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SWISS INSTITUTE.

LECTURE on the EUROPEAN SITUATION
by G. P. GOOCH, Esq., M.A.

On the 2nd March Mr. Gooch delivered his lecture on "The European Situation," which was eagerly followed by a numerous audience, and was, like last year's lecture, immensely appreciated by everybody present. To do the lecturer justice, we cannot do better than again give a verbatim report of his lecture, and at the same time give those of our compatriots who were prevented from attending an opportunity of benefiting by this unbiased survey of present-day European history.

Much to our regret, His Excellency the Swiss Minister was prevented by an official function from taking the Chair at the meeting.

Mr. Gooch said:—

Ladies and Gentlemen,—It is always a pleasure to me to come and speak in this hall to the members of the Swiss Institute. I am going to give you a lecture on the same subject to-night as I gave here a year ago, but the lecture will be completely different. The map of Europe is fluid; the lines are drawn on the maps, but they are not drawn yet in the hearts of men. The situation, taken as a whole, is even more fluid to-day than it was when I spoke here a year ago. The last twelve months have been rich in events, and the events which are taking place before our eyes at the present time are of such a tremendous character that the wisest and the most far-seeing among us are unable to prophesy what their final results will be.

I have not time to cover the whole map of Europe; I propose dealing only with the more important parts of the problem, and I shall begin to-night, as I began a year ago, with the East End of Europe, and I will take Russia first.

The position of the Bolshevik Government is stronger to-day than it was a year ago. No one now seriously attempts to attack the Bolsheviks, and that gives them a great increase of strength. The economic situation in Russia on the whole is a little better than it was a year ago. From the point of view of the Great Powers of Europe, the Bolshevik Government has also made progress. They have not yet been recognized either by France or England, but recognition has come nearer. I dare say you have noticed that the French papers, during the last month or two, show an increasing willingness and, in certain cases, an increased desire for France to recognize the Bolshevik Government, and many people think that, although the French people and the French Government have hated Bolshevism even more than the English Government have done, the French will recognize Moscow before we do. I repeat, therefore, that recognition (which is symbolised, as you all know, by the exchange of ambassadors) that full recognition of the Russian Government seems to me nearer than it was a year ago, and I think that France will very likely recognize it before we do, but I have very little doubt that we shall recognize it before very long. The demand for the recognition of the Russian Government comes in our own country from what we may call the Right and from the Left; it comes from the Left as part of the programme of the Labour Party, and from most Liberals on the ground that the recognition of the Russian Government would merely be the recognition of an accomplished fact and that it would help towards the general pacification of Europe and is the only way of building up commercial and financial relations between our country and Russia. And the pressure also comes from those who, in past times, have invested capital in Russia—those associated with Mr. Urquhart and those who tried to get the Urquhart Agreement signed. The Urquhart Agreement, as I need hardly remind you, was framed last year; there is no agreement between England and Russia as regards the terms on which English and foreign capitalists should work in Russia, and Moscow had no objection to the terms, regarded as economic terms, but the Moscow Government decided they would not accept the Urquhart Agreement unless and until England gave diplomatic recognition to the Bolshevik Government; therefore Mr. Urquhart and his friends are pressing the Government in London to recognize the Moscow Government.

I want to say only one word about Poland. Poland is developing her internal resources, which are very great; she is more nearly able to feed her population than almost any large countries in Europe, except France. Her wealth in trees and timber is enormous. From the point of view of economic resources, the prospects for Poland are good. On the other hand, her political life is paralysed, or largely paralysed, by the quarrels of her numerous political parties. When they had a general election last year, I am told that no less than 19 separate parties went to the electors, and it is obvious that if there are 19 different parties, no one party can have a majority. Therefore political life in Poland is paralysed and cursed by the extraordinary difficulties which the Poles find in political and parliamentary co-operation. There is no stability in the present Government or any of its predecessors, and from that point of view the prestige of Poland as a new State stands very low. Her finances are also in a bad way. You all know from the example of France that you can have a very widely diffused prosperity among the mass of the people, and yet have something like bankruptcy, or prospective bankruptcy, of the national exchequer. Now, it is very much the same in Poland. The general level of prosperity amongst the citizens of the Polish State has decidedly risen since a year ago, but the condition of the Polish Treasury is worse than it was a year ago, and is lower, and the difficulties of carrying on foreign trade with the bad exchange get greater instead of less. Poland has still got external difficulties, as well as internal difficulties. There are two questions still unsettled which interest Poland very much. The first is the question of Eastern Galicia, of which Cracow is the capital, and which was given to the new Polish State when it was formed. Galicia, in the old days before the war, belonged, as you know, to Austria. It is a long, narrow strip of land, running north of the Carpathians from Cracow at one end to Lemberg at the other. The western half is almost wholly Polish and was rightly given to Poland when Poland came into existence as a nation. The eastern, or Lemberg end, on the other hand, is mainly inhabited by Ruthenes, the same as what is now known as the Ukraine State or Republic, which forms part of Russia. The Allies, at Paris in 1919, left over the ultimate division of Eastern Galicia to be decided at a later period, because it was not Polish, but Ruthene. About

a year after the signing of the Treaties, the Poles, getting impatient, annexed Eastern Galicia and have remained in military occupation of it ever since, and even to-day, four years after the end of the war, the victorious Allies have not yet decided the future destiny of Eastern Galicia, which, I repeat, was occupied by Poland, but was never given to them by international law and right.

So much for Eastern Galicia, where, I regret to say, the relations between the Ruthenes and Poles are extremely bad, and, far from Eastern Galicia being a source of strength to Poland, it is a source of weakness.

Now let us come to the north of Poland, and we come then to the problem of Lithuania. Lithuania, as you know, was an independent kingdom, and in the 14th century Lithuania and Poland became united by a royal marriage, the heiress of Poland marrying the Prince of Lithuania, and they remained in what we may call personal union for four centuries, until their partition at the end of the 18th century, when Polish Lithuania and the larger part of Poland were swallowed up by Katherine the Great. Since then they formed part of Russia. After the war it was quite clear that Poland was to be an independent State, but it was not at all clear what was to happen to Lithuania. The Lithuanians wanted to be an independent State, as they had been in the Middle Ages. We were not at all sure that the Russian Government would recognize Lithuania as an independent State, because it had been for more than 100 years part of Russia and it was a matter of great doubt what did the Poles want? They wanted Lithuania to be if not an organic part of Poland, at all events to re-enter the old association with Poland before they had both been swallowed up by Russia. Now, that provided a most difficult problem, both for the Poles and the Lithuanians, and the most difficult point between the two countries was the question of Vilna. This, as you know, was the old historic capital of Lithuania in the days when she was independent, also in the long centuries when she and Poland were joined together on equal terms. The city of Vilna was claimed by the Polish on the ground—which is correct—that the greater part of the city is Polish and not Lithuanian, that the University of Vilna has always been a Polish University, that some of Poland's most celebrated sons, Kocziusko, for one, the great hero of the 18th century, and others came from the Vilna district, and the Poles naturally expressed their opinion that Vilna ought to belong to Poland. The Polish General, Piskudski, one day marched into Vilna with 20,000 troops at his heels, took the city and has remained there ever since. The Lithuanians were quite unable to keep him out or turn him out. The Polish raid on Vilna, and the fact that we have never been able to get the Poles out of Vilna or to obtain a fair settlement of the problem, has been one of the worst things that have happened. The ingenious plan, put forward by a committee of the League of Nations, by which Lithuania and Poland should form a loose association, as they did before, in which case Vilna would become, so to speak, the property of both, has never been accepted by the Poles or Lithuanians, and to this day the question of Vilna remains unsettled. If you were to meet a Lithuanian, I feel sure it would not be long before he expressed his anger and disgust that the Poles have seized his old historic capital and refuse to leave it. At any rate, the treatment of Lithuania by Poland has made it clear that there is no going to be any association between the two countries, and Lithuania is determined to be an independent State, which she is at the present moment. She would very much like the Vilna district, but has not got it, and I do not think she will get it.

I now come to Turkey. The most sensational change in Europe, since I spoke here a year ago, is the recovery of Turkey—their great victory over Greece in Asia Minor, the full recovery of Constantinople, the practical recovery of power over the Straits, the recovery of Eastern or further Thrace, and many other things which have been discussed at Lausanne and are now being discussed at the Turkish capital of Angora. The Turkish problem is quite enough for a lecture by itself, but I can only say a few words about it. It is a most extraordinary thing that Turkey, which was beaten and surrendered at the end of the Great War and whose empire seemed to have come to an end for ever, is now standing on her legs again. She is not the large empire she was before the war, but larger than she was at the end of the war, and I think myself that she is going to be larger still. At any rate, she has not only recovered the Smyrna Zone, but has also recovered Eastern Thrace and Constantinople. Now, whether the Turks sign the Treaty of Lausanne—as Lord Curzon thinks they will—or not, does not seem to make much practical difference to the question that they have come back to Europe. The only reason why the Turks ever became one of the Powers of Europe was owing to the disunion of Christendom, and the main reason why they have recovered from their beating in the Great War has been the disunion in Europe, and, above all, that since the fall of Venizelos, two years ago, France suddenly turned round and became philo-Turk. About 18 months ago Mr. Franklin Bouillon was sent on a secret embassy to Angora, without the French telling us a word here in London, and though we were in close and continual communication, not only through the Ambassadors in London and Paris, but through continual visits between the two Prime Ministers, a secret treaty between France and Angora was concluded behind our backs; that gave Mustafa his start. He knew then that France and England were divided. Partly owing to that and partly to the fact that the Greek army had got tired of fighting, Mustafa, being well equipped with guns and ammunition, some given by Russia, some sold by Russia, some sold to them by France and by Italy, pushed the Greeks out of Asia Minor and Smyrna without much difficulty.

Now, the Turks have not only recovered the Smyrna Zone and Eastern Thrace, but have done some things inside their own country. Turkey is now a republic; I often find that people do not realise this. This country of the Sultans is now the youngest republic in the world. The house of Othman, which has been synonymous with the history of Turkey for 600 years, has been disposed of, and the last Sultan, who escaped with our help, has fled for his life on to a British ship and is now an exile from his own country. There is no longer a Sultan of Turkey, and therefore they have had to arrange that there shall be a Caliph, specially elected whenever a vacancy occurs; so that is the internal result of the Turkish victory. So much for this immensely important revolution which we call the Turkish revival.

Now I come to the South of Europe, and in talking of Turkey one must think of Greece. Greece has, as we know, had a most eventful, romantic and victorious career from the year 1912, when she entered

the Balkan wars, until last year. At the end of the Great War Venizelos came to Paris for the Peace Conference and said: "We have done our best for you, we have helped to win the war, the common victory, and I am now going to tell you what I want. I want the Smyrna Zone"—we gave it him. "I want Thrace"—we gave him Thrace. "I want Constantinople"—and we did not give him that. We gave him the Smyrna Zone and Thrace. Now, Venizelos is a very brilliant man; some of his admirers call him the greatest of living statesmen. I do not think he is. If he had been a great statesman, he would not have asked for, or accepted, even as a gift, any land in Asia Minor. It is the historic home of the Turk. I do not like the Turk, but, at the same time, he has a greater right there than the Greek. It was no good giving Greece the city of Smyrna unless you gave her the hinterland, and the Smyrna Zone has a very big hinterland, and in the Smyrna Zone there was an enormous majority of Turks. You could not expect Greece to accept the presence of Turks in the Smyrna Zone, and Venizelos made a terrible blunder in asking for and proceeding to secure the Smyrna Zone. Venizelos, I am afraid, proved himself to be one of those who do not know how or where to limit their ambitions. So much then for Greece. She now has nearly one million refugees on her hands; she has had ten years of incessant fighting; her finances, as you may imagine, are in a terrible condition. She has been in the hands of revolutionaries. The execution of five or six politicians has, at any rate in my opinion, damaged and blackened her fame in the eyes of the civilised world. The men who were executed were not responsible for the army going into Asia Minor. The man who initiated that policy was Venizelos when he was at the height of his power, although I may add that he had the whole nation behind him in doing so.

Leaving Greece in her defeat and misery, I must pass rapidly on into Central Europe. There is little to say about Hungary, except to repeat what I said a year ago, that her internal resources are good, and she is able to feed herself for the most part. Hungary is very much in the position she was in a year ago. Hungary looks to the future and to the time when she will be able to get at any rate part of the territory that she has lost, back again. The Hungarians are a strong, virile and determined race, and I think it most unlikely that, if we could come to life again in fifty years' time, we should find Hungary the tiny nation she is to-day.

I pass on to Austria. There has been a great change for the better in the position of Austria since I spoke here last year. You all know that at the League of Nations Assembly last September the League at last, after waiting for years, took pity on the plight and on the sufferings of the little Austrian Republic. They did in 1922 what they should have done in 1920, or even in 1919; they came, or at any rate promised to come, to the rescue of Austria with a large loan, a year ago, that her internal resources are good, and she is able to feed herself for the most part. Hungary is very much in the position she was in a year ago. Hungary looks to the future and to the time when she will be able to get at any rate part of the territory that she has lost, back again. The Hungarians are a strong, virile and determined race, and I think it most unlikely that, if we could come to life again in fifty years' time, we should find Hungary the tiny nation she is to-day.

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I come naturally from Austria to Czecho-Slovakia. I said last year in this room that, if I were an insurance office, I would give better terms to Czecho-Slovakia than to any other of the new States—cheaper terms than to Poland, Jugoslavia or Roumania. I say so still. They have their difficulties, and one is the fact that they have got such a lot of people in their State who are neither Czechs nor Slovaks. There are about three million Germans, four million Hungarians, half a million Ruthenes from the southern side of the Carpathians, and there are also over two million Slovaks who, although closely connected by blood and language with the Czechs, are very different people. They are agricultural, clerical, conservative in their sympathies, whereas the Czechs, who really dominate the new State, are industrial, radical and largely Socialist. I think the great danger with Slovakia is that it is so big and contains so many foreign and unadjustable elements within its boundaries.

Italy, as you know, has passed through a most interesting experience—the rise of Fascismo and the seizing of power by Mussolini. We know very well that the whole face and aspect of Italian politics has been changed suddenly. Italy, before Mussolini, was not governed; now it is over-governed. Before Mussolini some thought there was so much liberty that the authority of the State had almost ceased to exist, and that is what the Fascisti thought; they thought that the State had abdicated its authority, and that is why they came along and determined to exercise their authority, defend the army, property and the bourgeoisie against what they considered, rightly or wrongly, to

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be danger from the left wing of the working classes. We are all watching Mussolini with the greatest possible interest; some are hopeful; some think the new movement is open to be a failure, since it depends on the life of a single man; others feel that it is impossible to forecast what is going to happen and that, if they cannot applaud what Mussolini has done, i.e., the seizing of the power of the State, think that at any rate it would be wrong to add to their many difficulties. As regards foreign affairs, Mussolini talked very wildly before he became dictator. He talked of driving the English out of Malta, which would probably have proved a more difficult task than he imagined, and took an extremely nationalist point of view about Fiume. Since he has become dictator, however, he has spoken and acted in a very much more statesmanlike manner. There is no doubt he is an extremely remarkable man, one of the most remarkable of our time. Close observers of Italian politics believe that his testing time will come later, when he increases taxation, when he dismisses tens of thousands of employees on the railways, etc., as he is bound to do if he is to get Italian finances straight, and when the old politicians, whom he is keeping out of power, feel that they have been out in the cold long enough and begin to combine to overthrow him, and when the pulse of Italy feels that, if it is to live, it must be free, and it cannot be free to-day under the rule of a dictatorship. I repeat it is one of the most interesting experiments going on in Europe, and I, for one, have no idea how it is going to turn out. The Government had undoubtedly governed too little, and now the pendulum has swung to the other extreme, and a strong man, with the youth of Italy behind him, has seized the rudder from the old politicians.

Now I end with the most difficult subject in European politics—the relations of England, France and Germany, and here the changes have been dramatic. A year ago we were all saying that the Entente between England and France, which has been the key of European politics during the war and after the war, was in difficulties; well, now we go further and say that it is at an end. The Anglo-French Entente has lasted 20 years; it began with the visit of King Edward to Paris in 1903 and the return visit of President Loubet to London the same summer, followed by the negotiations between Lansdowne, Cambon and Delcassé, all through the autumn and winter of 1903-4, and here we are in 1923, exactly twenty years later, witnessing the breaking-up of the Entente. When I say so positively that the Entente has come to an end, I am not forgetting that there are certain people in this country and a similar number in France who say that it still exists. I do not think it any good saying that a thing exists when the union of hearts, of which it is merely the outward expression, has ceased. If you have read the debates in Parliament and the English press, with few exceptions, and scanned the Paris papers and the French press, I think you will agree with me that the Entente, as a factor, has come to an end. We differed with France, as you know, from the very moment that the great war began and almost every issue of importance. During the making of the peace we differed violently with France about cutting off the Rhineland from Germany, about wanting to annex the Saargebiet; we differed violently with them about Mustapha Kemal; we differed about Austria. We were practically willing to allow Austria to join Germany, if she wanted to, and she did, and France refused, and, above all, we differed about Germany—not only about the actual matter of obtaining the reparations, but also in our attitude towards the recovery of the German people. We thought our terrible unemployment here, worse than any in the living memory of man, depended on the recovery of Europe, which is impossible without the recovery of Germany, the centre of Europe geographically and industrially. Therefore, apart from other motives which might have occurred to some of us, such as common humanity and the solidarity of Europe, British opinion has come to desire the industrial and economic recovery of Germany. France, on the other hand, does not desire the recovery of her rival. She feels, as you know, that Germany's economic recovery will lead to her political recovery. It is practically true that she wants reparations from Germany and also wants to keep Germany weak; the only way to do this is to keep her poor, and if you keep her poor you will never get a large sum out of her. France is almost entirely self-supporting. From the economic point of view, France is insular and England is Continental; we suffer if Europe suffers; France suffers very little more if Europe suffers greatly. Therefore I repeat that, as the years go by, the different psychology between England and France becomes more and more clear, and the final breach took place this January, when Mr. Bonar Law and his experts went over to Paris and we put forward our scheme for getting reparations out of Germany after the lapse of a moratorium, a long moratorium, during which time there was to be a committee of the Allies, sitting in Berlin, with the German Finance Minister as chairman, but without the power of overriding the committee, supervising German finances. The French rejected this scheme without considering it and carried out the policy which, as you all know, a large part of their press had favoured for a long time; that is all common property. In this room, as I am speaking on the European situation, the main interest is the future grouping of the Powers of Europe. It is beyond all doubt the turning point in European history. I repeat that the Anglo-French Entente, which has dominated Europe since the victory of the Allies, is over. England wants the revival of the industrial and economic life of Germany, France does not. England wants the frontiers of Germany, as defined in the Treaty of Versailles, to remain. France desires to tear up the territory clauses, or some of them, of the Treaty of Versailles and desires to do in 1923 what they tried hard to do in 1919 and were prevented from doing by England and America in combination, i.e., to cut off the German Rhineland from the German Reich. I repeat what Mr. Garvin said last summer—the Entente is dead. When he said it, very few people agreed with him, and although Mr. Bonar Law does not say it, he thinks it. Some of us are glad that the opportunity of shaping our own policy (speaking as an Englishman) has come back to us. We are in a new world. The policy we have followed for 20 years is at an end, and what are we going to put in its place?

Some people say we are going back to the policy which we followed before 1903, the policy of what Lord Goschen called "splendid isolation." They say there are only two policies for England, one is the policy of isolation, and the other the policy of European commitments. I believe there is a third. I am personally opposed to European entanglements or commitments for our country, but I am clearly opposed also to a policy of splendid isolation. We are more intimately connected with the young life of Europe to-day than we were in the nineteenth century, and what is much more important, we are now members of the League of Nations, and, as such, have responsibilities appertaining to a great Empire: we have a responsibility to Europe as a whole which we must not neglect, and therefore I say, now that the Entente is dead, instead of going back to the policy of splendid isolation and standing aloof from the life of Europe, we must push forward. We must keep ourselves free from one-sided commitments to any one Continental Power or group of Powers. On the other hand, we must realise that for ever and ever we have become part of the life of Europe as a whole, and perhaps as the most important members of the League of Nations, important not alone as to wealth, but also by our convictions, bound to take our share in the reconstruction and pacification of Europe.

Gymnastic Society "Schweizerbund."

Seldom, or, at any rate, not for many years, has the Gymnastic Society "Schweizerbund" shown itself to better advantage than it did last Saturday, March 10th, in a Gymnastic Display at 74, Charlotte Street. Seldom, also, have they faced an audience who showed more appreciation. I heartily congratulate their leader, Mr. W. Ehrler, and the Organising Committee on their success. The gymnastic features of the display showed that there is talent and good material, which, if made use of in the proper way, should increase individual capability considerably, and if the members of the Club will now only keep together and show the same enthusiasm as their leader, we may expect to see last Saturday's performance eclipsed before long.

The voluntary exercises on the horizontal and the parallel bars were executed in fine style, and although Bader, Nussle, Bertschinger and others showed us some of the advanced work, I personally consider that especially the beginners (and there are many) did much better than could reasonably have been expected of them, and it is just the beginner who often becomes the backbone of a society later on. Therefore cultivate young talent and turn it into champions in time. To comment on each exercise would take too long.

An item very much appreciated was the wrestling (Swiss style) exhibition, thoroughly well displayed by R. Schmied and E. Schmied. It seemed most easy to copy them after their very excellent show, although some of us should prefer to be on top instead of underneath, when the fall measures some three or four feet.

The pyramids, both on the parallel bars and others, made me envy the nerve possessed by some fellows. All my criticism can be put into one word: "Bravo!"

In order to vary the programme, the organisers did well to secure the services of Misses Fieldhouse, Rushworth and Hutchinson, who delighted the audience with songs and sketches, which caused roars of laughter. They were in two instances assisted by the trio, consisting of Messrs. Nussle, Brunner and Weber; these latter also acted a scene, entitled "Cinema Sketch," that caused great mirth.

The feature of the evening, however, was undoubtedly the "Tableaux Vivants," which represented historic events which took place in Switzerland hundreds of years ago. The actors for this item excelled themselves, and with the aid of a small searchlight the groups appeared as if they were white marble. I cannot praise this performance too much, knowing full well how many drops of perspiration it must have cost the leader to arrange these tableaux. Every one who has seen it will agree with me, and those who did not see it missed something attractive.

The success of the evening was further augmented by the presence of many old friends and sympathisers, who, although they enjoyed themselves extremely well, passed their opinion on many little things which could have been improved upon and which luckily, however, were only visible to such expert eyes as theirs. Among the guests we found Mr. R. Oberholzer, who helped to found the Gymnastic Society 34 years ago; Mr. Rabe, a well-known captain and leader of former days; Messrs. Wetter, Hehl, De Brunner, Sermier, Delalay, Boehringer, Isler and Manzoni, who gave the evening an appearance of importance, while their presence encouraged the younger generation to their supreme efforts. Many little speeches during the intervals were made, short but sweet, and therefore appreciated.

A word may also be said for Mr. Lampert, who devised and supervised the light effects for the pyramids and tableaux, in addition to personally taking part in the tableaux. CHARLES STUDER.

The above report has been kindly sent to us by Mr. Charles Studer, who, needless to say, took a very prominent part in the display, his exhibition on the horizontal bar being the gala exercise of the evening. Mr. Studer subsequently addressed the gathering, stating that if the many young Swiss in London who are fond of gymnastics would only communicate with the Secretary of this society, 74, Charlotte Street, W. 1, our Colony would be able to boast of as large and important a gymnastic society as the one in Paris. He was very delighted to say that the two gymnastic sections of the Schweizerbund and the Union Helvetia were already pulling together, and he thought he could predict an early trip to Switzerland in order to take part in a Federal Competition. However, the difficulties of such a venture were very great, and he appealed to every young Swiss to come forward with his support. He had no doubt that the two clubs concerned would be ready to give special facilities to those who were not members, but were keen to attend the gymnastic practices that were held every Wednesday and Friday.

SWISS BANK FOOTBALL CLUB.

SWISS BANK 1st XI v. LONDON JOINT CITY & MIDLAND BANK 3rd XI.
(London Banks' Football Association.)

Played on the former's ground at Preston Road on Saturday, March 10th. The visitors were aggressive right from the start, the Swiss defence being kept busy. A nice goal was soon scored by a high dropping shot from the Midland's left winger. This was followed a few minutes later by another goal, engineered by their outside right, who centered the ball nicely in position for their centre-forward to shoot through, with the custodian properly beaten. The Swiss forwards seemed never to be dangerous; their finishing up in front of goal was very weak. Two minutes after the interval the opponents increased their lead to 3-0. The heavy ground did not make the game very fast, which was, therefore, not very exciting, although carried on in a spirited manner and more evenly contested than the first half. Before the final whistle went, the Swiss succeeding in reducing the score to 3-1.

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Dimanche, 18 Mars, 11h.—M. R. Hoffmann-de Visme, 6.30.—Pfr. U. Wildbolz.
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FORTHCOMING EVENTS.

Saturday, March 17, at 6.30.—CITY SWISS CLUB: Cinderella Dance at Gatti's Restaurant.
Friday, March 23, at 8.30.—SWISS INSTITUTE: Lecture on "Abraham Lincoln" by Frank E. Broughton, Esq.
Friday, March 23, at 8 p.m.—SCHWEIZERBUND: Annual Dinner at 74, Charlotte Street, W. 1.
Thursday, March 29, at 8 p.m.—NOUVELLE SOCIÉTÉ HELVÉTIQUE: Lantern Lecture by Professor F. Zschokke on "The Swiss National Park" at King George's Hall, Caroline Street, Tottenham Court Rd.
Saturday, April 7th, at 7 p.m.—SWISS MERCANTILE SOCIETY: Banquet and Ball at Midland Hotel, St. Pancras, N. 1.
Tuesday, April 10th, at 6.45.—CITY SWISS CLUB: Annual General Meeting, preceded by a Supper, at Gatti's Restaurant.
Saturday, April 14th, at 7.30.—UNION HELVETIA: Grand Benefit Concert in Aid of London Hospitals at Wigmore Hall (tickets 3s. and 5s.).
Thursday, April 19th.—UNIONE TICINESE: Annual Banquet and Ball at Gatti's Restaurant, Strand, W.C.
Friday, May 4th, at 8 p.m.—UNION HELVETIA: Annual Dinner and Ball.