

a bill of exchange." It would be reassuring to know that the directors of the Bank of England are keeping this lesson in mind.

Mr. Palgrave's tables bring out the fact that on many occasions the bankers' balances have equalled, and sometimes exceeded, the reserve. This tendency is progressive. Between 1844-53 this excess occurred once; between 1854-61, eleven times; between 1862-69 twenty-one times; between 1870-77 twenty-eight times. After 1877 the reports of the Bank cease to give this information. The last report which gave it showed that "the reserve available against the ordinary as distinguished from the banking portion of the liabilities was less than three millions instead of eleven and one-half millions, and that the proportion of this reserve to the liabilities on deposits other than those derived from the bankers, instead of being 57½ per cent., as the annual statement makes it, was only 23½ per cent." Whatever view we take of this, it is evident that these balances cannot be both the reserve of the Bank and the reserve of the bankers. It is estimated that the liabilities of the bankers have increased from about seventy millions in 1844 to one thousand millions in 1902. Practically the only reserve of cash that is kept against these enormous liabilities is the reserve of the Bank of England. No doubt, as was explained by Mr. Gibbs—afterwards Lord Aldenham—a certain part of the bankers' deposits with the Bank is never disturbed; it is necessary for the transaction of their daily business. But whatever is above this minimum may be called for, and called for suddenly. In 1876 these balances fluctuated nearly ten millions between their lowest and their highest point; and this ten millions could not properly be regarded as part of the normal reserve of the Bank.

The Bank announced in 1878 that it would not feel bound to adhere strictly to its published minimum rate of discount, and it has more recently adopted the practice of rediscounting bills. It seems that for more than a century prior to 1839 the Bank rate never rose above 5, nor fell below 4 per cent. It followed that the Bank did a very small business in discounts; in 1844 it held only £113,000. Thereafter the Bank adapted its rate more nearly to that of the market, and by 1848 it was believed to hold half the discounts then outstanding. Of course the number of alterations in the rate of discount has increased, and it is evident that at present the power of the Bank to fix the rate in the market is much less than formerly. Mr. Palgrave makes some valuable suggestions concerning the government of the Bank and the methods of determining the rate for money, but we cannot comment on them further than to say that they are in the line of Bagehot's recommendations. When we regard the fluctuations in our own market, those at London, however exaggerated by unscientific methods, seem very tolerable. But as the London banks agree on the rate to be allowed on deposits, they might easily fix a discount rate; and our own experience shows that publicity is nothing to be dreaded by sound banks.

Many interesting matters besides those which we have mentioned are discussed in this valuable essay, but we can only allude to them. In the midst of our clamor over the dearth of paper money, it is impres-

sive to be told that the total note circulation of England and Wales was in 1900 only two millions greater than in 1844, although the coin in circulation has increased probably seventy millions. But the wisdom of suppressing the notes of the country banks is open to question. Some very instructive comparisons are drawn by Mr. Palgrave between the conduct of the Bank of England and that of the great banks of the Continent; and his work is based throughout on elaborate tables of figures. We have said enough to indicate the character of this treatise to the very intelligent class of men engaged in the banking business in this country, and we trust that it may receive a critical examination. Its theme may appear remote; but the principles involved are fundamental in any financial system resting on credit.

HOBSON-JOBSON.

Hobson-Jobson: A Glossary of Colloquial Anglo-Indian Words and Phrases and of Kindred Terms, Etymological, Historical, Geographical, and Discursive. By Col. Henry Yule, R.E., C.B., and A. C. Burnell, Ph.D., C.I.E. New edition. Edited by William Crooke, B.A. London: John Murray. 1903.

Col. Sir Henry Yule, geographer, biographer, historian, scientist, editor, diplomat, engineer, soldier, poet, humorist, Indologist, was the main maker of this book; a great scholar and a many-sided man. Few knew so well the geography and travels of the Middle Ages and of the age of modern discovery in relation to Asia. It was Yule who edited 'The Book of Ser Marco Polo' (1871 and 1875), and authored its varied wealth of note and comment. It was Yule who reduced Sir John Mandeville, "the Father of English prose," to his true status as a translated myth, the fictitious hero of a French romance patched up from old travels and old fables. These were good preparations for the present opulent book. Yule had as a chosen associate Dr. Burnell, a man of wide learning, especially versed in the ways and tongues of Southern India, who died four years before the book first appeared, in 1886. Three years later Sir Henry Yule departed this life. And now, after seventeen years, the work appears in a new edition, rightly without change in the original text, but with many notes of correction and addition, and many new articles, by the competent hand of Mr. William Crooke, the author of several works on the ethnology and folklore of northern India, who has had the cooperation of many willing scholars in this multifarious task. The work is more than ever a monument of science and history. It is truly a thesaurus, a treasure out of which a man may at all times bring forth things new and old.

It is a discursive encyclopædia. Colonel Yule, with the modesty of merit, called it, under the truth, "a colloquial glossary," and then, with characteristic humor and with good literary instinct, chose as the leading title the peculiar Anglo-Indian phrase "Hobson-Jobson." No one who has not seen the book—or has not learned from other sources something of the devious ways of Indian words in European mouths—can appreciate the full significance of this happy title. Let it suf-

fice here to say that "Hobson-Jobson" is in its first state ("Yā Hasan! Yā Hosain!") a Mohammedan festal cry, and in its later stages ("Hosseen Gosseen, Hossy Gossy, Hossein Jossen, Hobson Jobson"), the British soldier's gradual improvement and subjection of that (to him) unmeaning foreign jabber. In its ultimate form, "Hobson-Jobson," it may be said to reflect in one phrase the British soldier's notion of the peoples, customs, religions, and languages of India. The phrase, we are told, is passing out of use, in its military application; but it will continue to live as the doubly allusive title of this varied summary of India, and as a happy term for the frequent derangement of epitaphs which marks the contact of two different civilizations, one of which essays, like a python, to squeeze and engorge, or, to use the diplomatic word, to assimilate, the other. In this latter sense it is used in Edward E. Morris's partly similar work on Australian words and things, 'Austral English' (1898).

The plan of the book is simple and scientific. The subject is India, or South Asia, as seen by Europeans; its natural history, geography, ethnology, custom, philology, in summary, as they are encountered or sought or needed by the English or European reader or traveller. The facts are numerous, of all ages and kinds, recorded in many languages. They are stated, each by itself, or in small groups, in "the most senseless and fit" order, the irrational, impersonal, undisputed order of the Roman alphabet. A systematic statement in the form of a chaptered history would have been unhappy for the purpose. What is wanted is the facts, clear and compact. History in the literary form is often a device for omitting most of the facts. Each article in this book, as a rule, contains a definition or a discourse, with etymology and usually some note or anecdote. Then follows the chain of history in the form of quotations set in chronologic order.

The quotations are historic, illuminating, apposite, from various sources, ages, languages, from forgotten or recondite books, out of deserts of prose or the *hortus siccus* of dead notions. This kind of quotation is science, not mere compilation. It is no such easy task as composition. The learning, the imagination, the insight, the memory, the judgment, required to find, understand, appraise, select, arrange, and print such chains of quotations as abound in this work, and, for another example, in the 'Oxford English Dictionary,' far surpass the mental equipment of the average novelist or poet. The average novelist is, indeed, sometimes more entertaining; nor do we despise these mitigations of literature. Better, saith the Philistine reader, is a dinner of herbs where fiction is, than a stalled ox and science therewith. But why not both? There is both science and entertainment in Yule's long arrays of quotations. The range is vast; the variety is great. Under the important rubric, "India, Indies," for example, the chain begins with the cuneiform inscription (translated) on the tomb of Cyrus (dated B. C. 486), and proceeds with Herodotus (B. C. 440), Megasthenes (B. C. C. 300), Arrian (A. D. c. 140), Hwen-T'sang (A. D. 650), a series of Hindu and Arabic writers, and at length the modern Portuguese writers, Barros (1552-1613) and Camoens (1572). Then, for other phases of the subject, the editor

harks back to Hwen T'sang, cites Marco Polo (1298), Friar Jordanus (c. 1328), Shakspeare (c. 1601), Pinto (1614), Morier (1826), then Linschoten (1598), and so on, some twenty-nine writers. Then, under "Indian," follow citations from an Anglo-Saxon poem, Shakspeare again, the first book of Macca-bees, Polybius, Livy, Athenæus, Elphin-stone. It is usual to praise this sort of thing as "industry," as it were an humble, drudging virtue, suited to plodding minds, to the tortoisés of literature. But let the hares try to do the like!

Hundreds of the articles invite philological remark. We venture to offer additions or solutions in a few cases: The article upon "Dhow, Dow," the name of "the old-fashioned vessel of Arab build," familiar to English readers in connection with the attempts to suppress the slave trade on the East African coast, discusses the etymology without conclusion. A Persian-Arabic form is cited (*dāo*), but the Arabic status is doubted. The form is certainly entered in some Arabic dictionaries (*dāw* in Steingass, 1884, p. 351), and it is certainly not "native" Arabic. Is it not native African? It is found just where it is needed, in the Swahili, or "language of the coast" of East Africa. Krapf, in his 'Dictionary of the Suahili Language,' 1882 (p. 47), citing Bishop Steere as authority, enters *dau*, and defines it as "a native boat, sharp at both ends, with a square mat sail. They are the vessels of the original inhabitants of Zanzibar, and chiefly bring firewood to the town from the south end of the island." The Swahili language contains many boat names, some Arabic or Indian; but *dau* appears to be native. A language must have some native words. The correct English spelling is, as Yule notes, *dow*, rather than *dhow*; or, better, simply *dau*, the form used by Sir Harry H. Johnston of Kilima-njaro and Okapi fame ('The Kilima-njaro Expedition,' 1886, pp. 25 and 318).

Under the title "Suclát, Sackcloth, etc.," a multiform name for a multiform cloth, at one time embroidered silk, but in its later use applied to European broadcloth, the many forms are cited, and different etymologies are proposed, without result. But the solution is not far to seek. *Suclat*, Chaucer's *siclatoun*, the modern *scarlet*, are all concerned. The Anglo-Indian *suclat*, *suklat*, *sooklaat*, (Telugu *sakalāti*, Canarese *sakalāto*), represents the Persian *suqlāt*, *siqalāt*, *saqalāt*, Arabic *sigillāt*, beside *sijillāt*, particolored linen, and this is merely the Middle Latin *sigillatum* or *sigillata*, "figured cloth." We read in late Latin of *tentoria sigillata*, "particolored tents," and *serica sigillata*, "figured silks." Cicero spoke of *scyphi sigillati*, "figured or relieved cups," and we may speak in English of pottery or other things as "sigillate," that is, "sigilled" or "sealed," stamped or marked with a figure. The L. *sigillum* itself has penetrated into Arabic, Turkish, Persian, and Hindustani. The Arabic word appeared also with Arabic suffix as *siqlātīn*, Persian *siqlātīn*, *saqlātīn*, whence Old French *siclaton*, *ciclaton*, *siglaton*, Middle English *siclatoun*, *ciclatoun*, etc. Further, the Arabic word, as of foreign origin, took a popular twist, perhaps under Mediterranean influence, and as *saquarlāt*, Persian *saqirlāt*, Turkish *iskerlāt*, gave rise to Italian *scarlatto*, English *scarlet*, etc. Finally, the Anglo-Indian *suklat* took on sometimes the melancholy guise of *sackcloth*, in

which one sees no glimpse of *scarlet*. It is worthy of notice that the original meaning here ascribed to *suklat*, *siclatoun*, *scarlet*, namely, "figured cloth" (and hence "colored cloth," and even "whole-colored cloth"), is paralleled in the meaning of another Eastern fabric, *gingham*, which, according to Scott, cited in this edition (p. 376), meant in Malay and Javanese "striped cloth." Fabrics that are figured or striped, or highly colored, are likely to receive names of such meaning (*brocade*, *check*, *blazer*, etc.); and any fabric name, in a continuing trade, is likely to pass over to other fabrics (*flannel*, *merino*, *linen*, *silk*, *wool*, *felt*, etc.).

The lover of sports will find here that strange word *gymkhana*, which, we are told, is a factitious word made in the Bombay presidency out of the English *gymnastics*, cut down (as our American boys and girls in college cut down *gymnasium*) to *gym*, with *khana*, "probably based on *gend-khana* ('ball-house'), the name usually given in Hind[ustani] to an English racket court" (p. 406). From *gymkhana*, through "gym suits," one's mind passes to pajamas. These familiar, not to say *négligé*, articles are of Anglo-Indian origin. They are in this book under the spelling *pyjamas* (p. 748). This represents the Hindustani form *pāe-jāma*. Our American spelling accords better with the Persian *pā-jāma*. The name means, with as much elegance as the circumstances and the liberal fit permit, "leg-garment."

There are many amusing stories and quotations. One (p. 601) is of "a very gallant Governor-General" who said that "he had found it very tolerable, on a sharp but brief campaign, to rough it on chuprassies and mussaulchees." There is a joke here, but it requires a diagram. The Governor-General meant, "rough it on chupatties and mussalla." When we add another diagram, and explain that while he meant to say, if we may paraphrase the sentiment into Western idiom, that he really enjoyed eating hardtack and molasses, he did say that he enjoyed eating cooks and sutlers, the joke is fully revealed. By this process one can elucidate the most difficult jokes. Such confusions of similar words are of course inevitable in all frontier "Hobson-Jobson," and are doubtless latent in many unsuspected passages in ancient literature as transmitted to modern times. In other articles we meet the lady who, in time of danger, "left our own compost," meaning our own "compound" or station (p. 243); the clergyman "who spoke of the deposition of 'the bloody Punjaub of Lahore'" (p. 742); and the poet (Browning) who twice takes *nautch*, a dance, for a dancing-girl (p. 620). What would the poet make of a *poggy nautch*, which is a name for a fancy-dress ball? It means a fool's dance. And speaking of *poggy* ("a fool, a madman, an idiot"), experienced persons will see something apt in "the native name for a regular picnic," which is, according to Lady Dufferin, "*poggy-khana*, that is, a fool's dinner" (p. 717), but more literally "a mad-house," "a lunatic asylum."

A few verbal errors still need to be corrected. The name of Blumentritt, the Philippinologist, misprinted. "Blumenroth" in the first edition (under *bobbery-bob*, p. 76), remains unchanged in the new edition (p. 101). The name of Whitney is unluckily printed "Witney" (p. xviii), and the name

of the book cited is given as 'Oriental and Linguistical Studies'; it should be "linguistic." Americans generally prefer the simple forms in *-ic* (biographic, biologic, etc.), and some make a crusade against the forms in *-ical*. As for the slight inconsistencies and omissions in the transliteration of the mazy alphabets of the East, we make no account of them. In a future edition a systematic recension of the words and transliterations by a few professed philologists, Indic and Semitic, would lead to a finer accuracy; but there is no harm in casual inconsistencies of spelling and print. They do not worry readers who have souls.

It is a fact of much significance that this admirable work of historic research, of scientific importance, of philologic value, was made by a British soldier and a member of the British civil service. It is one of a thousand works of respectable scholarship produced in the military atmosphere of the British empire. At the best such works are but a small residue of permanent science and humane learning left from the grinding of the military machine on which such huge sums are spent. The military machine of the United States is now demanding even huger sums. Are we getting any fair residue of science and humane learning from this enormous military expenditure? It were a great gain to secure a fixed percentage—say, 5 per cent. to science and humane learning and humanity, and only 95 per cent. to the Juggernaut of war. In time the percentage devoted to good works might be increased to 7 or even 10 per cent.

THE PRICE OF EMPIRE.

Principles and Problems of Imperial Defence.

By Lieut.-Col. Edward S. May, C.M.G., R.A., Professor of Military Art and History at the Staff College. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1903.

Prior to the late war with Spain, an American had but little interest in the questions so ably discussed in this book. Happy and secure behind a double line of defence, the outer held by the navy, and the inner by the army, he could look out upon the world from the shelter of that strongest of natural military positions, a geographically self-contained area bordered by friendly neighbors and an equally friendly sea, and he could pity the unfortunates upon whom fate or their own folly had imposed the necessity of keeping armed to the teeth, in constant readiness and in constant dread. Six years ago he might possibly have glanced at the title of Col. May's work, and he certainly would have tossed the volume aside, thanking God that he was not as other men are—forced to study such grave problems, and to provide against the stern eventualities which these problems suggest. How different is his position to-day! In the South Pacific, he sees the flag of his country flying over far-distant Tutuila in the Samoan Group, where the likelihood of trouble with the natives there and with the Germans on the adjacent islands combines with the establishment of a useless coaling station (costing half a million of dollars) to make him inquire what he should do in the event of hostilities, and whether the place itself is worth the expense