 'the deficient allowance of their principals by indirect sources of emolument . . . by screening the publican, the brothel keeper and the receiver of stolen goods.'

² *Street Robberies Considered*, by a Converted Thief, London, 1718 (?), p. 49 and pp. 59-60.

watchmen and deputies, but their successors—Blizzard,¹ Hanway,² Sayer,³ and later in the century, Patrick Colquhoun, went further and demanded a radical change of the police system and by their agitation prepared the public for the establishment of a new system of police.

Various Attempts at Reform, 1693-1785

The inadequacy of the system was long realized by the central government. Various emendations and improvements were effected from the end of the seventeenth century, but until 1785 no attempt was made at radical reform.⁴ Until that date it seems scarcely to have been realized that the system as a whole was at fault and that no improvement of any particular branch of the administration could be efficacious for long. The government had not yet learned that an effective police administration could never be obtained so long as the most responsible and the most onerous police duties were performed by untrained and unpaid officers serving under compulsion and rarely for a period longer than one year.

As a result the pre-1785 reforms were not radical. They were either improvements within the existing system or super-additions to it which were not far reaching enough in extent to enable the older system to be dispensed with. For the most part these reforms were haphazardly introduced. No definite scheme was followed; reforms were made only when the pressure of circumstances—some fresh outburst of crime or some sudden realization of the necessity of uprooting an existing evil—made action unavoidable.

The first of these reforms was the introduction of a system of government rewards. In the later half of the seventeenth century the whole country had been much troubled by the ravages of highwaymen.⁵ Moved either by despair at

¹ *Desultory Reflections on Police*, London, 1785.

² *Defects of Police*, London, 1775.

³ *Observations on the Police or Civil Government of Westminster*, London, 1784.

⁴ See Part II. of this article.

⁵ Cf. L. O. Pike, *History of Crime in England*, London, 1903, vol. ii. p. 274. During the first fifty years after the Revolution highway robbery was one of the most ordinary events of daily life.

the efforts of the existing police administration to put a stop to the evil, or realizing the necessity for holding out some incentive to its officers, Parliament passed an act for encouraging the apprehending of highwaymen. This act provided for the grant of a government reward of forty pounds to those who apprehended a highwayman and prosecuted him to conviction.¹

This was the first of a long series of acts establishing government rewards generally of forty pounds, though often of a less value, to those who apprehended and convicted persons guilty of particular offences. In the same reign the reward system was extended to the apprehenders of clippers and counterfeiters of the coinage,² of burglars;³ and later in the century to the apprehenders of house-breakers in the day time,⁴ of horse stealers,⁵ of robbers in the streets of the Metropolis,⁶ of sheep or cow stealers⁷ and of persons returning from transportation before their time.⁸

The reward system must at least partially have answered the purpose for which it was instituted—the conviction of certain classes of offenders. As late as 1815 in one year eighty thousand pounds was expended by the government in various rewards;⁹ and this expenditure predicates the conviction of a large number of criminals. But the evils of the system far outweighed its advantages. It held out temptations to perjury, to the deliberate prosecution of persons whose innocence was known to their prosecutors.¹⁰ Its evils vitiated the whole police system and the parliamentary committees of the early nineteenth century were unanimous in condemning it. The committee of 1819 was informed by most of the witnesses it examined that 'the reward system was dangerous in itself that it had produced the worst consequences and could not be too

¹ 4 & 5 William & Mary c. 8.

² 6 & 7 William & Mary c. 17.

³ 10 & 11 William III. c. 23.

⁴ 5 Anne c. 31.

⁵ 5 Anne c. 31.

⁶ 6 Geo. I. c. 23.

⁷ 14 Geo. II. c. 6.

⁸ 16 Geo. II. c. 15.

⁹ Lee, p. 211. See also Saunders Welch, *op. cit.*, pp. viii. and ix., for the workings of the system in the eighteenth century.

¹⁰ Vaughan, one of the Bow Street police officers, was executed along with three other people for deliberately conspiring to convict an innocent person for the sake of the reward. *Report of Committee on Police*, 1818, p. 327.

speedily abandoned.'¹ On the recommendation of that committee the whole system was abolished.²

There was one section of the police administration which could almost claim to be called a paid police force. We refer to the watch. It was but a short step from the payment of hired substitutes by the individuals whose place they took to the payment of professional watchmen by some legally constituted authority, which should be empowered to levy a local rate for that special purpose. Such a step was made necessary by the inconvenience to the individual of having to find his own substitute, and the inconvenience to the parish or township of the absence of a guarantee for the fitness of the watchmen thus chosen; and above all by the obvious benefits to be gained by placing at the disposal of whatever body would be chosen or created for the position, the means of securing a paid night police force subject to their commands and regulations.

The need for such a force was first felt in the capital. The police arrangements of Westminster were controlled by an act of 1584.³ This act had divided the city into twelve wards, each presided over by a burgess, who was nominated for life by the dean or high steward of Westminster, these burgesses being responsible for the police of their respective wards. The burgesses also sat as a court to make certain police regulations, as far as they were allowed by the act, for the whole of Westminster.

The burgesses decided which householders in their respective wards should be summoned to the court leet of Westminster, and forced to take on the office of constable under penalty of a fine. It was they who collected the moneys from the individual householders to pay the hired watch, and it was they who had to determine the order in which the constables were to take their turn at attending the night watch. It was they, too, who had to inspect the watch and see to it that the watchmen were fit and strong.

In the first half of the eighteenth century the Westminster justices, whether out of pure zeal for efficiency or mere jealousy of the court of burgesses, began to agitate for the removal of

¹ *Second Report of Select Committee on the Police of the Metropolis*, 1818, p. 322 et seq.

² By 58 Geo. III. c. 70.

³ 27 Eliz. c. 13.

the control of the watch from the hands of the burgesses. They urged the claims of the vestries of the several parishes of Westminster to control their own local watch. 'When at last public opinion was prepared to substitute a rate paid staff for individual personal service the most plausible proposition was to entrust the direction of the new force to bodies claiming to represent the inhabitants of each locality and already levying paid rates.'¹

The first of a long series of acts endowing the various parishes of Westminster with complete power to organize, under the control of the justices, their own parochial watch was passed in 1735. In that year an act was passed 'for the better regulation of the nightly watch and Bedels of St. James and St. Georges, Hanover Square,'² which authorized the vestry of each parish to levy a rate not exceeding 4d. in the pound for the purpose of maintaining a nightly watch, all who paid this rate being freed from the provisions of the statute of Westminster that obliged every householder to serve his turn in the watch. The vestry was to make regulations for the proper conduct of the watch.

The city of London was dealt with by an act passed in 1737. This was based on the same principles as the acts regulating the police arrangements of the Westminster parishes. But in the case of the City there was no necessity for creating any new police authority. London was an incorporated city and the common council, its governing body, was popularly elected, there were no vestries disputing its authority and no opposition could be expected from the justices who were all aldermen. By the act the common council was empowered to levy a rate for the purpose of maintaining a hired nightly watch; and this rate was to be assessed by the aldermen in their respective wards. The number of the watchmen, the nature of the arms they were to bear, the wages they were to receive and other suitable regulations were to be determined by the common council. The aldermen, their deputies and the common council men of each ward could make such local regulations as they thought fit.

¹ Mr. and Mrs. Webb, *The Manor and Borough*, p. 226.

² 8 G. II. c. 15.

This act is important if only because it remained unchanged and continued to control the city police organization until the reform of 1839.¹ It does not seem to have had any immediate effect on the state of crime in the city. But for that the corporate authorities and not the legislators were to blame. It certainly gave the city an opportunity for establishing an effective nightly watch; and, when proper advantage was taken of it later in the century, the effect was to make the police of the city comparatively efficient. The organization of the city police as constituted by this act possessed the advantage of unity, a unity which stood out in marked contrast to the seventy odd watch trusts that controlled the night watch of Westminster.² As late as 1812 a parliamentary committee declared that if the city system 'could be successfully imitated in Westminster and its liberties and within the other adjacent parishes which have hitherto formed an unconnected mass of scattered and uncontrolled local authorities considerable benefit might be expected to ensue.'³

From the capital the new watch system spread to the provinces; but it was not generally adopted until much later in the century when with the coming of the industrial revolution wealth and population increased and with them the need for more efficient protection of life and property. In the provincial towns, the powers of levying a rate and controlling the watch were generally entrusted to an *ad hoc* body of 'Improvements commissioners.' These bodies were composed of a certain *ex officio* element—usually some of the officers of the borough corporation—and a number of ordinary ratepayers specially named in the act, though in some few cases they were elected. In the majority of cases the Improvements Commissioners developed into a close body working independently of the town corporation.⁴

Between 1748 and 1835 over three hundred of these bodies of Improvements Commissioners were created, almost every

¹ See Part II. of this article.

² P. Colquhoun, *Police and Crimes of Metropolis* (1797), p. 213.

³ *Report of Committee on the Nightly Watch and Police of the Metropolis*, 1812, p. 2.

⁴ Mr. and Mrs. Webb, *Statutory Authorities for Special Purposes*, London, 1922, pp. 243-244.

urban centre in England and Wales being provided with one.¹ They achieved no strikingly brilliant results. In some towns they effected practically nothing. But the majority of them, at least in the provinces, succeeded in establishing a tolerably efficient night watch, where before there either was no watch at all or what watch existed was hopelessly inadequate.¹

To a certain extent the creation of hired night watches was a repudiation of one of the traditional police principles—the principle of amateur service. The watchman appointed by the Improvements Commissioners was a professional police officer. He was specially equipped for his duties and he received a definite if small salary. To that extent he was the forerunner of the modern policeman.

Otherwise, at least in theory, the new hired night watches were based essentially on the ancient police principles. By the very fact that they were an improvement on the old watches they strengthened the mediaeval principle of making two separate entities of day and night police; for the watchman served only by night, he had no day police duties to perform. The service of hired watchmen instead of householders acting under compulsion was no repudiation of the principle of individual responsibility. In all the acts enabling watch rates to be levied and hired watches to be established it was expressly stated that only those who paid the watch rate were to be exempt from the obligations of watch and ward under the statute of Winchester. In theory at least it was still a recognized principle as regards even the watch that 'the protection of every district is a duty incumbent on the inhabitants.'

But indirectly the establishment of professional night watches under specially constituted authorities, both in the capital and in the provinces, materially aided the eventual complete reform of the old system of police administration. In the provinces the parochial police was generally under the control of the borough corporations and the existence of an independent body of commissioners controlling the night watch set up a division of authority which weakened police efficiency. 'Great jealousy often exists,' declared the Municipal corporation commissions of 1835, 'between the officers

¹ See Part II. of this article.

of the police acting under the corporation and those under the commissioners of these local acts and the corporate body seldom takes any active part in the duties of the board of which its members form part.¹ In Westminster the bewildering confusion of authority resulting from the division of the night watch under some seventy trusts 'regulated by perhaps double the number of local acts of parliament' made police efficiency difficult to attain.² In addition the maximum watch rate authorized by the various acts was often too low to allow a sum to be raised sufficient for the maintenance of an efficient force;³ and as a result the watchmen in London at least were 'aged in general, often feeble and on almost every occasion half starved from the limited allowance they receive.'⁴ Consequently, these new night watches, though an improvement on the old, were still not adequate for the needs of the later eighteenth and earlier nineteenth century. By their very deficiencies and especially by the fact that they resulted in a division of police authority, they hastened the eventual triumph of the modern system of police administration.

Various Attempts at Reform, 1693-1785

As far as the provinces were concerned the activities of the Improvements Commissioners comprised almost the whole of their police history until the reform act of 1835. It is true that as we see later, a day police after a fashion was established in many of the provincial towns,⁵ but it is to the capital and its environs that we must look for the development of new police principles, for the gradual evolution of a modern system of police administration. The provincial towns did not innovate, they merely followed the lead of the Metropolis.

That this should be so is only to be expected. The Metropolis was incomparably the largest town in the kingdom,

¹ *First Reports of Parliamentary Commission on Municipal Corporations*, 1835, p. 43.

² P. Colquhoun, *op. cit.*, p. 213.

³ The amount of the watch rate varied in London from the 4d. in the pound of St. George's, Hanover Square (8 G. II. c. xv.) to the 10d. of St. John, Southwark (23 G. II. c. xviii.).

⁴ P. Colquhoun, *op. cit.*, p. 214.

⁵ See Part II. of this article.

it was the centre of trade and the capital of the Empire, and above all crime was much more prevalent there than in any other part of the kingdom.¹

The government had always found it convenient to have some magistrate in the Metropolis on whom it could rely to carry out its orders,² 'because he is very capable by the character he bears and the influence he must necessarily obtain of freeing them from an abundance of troubles as well as doing them continual useful and acceptable service.'³ The court justice as this government justice was called had received no definite salary, though he seems to have been given various gifts of money or places.⁴ In 1749 Henry Fielding the novelist was appointed to the magistracy of Bow Street and paid a secret salary of £200 a year.⁵ This salary was continued after Fielding's death to his successors, his half brother John, and Saunders Welch. In this way the Bow Street magistrates became salaried officers of the crown, in direct defiance of the old principle of unpaid service even by the Justices of the Peace.

The Bow Street magistrates occupied themselves with problems of police and crime and succeeded in effecting some definite improvements in the former and some diminution in the latter; and incidentally they established important precedents for later police developments. The Metropolis in 1753 was being preyed on by an organized band of rogues who seemed to have the whole town at their mercy. Henry Fielding undertook to rid the inhabitants of this menace if the government would grant him £600 for that purpose. His plan was to hire a number of informers and thief-takers to round up the gang; and after the first advance from the treasury he was able to report that 'the whole gang of cut-throats was entirely

¹ Cf. Mr. and Mrs. Webb, *Statutory Authorities for Special Purposes*, p. 410; and *Anecdotes of the Manners and Customs of London in the Eighteenth Century*, by J. P. Malcom, London, 1810, vol. i. p. 145.

² Mr. and Mrs. Webb, *The Parish and County*, pp. 337-339.

³ Mr. and Mrs. Webb, *The Parish and County*, p. 337 footnote, quoted from the *Memoirs of De Veil*, 1748, pp. 66-67.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 337-339.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 340. Mrs. Dorothy George, *London Life in the Eighteenth Century*, London, 1925, p. 5.

dispersed, seven of them were actually in custody, the rest driven some out of the town some out of the kingdom.'

On his death Henry Fielding was succeeded by his half-brother and quondam assistant, John Fielding, who, although blind, devoted all his energy to the performance of his magisterial duties and to solving the police problems of the Metropolis. Under him the Bow Street police office 'unknown to the constitution gradually developed into a central bureau of information as to crime and criminals, publishing an early form of police gazette.' He published many pamphlets designed generally to assist in the prevention of crime. In one of these he outlined a scheme for apprehension of criminals founded on the old frank pledge principles of quick notice and sudden pursuit.¹ The wealthy residents of the outlying districts of the Metropolis were to combine to form societies for the apprehension of burglars, each member to contribute an annual sum of two guineas to his society.² When a robbery was committed a mounted messenger was to be despatched to the Bow Street office warning on his way all the turnpike keepers and giving them a description of the stolen property and other necessary particulars.³ The magistrate was then to be allowed to draw upon the resources of the society for any expenses he incurred in the pursuit and prosecution of the criminal.² Fielding also recommended as part of the scheme the use of the *Public Advertiser*, a current newspaper, to publish descriptions of highwaymen, stolen property and other relevant matters.³ This system of protection by means of voluntary societies and police notices was established not only in the Metropolis but in many other parts of the country less than twenty years after the publication of Fielding's pamphlet.⁴

That 'the chief magistrate of Westminster,' a magistrate paid by the crown, should have found it necessary to establish voluntary associations for the apprehension of criminals is an eloquent testimony not only to the inadequacy of the existing

¹ *A Plan for the Prevention of Robberies within Twenty Miles of London*, London, 1755, p. 1.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 12-13.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 18.

⁴ Griffiths, *Mystery of Police and Crime* (1903), *op. cit.*, vol. i. p. 234; Calendar of Home Office Papers, 1770-1772, entry number 1501; Calendar of Home Office Papers, 1773-1775, entry 44.

police administration but to the ineptitude of the government of the day. It is obvious that some reform of the police of the Metropolis was absolutely essential. Yet no adequate steps were taken by the government. An act was passed in 1755¹ which did no more than attempt to revivify the Westminster Statute of 1584;² it raised the number of constables for Westminster to eighty, fixing the proportions in which they were to be supplied by the various parishes. It established the fine for refusal to serve the office of petty constable at eight pounds and for refusal to serve the office of High Constable at twenty pounds. An amending act³ which followed two years later effected some reform by tightening discipline. It ordained that the petty constable was to obey the orders of the high constable, who in turn was to obey the lawful commands of the Dean or High Steward.

These acts left the police system substantially where it was. A more radical improvement was effected by Sir John Fielding. Realizing the need for some kind of professional police force in the Metropolis he made plans for organizing a Bow Street foot patrol.⁴ This was a force of men under the control of the Bow Street magistrates employed to patrol the principal highways outside the Metropolis and the streets of the central district for the protection of travellers and ordinary citizens. The force was not large, it numbered only sixty-eight in 1812,⁵ but it proved very efficient in putting down robbers and highwaymen. It was employed at night only, the men went on duty in the evening and remained until midnight or later.⁵ A further development of this idea was the establishment in 1763 of a horse patrol for the protection of travellers on one or other of the main roads leading into the country. Though consisting of only eight men, who, however, were well mounted and well armed, it afforded a better protection to the suburbs than they had previously enjoyed.⁶

¹ 29 Geo. II. c. 25.

² See above, p. 452.

³ 31 Geo. II. c. 17.

⁴ *Nineteenth Report of Committee on Finance*, 1810, p. 96; Lee, p. 156.

⁵ *Nineteenth Report of Committee on Finance*, 1810, p. 96.

⁶ Lee, p. 157.

The establishment of these patrols like the employment of a paid night watch was a step in the direction of the modern system of a paid professional police administration. It was the logical outcome of Henry Fielding's employment of professional thief-takers to aid him in his campaign against the criminals of the Metropolis.¹ If the Bow Street magistrates could use government money to employ professional 'thief takers' to deal with crime on a particular occasion, they could use government money to maintain a professional police force to deal with crime on all occasions, provided that the cost of that force was not too great. And the cost of the patrols was small, the men were paid 2/6 a night and the captains, of whom there were eighteen, 5/- a night;² while their deterrent effects upon crime were disproportionately great.

Though the force established by Fielding was small it is of far greater significance in the history of the English police administration than the Westminster police acts of 1755 and 1757. It was the first paid police force to be established under the authority of a magistrate and through him controlled by the central government. It pointed out the lines along which the future reform of the Metropolitan police administration was to proceed. It did not interfere with the existing police system, it left the constabulary and watch arrangements unaltered. It was a super-addition rather than a reform, a super-addition of a paid professional police force. Until 1829, and even afterwards, all the effective improvements of the police of the Metropolis were based on this principle of gradually introducing a magisterially controlled professional police force to supplement the existing police arrangements.

¹ See above, pp. 457, 458.

² Lee, p. 156; *Nineteenth Report of Committee on Finance*, p. 96.

(To be continued.)

QUARTERLY NOTES

THE SPANISH REPUBLIC

RECENT events in Spain have brought about a change in the form of Government in that country in a fashion so sudden and so dramatic as to attract the attention of the whole world and make us all wonder how it can have been accomplished without bloodshed or even serious disorder. To the British public these events have had an almost romantic appeal on account of the special associations of Alfonso XIII with Great Britain; and many people have admired greatly the courage with which he has dealt with the difficulties of the past few years and the dignity with which he made his exit. In the result there is a new form of Government—a Republic—in Spain, and His Majesty's Governments in the United Kingdom and the Dominions have, according to the official statement in *The Times* of 22nd April, formally notified the Minister of State in Madrid that they 'recognize the Provisional Government of the Spanish Republic.'

The necessity for recognition of a new form of Government which is established in a foreign State after a revolution arises from the fact that until other States have recognized the new power thus set up there is in international law no way of establishing diplomatic relations between the new Government and other civilized States. It is entirely a matter for the discretion of every country concerned whether it should or should not give this recognition. Everything, or nearly everything, depends on the stability of the new Government which the revolution has put at the head of the State. According to Oppenheim, *International Law* (Vol. I, p. 153), recognition is, in fact, nothing else than the declaration of other States that they are ready to deal with a certain individual or group of individuals as the highest organ of a particular State, without prejudice to the question whether such individual or group ought or ought not to be considered the legitimate head or Government of that State. Sometimes the recognition is delayed for quite a long time after the events which set up the new Government. For example, when King Alexander of Serbia was murdered and King Peter succeeded him, Great Britain declined to recognize the new sovereign and severed diplomatic relations with Serbia; and it was not until the persons implicated in the murder of King Alexander had retired some time later that Great Britain thought fit, in the exercise of its discretion, to recognize the new king as the head of the Government of what is now called Serbia.

THE NATURE OF A CRIME.

As every police officer is painfully aware, no year passes that does not bring with it a harvest of new statutory offences. Great Britain is not alone in this respect. The legislatures of many countries are now dominated by the spirit of benevolent interference with individual liberty of action in the supposed interests of the community as a whole. Many of the offences that are created are not crimes in the popular sense; conviction does not make one a 'criminal.' A person who is fined five pounds for refusing to fill in

a Census Return may be considered a fool, but he is clearly not a knave; nor is a man shunned by his neighbours because he has failed to produce his driving licence to a constable. Thus, while strictly speaking, all offences are crimes and there is no legal difference between one crime and another, there is in fact all the difference in the world between serious crime and petty offences. Where is the dividing line? This is one of the points discussed in a most interesting article by Professor C. K. Allen on 'The Nature of a Crime' in the current issue of the *Journal of Comparative Legislation*. In this article Professor Allen discusses two aspects of criminal liability, and draws a distinction between crimes necessarily involving what he calls 'intrinsic wrongfulness' and crimes or offences which are made punishable in the interests of 'social expediency.' Some of the offences created under modern legislation hardly come within the accepted definition of a crime. In Halsbury's *Laws of England* a crime is thus defined:

'A crime is an unlawful act or default which is an offence against the public and renders the person guilty of the act or default liable to legal punishment.'

This definition, though wide enough to cover any offence punishable on summary conviction if it is an offence 'against the public' (and thus includes every such offence prohibited by law and punishable by any form of penalty), leaves undetermined the crucial question, what is an 'offence against the public.' It certainly includes all indictable offences, many of which are 'private' in the sense explained in the later part of Professor Allen's article, where he makes an attempt to assemble all indictable offences known to English law and to classify them according to two main divisions—'public' and 'private.' He tells us that there are altogether 331 indictable offences known to English law. Of these, 128 are 'Private Offences,' of which 'Wrong to the Person' account for only 33, while under the heading 'Wrongs to Property' there are 93 'private' offences. On the other hand, under the heading 'Public Offences' Professor Allen sets out 14 offences which are acts injurious to constitutional government, 31 which relate to racial integrity (sexual morality, etc.), 28 which relate to revenue and public property, 23 to the administration of justice, and 26 to public administration. Professor Allen tells us that the public aspect of crime has continuously grown and in modern societies is the dominant characteristic of criminal law. He observes that our criminal law 'swarms with duties which are not correlated to legal rights, but are absolute duties imposed by the organized power of the State in the general interests of society.' This process will continue. It is a process which has brought more and more tasks within the scope of police duties all over the world, and there is every sign that it is likely to continue indefinitely.

STOLEN GOODS AND MARKET OVERT

THE peculiarity of the law relating to sale in 'market overt'—a public and legally constituted open market—so as to give a good title notwithstanding that the goods are stolen goods, is, we believe, fully recognized only under the British system of law. As explained by Blackstone in his *Commentaries*, II, 449, this rule of law is based on the sensible idea that the buyer, by taking proper precautions, should be secure of his purchase; 'otherwise all commerce between man and man must soon be at an end.' A sale that is open and 'above board' ought to give a good title. Indeed, according to Blackstone, our Saxon ancestors went a step further and 'prohibited the sale of anything above twenty pence, unless in open market, and directed every bargain and sale to be contracted in the presence of credible witnesses.'

The special custom of the City of London, by which shops in the City are 'market overt,' is perhaps the best-known instance of the application of this rule. In the case of *Harris v. Shaw* (1736) 95 E.R. 226, it was held that by the custom of the City of London every man's shop is a market overt for the sale of goods usually sold there, and a *bona-fide* sale therein of stolen goods without notice divests the original owner of his property. As Scrutton, J. (now Lord Justice) pointed out in *Clayton v. Le Roy* (1911) 2 K.B., at p. 1041, in the time of Elizabeth importance was attached not only to the sale being in an open part of the shop, but to the sale being visible to passers-by in the street; and that this qualification has to a certain extent survived is shown by *Hargreave v. Spink* (1892) 1 Q.B. 25, where the Court declined to give protection to a sale in a first-floor room over a goldsmith's shop, which the public were only allowed to enter under escort and by invitation of the shopkeeper.

Attention has recently been drawn to this survival of ancient common law by the case of *Ardath Tobacco Company, Ltd. v. Ocker* (1931) 47 T.L.R. 177. In that case, the defendant, a retail tobacconist in the City of London, bought in good faith in his own shop cigarettes which had been stolen from the plaintiff. It was held that he could not successfully raise the defence of purchase in market overt. The ground for this decision was that the custom of the City of London only applied where the whole of the transaction took place in the shop (see *Crane v. London Dock Company* (1864) 5 B. & S. 313). The recent case just quoted also shows that the custom applies only to goods actually displayed and sold by the tradesman: it does not apply to goods sold to the tradesman.

Although a *bona-fide* purchaser of stolen goods in market overt gets a good title to them at the time of purchase, he will lose that title if the thief is subsequently discovered and prosecuted to conviction. This result follows from the provisions of the Sale of Goods Act, 1893, section 24 of which provides that where goods have been stolen and the offender is convicted, the property in the goods so stolen reverts in the person who was the owner of the goods notwithstanding any intermediate dealing with them, whether by sale in market overt or otherwise. This statutory rule was not new law when the Act of 1893 was passed, but merely gave effect to what had been established at common law for many generations before that date. Conviction, therefore, gives a good title to the original owner, even against an innocent purchaser. But the benefit of the 'market overt' rule is, from the practical point of view, a considerable one, because, unfortunately, the thief in such cases frequently 'gets away with it' and is never discovered. Moreover, if a person buys goods in market overt and then sells them again before the thief is discovered and convicted, no order for restitution of the goods can be made against him, even if it could be shown that he knew that the goods had been stolen.

The law of England as to restitution of stolen goods is now contained in Section 45 of the Larceny Act, 1916, which provides that any person guilty of stealing, or, knowingly receiving any property, is prosecuted to conviction (or dealt with under the Probation of Offenders Act) by or on behalf of the owner of such property, the property shall be restored to the owner or his representative. This rule, however, has no application where the stolen property consists of a valuable security paid in good faith by a person liable to make such payment, or a negotiable instrument received in good faith for 'just and valuable consideration' without notice or without reason to suspect that the security or instrument had been stolen.

The International Academy of Criminology

By M. A. BISCHOFF,
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of Vienna

[Translated]

UNTIL quite recently there was no sustained connexion on scientific lines, nor indeed any periodical exchange of experiences, between the various European police laboratories and institutes; and for that matter there was the same want of co-operation between such laboratories over the whole world.

At the instance of Mr. C. I. Van Ledden-Hulsebosch of Amsterdam, certain European criminologists thought out the institution of an international association of experts in criminal investigation. This association was intended to have as its principal objects,—on the one hand mutual exchange of experience, and on the other hand the subjugation of quackery. However, the idea of an association of experts had to be given up, because in most countries those who are called to practise as experts could not claim for themselves a real scientific cultural equipment, and, that being so, it was found impossible to constitute an association that would be scientific in every respect and would gather together members who would cover the whole extent of knowledge. It was not found any more easy to collect in such an association those who are in the habit of practising as experts before the Courts.

Therefore, if the idea was to be of any service, there ought to be for an international association very strict rules of entrance, and a well-defined balance of strength amongst its members.

In consequence of this the idea of an international body of experts engaged in criminal investigation was given up, and made way for the idea of an Academy (on the model of the Academy of Science) which would group together people who had more or less an equal standard of scientific culture, a standard moreover of a kind which would make scientific work possible.

After a considerable correspondence between Messrs. Bischoff of Lausanne, Van Ledden-Hulsebosch of Amsterdam, Locard of Lyons, Popp of Frankfurt, and Turkel of Vienna, the result was the foundation of an "International Academy of Criminology" which would be placed at Lausanne in Switzerland at the Headquarters of the Institute of Scientific Police Investigation of the University there. The inaugural meeting of the Academy was attended by representatives of the following countries:—Germany, Austria, France, Holland and Switzerland: the principal item in the agenda was the preparation and adoption of its Articles of Association. The principal clauses in the Articles are as follows:—

The International Academy bears in French the title "Académie Internationale de Criminalistique," and in German "International Akademie für Kriminalische Wissenschaften."

ACADEMY OF CRIMINOLOGY

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The meeting-place of the International Academy of Criminology is to be at Vienna in Austria.

The scope of the International Academy is the development of scientific research in the field of criminal investigation and in associated spheres of inquiry, with the exception of criminal law, criminal procedure, penology, psychology, psychiatry and criminal biology.

The International Academy will ultimately remunerate any scientific work in its field of activity.

The International Academy will grant its scientific support to the International Commission of Criminal Police as well as to any Commissions under the League of Nations constituted for fighting the international criminal.

The International Academy will war against empirical methods in the field of criminal investigation and technical police work.

The International Academy will promote an exchange of experiences between its members, as well as the exchange of items of evidence leading to conviction and interesting photographic exhibits.

The International Academy will collect its own records, and a library of international literature dealing with the subject of criminology.

The International Academy will seek to form a museum and a central criminal research laboratory.

The International Academy will secure, by receiving sealed covers deposited in its own Secretariat, the first call on inventions and scientific discoveries.

The International Academy will be able to constitute commissions of super-experts.

The members of the Governing Body of the International Academy will be:—a President, four Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, and an Executive Committee.

The President, Vice-Presidents and the Secretary are appointed by the Executive Committee: the President for two years, the Vice-President for four years. No limit is fixed for the period of service in the case of the Secretary.

A general meeting is called every two years. The official languages are French and German. Members of the International Academy will receive at least two months' notice of the place, date, and agenda of the general meeting. The agenda of the general meeting will be published, at least two months ahead, in the *Revue Internationale de Criminalistique* edited by M. Locard and in the *Archives de Criminologie* of M. Hindl.

The general meeting of the International Academy will consider not only administrative questions, but also scientific papers. The general meeting will for this matter have an administrative as well as a scientific side.

Members who propose to make any scientific communication to the general meeting should give the Secretary at least two months' notice; inform him of the nature of the papers and supply him with a written abstract either in French, German or English; they will mention at the same time the probable time which the paper will take, and the technical accessories, such as slides, etc., which they may require.

The Executive Committee may invite for the scientific side of the meeting any persons who are not members of the International Academy.

Any paper of a scientific character can be presented in any modern language, but those reading papers should make arrangements for the translation of their articles in one of the three official languages (French, German or English). This may be done either through the member in question

himself presenting a translation of his paper, or by arranging that the prepared translation may be read during the sitting of the meeting.

The minutes of scientific proceedings intended for the press can come only from the hands of the Executive Committee through the agency of the Secretary. Full minutes of the proceedings will appear in the *Revue Internationale de Criminalistique* of M. Locard and in the *Archives de Criminologie* of M. Hindl: in each case through the Editorship of the Executive Committee.

The International Academy includes Honorary Members, Permanent Members specifically so called, and Temporary Members for the period of their duties on International Commissions, and finally Corresponding Members.

The general rules for Honorary, Permanent or Temporary Membership are the following:—high scientific repute, good personal character, and academic qualifications (such as a University degree). In the case of special merit, whether in the field of criminology or in that of science and its associated technique, the rank of membership can be conferred in exceptional cases on persons not possessing high academical qualifications.

The following special regulations govern the case of the election of candidates to full membership: scientific research, or instruction, whether in the field of criminology or in the fields of various sciences and their connected technique, or again special high qualities in the practical application of science.

The duty of all members is to contribute to the development of criminological work; and, if possible, to keep a close scientific touch between themselves. Full members are expected to attend the meetings to which they are summoned, or of getting themselves represented at such meetings in accordance with the terms of the rules.

Members of the International Academy do not pay any fee, but only a subscription towards actual expenses.

Subscription from corresponding members will be half that of full members.

Honorary members do not pay any subscription.

If the International Academy is requested to supply any expert or any special subject, the Executive Committee will constitute a Commission of such experts, either at one of the meetings or by correspondence in the case of emergency. This Commission of special experts will be made up of three savants on the part of the International Academy. The report of these experts will be prepared, signed, and eventually supported by the members of the Commission who are designated for this purpose, and not by the International Academy or by its Executive Committee.

The first professional meeting took place on the 31st August, 1929, at the Institute of Scientific Police Work of the University of Lausanne in Switzerland. Several papers were read regarding the analysis of inks; the taking of finger prints; some secret writing disclosed by iodine; the restoration of water-damaged papers; the problems of colour previous to the ultra-violet ray test. Some papers were also submitted on the illegal use of defaced postage stamps and marks; on the forgery of trade marks and of seals; on the methods of preservation of valuable papers; on the treatment of papers charred from fire; on the use of metallography in criminal investigation; on the identification of bullets from firearms; on the examination of various kinds of dust; on the identification of matches; on some poisoning cases; on the spectrum-analysis; on various frauds; and lastly, on the examination of skin and hairs.

The next General Meeting of the International Academy of Criminology for the hearing of scientific papers took place at Vienna at the beginning of October, 1930.

The International Police Radio

BY POLICE-LIEUTENANT-COLONEL VOIT

With the kind permission of Dr. Weiss, Police President, Berlin Police.

[Translated]

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The idea of an International Police Radio-grid with mutual intercommunication originated from Germany on the occasion of the Congress of the International Criminal Police Commission at Berne in 1928.¹ After the war, Germany, owing to her internal political situation, had already instituted a system of Police Radio-grid of her own; so it was proposed to extend this system beyond the frontiers of the kingdom. By Nov. 15th, 1929, the plan had taken shape, and the International Police Radio System was put into force. The main advantage of International Police Radio is the rapidity with which communications can be transmitted. This, again, depends primarily on the basic principle of wireless telegraphy—its entire freedom of all conductors—but also on the fact that radio stations can be installed at any police station direct, and are therefore independent of the arrangements of the postal system.

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¹ See *The Police Journal*, Vol. ii, p. 166.

himself presenting a translation of his paper, or by arranging that the prepared translation may be read during the sitting of the meeting.

The minutes of scientific proceedings intended for the press can come only from the hands of the Executive Committee through the agency of the Secretary. Full minutes of the proceedings will appear in the *Revue Internationale de Criminalistique* of M. Locard and in the *Archives de Criminologie* of M. Hindl: in each case through the Editorship of the Executive Committee.

The International Academy includes Honorary Members, Permanent Members specifically so called, and Temporary Members for the period of their duties on International Commissions, and finally Corresponding Members.

The general rules for Honorary, Permanent or Temporary Membership are the following:—high scientific repute, good personal character, and academic qualifications (such as a University degree). In the case of special merit, whether in the field of criminology or in that of science and its associated technique, the rank of membership can be conferred in exceptional cases on persons not possessing high academical qualifications.

The following special regulations govern the case of the election of candidates to full membership: scientific research, or instruction, whether in the field of criminology or in the fields of various sciences and their connected technique, or again special high qualities in the practical application of science.

The duty of all members is to contribute to the development of criminological work; and, if possible, to keep a close scientific touch between themselves. Full members are expected to attend the meetings to which they are summoned, or of getting themselves represented at such meetings in accordance with the terms of the rules.

Members of the International Academy do not pay any fee, but only a subscription towards actual expenses.

Subscription from corresponding members will be half that of full members.

Honorary members do not pay any subscription.

If the International Academy is requested to supply any expert or any special subject, the Executive Committee will constitute a Commission of such experts, either at one of the meetings or by correspondence in the case of emergency. This Commission of special experts will be made up of three savants on the part of the International Academy. The report of these experts will be prepared, signed, and eventually supported by the members of the Commission who are designated for this purpose, and not by the International Academy or by its Executive Committee.

The first professional meeting took place on the 31st August, 1929, at the Institute of Scientific Police Work of the University of Lausanne in Switzerland. Several papers were read regarding the analysis of inks; the taking of finger prints; some secret writing disclosed by iodine; the restoration of water-damaged papers; the problems of colour previous to the ultra-violet ray test. Some papers were also submitted on the illegal use of defaced postage stamps and marks; on the forgery of trade marks and of seals; on the methods of preservation of valuable papers; on the treatment of papers charred from fire; on the use of metallography in criminal investigation; on the identification of bullets from firearms; on the examination of various kinds of dust; on the identification of matches; on some poisoning cases; on the spectrum-analysis; on various frauds; and lastly, on the examination of skin and hairs.

The next General Meeting of the International Academy of Criminology for the hearing of scientific papers took place at Vienna at the beginning of October, 1930.

THE POLICE JOURNAL

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The International Police Radio

BY POLICE-LIEUTENANT-COLONEL VOIT

With the kind permission of Dr. Weiss, Police President, Berlin Police.

[Translated]

THE greater use the criminal world makes of modern technical appliances, the more strenuously must the police endeavour to adopt counter-measures in order to succeed in the conflict with crime. Now that frontiers no longer offer any obstacle to the criminal, and the use of car or aeroplane is an everyday occurrence, the need has arisen for a means of communication more rapid than the criminal's facilities for transport. Out of this need there came into being the International Police Radio.

The idea of an International Police Radio-grid with mutual intercommunication originated from Germany on the occasion of the Congress of the International Criminal Police Commission at Berne in 1928.¹ After the war, Germany, owing to her internal political situation, had already instituted a system of Police Radio-grid of her own; so it was proposed to extend this system beyond the frontiers of the kingdom. By Nov. 15th, 1929, the plan had taken shape, and the International Police Radio System was put into force. The main advantage of International Police Radio is the rapidity with which communications can be transmitted. This, again, depends primarily on the basic principle of wireless telegraphy—its entire freedom of all conductors—but also on the fact that radio stations can be installed at any police station direct, and are therefore independent of the arrangements of the postal system.

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¹ See *The Police Journal*, Vol. ii, p. 166.

robbery in Berlin ; an hour after its discovery every town within the Police Radio System can be in possession of the necessary details.

The organization of the International Police Radio is as follows. The Central Radio Station, controlling the entire system, is in Berlin ; in addition, every country has a Control Station for its own internal service. In frontier districts, where the exchange of messages is very extensive, additional so-called Frontier Stations can be erected, which transmit directly from one to the other. Such is the system which works between Munich and Salzburg. Moreover, countries may erect as many wireless stations as they consider to be necessary.

The system of communication is conducted in such a way that, provided the messages are not sent out from the Control Stations, they can be transmitted through them from one country to another. Thus, in a country possessing several wireless stations, every wireless message sent out must first be given in at the Control Station, which, in its turn, will transmit the message through the International System. Similarly, Control Stations arrange for the circularization of all incoming wireless messages intended for certain specified police-stations in the country concerned. If there is no wireless receiver at the police headquarters, messages destined for the International Radio will be conveyed by the quickest means, either by telegraph or telephone, to the nearest wireless station ; messages for places which do not possess wireless stations are forwarded in a similar way.

For the present certain specified times are appointed for the transaction of wireless communications, but if necessary these times may be extended at will.

Control Stations are open for half an hour every three hours from 6 a.m. to 12.30 a.m. for the transacting of business of the International Police Radio.

As we have already seen, there are two kinds of wireless messages which may be transmitted through the Police Radio System. Firstly, those which have a definite address, *e.g.* to the Police President at Vienna ; these are called i.p. (International Police Radio messages). In cases of emergency these messages may be transmitted direct through the proper Control Station by any wireless station belonging to the Police Radio System. Secondly, there are the messages by means of which information is broadcast over a large area, *e.g.* during the search for a criminal. Such messages are called i.p.c.q. ; i.p. denoting, as before, International Police Radio, and c.q. the call sign for a general transmission. These messages must be forwarded to the Central Wireless Station in Berlin, either by wireless, telegraph or telephone. This station transmits i.p.c.q. messages at certain agreed times (for the present twice daily, at noon, and at midnight).

I.p.c.q. messages are received by all countries incorporated in the International Police Radio Service. If the communication is intended for certain countries only, notification must be given, *e.g.* 'For Austria and Poland only.'

At the present moment the following countries are members of the International Police Radio System :—Germany, Austria, Poland, Czechoslovakia and Hungary. A number of others are well advanced in their preparations, and will shortly take part in the service ; foremost among these are France, Belgium, Rumania and Yugoslavia. It is hoped that in the future every country in Europe will become a member of the International Police Radio System ; then only will the full advantages of the service be felt, for the larger the membership the greater will be the usefulness of the Radio System to all concerned.

In conclusion, I must give some details of the expense incurred by membership of the International Police Wireless System. In order to partici-

pate in the service a short-wave station and a long-wave receiving station will be necessary (for the latter any broadcast receiving set may be used). Against this initial outlay must be placed the saving in the cost of telegrams, always a considerable item. For example, the charge for sending a telegram of 60 words from Berlin to Vienna is 9 R.M. (20.43 Reichsmarks = £1), to Warsaw 11.50 R.M., to Budapest 12.60 R.M. Thus it is easy to reckon that even where there is not a great deal of wireless traffic the investment will pay for itself ; above all there is no longer the need for the police administration to curtail the wording of messages for the sake of economy. If only the i.p.c.q. service be required, it is not necessary to have a transmitting station ; all that is necessary is a receiver. Moreover, countries which have no wireless stations can telegraph police messages for re-transmission to the Wireless Headquarters (Pol. Präs., Berlin). Switzerland and other countries already make frequent use of this privilege.

The Police Radio System will gain added importance through the introduction of Television ; for in this will be found the solution of the problem of long distance identification. Television is to be adopted forthwith into the Police Radio System of Inner Germany.

RECENT JUDICIAL DECISIONS

GAMING

ANOTHER recent decision of interest on this subject was given in the Court of Criminal Appeal in the case of *R. v. Brennan and Others*. In this case the appellants were convicted of keeping a common gaming house and also under the Betting Act, 1853, and the Gaming Houses Act, 1854. The offences were committed by means of machines known as the 'Little Stockbroker,' and it was contended that the use of this machine involved no element either of skill or chance. The Court decided that a machine may be used for the purpose of 'gaming' and 'betting' even though, if the directions affixed to it are obeyed, it is certain that the user will win something. Mr. Justice Avory in the course of his judgment said, 'It is unfortunate that the expressions "unlawful machine" and "gaming machine" have been used in this Court, and were used in the Court below, and the Chairman, by the use of those expressions in argument, was himself led into using them. The question is not whether a particular machine, when one looks at it, is a betting or gaming machine; the question is, whether the machine has been used for purposes of gaming or betting, and whether it has been so used by persons resorting to the premises for that purpose. We have been told by counsel that there were on the premises printed directions, of which a specimen has been produced, and that there were dials on these machines, and that if a person read these directions and strictly followed them and studied the dial, the way in which the arrow pointed and so forth, he might make a certainty of winning some money; but the evidence which was before the jury, and which was uncontradicted, was that, with few exceptions, the persons who used this machine did not read the directions or study the dial, but dropped pennies into the machine and took their chance of something coming out; and the description given to us seems to suggest that anyone, who wanted to make a certainty of winning, would have occupied the machine for a great part of the day to the exclusion of all other people. On that state of facts, the Chairman, at the conclusion of the evidence, held that the machine, in the manner in which it had been used, was being used for unlawful gaming and for purposes forbidden by the second branch of section 1 of the Betting Act, namely, "for the purpose of any money . . . being received . . . as or for the consideration for any . . . agreement to pay or give . . . any money . . . on any event or contingency of or relating to any . . . game."'

The learned judge went on to refer to earlier decisions which decided that the question of whether a house was used for unlawful gaming and whether a particular game as played was an unlawful game was a question of law for the Judge and not of fact for the jury. The Court held that the Chairman was right in deciding as a question of law whether the machine was in the circumstances being used either for unlawful gaming or for the purposes prohibited by the Betting Act. They further said that if there was any real dispute with regard to the facts, it would be proper for the presiding Judge to leave it

RECENT JUDICIAL DECISIONS

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to the jury to say for what purposes the persons resorting to the premises did resort there.

RECEIVING

AN interesting decision was recently given at the Court of Criminal Appeal in the case of *R. v. Freedman*, 22 Criminal Appeal Reports, page 133. In this case stolen property was found in the back room of a house and the appellants undoubtedly were in the house at the time when the police arrived on the day after the property had been stolen. The question was whether there was evidence on which the jury could properly draw the inference that Freedman and his brother were in either actual or constructive possession of any part of the stolen property. The Court held that to sustain an indictment for knowingly receiving stolen property, some possession or control must be proved. In the course of his judgment, Mr. Justice Avory said, 'If the evidence is all consistent with these men having gone to the premises with the knowledge that they would find some goods which they might buy very cheaply—or even with the knowledge that the goods were actually stolen—with a view to dealing with them in some way, the question still remains whether at the time they had assumed control over the goods. The only evidence from which that inference could be drawn was the evidence of the police that they were seen "leaving the vicinity of the door of this back room," and that they immediately ran down the stairs and concealed themselves. That evidence is consistent with the view that they had gone to the premises with an unlawful intention in their minds, and that their conduct resulted from an uneasy conscience, but it is not sufficient to satisfy the requirements of the indictment. It had to be established not that they were going to assume control or take possession of the goods, but that they had actually done so.'

In the circumstances, although we have no moral doubt that the appellants were on the premises for an unlawful purpose, we have come to the conclusion that there was no sufficient evidence that they had any actual or constructive possession of any of the stolen property.'

The convictions were quashed.

In this class of case the police are in difficulty. If they wait too long, the receiver may not only have obtained control of the property but also have disposed of it, whilst if they act immediately and recover the property, it may turn out that they have 'pounced' too soon.

COMPELLABILITY OF WITNESS

IN *R. v. Lapworth*, reported in the same volume of Criminal Appeal Reports, page 87, the Court of Criminal Appeal was urged to hold that in a case of personal violence between husband and wife, the injured wife or husband, as the case may be, was not a compellable witness. The Court refused to accept this proposition. In the course of his judgment, Mr. Justice Avory said, 'It has always been assumed in practice that in such cases, even though the woman, when she comes into Court, either expresses reluctance to give evidence, or definitely desires not to give evidence against her husband, it is the duty of the tribunal to ascertain the facts and, if necessary, to compel her to give that evidence.'

The Court discussed the judgments of the House of Lords in the case of *R. v. Leach* decided in 1912, and Mr. Justice Avory said that the final effect of that decision was that 'if the known state of the law is such as to confer competency without any statute, then compellability follows as a matter of course from that competency.' He went on to say that he was satisfied that in the case of *Leach* the learned Lords had not present to their mind the case now

before the Court, where personal violence had been done by a husband to a wife, and further that in the general observations made in Leach's case and relied upon by the appellant, the Law Lords had no intention of including cases such as the one with which he was dealing.

EXTRADITION AND VOLUNTARY SURRENDER

IN the case *R. v. Corrigan*, reported on page 106 of 22 Criminal Appeal Cases, the defendant had been given into the custody of the police of this country by a State (France) with which there is a British Extradition Treaty. He objected at his trial that he had been, in fact, extradited under the Treaty and was therefore entitled to claim any protection which the Treaty might afford.

Under the Extradition Treaty with France 'a person surrendered shall not be tried for any crime or offence committed in the other country before the Extradition, other than the crime for which his surrender has been granted.'

Corrigan was arrested in France upon a charge of obtaining money by false pretences. When he was tried, the charge preferred against him was one of fraudulent conversion. Having no defence on the merits of either charge, he relied upon an objection to the jurisdiction of the Court. It was held that the onus of proof that he had, in fact, been 'extradited' was upon him, and that as he had failed to discharge such onus, the Court of trial had jurisdiction. It was held further that a Court has jurisdiction to try a 'fugitive criminal,' on any 'crime' that may be proved by the facts on which the surrender is granted. Or to put it in other words, that the 'crime for which surrender has been granted' refers to the set of facts on which the fugitive is surrendered and not to the particular denomination of crime mentioned.

CORRESPONDENCE

THE JULES VERNE CIPHER TEST

To the Editor of THE POLICE JOURNAL

SIR,

With reference to page 119 of the January issue of your *Police Journal*, I take the liberty to address you with the transcription of the first cipher problem given therein. I am afraid I am too late in sending this for publication in the April issue. This is because I happened to read this *Journal* only a few days before. If you think fit, it may be published in the next issue.

Transcription of 'XJJXW JPZPF ... TPGPG N.' ... 'This should be more interesting and instructive at any rate than a crossword problem.'

The key number used in this cipher is 4215.

Yours faithfully,

JAMINI MOHAN BANERJEA,
Inspector of Police.

1/4/31

INTELLIGENCE BRANCH, C.I.D.,
13 LORD SINHA ROAD,
CALCUTTA.

REVIEWS

MURDERS BY PERSONS UNKNOWN. By H. L. ADAM. 12s. 6d. net.
(W. Collins & Co.)

IN view of the numerous untraced murders of recent years, these 27 cases (earliest 1861), mostly investigated by Mr. Adam or discussed by him with investigators, are very interesting, especially for estimating police efficiency. The police often have moral but not legal proof: in the Croydon arsenic case Scotland Yard held decided views; in 1872 Hessel was wrongly discharged by the Magistrate; in 1893 Monson and in 1927 Merritt escaped by verdicts of 'non-proven,' which means 'believed but unfortunately not proved guilty,' though the police acted erroneously early in the latter case. Murders in the brothel, shop and train are so secret, swift and elusive that detection is often impossible: 7 more cases fall in these categories, but incompetence was shown as regards Miss Camp. Four motiveless, including 2 train murders, were probably committed by homicidal maniacs; in 4 more the police were misled by preconceived ideas, and in one, by a false confession. There remain 9 mysteries, the author's solution of which the reader will probably accept, preferring, however, in one that of Mr. Fletcher Moulton (App. V.) Mr. Adam is scathing on the unreliability of witnesses to identification and of experts; he would apparently retain handwriting experts in their proverbial place among liars. There are more undiscovered murders committed by secret poisoning than by any other means: doctors are too reluctant to suspect poison. His conclusion is that with secrecy and speed a murderer may still baffle the police, as he did fifty years ago: it is not the police but the law that is to blame.

SOME PERSONS UNKNOWN. By HENRY T. F. RHODES. 6s. net.
(John Murray, Albemarle St., London, W.)

IN the concluding paragraph the author tells us that this book has been an attempt to show that science is now indispensable to almost every branch of legal procedure and criminal investigation. The numerous examples given of secrets revealed by the microscope, the test tube, the ultra-violet rays, etc., uphold his assertion that science 'brings to light clues which the ordinary methods of detection, however brilliantly conducted, cannot reveal.'

He carefully presses the view that 'scientific man as detective is no substitute for the police,' but demonstrates very clearly that, on occasions, the laboratory can furnish initiatory clues beyond the reach of the ordinary human senses and establish conclusively facts that without its aid would remain open to dispute. For this reason he urges a closer connexion between the police and the scientific expert, and advocates the Continental system of Police Laboratories in close contact with the police.

Admitting that evidence obtained by scientific methods is purely circumstantial and that prejudice against circumstantial evidence still exists, he contends that the evidence of eye-witnesses is often much less reliable. He tells

the story of an elaborately planned affray between a clown and a negro staged during the progress of the Psychology Congress at Göttingen, rehearsed beforehand and photographed, with the express object of testing the value of the evidence of eye-witnesses. Of forty reports on the incident returned at the request of the President only six were even approximately accurate. Twenty-four contained gross errors as to material facts, while ten were incorrect in all essentials.

Mr. Rhodes draws a clear distinction between 'expert opinion' and scientific evidence of rigid fact, pointing out the pitfalls which often exist in the former.

The book deserves the perusal of all police officers, particularly those inclined to underrate the value of scientific aids to detection.

DETECTIVE DAYS. By FREDERICK PORTER WENSLEY. 12s. 6d. net. (Cassell & Co. Ltd., London, Toronto, Melbourne and Sydney.)

THIS book, being the personal narrative of the author's forty years' service in the London Metropolitan Police, cannot fail to be interesting to police officers, and a general public, over-fed with detective fiction, should appreciate the opportunity of learning from so eminent an authority how the real life detective sets about his job.

In modest and straight manner Mr. Wensley traces his own career from its commencement as a patrol constable in Lambeth to its termination in the chair of Chief Constable of the C.I.D. at New Scotland Yard. 'After more than forty years,' writes Mr. Wensley, 'I still do not know what the public expects from a detective,' and he is doubtless quite justified in adding, 'I am pretty well sure that the public does not know itself.'

In addition to detailed accounts of some of his most sensational cases the book contains many sound observations on such matters as alleged third degree methods, capital punishment, the habits and character of criminals, and the way to treat them.

Mr. Wensley claims to have seen 'every scientific and mechanical aid the wit of man can devise placed at the service of the detective,' and thinks there is 'perhaps a danger, in one way, of over-estimating the value of these things.' He holds that 'the only real method' of stamping out crime is 'to employ detectives who know rogues by direct contact, know their habits, their ways of thought, their motives, and above all know their friends and associates.' It will be readily admitted that this is the first essential, but many may question whether in modern days it is of itself sufficient. Mr. Wensley recognizes the value of mechanical aids in his appreciation of the Flying Squad, which he considers 'the first step to a nation-wide detective service.' On the subject of this 'nation-wide detective service' many readers might have liked to see his views elaborated.

In one or two places there is a little obscurity of meaning; for instance, the description of a swindle known as 'ringing the changes' (p. 147) hardly makes the trick quite clear to those not already acquainted with it.

THE CRIME OF PUNISHMENT. By MARGARET WILSON. (Jonathan Cape, Ltd.) Price 10s. 6d.

'THE more things improve the louder become the exclamations about their badness,'¹ wrote Herbert Spencer in 1892, and this book is an example of that truth.

For the welfare of offenders is more studied now than probably ever

¹ *A Plea for Liberty*, p. 1.

before in the history of civilization, though no doubt a good deal still remains to be done in that direction.

After a glance at the history of punishment the author devotes about two-thirds of her book to a description of the brutal punishments inflicted on offenders by our ancestors immediate and remote, useful to the historian, but suggestive at times of flogging a dead horse. The last chapter is devoted to pillorying the criminal law as it is here, and in U.S.A., exhorting women in 'States cursed by ignorant voters' to study this and kindred matters for themselves. One feels more in accord with the author here, and where she writes, 'for an efficient Police there is no substitute,' and gives examples of methods of preventing crime which obtain in other countries. Though few readers will be unmoved by the eloquence of the author's plea or disposed to doubt her sincerity, some may think the account of the horrors and futilities of punishment exaggerated or sentimental. But is it not better to err a little on that side? For 'Justice is not done to individuals in this world,'¹ and, to quote Dean Inge again, one's Maker 'knows, and we do not, how far we are morally responsible for our characters.'²

THE COMPLETE KANO JIU-JITSU. By H. I. HANCOCK. 10s. 6d. and 5s. (Putnams.)

THIS book deals with jiu-jitsu, or self-defence, and also with judo, or wrestling. The former portion explains the methods taught in Japan whereby the mastery over an opponent is gained by causing him, in most cases, serious injury. It is therefore unsuitable for use by police forces in the United Kingdom. A few of the holds and locks (*vide* pages 315-328, 320-350) could be successfully mastered after careful practice, and they could be used with advantage without causing injury to opponents. Most of these locks and holds are already taught to police recruits.

The second portion of the book deals with what is really an excellent form of sport, though it is a sport which requires two years of continual training before any pupil in wrestling is up to the standard of a contest. A permanent room and a prepared floor are further requisites. The subject of 'breakfalls,' *i.e.* the art of learning how to fall without hurting oneself, is dealt with briefly. Another section deals with 'kuatsu,' or resuscitation, and might also with advantage be studied, but it is entirely different to the official methods recognized by the St. John Ambulance and first aid classes.

CRIME AS DESTINY. By PROFESSOR DR. J. LANGE. 6s. net. (George Allen & Unwin.)

THIS book, translated from the German by Charlotte Haldane, with a Foreword by J. B. S. Haldane, is a scientific study of criminal twins.

Professor Lange has investigated the histories of 13 pairs of twins of monozygotic origin (*i.e.* derived from the same egg) and brought up together where one of each pair was a convicted criminal. In 10 out of the 13 pairs the other twin was found to be a convicted criminal too. He has also investigated the records of 17 pairs of twins of dizygotic origin (*i.e.* derived from separate eggs) and brought up together where one of each pair was a convicted criminal. In only 2 out of the 17 pairs was the other twin also a convicted criminal.

The inference drawn is that under our present social system a man of a certain constitution put in a certain environment will be a criminal, and,

¹ *Evening Standard*, 29.10.30.

² *Evening Standard*, 3.9.30.

the story of an elaborately planned affray between a clown and a negro staged during the progress of the Psychology Congress at Göttingen, rehearsed beforehand and photographed, with the express object of testing the value of the evidence of eye-witnesses. Of forty reports on the incident returned at the request of the President only six were even approximately accurate. Twenty-four contained gross errors as to material facts, while ten were incorrect in all essentials.

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¹ *A Plea for Liberty*, p. 1.

before in the history of civilization, though no doubt a good deal still remains to be done in that direction.

After a glance at the history of punishment the author devotes about two-thirds of her book to a description of the brutal punishments inflicted on offenders by our ancestors immediate and remote, useful to the historian, but suggestive at times of flogging a dead horse. The last chapter is devoted to pillorying the criminal law as it is here, and in U.S.A., exhorting women in 'States cursed by ignorant voters' to study this and kindred matters for themselves. One feels more in accord with the author here, and where she writes, 'for an efficient Police there is no substitute,' and gives examples of methods of preventing crime which obtain in other countries. Though few readers will be unmoved by the eloquence of the author's plea or disposed to doubt her sincerity, some may think the account of the horrors and futilities of punishment exaggerated or sentimental. But is it not better to err a little on that side? For 'Justice is not done to individuals in this world,'¹ and, to quote Dean Inge again, one's Maker 'knows, and we do not, how far we are morally responsible for our characters.'²

THE COMPLETE KANO JIU-JITSU. By H. I. HANCOCK. 10s. 6d. and 5s. (Putnams.)

THIS book deals with jiu-jitsu, or self-defence, and also with judo, or wrestling. The former portion explains the methods taught in Japan whereby the mastery over an opponent is gained by causing him, in most cases, serious injury. It is therefore unsuitable for use by police forces in the United Kingdom. A few of the holds and locks (*vide* pages 315-328, 320-350) could be successfully mastered after careful practice, and they could be used with advantage without causing injury to opponents. Most of these locks and holds are already taught to police recruits.

The second portion of the book deals with what is really an excellent form of sport, though it is a sport which requires two years of continual training before any pupil in wrestling is up to the standard of a contest. A permanent room and a prepared floor are further requisites. The subject of 'breakfalls,' *i.e.* the art of learning how to fall without hurting oneself, is dealt with briefly. Another section deals with 'kuatsu,' or resuscitation, and might also with advantage be studied, but it is entirely different to the official methods recognized by the St. John Ambulance and first aid classes.

CRIME AS DESTINY. By PROFESSOR DR. J. LANGE. 6s. net. (George Allen & Unwin.)

THIS book, translated from the German by Charlotte Haldane, with a Foreword by J. B. S. Haldane, is a scientific study of criminal twins.

Professor Lange has investigated the histories of 13 pairs of twins of monozygotic origin (*i.e.* derived from the same egg) and brought up together where one of each pair was a convicted criminal. In 10 out of the 13 pairs the other twin was found to be a convicted criminal too. He has also investigated the records of 17 pairs of twins of dizygotic origin (*i.e.* derived from separate eggs) and brought up together where one of each pair was a convicted criminal. In only 2 out of the 17 pairs was the other twin also a convicted criminal.

The inference drawn is that under our present social system a man of a certain constitution put in a certain environment will be a criminal, and,

¹ *Evening Standard*, 29.10.30.

² *Evening Standard*, 3.9.30.

further, that of the two influences heredity is infinitely more important than environment. Practical suggestions for prevention and treatment follow.

The writer would doubtless agree that 30 cases hardly form an adequate basis for reliable conclusions and that more investigations on similar lines are required. Further, as Professor Haldane points out, a third class of records is needed to complete the story, viz. those of monozygotic twins who had been separated from early infancy.

The book is intelligible to the general reader and will be found very interesting both by theoretical students of crime and by those practically concerned with its prevention and treatment.

BOYS IN TROUBLE. By MRS. LE MESURIER. 6s. net. (John Murray.)

THIS is a study of crime on the part of male adolescents, i.e. lads from 16 to 21, and its treatment, written by the leader of the Women Workers at the Boys' Prison, London, with an Introduction by Alexander Paterson, Commissioner of Prisons.

After generations of neglect and indifference public opinion was aroused in the first decade of this century and notable improvements were made, but even up to 1922 the young Londoner on remand spent a week or more with a variety of adult criminals in Brixton Prison. Since 1922 all such lads have been kept in a separate block, first at Wandsworth Prison and now at Wormwood Scrubs, named the Boys' Prison, to which are also sent temporarily all the youths sentenced to Borstal training. In many districts outside London the conditions which obtained at Brixton up to 1922 still exist.

The writer insists that we still lag far behind such a country as Holland in these matters. For adolescent remands she would like to see Investigation Centres or Clinics similar to those provided for young criminals under 16. These should be national institutions under the Home Office entirely separate from any existing prison and untouched by its stigma. For adolescent convicts she disapproves entirely of fines, corporal punishment and imprisonment, and would extend the Probation and Borstal systems, of which she gives a full and sympathetic account as well as of the work at the Boys' Prison, of which she was herself the pioneer.

WOMEN OF THE UNDERWORLD. By MRS. CECIL CHESTERTON. 5s. (Stanley Paul.)

AT a time when the underworld is being so freely exploited in novels and autobiographies it is particularly refreshing to find a writer who does not go out of her way to paint a lurid picture of crime and immorality, but who prefers to analyse the causes from which they arise and to point out ways and means by which they may be diminished. Love of comfort, vanity, monotony and desire for adventure are among the underlying motives which prompt a first lapse; the ultimate result is a question of temperament no less than of circumstances. Mrs. Cecil Chesterton has clearly been at great pains to collect all her material on the spot, and all her points are illustrated from real life. Stark tragedy is seen in many of the stories, and yet in others the reader is driven to admiration (an admiration which is obviously shared by the author) for the pluck and determination which prevent even the oldest and weakest seeking the shelter of the poorhouse. Readers of this *Journal* will probably not learn from the criminal exploits narrated much that they did not know before, but Mrs. Chesterton's analysis of the causes of misdemeanours and crimes is worthy of the most careful study. The searcher after sensational literature should save his 5s.

LA LUTTE MODERNE CONTRE LE CRIME (The Present-day War with Crime). By DR. LEON RABINOWICZ. (Ferdinand Larcier, Brussels. 1930.)

THIS is a type of publication of which America and the Continent have produced more examples than Great Britain. The question raised is as to the appropriate penal legislation which will recognize the scientific results of the study of criminal anthropology as well as the moral law. Readers of the *Police Journal* will recall Dr. Hamblin Smith's plea for the psychological study of accused persons (vol. i. p. 402).

The author is a distinguished graduate of the Universities of Cracow and of Rome, and was a pupil of the great Italian criminologist, the late Enrico Ferri. A Foreword is contributed by M. Janson, the Belgian Minister of Justice; and the preface is from the pen of Count de Wiart, President of the International Association of Criminal Law.

At the beginning of the work an historical sketch is given of the development of the prison system in Belgium—the actual practice at present is described in a later chapter—and the book closes with a study of the reform in that system. The chapter which has interest for the police officer as well as for the prison official and the social reformer is one dealing with the *dossier* which was brought into use in 1907 by Dr. Vorvaeck. In this *dossier* are recorded details regarding prison inmates under a large number of headings, the main divisions of which are the following:—(i) general; (ii) inherited; (iii) medical; (iv) anthropological (such as bodily measurements, fingerprints, tattooing); (v) morphological (i.e. organic development, such as speech, handwriting, etc.); (vi) nervous system; (vii) physical senses; (viii) mental examination; (ix) social condition; (x) criminological. This exhaustive record closes with a summary of the diagnosis; it states whether penal or reformatory treatment is required; whether reclassification of the accused person for jail purposes is necessary, or whether any other suitable measures are required. Since 1927 a laboratory of penal anthropology has been established in Brussels prison under the direction of the same Dr. Vorvaeck for the purpose of studying, by means of this special *dossier*, everything concerning the mental and physical characteristics of the prisoners.

The writer sums up by saying that the main object in view is to introduce and put into practice in prison administration the conclusions derived from a study of criminal anthropology. The duty of the S.A.P. (Service Anthropologique Pénitentiaire) is to examine all convicts or previously convicted persons undergoing a sentence of more than three months; to study the cause of the offences, the environment of the accused and its individual characteristics and so on. With this object "psychiatric" annexes have been installed in many Belgian prisons since 1921. The examination of 1432 cases between 1921 and 1926 furnishes some interesting results: about half (46 per cent.) were returned to prison life; 14 per cent. were transferred to mental hospitals; 11 per cent. were treated as abnormals; 9 per cent. were sent to a mental colony; and 8 per cent. were sent to a prison for mental defectives, while the balance of 12 per cent. were released or deported.

ARCHBOLD'S PLEADING EVIDENCE AND PRACTICE IN CRIMINAL CASES. 28th Edition. (Sweet & Maxwell, Ltd., 2 and 3 Chancery Lane, W.C. 2; Stevens & Sons, Ltd., 119 Chancery Lane, W.C. 2). £2 12s. 6d. net.

A DISTINGUISHED Judge on circuit is said to have asked of prosecuting counsel, 'Against which page of Archbold has this man offended?' A

law book must be of high authority indeed before such a story, apocryphal or not, can be told. Archbold is unquestionably an admirable book, admirable in its lucidity, its comprehensiveness, and above all its orderly arrangement. No criminal practitioner need in the ordinary way look further. Twenty-eight editions since 1822 tell their own tale. The secret of its success over books more ambitious is perhaps to be found in Mr. Archbold's preface to the first edition: 'I have taken infinite pains to simplify my subject' and to make the book 'simple and perspicuous.' As it started, so it remains, incorporating edition by edition all new statutes and decisions.

CHICAGO POLICE PROBLEMS. By the CITIZENS' POLICE COMMITTEE. (The University of Chicago Press.) Published March, 1931. Price \$3.

IN early April of this year there passed from the public life of Chicago, for a time at any rate, William Hale Thompson, commonly known as 'Big Bill.' For eight years 'Big Bill' dominated the destinies of the civic life of Chicago, and during this period crime and corruption is reported to have reached heights hitherto unknown in modern municipal government.

The accounts published, almost daily, in the Press of 'Gangsters,' 'Racketeers,' corruption amongst the Police Force and the Magistracy, make incredible reading—at times the accounts are so startling that one wonders if the chaotic state of the administration of that city can be as bad as made out to be.

Mr. Anton Cermak has succeeded 'Big Bill,' and it is difficult to forecast to what extent his rule will mean a change in the conditions of life, and in particular the Police administration in Chicago. It may be possible to get rid of individual representatives of the reign of corruption, but not so easily of the roots embedded under ground.

To Police Officers on this side of the 'pond,' *Chicago Police Problems* is indeed a lesson on mal-administration, and the danger that may arise from the apathy of the citizen to his own interests.

The names of the Citizens' Police Committee are of sufficient weight to render this book authoritative. This Committee was formed after an investigation made by the Chicago Crime Commission, with the aid and co-operation of a former Commissioner, Mr. M. J. Hughes. Commissioner William F. Russell, who resigned in June, 1930, gave his full and cordial support and co-operation to the Committee, but the Committee was not invited by his successor to continue its work. (See P. 3. iv. 60.)

The Police Force is first shown in its setting as part of the City Government. The structural organization is then subjected to analysis, and the influence of major defects portrayed.

There is a chapter on the rank and file and the control exercised by the Civil Service system, and all the various units of the Force are carefully considered. There are tables and charts which make the points easy of comprehension. During the ten-year period from 1920 to 1929 we are told that there were 2,722 murders and manslaughters committed in Chicago, and this total excludes homicides due solely to criminal negligence. A conservative analysis conducted by the Committee shows a total of 257 murders as the direct result of gang competition for the seven years up to 1929.

The total strength of the Force is just above 6,500, out of which the detective division absorbs 871, and the traffic division 342. The selection of recruits and promotion is largely in the hands of the Civil Service Commission, which is the real power in the management of police personnel. The Commission also has considerable authority over the personnel of the municipal government and is said to be dominated by political influences.

The Chicago Police is exceptional in entrusting the investigation of complaints against the rank and file to a small corps of civilian inspectors, whose posts 'are not considered to be highly attractive.' Each district (corresponding approximately to our Metropolitan Police Divisions) is a sort of Police Department on its own, with the Commissioner a remote figure who must be consulted only in unusual cases.

The Committee are of opinion that there has been much wilful suppression of crime reporting.

The scales of salary for the Chicago Police, and indeed in the majority of American Police Forces, do not appear to be much above the level of the cost of bare existence, but the pension system is said to be liberal according to prevailing standards.

The Committee say that so long as the familiar relationship between politics, the police and the criminal element continues to prevail, effective leadership will not be secured. 'It will be necessary to cut deeply before the cause of present inefficiency and corruption can be removed.' All said and done, however, prohibition remains—and while it does, must not political corruption and gangster rule continue?

MURDER AT BELLY BUTTE. By T. MORRIS LONGSTRETH and HENRY VERNON. (D. Appleton & Co., London, and Century Co., New York.) Price 10/6 and \$4.

THE authors of this book will need no introduction to readers of *The Police Journal*. Their articles on Police work in Canada have been collected into book form and make a very readable volume. The stories are illustrated.

Police Gold Medal Essay Competition

RULES FOR THE 1931 COMPETITION

1. The Competition shall be held annually and shall be open to serving members of regular Police Forces within the Empire or mandated territories. Any question as to the eligibility of any competitor shall be determined by the Council.
2. His Majesty's Gold Medal and a cash prize (of 30 guineas) will be awarded for the essay which is adjudged to be the best, provided it is considered of sufficient merit, and second and third prizes (of 20 guineas and 10 guineas respectively) will be awarded under the same conditions for the essays adjudged to be next in order of merit.
3. (a) Essays must be the original work of the competitor.
(b) Essays must not be less than 7,000 or more than 11,000 words in length, and must be typewritten and submitted in triplicate.
(c) Where a reference is made to any published work the title must be quoted in a footnote.
4. Essays must be submitted anonymously. Each essay must be accompanied by a sealed envelope bearing on the outside a *nom de plume* or a motto, and containing the competitor's name and address.
5. The Council may at their discretion appoint such persons as they think fit to act as Referees or Judges of the Essays under such conditions as they may prescribe.
6. The award of the Council shall be made public in such manner as the Council shall think fit, and any essays submitted for the Competition and adjudged of sufficient merit may be published by the Council in *The Police Journal* or otherwise.

SUBJECT OF THE ESSAY FOR 1931

The Scope and Functions of Local and Central Control in Police Administration.

Essays must be submitted on or before the 30th November 1931, to—

THE SECRETARY TO THE COUNCIL OF THE
POLICE GOLD MEDAL ESSAY COMPETITION,

HOME OFFICE,

WHITEHALL,

LONDON, S.W. 1.

