Sixty Years
of the
Queen's Reign

An Epoch of Empire Making

By

Sir Richard Temple, Bart.
G.C.S.I.

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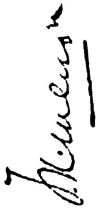

BY

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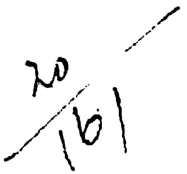

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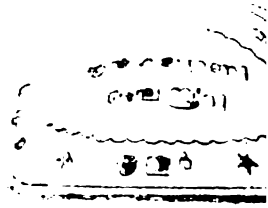

SIXTY YEARS OF THE QUEEN'S REIGN.

CHAPTER I.

ECONOMIC POSITION OF THE BRITISH NATION AND THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

I PROPOSE in this introductory chapter to present a brief summary of the reign of Queen Victoria. This auspicious reign, approaching a duration of sixty years, from 1837 to 1897, is the longest in British history. If it were compared with the reign of Elizabeth or with that of George III. in respect to tremendous eventfulness, to intellectual and moral development, to the founding of maritime supremacy

and of empire in a world-wide sense—estimates might differ. But in several respects it has grand characteristics peculiar to itself. Regarding the increase of wealth, the application of practical science, the advance of material improvement, the accumulation of capital, the growth of industry—it is unequalled. Further, it is marked by two imperial facts:—first, the British Empire has expanded; second, that expansion has become necessary for the life of the British people. In former reigns, and even in the early part of this reign, the Empire was most desirable and important. But of late it has been, and is likely to be, more and more a matter of vital necessity.

The economic position of the British Isles is now unique. A world-embracing commerce, a command of mineral resources, a manufacturing aptitude as yet unequalled, a steadiness in the national disposition—have caused the population to be extraordinarily dense. The productiveness from the mere manual power of such a population is immense; but that has been multiplied by machinery and mechanical

appliances. Consequently the people produce much more of manufactures than they can by themselves consume or use. Unless they can find foreign consumers there would not be employment enough for the teeming inhabitants. Owing to the existence of the Empire such work is happily found. But the number of persons engaged in manufacturing districts, in industrial centres in cities, is vast beyond precedent or example. Those who dwell in the town are now much more numerous than those who dwell in the country; and the proportion of the urban to the rural population is constantly rising,—it is already more than half of the total population, and will ere long be two-thirds. Moreover, the area which yields bread is decreasing in comparison with that which affords meat or other agricultural produce. The result is that the population depends on foreign supplies for more than half of its corn and flour. Besides this it receives from abroad divers other supplies for physical sustenance. Thus its importations, valued at 450 millions sterling annually, are enormous,

and unexampled in the commerce of any time or place.

These importations are, and indeed must be, paid for by several means. Britain has lent to other nations vast sums as capital which may be computed at something between two and three thousand millions sterling.* Receiving the interest on all this she can so far cancel her obligations to other nations for her importations. Owning half the shipping of the world, she becomes the principal ocean carrier, and earns a great sum for freight, which also goes to help in paying for her importations. But these and other means will not suffice for her need. Her principal resource is the exportation of a huge quantity of manufactures. The British Isles have exported, and

* The sums lent by Britain to the United States were, during the trouble of 1896, estimated at 800 to 1,100 millions sterling. She has probably lent 600 millions to India, 300 millions to the Colonies for public debt, besides some hundreds of millions for other purposes. Large sums have, notoriously, been lent to Argentina. The amount lent by her in various ways to the European nations cannot be stated, but it must be enormous.

still export, such quantities, to the value of 225 millions sterling annually (exclusive of re-exports). They could and would do so to even a greater extent if the course of their trade were unfettered to Europe, to America, to the British Colonies having responsible government. But during the present generation Europe, America and the British Colonies above mentioned, have by tariffs striven to check this exportation, or, in other words, to prevent the importation of British manufactures into their countries. These tariffs may be aimed sometimes against others besides the British; but it is in the main against Britain that they are directed. The universal apprehension in foreign nations is that, unless restrained by import duties, British goods, being better articles for the money, would find their way into every country, superseding local manufactures. Thus the industrial supremacy of Britain is expressly acknowledged by every nation that imposes tariffs against her. Almost all manufacturing nations do indeed impose such tariffs, thereby confessing that they can-

not compete with her or resist her without the aid of the tariffs. Thus the superiority of Britain is admitted by the common consent of manufacturing mankind. This may arouse just pride in the thoughts of every patriotic Briton; but it also furnishes matter for the gravest reflection.

The upshot is that markets for British manufactures must be found in the rest of the world—that is, in non-tariff countries, and these are called neutral markets. Despite all tariffs the British manufactures and products penetrate into every country where import duties are levied against them. The value of such exports to foreign tariff countries may be computed at 44 millions sterling annually, and 31 millions to British colonies having responsible government and tariffs—in all, 75 millions. The total amount is not less than this, it may be slightly more. The fact is honourable to British industry as evincing that superiority of work at the price which no hostile tariffs can wholly baffle. But this amount of 75 millions will not nearly suffice. If deducted from the

225 millions it would leave 150 millions. Now quantities of at least 150 millions of value annually must be sent to the rest of the world, and the non-tariff countries and the neutral markets must be induced to take these quantities. It would indeed be better for us if even a larger quantity could be exported. Hence the need for Britain always to be searching for neutral markets where hostile tariffs are not or cannot be imposed.

Other nations are competing with Britain in these neutral markets; but inasmuch as the competition is open for her, and as her importation is unshackled, she holds the field as yet in them. Indeed, under present circumstances they are essential to her, and she could hardly exist without them.

Now these neutral markets are and can be preserved to Britain only in countries where she has sway of some sort, or where she can prevent tariffs being imposed. Other industrial nations may enter these countries together with her if they can, and on equal terms with her. So long as the terms remain equal she has

nothing to fear as yet. By their tariffs the other industrial nations burden and hinder themselves in any race they may try to run with Britain in neutral markets. They have by such tariffs rendered everything artificially dear for themselves at home. Whereas she, by her unrestricted trade, has kept everything cheap for herself. For this reason alone she can beat them in the competition among the neutral markets. Moreover, the system which leaves her manufacturers unprotected sustains their energy, their enterprise, their progressive zeal, at the highest level—for they know that they have naught but themselves to depend on. Whereas nations which are protected by tariffs cannot be expected to evince these qualities in an equal degree, because they naturally depend somewhat on these tariffs. Thus it comes about that Britain can send goods to neutral markets not only cheaper but better in comparison with other nations.

But the situation will be spoiled for Britain if she lost her sway or her influence over these markets, or her power of preventing hostile

tariffs being imposed therein. Still worse would it be if her rivals were to acquire authority there. They would impose, or procure the imposition of tariffs against her, and so her trade would be grievously reduced. This proposition may be broadly and positively stated. From every quarter of the world instances may be adduced to show how poor the trade of Britain is with regions, or provinces, or islands, which are not under her sway or influence, and how abundant it is with those that are. Thus it is proved by experience that trade not only follows the flag, but prospers under its shadow and under this alone.

Such is the outline of the argument for the maintenance, the consolidation, and, so far as that can be justly arranged, the extension of the British Empire—including not only the territories which are actually governed, but also those which are within the sphere of influence. The argument, too, is not one that relates to glory abroad or to territorial ambition beyond the seas—but is one that concerns the sustenance of an industrial population in Britain

itself. It affects not so much the particular classes who may be the instruments of the national will and policy—but rather it applies to vital interests of the masses of the nation. In other words, the economic position of the British Isles depends upon their Empire beyond the seas. The case is that of the Empire abroad and the working man at home.

This necessity of Empire has been increasingly felt throughout the present reign. The pressure has been heavier and heavier in each succeeding decade of the six decades wherein we are nearing the end. Happily the Empire, which had for the most part—though not entirely—been founded during previous reigns, has, during this reign, been developed in all quarters. It has in some regions been so improved as to greatly augment the consuming power of present customers. In others it has been so extended as to afford openings with long vistas for future trade. In one quarter it has been founded on such a scale as to offer almost limitless opportunities for commercial enterprise.

In the review of the sixty years, then, the first object will be to sketch the progress—whether in regard to development, or expansion, or foundation—of the British Empire in the several quarters of the globe. The review will then conclude with a summary of the progress, material and moral, of the British Isles themselves.

CHAPTER II.

THE PROGRESS OF OUR INDIAN EMPIRE.

THE Empire of India, though founded and virtually established during previous reigns, has been extended and largely developed during the present one. Of all the Dependencies India is the one which most largely concerns the interests of the British Isles. When she was called the brightest jewel in the British crown the words were probably used in a poetic or romantic sense. The phrase has nowadays, however, a very material significance. The old picturesqueness indeed remains, with the snowy peaks, the arid sun-baked plains, the rivers spreading with inundations, the forests and morasses, the works of modern engineering in juxtaposition with the remnants of hoary antiquity, the vestiges of extinct dynasties and mystic

creeds, the surging crowds of temple-worshippers and railway passengers, the gay parti-coloured costumes—the panorama of the gorgeous East. But to all this is superadded the economic interests relating to British commerce.

The exports of British goods to India are valued at a sum of thirty millions sterling annually—an amount greater than that of such exports to any other country. British manufacturers are as yet almost in sole possession of this market, which is the greatest they now have, and, next after China, the greatest they could possibly have. Among the exports cotton goods hold the first place, but iron and other metals, plant and machinery, are considerable, amounting to one-fourth of our total exports of these things. As the climate of the country is for the most part hot, it is hardly surprising that our woollen exports are as yet inconsiderable—though in reality there is great room for increase in this respect.

Thus India is the best customer that Britain has in the world. She affords also a large field

for the employment of British capital. Her national debt, including the railways, guaranteed by the State, amounts to nearly three hundred millions sterling. Of this sum about one-tenth has been subscribed by the natives of India, while all the rest has been found by the London money market. The amount of private outlay by British capitalists in India—on manifold enterprises, relating to tea, coffee, jute, mines, and many miscellaneous undertakings—cannot be precisely stated. But it has generally been reckoned at 250 millions sterling; and it is constantly growing. Thus it may, without exaggeration, be said that about 600 millions of British money are profitably laid out in India. The interest annually of this sum goes mostly to Britain, and forms part of the income available for expenditure therein.

The shipping engaged in the ocean-borne trade of India is computed at three millions and a half tons, equal to more than one-third of the total British shipping in the world. Of the three millions and a half of tons,

about fifteen-sixteenths are under the British flag.

The external ocean-borne trade at the beginning of the reign was valued at 21 millions sterling annually. At the present time it is stated at 200 millions (Rs. X.), representing a tenfold increase. The total is made up by 117 millions of exports and 83 millions of imports. Of the imports no less than 51 millions represent produce manufactured in Britain.

The overland route by Suez has been opened during the reign, first for mails and passengers, then for ship traffic on the completion of the canal. In 1837 the trade with the East Indies was borne entirely by sailing vessels round the Cape of Good Hope. Nowadays the best part is carried by steamers through the Red Sea. All this amounts to a revolution in the sea transit for the commerce of the East.

About 17 millions' (Rs. X.) worth of grain, rice, and wheat are sent annually from India to Britain. The sending of wheat is an event of

recent years. It is well known to have contributed to the reduction of prices in Britain, and so India may have the credit of helping to cheapen bread for the British people. Some 14 millions' (Rs. X.) worth of oil seeds, which may be partly available for sustenance, are sent to Britain. The sending away of great quantities of food grain shows that there is a surplus of such grain in the country, although the population is teeming.

All this indicates a vast augmentation of the industry and resources of the natives. For, as will be presently seen, while the population has only doubled, perhaps not quite doubled, during the reign, the trade has multiplied just tenfold.

Native industries, under European management, with European capital and machinery, have sprung up, chiefly in fibres, cotton, and jute. Fear has naturally been felt lest these industries, notably those of cotton—with their European sinews of production, but with their native labour and material,—should compete injuriously with the manufactures of Britain.

Such, however, has happily not proved to be the case; for these industries hardly touch the classes of goods which Britain produces.

The introduction of railways into India is one of the chief events belonging to the reign. The work was begun in 1852, and has been prosecuted at the average rate of 500 miles a year—not rapidly, nor indeed with so much forwardness as might have been desired, but yet steadily. The system can now show 20,000 miles open for traffic—a mileage which, though considerable, is short relatively to the size of the Continent. The crowds and multitudes of natives who fill the passenger carriages prove how popular this mode of transit is with them. The impulse to the internal commerce of the country has been great, and even the external trade has been sensibly affected. For example, the profitable exportation of wheat would have been impossible without the railways. Still more remarkable has been the accession hereby accruing to the military power of the Government. Further, the influence and employment of Europeans in the country

have been promoted hereby. All these objects have been followed up still further by the construction of 45,000 miles of electric telegraph lines.

The considerations thus far adduced relate to British interests in particular, and prove the value of India to Britain. Before this part of the subject is quitted it is well to advert to the population. For the beginning of the reign the population, owing to the absence of a census, cannot be exactly stated, but according to the best computation it could not have exceeded 180 millions, and was probably less. By the census of 1890 it had reached the astonishing total of 287 millions, showing an increase of more than 100 millions during the reign. Of the 287 millions 66 millions belong to native feudatory states; the remainder are British subjects. By this progressive ratio the total must now, in the first half of 1897, be well over 290 millions. To account partially for this increase some 30 millions have come in by conquest. If, after allowing for all this, the increase in sixty years shall excite

surprise, then it may be noted that the census of 1890 compared with that of 1880—a decade without famine—showed an increase of over 30 millions due to natural causes; while the census of 1880 compared with that of 1870—a decade marked by famine—showed an increase of 13 millions. Here, then, is an enormous population, second only to that of China among all the countries of the world. Every individual in it is a possible consumer of British goods. It already affords a number of our best neutral markets, and this number may be continually increased.

Of the 287 millions, again, the vast majority consists of Hindus; indeed the whole Hindu race is herein comprised. But 7 millions are Buddhists, and 57 millions are Moslems. Thus the British Queen has far more Moslem subjects than any of the Moslem Powers in the world. There has sometimes been an apprehension lest the population should outgrow the power of the land to supply food for so many. This opinion is at present disproved by the fact that vast quantities of food

grain are exported yearly. Even if the population be 300 millions, still its average density per square mile, on an area of a million and a half square miles, would be only 200. There is much cultivable land still uncultivated. The existing cultivation may be rendered much more productive than it is. Indians have emigrated, and may yet further emigrate, to new homes in the tropical or sub-tropical portions of the British Empire in other continents.

Notice must now be directed to the political circumstances of the Indian Empire during the reign, and to its administration for the defence, the protection, and the benefit of the natives.

The British governance of India is the chief marvel of the reign, indeed of the latter part of the nineteenth century. It is unexampled in history for several reasons. India, as already explained, is the second most populous country in the world. It is separated from the British Isles by one continent, two seas and one ocean, covering several thousand miles of distance. Yet, despite all drawbacks and shortcomings, it is governed with at least a material success

and with ever-growing prosperity. Though it is under alien rule its people of many nationalities show contentment and external acquiescence. The social advancement produces a moral effect on the native mind. The British people are thereby inspired with a sense of imperial responsibility. The highest proof is afforded of the British capacity for ruling on a large scale with honour and with efficiency. Of all the Dependencies India is the one which best evinces the power of Britain to exert warlike force at an immense distance from her shores—an achievement unequalled in the military histories of the other Great Powers.

India was proclaimed an Empire in 1877. But it had been spoken and written of as such for some generations before that year. From Adam's Strait, near Ceylon, right up to the north-western extremity of the Himalaya—full thirty degrees of latitude—it had been fought for and held with a heroism evinced in many quarters and on many occasions. Though the victories of peace and the triumphs of pacification have been numerous, still such a dominion as

this could hardly be won and kept without much of warlike operations. During the reign, within Indian limits, victories have been won in nine pitched battles. Again, two such battles were fought without decisive result; five regular sieges were carried through with success; four defences in beleaguered portions were heroically sustained; four campaigns were fought in mountainous regions; besides the two Afghan wars, a war was waged against Persia in 1856-57 for the sake of Afghan and Indian interests; at least thirty expeditions were undertaken against the tribes on the North-West Frontier of India itself. To all this must be added the brilliant work recently done in Chitral. On the other hand, four disasters were suffered in the field. In the same category must be placed the events of the Mutinies in 1857; that terrific outburst, that life and death struggle, that ultimate victory, make up a series of events the most momentous that have occurred in the reign. The promptitude of the government in England for relieving the disaster was as honour-

able as the emergency was tremendous. More than forty thousand men were despatched, mostly in sailing vessels, for several thousand miles round the Cape of Good Hope within a few weeks from the receipt of the news. This mighty expedition constituted a military and maritime effort rarely to be paralleled.

The territorial extensions during the reign comprise the basins of the Indus—the Punjab and Sind—also the basin of the Irawaddy—Pegu and Ava—whereby two Asiatic rivers of the first rank became British waters. These, together with some lesser additions, include about half a million of square miles with about thirty millions of population. In the beginning of the reign the dominion, including British territories and feudatory States, had about a million of square miles. It now has a million and a half.

The advance of Britain during the reign, from the heart of India to Afghanistan and Beluchistan on the west, and by Burma towards Siam on the east, have brought her in contact with the extreme outposts of Russia

on the one side and of France on the other. This contact may be fraught with political eventualities hard to be foreseen.

The administrative and executive changes during the reign—nearly all of them being based on statutes passed by the British Parliament—have touched the whole of the machinery of the State, civil and military.

The Honourable East India Company—the greatest private Corporation known to history—was abolished. Its national day closed after having had within two centuries an auspicious morning, a troublous forenoon, a glorious afternoon, a stormy evening, and a blood-red sunset. Its imperial work and obligations were taken over by the Crown; its Governor-General became the Viceroy of the Queen. This was followed some years later by the auspicious visit of the Heir Apparent, the Prince of Wales, to the country.

The events of the Mutinies, as already mentioned, caused a fundamental alteration to be made in the Indian armies. In round numbers the European forces were doubled, while the

native forces were halved. The East India Company's forces, European and native, were all amalgamated with those of the Crown. Formerly there were three armies for the three Presidencies, Bengal, Madras, and Bombay respectively, each with a separate Commander-in-Chief; these have recently been joined into one army under one command, and then divided into several army corps.

The Indian navy, which for several generations had been the Police of the Indian seas, and had carried the flag to many shores, was abolished, and its duties were transferred to the British navy.

Legislation within India has been placed on a new basis. Instead of the East India Company's Regulations, the laws are now passed by Legislative Councils—nominated but not elected—one for each Presidency, and one for all India; instead of the old Supreme Court for European and a Sudder Court for Native judicial affairs in each Presidency, there is now one High Court constituted for the disposal of all causes, European and native.

The entrance to the European Civil Service, which conducted the administration of the Empire, used to be by nomination; this was altered, and admission had to be won by open competition in England.

It were but poor satisfaction if all these events and results for the external puissance and the internal solidity of the Empire had been brought about without good being done simultaneously to the natives of the soil. But, in fact, no interest has more signally benefited than that of the natives at large.

Before the reign the natives had been preserved from rapine and revolution, from fire and sword; and had lived under the Pax Britannica. They had seen their rights founded in the land as well as in personal property. They had felt their equality with Europeans, and even with the British Government itself, before the law in the Courts of Justice. They had been obliged to abandon several barbarous rites or customs, and had acquiesced in the abandonment.

But during the reign their property in the

land, with all rights thereto pertaining, were definitely settled. These land settlements were based on surveys, probably the largest ever undertaken by any Government, extending from the highest mountain peaks to the forests and plains, and on to the boundaries of every field. The cultivation was to a considerable extent protected by a gigantic system of irrigation canals, with an outlay of 25 millions sterling, and with engineering works the greatest of their kind ever seen in any time or place. Within this generation the forests, which afford the sources of all water supply and affect the climate of the country, have been preserved. The Forest Conservancy Department of India is now one of the largest in the world.

In 1874 the duty of directing the whole resources of the State to the saving of life from famine after drought was accepted by the Government. It has been discharged in several arduous conjunctures without any stint of labour or of expense; such a task has rarely been undertaken in an equal degree by the Government of any other country.

The employment of the natives, with improved emoluments and pensions, in the higher branches, judicial and executive, has been greatly advanced.

A system of Public Instruction and National Education—sometimes by the State direct, sometimes State-aided or rate-aided—has been introduced, and is one of the landmarks of the reign. This comprises schools elementary, secondary, superior, with Colleges and Universities. It includes Oriental as well as Western learning; indeed, for practical purposes it has created a vernacular literature. It extends to scientific as well as to literary and general instruction. More particularly has it diffused medical education and produced a professional class of native physicians and surgeons on the European model.

Female education, despite all pre-existing prejudices, has made a fair beginning.

The public health has been cared for by means of works of sanitation, drainage, the provision of pure drinking water and the like, in the cities and towns, with a large capital outlay.

A municipal elective franchise has been introduced into the principal cities; and some beginning has been made with elected district councils.

The Press, both English and vernacular, has been freed. The European Press has flourished, as might have been expected. The native Indian Press has greatly developed itself in most of the many languages spoken on the Indian Continent.

Under the influence of the new education, the Hinduism, as known in these later centuries, has been undermined among the educated classes; while Islamism has been but little affected. Nowadays other Hindu creeds are springing up, derived from the antique traditions of the Hindu race.

As might be expected, Christian missionary effort has been more marked, more liberally sustained and more successful, in India than in any other region. It has been put forth not only by Roman Catholics, but by all Protestant communities, foremost among which has been the Church of England.

Lastly, the growth of the revenues and receipts of the State has been enormous. At the beginning of the reign the total stood at 21 millions of Rs. X.; it now stands at 95 millions of Rs. X.; in other words, it has multiplied more than fourfold. But silver has fallen in value by nearly one half. In 1837 the rupee was worth two shillings, and afterwards even something more; it is now worth but little over one shilling.

In fine, the result of British governance in regard to the natives is to be seen in the growth of their numbers, the enlargement of their agriculture, the expansion of their trade, the accumulation of their wealth, the advancement of their intellectual and social condition.

CHAPTER III.

THE GROWTH OF BRITISH DOMINION IN AFRICA.

In no quarter of the globe has the progress of the British Empire, during the reign, been so enormous, so far-reaching, so conducive to future possibilities, as in Africa. At the beginning of the reign the British possessions in Africa comprised only the Cape Colony proper, including Natal, in the south, and several settlements on the Gold Coast and Guinea on the west, with an area of little over a quarter of a million of square miles, and a population of a million and a half. They now comprise an area of nearly two millions and a half of square miles, with a population estimated at no less than forty-four millions. They constitute in all about one-quarter of the whole African Continent. If the Transvaal were reckoned together with this, as being within British

suzerainty, then some hundreds of thousands of square miles would be added.

This mighty area has no desert, and no unproductive portions, save mountains, lakes, and rivers, which, if not productive, do yet conduce to productiveness. It includes the whole of the antipodean temperate zone, which alone is suitable for European colonization. Its equatorial and tropical regions have abounding fertility, and are inhabited by races inured to a torrid and humid climate. The inhabitants are, in most quarters, as yet but sparse on the land; but they have been thinned and kept down for centuries by causes which ought not to continue and should never recur. They are naturally prolific, and under the protection of good government they will multiply. Every man, woman and child among them is a possible consumer of British goods. Nor are these territories at all isolated. On the contrary, they are accessible in a high degree. They have a coast line of three thousand miles; they are traversed by navigable rivers for hundreds of miles inland, two of which,

the Niger and the Zambesi, are of the first rank.

It is well to trace the recent and rapid progress of a dominion so potential in the present, and so promising for the future, as this.

The original basis of the dominion was the Cape Colony, including the settlement of Natal, which had been British for thirty years before the present reign, with an area of less than a quarter of a million of square miles. To this have been added several districts, mostly adjacent, such as Griqualand East and West. Kaffraria was incorporated in 1865, Pondoland in 1896, British Bechuanaland in 1895. Natal was erected into a separate colony in 1856, and to it the conquered Zululand was added in 1887. Adjoining the Cape Colony is Basutoland, placed under a separate administration in 1884.

Thus, by degrees not slow, the southern and by far the best end of the African Continent became British.

In geographical order there follows the Bechuanaland Protectorate, which has been

under a separate administration since 1895, and extends up to the Transvaal. The internal independence of the Transvaal was acknowledged in 1882, but the external relations of that State are controlled by the British Government. Thus in a certain sense the State may be regarded as within the British imperial sphere and under the suzerainty of the British Queen. The determination to maintain this control has recently been re-asserted before the world in a very marked manner.

North of the Transvaal comes British South Africa, otherwise called British Zambesia, and locally known as Rhodesia. It comprises the African kingdoms of Mashonaland and Matabeliland, also Khama's territory. It has uplands believed to be fit for colonization. It extends up to the southern or right bank of the Zambesi; and was placed under the well-known Chartered Company, partly in 1889 and partly in 1894. The Zambesi may be considered as the boundary between Southern and Central Africa.

In 1891 the Company's authority was further extended to a considerable distance

north of the Zambesi. The total area thus consolidated amounts to more than half a million, perhaps nearly three-quarters of a million, of square miles.

In the same year the Central African Protectorate was constituted on the southern and western shores of Lake Nyassa, and to this the Shirè Highlands were added. This is one of the most beautiful and promising territories in the whole Continent.

Thus a goodly portion of Central as well as all Southern Africa became British.

By agreements in 1886 and 1891 between Britain on the one hand, Germany, Italy, and Zanzibar on the other hand, British East Africa was set up, with an area of half a million of square miles. It has a port at Mombassa, one of the few good harbours to be found in Africa. At the same time the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba—affording commercial emporia at one of the most important points on the east coast of Africa—were acknowledged to be under British protection. Subsequently, the Sultan having been suitably

provided for, the islands came under British administration. Most of the British territory inland was for some time under the British East African Chartered Company, and was called Ibea. When the Company withdrew, after having rendered great services to the Empire, the country fell under British administration and protection.

In this protectorate is included Uganda and some dependent districts beyond it, whereby British territory surrounds the northern half of Lake Victoria Nyanza, and extends even to the Mountains of the Moon, also over the sources of the Nile.

Important as these acquisitions on the east coast of Africa may be, their importance relates mainly to prospective value. But on the west coast the acquisitions are still more remarkable, both as regards existing population and present commerce. They comprise mainly the middle and lower valley of the Niger and of its principal affluent, the Benué.

The Niger Coast Protectorate occupies the coast line from Lagos at the end of the Gold

Coast across the mouth of the Niger as far as the German Cameroons. Then the Niger Territory inland is governed by the Royal Niger Company, whose foundation dates from 1882, and whose charter was granted in 1886. The territorial limits were defined by the Anglo-French Agreement of 1890, and by a further agreement with Germany in 1893. They stretch over the kingdom of Bornu and touch Lake Chad. The area, thus falling within the British Empire, contains something less than half a million of square miles, with a population of twenty-four millions at least, and probably much more. In it are included several kingdoms of antiquity and political influence. Bornu, Sakoto, Gondo are territorial names, famous in the history of Africa. Indeed, the British Niger dominion is the richest commercially, the most populous and fertile, the most accessible and easily managed, in all Africa. But from its equatorial position it cannot be colonized.

To the old settlements on the Gold Coast and the coast of Guinea large additions have

also been made. Sierra Leone—once known as little more than the white man's grave—has developed its territory inland, has become the best commercial emporium on the West Coast of Africa, and is a naval coaling station of the second rank, with a fortified harbour. Behind the settlements on the Gold Coast various tribes came under British protection. These were harassed by the Ashantis. Consequently, in 1874, a British Expedition under Sir Garnet Wolseley broke the Ashanti power for ever. Recently this Ashanti kingdom has formally submitted to British sovereignty. The island of Lagos, at the end of navigable lagoons, fell under British protection in 1861, and was very successfully improved by Sir John Glover. The protectorate inland was developed by him; some African tribes having military aptitude were enlisted in the British service; and the place, next after Sierra Leone, became the best trading centre in West Africa.

Lastly, near the north-eastern corner of the Continent, the British position at Aden, com-

manding the entrance to the Red Sea, has recently caused the opposite African Somali coast, also the island of Socotra, off the African coast in the Gulf of Aden, to fall under British dominion.

Most of these additions to the Empire, considerably exceeding two millions of square miles, have been made within the last twenty years. Already the trade with the United Kingdom is becoming considerable. The imports and exports of the British African territories amount in all to 45 millions sterling in value annually. Almost the whole of this trade is in British hands. It is equal to about one-fifteenth of the total trade of the United Kingdom; and is sure to grow immensely. France and Germany have also extensive territories in Africa; but the British trade with them is small.

As yet, railways exist only in the Cape Colony and its dependencies. About three thousand miles have been opened; and a capital of more than twenty millions sterling has been raised. A railway of the highest

importance on every account is about to be undertaken from Mombassa on the coast towards the shore of Lake Victoria Nyanza and Uganda—a distance of many hundred miles.

In the attainment of these results during the reign Chartered Companies have played a most noteworthy part, as being imperial pioneers and as paving a way for the British advance. Their services to the Empire deserve the perpetual remembrance of the British nation. These are the East African Company, which performed priceless work in the patriotic cause before it surrendered its high trust to the Government; the South African Company and the Royal Niger Company, both of which, after sustaining their position with strenuous efforts, are still in the full tide of usefulness.

The results, though happily won, during the reign, without any great war, have yet needed several lesser wars for their accomplishment. The blood of men belonging to several races has been shed in most quarters; and many precious European lives, civil as well as military, have

been sacrificed. There have been expeditions, or military operations, or severe fighting of other sorts, in Abyssinia, in Kaffraria, in Zululand, in Matabeliland, in Ashanti land. It is, however, to the honour of British diplomacy that the largest additions of territory have been made by formal agreements with France, Germany and Italy, strengthening our international ties with those Powers. Nevertheless, the anxieties, the controversial crises, which have been endured, the enterprising efforts which have been put forth by Britons in their country's service, can be realized only by those who have been personally acquainted with these affairs or who have had especially to study them.

Among the works of peace is the propagation of Christianity—more especially as the Moslem faith has been striding onwards in several parts of the Continent. The Christian missionary's work has been undertaken in each and all of the British African dominions by Roman Catholics, but more particularly by all Protestant communities, foremost among whom

has been the Church of England, with the Church Missionary Society. Indeed, many missionaries, carrying their lives in their hands, established their ministry in most regions before any British authority, political or civil, had approached.

It must be sorrowfully confessed that, notwithstanding the national opportunities which this widespread dominion has afforded, the slave trade has not been suppressed. It may have been somewhat circumscribed or impeded, with all the well-meant measures that have been adopted—the British naval operations, the European Conferences, and the like—but that is all. Slave hunting, slave raiding, slave driving, slave bartering, have gone on with horrors that cry aloud to Heaven. It must be for us reverently to consider whether we can expect the blessing of the Almighty on our political enterprises if we fail, through any default of ours, to put an end to these atrocities.

Notwithstanding the noble adventures of previous travellers, the practical discovery of

the interior of Africa has been effected during the reign. Of this by far the largest share has been taken by Britons—Livingstone, Speke, Grant, Samuel Baker, Laird, Thompson, and others—above all, by H. M. Stanley, who, though once an American citizen, is of British blood and birth, and is now a member of the British Parliament. Without any disparagement of the Societies of other nations, it may be affirmed that our Royal Geographical Society has given more aid than any other similar body to the exploration of Africa.

Although the imperial work in Africa has been done by many thousands of Britons, civil and military, yet it has been directed from time to time by men whose memory ought never to be forgotten—Lord Chelmsford, Lord Wolseley, Sir Hercules Robinson (Lord Rosmead), Sir Bartle Frere, Sir John Glover, Sir William Mackinnon, Captain Lugard, Lord Loch, Cecil Rhodes, Sir George Taubman-Goldie.

This chapter on Africa cannot be closed without remembrance of the fact that Britain has

for the last fourteen years occupied Egypt, with honour to British policy, and with the utmost advantage to the Egyptians. Whatever may be the duration of this occupation, the achievement remains in the reign's annals. It was effected by a potent display of force on sea and land; it has been worked out right on to its legitimate consequences, with full efficiency up to the latest date. With it is linked the memory of eminent names—Lord Wolseley, General Gordon, Lord Cromer, and now Sir Herbert Kitchener. If the occupation of the Nile Valley were considered together with the African dominion which has just been sketched —then some hundreds of thousands of square miles, and several millions of population would be added to the roll of the African regions over which the British flag is flying; thus bringing up the grand total to amounts exceeding those of any other of the great European Powers on this Continent. For the moment Britain may claim to be holding the control of the whole Nile from its source to its mouth.

In fine, although Britain did not willingly

enter upon the partition of Africa between the great European Powers, but was rather driven into it by their action—still she has come out of it best of them all. Had she always perceived her own opportunities in time—*sua si bona nôrit*—she might easily have done even better than she has. Still, the British share in Africa is by far the finest and grandest, as regards dimensions of fertile territory, capabilities of colonization, growing populousness, facilities for communication, and commercial opportunities. It thus stands forth among the proudest monuments of the reign.

CHAPTER IV.

THE CROWN COLONIES.

THE Crown Colonies are governed directly by the Crown, often with the aid of representative institutions depending partly on nomination. They are thus distinguished from the Colonies having responsible Government. They lie scattered over the earth and the oceans. They are not only disconnected but are widely divided from each other by every sort of diversity. But each and all have interests which gravitate towards the one imperial centre in England. The aggregate of their area (half a million of square miles, exclusive of African protectorates), and of their population (about five millions) may not be great, still their economic value is found to be considerable. Their real importance, however, is derived from their situations. They are, indeed, the outworks and the outposts of the

Empire. They are of the utmost use in providing for the defence of imperial commerce; indeed they occupy some of the best strategic positions in the world. In them are placed some of those naval coaling stations which are held to be essential to our mastery of the seas.

These colonies will now be briefly considered in geographical order as nearly as possible.

Firstly, GIBRALTAR has remained throughout the reign as a fortress of the first rank, and as the most important point strategically in the Empire next after the Cape of Good Hope. Of late years a fresh importance has attached to it, owing to the changeful exigencies of naval warfare. It may be, indeed must be, made a repairing place for wounded ironclads in event of an action being fought in the western waters of the Mediterranean. It is essential that such vessels should resort to Gibraltar without having to go so far as Malta or England. Additional accommodation for this purpose is now being provided.

MALTA has continued throughout the reign

to be the headquarters of British power in the Mediterranean, a repairing and refitting station for that large section of the British Fleet which is stationed in those waters. In recent times, however, a commercial interest of a peculiar kind has attached to it. Though it is but a small island with 170,000 inhabitants, yet it has nominally a great trade which, with imports and exports together, has fluctuated in value from 45 millions sterling annually to 29 millions; and has shipping measured at 3½ millions of tons. This may, at first sight, appear extraordinary; but, in fact, the trade is almost entirely one of transit. In other words, Malta is a great place of call commercially, and an *entrepôt* for British trade with the countries around the Eastern Mediterranean, especially the Levant. This indicates the need for Britain to preserve the neutral markets which she still has in the Turkish provinces, and to prevent their being closed against her by any other Great Power.

CYPRUS twenty years ago came under British administration as a strategic position under certain possible conjunctures. From an

economic point of view it has disappointed the expectations which were naturally formed. Under British rule it might presumably have grown in commercial importance and become a trading centre for the Eastern Mediterranean. But such, has not, as yet, proved to be the case; though there has been no actual failure there has not been that success which is to be seen in nearly all the British possessions. The island is the largest in the Mediterranean; but it has a population of less than a quarter of a million. Still, for such a population, the trade, valued at more than half a million sterling annually, is appreciable. The island takes £80,000 worth of British products yearly. The administration is somewhat hampered by having to pay a certain sum yearly to Turkey, or rather to the creditors of the Turkish Government. The Ionian Islands, off the western coast of Greece, were under British rule at the beginning of the reign. They were afterwards transferred to Greece.

Next, CEYLON is one of the veritable gems of the British seas, a mountainous, verdant,

fertile island, in equatorial waters just below the southern extremity of India. It is an obligatory point in the imperial communication between the British Isles and China on the one hand, and north-eastern Australia on the other. Its strategic position, from a naval point of view, is of much consequence. Within its limits is Trincomalee, the headquarters of the British squadron in East Indian waters. With a population of nearly four millions, its trade is valued at sixteen millions of Rs. X annually. It takes yearly about one million sterling worth of British goods, and sends to Britain about four millions Rs. X worth of produce. That produce used to consist chiefly of coffee, grown under British arrangements. But when a few years ago the coffee plantations failed, their place was taken by tea gardens; and now the island is one of the best tea growing regions in Asia. Thus, although vicissitudes have occurred, the island has grown in value within the reign.

The STRAITS SETTLEMENTS of Singapore, Penang and Malacca have, during the reign, come to form a position of the highest im-

portance from a naval and commercial point of view. Like Ceylon, they are ocean gems with an equatorial climate. They were originally under the Government of India, but during the reign they were transferred to the Crown. They are now amongst the most interesting of the Crown Colonies. They command the main approach to those Chinese waters which, also during the reign, have become some of the principal scenes of British commerce. Their channels form the passage through which vessels of war and of commerce must go, on the way to China and Japan. A fortified coaling station has been established at Singapore. By degrees British domination, in the shape of protectorate, has been established on the mainland, that is, in the neighbouring parts of the Malay peninsula. The population of these Straits Settlements has chiefly sprung up during the reign, and consists mainly of immigrants from India and from China; it amounts now to about half a million. Another half million of inhabitants belong to the Native States on the peninsula. Thus a million in all is made up; but for such

a population the value of the trade is great. From this territory about 5 millions sterling worth of products are sent to Britain, and 2½ millions worth of British goods are imported.

HONG KONG, the British headquarters in Chinese waters, is one of the most important of the acquisitions made during the reign. The island was ceded by China to Britain after the war in 1841–42. The adjacent portion of the mainland in China was ceded in 1861. The island was a barren ridge with a fine natural harbour. It has now a population of a quarter of a million, consisting chiefly of Chinese immigrants. It has a fortified coaling station of the first rank. It is the naval station for the British squadron in the China seas. It affords protection to British commerce with the twenty Treaty Ports of China, to which Britain has by treaties a right of access—a right won after military operations which threw China open to general trade, European and other. In itself it is a great centre of British trade with China and Japan. In it there reside many British firms whose transactions ramify all over Eastern Asia. Its trade, virtually a part of the

China trade, is considerable ; some two millions sterling worth of British goods are received, while nearly a million's worth of produce is sent to Britain. It is a halting place and an *entrepôt* for emigrants from China to various British possessions. In short, the foreign trade of China is mainly with the British Empire. The safety of that great interest rests on the strongly garrisoned and navally protected position of Hong Kong.

It may be well to pause here for a moment and reflect on the wonderful line of military and commercial communication between England and Hong Kong, a distance of more than six thousand miles by sea. On this long line there is a continuous series of defensive posts—every obligatory point being covered by a strongly guarded station. Each of these stations which are Crown Colonies has been mentioned. But the catalogue would not be geographically complete without ADEN—which could not be specifically noted in this chapter as it belongs to India. But it is actually a part of the chain ; being a natural fortress strongly held and in a commanding position.

Thus Gibraltar, Malta, Aden, Colombo (in Ceylon), Singapore, Hong Kong are, as it were, stepping stones by which the British power strides from country to country over sea after sea. There is, indeed, organization throughout the British Empire. But of all our lines this one from England to Hong Kong is the one most highly organized.

Heretofore our survey has been from west to east. It must now turn south towards Australasia and the Pacific Ocean. On this line the first place met with is Borneo.

Those portions of the large island of BORNEO which belong to the British Empire have been acquired for the most part, if not entirely, during the present reign. Several masterful Britons, like Sir James Brooke, have been pioneers and projectors. The component parts of the present British dominion may be set forth thus—as illustrating the manner in which the Empire grows :—

British North Borneo, administered by the Chartered Company, under royal charter of 1881;

The Native State of Borneo, placed under British protection in 1888 ;

The Labuan Colony, placed under the Chartered Company in 1889;

Sarawak, placed under the Chartered Company in 1888.

The territorial dimensions have not been precisely ascertained, but the area must exceed 100,000 square miles, largely consisting of mountain and forest with a humid fertility in an equatorial climate. But even a more important matter is this, that the territory has a coast line of 1,300 miles. The population is less than a million, mostly of Malay race. But the coast territory may be a field for Chinese emigration. The trade is already worth a million sterling annually. The products are varied and valuable; among them is coal in large quantities, which might be most useful under certain naval contingencies.

As a halting-place in the Imperial line the territory is situate midway between Hong Kong and the nearest port of Australia.

We are thus conducted to AUSTRALASIA and OCEANIA, irrespective of Australia.

This portion of the British Empire has been formed entirely within the present reign. One

part only of it has large capabilities. But irrespective of these considerations, this dominion over many scattered islands answers two particular purposes: it serves to protect Australia from possible harassment by foreign Powers; it affords coaling stations for steamers, and possible stations for telegraphic lines between British North America and New Zealand. It consists of three parts:—1, British New Guinea; 2, the Fiji Islands; 3, the Pacific Islands.

The most important part is the south-eastern portion of NEW GUINEA, which was formally annexed in 1887, though proceedings regarding a protectorate had been going on for some years previously. Its position has a strategic bearing in respect to Queensland in the north-east portion of Australia. It is so highly esteemed by the Australians generally that New South Wales and Victoria join with Queensland in contributing towards the expenses of this dominion and have a voice in the management of its affairs. To it belongs many lesser islands, any one of which may be used as a maritime station of some sort. It has an area of nearly 90,000 square miles, mostly

fertile and capable of being made productive. The inhabitants, of Asiatic race, are as yet quite sparse and scanty, being less than half a million. But with good government they may multiply rapidly. An infant trade, now valued at £60,000 sterling annually, has already arisen. Its growth may be infinitely large.

The FIJI dominion consists of some two hundred small islands, with a total area of less than 10,000 square miles. Of these about half only are as yet inhabited. The British flag was hoisted over them in 1874 at the request of the chief and inhabitants. The population is less than 150,000; but it may increase, inasmuch as Indian immigration has begun. The external trade is almost entirely with the British possessions; it is about a million sterling in value annually. There is also an internal trade by steamers between island and island. The importance of the Fiji position is shown by the fact that since 1893 the steamers of the Canadian-Australian line call there on their voyage between Sydney and Vancouver. This step is full of significance as helping to bind the several parts of the Empire together.

Still further out to sea, in the Western Pacific Ocean, are the PACIFIC ISLANDS, which have in recent years come under British annexation or protection. They are under the jurisdiction of a High Commissioner for the Western Pacific. Many of them are coral reefs of scientific interest rather than of economic value; others of them are uninhabited. Their real importance consists in this, that they afford stations for the British telegraph line, and for British steamers, between British Columbia and Australia, also between Panama and Eastern Asia.

From the Pacific we turn to the Southern Atlantic, and are at once met by the FALKLAND ISLANDS, near the lower extremity of South America. The area, population, and economic value of these islands may be small; it is from their position that they became important, as forming a link in the vast chain of island dominion by which Britain becomes the mistress of the oceans.

In the mid-Atlantic, near the American mainland, are situate the WEST INDIES, including Jamaica, Barbadoes, Trinidad, the Windward

and the Leeward Islands, and other isles. They are among the elder members of the British Empire. They have long been famous as jewels set in the sea, with natural wealth and beauty. They have been the scenes of dread conjunctures in war, and of grave events in peace, such as the abolition of slavery. Thus they are fraught with interest both romantic and historic. They were great and flourishing in times when other parts of the Empire, which have subsequently far outstripped them, were unformed or almost undeveloped. They have suffered many economic vicissitudes, losses, disasters. Even now their condition often causes anxiety. Their staple industry—sugar—has suffered grievously at times, and still suffers. According to tradition princely fortunes were once made there; afterwards many firms, families, and individuals became reduced in circumstances. These events came about before the present reign, but their effects have been felt subsequently perhaps up to this day. The dates relating to the territory are long antecedent to the reign, and no additions to it have been made since 1837. The most impor-

tant measure adopted in recent years has been the formation of a naval coaling station at St. Lucia, in the Windward Islands.

Still the West Indies represent a considerable division of the Empire. Their population amounts to one million and a half; their revenues to two millions and a half annually; while their trade is valued at 14 millions sterling yearly; and in their imports are included many British products. Their position midway between North and South America is essential to the maintenance of British influence in many parts of the American Continent.

On the mainland of the Continent are two British settlements, HONDURAS and BRITISH GUIANA, both of which were acquired before the present reign. The area of British Guiana is very large; but its dimensions can hardly be stated until the territorial disputes now pending shall have been decided. The resources have during the reign been developed slowly, though perhaps steadily, and partly with the help of emigration from India. It has been described as one vast sugar plantation.

The population is not large, but the trade is valued at $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling annually, of which nearly a million consists of the importation of British goods.

There is yet one group of islands to be mentioned, namely, that of MAURITIUS and its dependencies. Though previously acquired, this colony has been much developed during the present reign, chiefly by means of immigration from India. Indeed, the population of less than half a million is mainly Indian, and the current money is Indian also. The trade is considerable, being valued at $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling annually. There is a well fortified harbour and a suitable garrison. The importance of the island arises from its position as a military and naval station midway between Australia and South Africa. This consideration has in recent years gained still further weight from the acquisition of Madagascar by France.

Besides this long catalogue of Crown Colonies there is a goodly array of such Colonies in the African Continent. But these are not mentioned here, having been noted together with British Africa.

CHAPTER V.

COLONIES HAVING RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT.

As is well known, internal autonomy, under the designation of Responsible Government, has been granted by the Imperial Legislature to certain Colonies greater or lesser—Canada and Newfoundland, in North America; Cape Colony and Natal, in South Africa; Queensland and New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Western Australia, Tasmania and New Zealand, in Australasia. The Crown appoints the Governor-General or the Governor, and has a power of veto on the Acts passed by the Colonial Legislatures; but in practice the Acts are always allowed, unless some Imperial prerogative should be infringed. Otherwise these Colonies are fully self-governing, through their parliaments and parliamentary executive. Their customs tariffs may affect the importation

of British goods; some of their laws may differ in principle from those of Britain; still no objection is raised by the Crown. Thus the tie that binds them to the mother country is technically slight. But the bond of union by sentiment is strong, and grows stronger. They justly regard themselves as integral and component parts of the Empire. They rightly claim a share in the Imperial cares and anxieties of the mother country. When war was being waged on the Upper Nile New South Wales despatched her contingent of soldiers, and Canada sent her trained river-boatmen. Recently, when trouble was apprehended in South American regions, Canada began to arm. When foreign interposition was threatened in South Africa, then Australia sent a patriotic address to the British Government. The moral effect of such steps, taken by the self-governing Colonies, must be great on the politics not only of the British Empire but of the world. In event of maritime war the advantage of the union with them would be enormous—for all their harbours would be British, and so closed to the enemy. If such

harbours were neutral—not to say hostile—the disadvantage would be correspondingly grave.

This wonderful system of colonial self-government is the work of the present reign, as will be seen presently. It affords an example which may, perhaps, have been paralleled on a small scale in ancient times, but which hardly has a precedent in modern history. Even if anything analogous in kind could be found, there is nothing comparable to it in degree.

The aggregate population of these Colonies at the beginning of the reign was comparatively inconsiderable, however important their territories may have been. But at the last census it was over eleven millions and a half of people unsurpassed for energy, enterprise, activity and resourcefulness. It must now be more than twelve, perhaps, even thirteen, millions. This makes a sensible addition to the strength of the British race in comparison with other great Powers. The population amounts not only to the 39 to 40 millions of the British Isles, but to 52 or 53 millions, including both the British Isles and the Colonies, mainly of British blood. In several economic respects this Colonial

population is hardly exceeded, perhaps is barely equalled, by any population in the world. The aggregate of their revenue, largely derived from Customs, is about 24 millions sterling annually. Their external trade, imports and exports together, is valued at 192 millions sterling per annum. Despite their tariffs, they take 37 millions sterling worth of British goods annually, and they send 58 millions' worth of produce annually to Britain. They have 32,000 miles of railways open to traffic. Their public debt amounts to the high aggregate of 302 millions sterling, raised mostly, if not entirely, in the English market at fairly favourable rates. It has been used for works of material improvement essential to the national progress. These are high aggregates of various kinds, entitling the Colonies in their totality to be compared with some of the Powers of Europe. On the several averages per head of population they would not suffer by comparison with some of the richest of the Great Powers. Irrespective of all other possessions and protectorates, however grand and imposing, these self-governing Colonies form

the backbone of the British Empire beyond the seas. Though the foundation was surely and securely laid in former reigns, the mighty development above indicated has been the work of the present reign.

The concession of these free Constitutions at various times has become one of the principal achievements of the reign. Had such a step been taken during the second half of the last century it might have modified the course of history. The dates of these Constitutions are so important that they may well be recalled:

The Dominion of Canada	1867 to 1871
North-Western Territory	1869
Newfoundland	1855
Cape Colony	1865
Natal	1893
Australian Colonies	1851 to 1856
Tasmania...	1885-6
New Zealand	1852
Western Australia	1890

To each Colony there is an Upper as well as a Lower House. In some Colonies the Upper House is nominated, in others elected. The electors for the Upper House are generally required to possess a substantial

qualification. For the Lower House the electors are in some Colonies required to possess a property qualification, in others not. In the Dominion of Canada such qualification is needed everywhere except in the North-Western Territory. The same may be said of the Cape Colony, of Natal, of Queensland, of South Australia, of Tasmania. But in New South Wales, in Victoria, and for the most part in New Zealand also, there is manhood suffrage simply, with but moderate qualification, even in respect of residence. In New Zealand also Women's Suffrage has been adopted, apparently with good results.

On the political map of the globe the situation of these three groups of Colonies is so interesting in these days as to claim a separate notice for each, however brief.

In the vast area now belonging to the CANADIAN DOMINION the purchase of an enormous territory from the Hudson Bay Company, now known as the North-Western Territory, effected a juncture between Upper and Lower Canada bordering the Atlantic on the one hand, with British Columbia bordering the

Pacific on the other hand, thus stretching an unbroken realm from ocean to ocean, and consolidating British sway in North America. This was further confirmed by the welding together of all the parts into one confederation, styled the Dominion of Canada. This afforded an administrative and executive compactness to a widely extended territory, enabling Canada to keep her head erect even in the presence of her potent neighbour, the United States. In further support of these arrangements through communication has been extended from the Atlantic to the Pacific of full three thousand miles in length. The railway runs from the mouth of the St. Lawrence to Lakes Michigan and Superior. Thence water communication by steam leads on to another railway which crosses the Great Prairie to the Rocky Mountains, and to Vancouver. This line is not only one of the longest but one of the most interesting and picturesque lines in the world. On the Atlantic side the British warships at Halifax look out towards the mother country. On the Pacific side Vancouver looks towards the British possessions in Eastern Asia. The

territory in which Vancouver is the best known point has been of historic interest in the earlier part of the reign. The settlement of its southern boundary towards the American State of Oregon caused much anxiety between 1845 and 1850. Its interests in the North Pacific waters and the Behring Sea formed an essential portion of the affairs disposed of by the arbitration on the questions between Britain and the United States in 1893. Its value as the basis of communication by steam and telegraph with Australasia has been already mentioned in the chapter on the Crown Colonies. Between it and Hong Kong communication has been opened in recent years. Thus Vancouver is fast becoming one of the strategic points of the British Empire.

The island of NEWFOUNDLAND, with Labrador, is the only part of British North America that has not joined the Dominion.

The CAPE COLONY comprises, at Cape Town and the southern extremity of Africa, the strategic point of most importance in the British Empire with respect to commerce and maritime affairs. This importance has, so to

speak, fluctuated at different times during the reign. Formerly the whole traffic of passengers and goods between Britain on the one hand, the East Indies and Australasia on the other hand, passed round the Cape in sailing vessels, among which the historic East Indiamen were notable. The passenger traffic was lost to this route when the Overland Route by Egypt was opened, about 1841. Next there was a sensible diminution of the goods traffic by the Cape when the Suez Canal was opened, in 1865. The most valuable and least bulky portion of the goods to and from India and China passed by the Canal in steamers. Again the Canal competed keenly for the traffic with Australia. At one time it seemed probable that the steam route by the Canal would for the most part supersede the sailing route by the Cape. In recent years, however, steam service round the Cape has been established with liners of high speed and power. And now the Cape route is expected by many to rival the Canal and to resume its old importance in regard to the traffic with Asia and Australasia. Under any circum-

stances it is to be remembered that in event of the Suez Canal being closed in war time to British vessels and troops the old Cape route will still be available not only for men-of-war but also for troops in steamers of the first rank. The possession of this alternative route—a route, too, of the best possible kind for the greatest of maritime Powers—is a resource almost of vital consequence to the British Empire.

The Colony has been already noticed in the chapter on British Africa as the basis of British power in the South African Continent, and as the starting point for territorial extension northwards. Its railway system has been prolonged northwards right through the Orange Free State up to the Transvaal.

Though immigration into the Colony is not so great as into the other Colonies, still, the population, partly European and partly native, increases at a fair rate. Twenty years ago it amounted to three-quarters of a million, it now amounts to a million. The European section of the population consists of Dutch, who still speak their own language. Notwithstanding the loyalty of the Dutch Colonists, the presence

of the Dutch element in the Colony within a comparatively short distance of the Orange State and the Transvaal has at times caused anxiety. Yet the increase of Europeans throughout Southern Africa will be English rather than Dutch.

The AUSTRALIAN CONTINENT, with an area of three millions and a half square miles, may be said to have two climates. The whole of the southern portion has a temperature suitable for European colonization, and is, or will be, inhabited by Europeans only. In these the constitution of a responsible government will work quite well. The eastern and the western portions have generally the same conditions. But in the north-eastern and north-western corners the climate becomes hotter, and there is a mixture of Asiatic population. In the northern sections the conditions are semi-tropical, and there the workers will be mostly Asiatic, while the upper class will be European. This area has now been included in the area of responsible government, which thus embraces the whole Continent. Hereafter a class of coloured or Asiatic electors will spring up,

and problems similar to those in the southern division of the United States will present themselves.

In the great heart of the Continent lies an arid desert, or half desert. This has been traversed within the reign by devoted and heroic explorers.

There are still many Chinamen in various parts of the Continent. Indeed, emigration from China would probably have continued until a Chinese element entered into the national life of Australia. But the European Colonists and their Government discouraged, and then practically checked, this influx.

Originally, as is well known to history, the eastern portions formed a place of transportation from Britain. Within the reign the whole Continent was thrown open to free settlers, who with their families or descendants constitute the existing population. The first Colony was that of New South Wales; and out of it were formed Victoria and Queensland. South Colony, or South Australia, was separately developed, and Western Australia, though first established at an early

date, has sprung into political existence quite recently.

In 1788, when the Colony of NEW SOUTH WALES was founded at Sydney, "the settlers had brought a few cows, sheep, goats, pigs and horses—from which are descended the seventy millions of animals that now constitute the great wealth of Australia."* In this generation the production of gold has been such that Australia ranks next after the United States, and as the second greatest gold-producing country in the world. Its amount is reckoned at some 300 millions sterling since 1848. Gold-mining has, however, in some degree, given place to sheep-farming, till now Australia has taken the first place among the nations with 400 millions of pounds of wool annually. The amount of English capital invested in Australia must exceed 200 millions sterling.

The TASMANIAN ISLAND, not far from the Australian Continent, was originally a place of transportation from Britain. But during the reign transportation ceased and the territory

* Mulhall.

was open to free settlers. The European population has in the time multiplied threefold, in round numbers from 50,000 to 150,000. The aborigines of the island have become entirely extinct.

NEW ZEALAND, approaching the Southern Hemisphere, consists of two main portions—the Upper and the Lower, separated from each other by narrow arms of the sea. The Lower Division is thought by many to have the best climate in the Empire, next after the British Isles themselves. The Colony was formally established in 1840; the population has multiplied tenfold within the reign, in round numbers, from 70,000 to 700,000. The aboriginal Maoris had some martial qualities. For various reasons military operations had to be conducted against them under Imperial arrangements. After that the management of their affairs was transferred to the Colonial Government in 1863. The Maori race, numbering about 50,000 persons, still survives in some strength and prosperity during peace. They inhabit certain districts in which the political franchise has been conferred on them, and for which they may return

Maori representatives to the Colonial Parliament.

For many years past important proposals for the confederation of the seven Australian Colonies (five on the Continent and two on islands) have been before Conferences, and then before the legislature of each Colony separately. The project has received general though not quite universal concurrence. Most persons and authorities seem to expect that ere long it will come into effect.

CHAPTER VI.

IMPERIAL DEFENCE.

THE present state of the forces (officers and men) of the British Empire on land may be set forth thus :—

Regular forces, Home and Colonial ...	156,000
Army reserve	85,000
Militia	122,000
Yeomanry	11,000
Volunteers	232,000
European forces in India	77,000
Total	683,000

The native army of India numbers 145,000 men. The Native Indian States have 20,000 men specially organized for Imperial service. Besides these, they have nominally large forces, out of which one-third may be taken as effective for at least home service, in the British sense of the term—quite 100,000 men. To all this must be added the Colonial Militia or

Volunteer forces (officers and men), embodied and trained :

The Canadian Dominion	34,000
Jamaica	2,000
Cape Colony	7,000
New South Wales	6,000
New Zealand	8,000
Queensland	3,000
South Australia ...	2,000
Victoria	5,000
Total	67,000

This, added to the previous figures, brings up the total to 1,015,000. Inasmuch as in a widely-scattered dominion some item will escape enumeration, the sum total may be stated at over a million of men. This represents a peace establishment consisting of men either under arms actually or ready to be placed under arms at the shortest notice. It comprises Europeans, 683,000 plus 67,000, or 750,000 men of the white race; and 265,000 men of the coloured race; three-quarters, therefore, being of the white race, which thus has absolutely the numerical predominance.

The cost of the Army in the United King-

dom, exclusive of India, amounts to 20 millions sterling annually. At the beginning of the reign it amounted to less than 7 millions, or just over one-third.

This peace establishment of about a million of men, though large enough to be compared, will be found to be less than that of some other of the great military Powers. Nevertheless, it possesses two striking and valuable characteristics not to be found in any of them.

In the first place, in the absence of any conscription it is maintained entirely by voluntary enlistment. No such system is known in any of the armies of Europe—and only to a limited extent in the army of the United States. Nor could any other Power except the British keep up such a number of men as a million without conscription. This cardinal fact proves a remarkable willingness in the British race for military service. In the white or European portion of the regular forces the service is for a short term of years. But in the coloured portion of the forces the service is undertaken for the whole active time of life, with anticipation of pension at the end.

In the second place, 114,000 men, soldiers belonging to the British Isles—irrespective of the Colonies—are serving beyond the seas, generally several thousands of miles away from home—that is, 77,000 men in India and 37,000 in the Colonies and Egypt. This represents a military effort continuously put forth, which is not equalled by any modern Power—which could not be attempted by any Power except under a system of voluntary enlistment, and which demands enormous resources for maritime transport.

Such being the present numbers at the end of the reign, the question arises as to what were the numbers at its beginning. In the first place, the Army Reserve and the Volunteers did not exist in 1837. The European forces in India were only 36,000 men. The Native Army under the British Government was larger then than now; instead of the 145,000 of the present time it stood at 218,000. But, then, the forces of the Native States, now reckoned at 120,000 men, effective for Imperial service, were not reckoned as available at all for the British Government. The

Colonial forces, now 67,000 men, were not then in existence. The census for 1841 for the British Isles showed the number of 130,000 men in military service; but another account gives the regular army at 102,000 in 1831. The Yeomanry stood at 10,000 in number. The Militia was at a somewhat low ebb; some years later it was stated at 20,000 men. According to the returns for 1837 the figures may be set down as below:—

Regular Forces, Home, Colonies, India	110,000
Native Indian Army	218,000
Yeomanry	19,000
Militia (Staff) ...	1,200
Total	348,200

Consequently it may be said that the Imperial forces on land have been more than doubled during the reign.

Alterations have taken place during the reign in most branches of military administration. The old term of service—a comparatively long one—has been given up; and a much more limited term, called the short service, has been arranged—with the condition that, after leaving the colours, the men

shall belong to the Reserve. The numerical growth of this reserve has been already stated. It will furnish the best possible material for reinforcing the army whenever military operations are undertaken. On more than one occasion the men have answered well to the call to rejoin the standards. The arrangement is believed to have helped to render recruiting popular at a time when more than 30,000 recruits are needed yearly. The old system of purchase in the Army has been abolished; and admission to the Military Colleges of Woolwich and Sandhurst for entrance to the Army is by competitive examination. The number of candidates for these examinations is remarkably large. The organization of the regular and the auxiliary forces in combination for the defence of the country against invasion has been matured. The principle of engaging the horses of private persons for military service under certain conditions has been established, and the number of horses thus engaged is from 14,000 to 15,000—a valuable adjunct to our resources.

The present strength of the forces of the

British Empire at sea may be set forth thus :—

Battleships	42
Port defence vessels	23
First-class cruisers	48
Second-class cruisers	56
Total armoured or protected	169
Sloops, gunboats and others	181
Grand total	350
The torpedo craft are in number	155

There are 10 battle-ships of the first-class building—a matter of prime importance—besides 22 cruisers.

Further, there are 11 merchant steamers subsidized by the British Admiralty as reserved cruisers, besides many others which are held in disposition and marked for preferential employment without subvention.

Of the war-vessels in commission nearly one-half would at any given time be on foreign service, often at great distances from home, as those on the Indian Ocean, on the China Station, in Australian waters, in the Pacific Ocean.

The present number of officers, seamen and marines is 94,000.

The cost of this, the most powerful navy ever sent forth by Britain, or by any other country, amounts to 22 millions sterling annually; at the beginning of the reign it stood at 5½ millions, or about one-fourth, or nearly one quarter, of the whole expenditure of the State.

There are in these times such immense differences in the quality of war-vessels, and in the calibre of their armament, that numbers by themselves can give but a faint idea of naval power. Similar totals, given on the same conditions as those by which the British force has been set forth, will stand as below for France and Russia in combination.

FRANCE AND RUSSIA TOGETHER.

Battleships ...	52
Port defence vessels	33
First-class cruisers...	34
Second-class cruisers	39
Total armoured	158
Sloops and gun-boats	169
Total ...	327
Torpedo craft	218

Besides the quality and speed of war-vessels, and the calibre of the guns, very much must depend on the scientific education of the officers and the training of the men—much also on practice in the manœuvring and handling of the vessels in the open ocean. In this particular practice, apart from all other considerations, a superiority may be claimed for those who command, navigate and man the British iron-clads.

The mighty changes in the Navy, amounting to entire transformation—the substitution of steam for sailing power—the use of screw propellers—the armour-plating—the guns of colossal calibre—are all among the works of the present reign.

Owing to these changes no sort of comparison can be made between the strength of the Navy at the beginning of the reign and at the present time. The number of ships then was about 300 sailing vessels; Britain was still defended by those wooden walls which had been illustrious in many wars. The cost of the naval administration did not exceed 6 millions sterling annually. The revolution in the arma-

ment since then can best be understood by the fact that the number of guns was not less than 16,000, whereas in the present day, with an infinitely more powerful fleet, the number of heavy guns will hardly exceed 3,000.

Among the naval events of the reign has been the foundation of an Australian navy. Sydney—in New South Wales—is the head-quarters of the British squadron in Australian waters, with fourteen war-vessels. But, further, by the Australasian Naval Force Act of 1887, five first-class cruisers and two torpedo gun-boats were equipped for service there on condition that they should not be removed in case of war. An agreement was made for a term of years, providing for the vessels being built by the British Government, and stipulating that those of the Australian Colonies who were parties to the agreement should pay 5 per cent. of the original cost, and all costs of maintenance. The sums paid on this account by New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, and South Australia amounted in all to £90,000.

Much attention during the reign has been

given to the defence of the military forts at Portsmouth, Devonport, Chatham, and elsewhere. The fortifications and other defensive arrangements of Portsmouth in particular have been upon a suitably large scale. But in this branch of Imperial defence it is generally thought that very much yet remains to be done.

The provision of coaling stations has been a noteworthy feature in the naval administration of the reign. All the war-vessels have power of sail as well as of steam; and although the utmost economy is exercised in using coal for steam purposes, still such power has frequently to be used at most times, and in time of war might have to be used always. But as the space on board ship for storing coal is limited, and as the sea-distances between the various parts of the Empire are vast, the means of replenishing the coal supply becomes a matter of the gravest consideration in the event of maritime warfare. Hence the absolute need of coaling stations placed at suitable positions in the several quarters of the world, and duly fortified. Some public anxiety was excited in

regard to this a few years ago. Since then vigorous efforts have been put forth, and the arrangement of coaling stations is now virtually complete. Some allusion has been made to them in the foregoing chapter on the Crown Colonies. It will be well to specify them more exactly here. They are :—

GIBRALTAR, MALTA } for the Mediterranean.
ADEN, for the Red Sea.
COLOMBO (Ceylon), for equatorial waters.
SINGAPORE (Straits Settlements), for the approach to China.
HONG KONG, for the China Seas.
THURSDAY ISLAND, between Australia and New Guinea.
SYDNEY, for Australian waters.
ST. GEORGE'S ISLAND, in the South-west corner of Australia.
MAURITIUS, between Australia and South Africa.
SIMON'S BAY, for the Cape of Good Hope.
SIERRA LEONE, for the West Coast of Africa.
ST. LUCIA, for the West Indies.
HALIFAX, for the North Atlantic.
ESQUIMAULT, near Vancouver, for the Pacific Ocean.

A consideration of the world's chart would show that these stations form a girdle of posts almost in a circle round the world. From

point to point on the zone they are dotted with fortifications, with guns of great calibre, with suitable garrisons, and with adequate supplies of coal. Each point, too, has a strategic importance in a military and maritime sense, with a commanding influence also over trade routes. Some of the posts are among the most important politically on the face of the earth. The Cape of Good Hope and Gibraltar are the most interesting strategically; but there is not one of them without some strategic value peculiar to itself.

The cost of the Army and Navy (exclusive of India) amounted at the beginning of the reign to 14 millions sterling annually, when the national earnings were estimated at 350 millions sterling annually. It rose to 28 millions in 1881, by which time the national earnings had risen to 1,250 millions sterling annually. It now stands at 43 millions, while the national earnings are reckoned at over 1,400 millions. Thus within the last fifteen years the British nation has had to spend for Imperial Defence a larger proportion than previously of their earnings. The growth of commerce and of

shipping, however, has exceeded even the growth of expenditure for the forces on land and sea. The disproportion between even the mighty fleet of to-day and the trade it has to defend appears to be extraordinary—as compared with the armaments maintained by the Great Powers of Europe in relation to the extent of their commerce.

CHAPTER VII.

MATERIAL PROGRESS OF THE BRITISH ISLES.

ALTHOUGH material and moral progress are so bound up with each other, and discrimination may be difficult, yet this chapter will be restricted to material as distinguished from social development.

The first point relates to increase of population in the earliest years of the nineteenth century. Napoleon is reported to have said that the fifteen millions of the British Isles must yield to the forty millions of France. He must have alluded to France with borders enlarged for a time, and more extensive than those of the France subsequently known. Still, France proper must have contained 30 millions; so he would have been correct in saying that the French population was then double the British. In these days, however, the case stands very differently. The British population was by

the last census over 39 millions, and must at the present time be full 40 millions. The population of France was by the last census under 39 millions. Again, the white people in the French Colonies have not appreciably grown in numbers; but the white people in the British Colonies now number from 12 to 13 millions, as already seen in Chapter V. Thus the white population under the British Queen at home and abroad is not less than 52, and may be 53, millions. So the comparison between the French and British white population, in Napoleon's time and in the present time, is very remarkable, and is eminently favourable to the British side.

Further, the effective strength of peoples cannot be fully measured by numbers. Accessibility from the seashore is a great factor in such strength. For example, a given number of millions in the heart of the European or American continents will not be so powerful as an equal number near the ocean coast. According to this standard the British population is most effectively distributed, being—with some exceptions—near the coast or in

communication with the coast by river navigation. Thus it is advantageously situated for creating and exercising power, in peace and war, in commerce and national intercourse.

The question, then, arises, what was the population at the beginning of the reign? By the census of 1841 it was returned at 19 millions for Great Britain, and $7\frac{3}{4}$ millions for Ireland, or $26\frac{3}{4}$ millions for the United Kingdom. In 1837 it must have been under 25 millions. At that date the population of the Colonies was hardly more than 2 millions. Thus the grand total could not have exceeded 27 millions. If this be compared with the 52 millions of the present day it appears that the population has nearly doubled during the reign.

Further, this increment has occurred despite a large emigration, in some degree to the Colonies, but chiefly to the United States. The number of persons who have emigrated during the reign is nearly 14 millions. Of these hardly one-fourth went to the Colonies —the rest, or above 10 millions, to the United States. Those in the Colonies, or their descendants, reappear in the total of 52 millions

already given. But the 10 millions and more in the United States represent a considerable drain on the population of the United Kingdom.

On the other hand, there has been in recent years a considerable immigration into England, not only of foreign but also of British people, so much so as in these years to almost counterbalance the emigration.

During the reign the condition of Ireland has fluctuated remarkably. Before the famine of 1845 her population stood at over 8 millions. After that sad event it fell year by year, as some 3½ millions emigrated, and now it stands at less than 5 millions. Nevertheless, she has steadily advanced in prosperity during the present generation. The first of her statistical authorities thus wrote in 1893 :—" I have shown by taking many tests, and applying them each in turn, that Ireland has advanced in the arts of civilization and in material prosperity.
Possibly she might have advanced more than she has done; but when we consider the collapse that took place at the commencement of the past half-century, it may be said that she

has advanced more rapidly, and recovered from a condition of almost total wreck more completely than any other country would have done or has done."*

This increase of population is an index of prosperity in Britain. In that prosperity one principal factor is improvement in communications, and that refers mainly to railways. The first railway in England had been opened before 1837, so much so that about the beginning of the reign legislation had been undertaken for the conveyance of the public mails by rail. Still the length, or mileage, open at that time was comparatively small, not exceeding a very few thousand miles. The total length now open amounts to 21,000 miles. The capital outlay upon this length amounts to the astonishing sum of one thousand millions sterling—an amount greatly exceeding the National Debt. It is noteworthy that this vast sum has been subscribed by private individuals, that is, the shareholders of the various railway companies. This fact is not paralleled in any country except

* "Facts and Figures about Ireland," by T. W. Grimshaw, Registrar-General for Ireland.

the United States. The total receipts of these companies amount to over 90 millions sterling annually—a sum nearly equal to the revenue and receipts of the Government of the United Kingdom. They afford, too, lucrative employment on a large scale. Their servants and officials are nearly 300,000 in number; more than equal numerically to the regular forces of the Crown. The British railway mileage exceeds that of France, of Germany, of Russia, of Austria, each of which has a far larger area than the British Isles. It is exceeded only by that of the United States. The passenger traffic on these British railways is enormous, and has to be reckoned as nearly equal to that of the whole European Continent. The goods traffic, though very great absolutely, does not hold quite so commanding a position relatively—still it has been reckoned as equal to one-third of the goods traffic of the world.

Nor does this represent the whole of British achievement. For within the present generation British engineers have built railways in other countries besides their own, to the length of tens of thousands of miles, with a capital out-

lay of at least eight hundred millions sterling, most of which has been found by British capitalists.

Thus the development of railways in the British Isles is among the most pregnant results of the present reign.

The manufactures of Britain have ever constituted a main factor in her strength. Some authorities have held that these supplied to our ancestors the means of fostering the wars against Napoleon. At that time, however, their annual value being well under 100 millions sterling, was hardly one-eighth of their present value annually—namely, over 800 millions sterling. In these manufactures more than three millions of operatives are employed, representing a goodly proportion of the working strength of the nation. In round numbers nearly one-third of this vast quantity is exported to foreign countries, mostly beyond the oceans, while the remaining two-thirds are used or consumed at home. This more than justifies the oft-made assertion that after all the home market is worth much more than all the outside markets put together. This, too, affords

conclusive proof of the growth of consuming power among our people at home.

Of this grand result more than half has occurred within the present reign.

The external sea-borne commerce of the United Kingdom at the beginning of the reign was valued at about 110 millions sterling annually. It is now valued at 650 millions, showing an increase of nearly sixfold in sixty years.

Banking is naturally the handmaid of commerce, and, as might be expected, that has quadrupled within the reign, till London has become the banking centre of the world. In 1837 the capital and deposits together in the Banks of the United Kingdom did not exceed 200 millions sterling. They now exceed 800 millions. This amount is about equal to the corresponding figure for several European countries in combination. The capital of the Bank of England is nearly equal to that of the Banks of France and Germany together.

In company with the trade, the shipping of the United Kingdom has grown immensely during the reign. A comparison of the number

of vessels is not useful, because the real point relates to the tonnage; and the tendency in ship-building has been to augment the size of the ships. In the beginning of the reign the tonnage did not exceed 2½ millions of tons; it is now over 8 millions; that is, it has more than trebled within the sixty years. Equally important is the proportion of steamers to sailing vessels. At the beginning of the reign the steamers counted for only a small percentage of the whole; they now comprise more than two-thirds; indicating a mighty growth in power of navigation. Various circumstances within the present generation have given to the United Kingdom a preponderance in ship-building; in other words, the British ship-builders make ships, not only for their own nations, but for other nations also. At one time two-thirds of the ship-building of the world was done in the British Isles. And if that proportion be not fully maintained it is not as yet materially altered.

The growth of mechanical power by steam within the United Kingdom is one of the most amazing events of the present reign. In 1838

the motive force by steam and water represented only 103,000 horse-power. In 1876 the water-power had been to a large extent given up; but the steam force had increased to two millions of horse-power; and at the present day this force will be little short of 3 millions. The wondrous addition thus afforded to the national strength may be understood from the calculation that 50 millions of workmen would be needed to supply the place of this mechanical power; and, manifestly, there could never be any such number of workmen available in the British Isles. At present the number of persons employed in manufactures, and in all sorts of handiwork not classed under regular manufactures, will hardly exceed 9 or 10 millions.

For many years past statisticians have been calculating the annual income of the United Kingdom, which must have trebled or quadrupled within the present reign. It is now supposed to amount to 1,400 millions sterling annually. The actual earnings are reckoned at 700 millions sterling a year. The actual expenditure by the people is considered to be

less than the total income, so that probably 150 millions sterling may be put by and saved annually. Thus by degrees the accumulation becomes so enormous that the sum total is hard to grasp. It is reckoned, however, at something between 9 and 10 thousand millions sterling! If such computations shall at first sight seem excessive, it may be remarked that they are based on figures supplied by French statisticians—who can have no interest in exaggerating the amount of British wealth—and confirmed by their British brethren.

A similar computation has been made for the several countries of the European Continent; but there the figures fall far short of those in the United Kingdom. Some calculations have gone so far as to say that the United Kingdom is worth one-fifth of the civilized world in wealth. The only country that rivals the United Kingdom will be the United States.

Such calculations render it easy to understand the assertion, common in these days, that Britain has lent out of her accumulated wealth some 2,000 to 2,500 millions sterling to other

countries for their use in industrial enterprises within their territories.

This production and this accumulation of wealth within the United Kingdom exceed the most sanguine hopes that could have been entertained at the beginning of the reign. This tendency to increase continues on the whole, despite all apprehensions to the contrary. Of late there has been a standstill, if not a retrogression, in some of our best metal works; but shrinkage in one branch has as yet been compensated by expansion in another. The only industry in which Britain has largely fallen off or lost ground is agriculture—and that is the greatest of her industries. This is owing to importations first from America and latterly from India—till now more than half of the cereal food of the people comes from abroad. The diminution in cereal culture has been followed by an enlargement of pasturage; and the lowered value of land in general has been in some degree restored by the demand for land near towns for urban purposes. Still, it must be admitted that since 1880 the landowners have lost half their rents, that the

farmers have suffered proportionately, and that the selling value of agricultural land has declined in like degree—much of it, indeed, being practically unsaleable. On the other hand, the migration from the villages to the towns, consequent on the depression, has been partially arrested by the allotment of small tracts of land to the farm-labourers, in great numbers.

Sound finance has been one among the several causes of British prosperity. This is evidenced by the continuous decrease of the National Debt during the reign, with the exception of the two years of the Crimean War; but even that temporary increase was soon reduced again. The debt at the beginning of the reign stood at 800 millions sterling; it now stands at 660 millions, showing a reduction of 140 millions, or nearly one-fifth. The charges on the Debt have been further lessened by reductions in the rates of interest. There is also provision by Parliament for still further extinction of debt. Thus the capital and charges of the Debt have largely decreased, while the power of the nation to bear it has increased in a yet larger degree.

On the other hand, a great local debt has arisen, raised by cities, towns and other localities for material improvement on the security of the rates upon lands and houses. The capital of this growing debt stands at 200 millions sterling, and is a grave augmentation of the liabilities of the nation. Provision, however, is generally made in each locality for its extinction within a term of years.

The revenues and receipts of the State have risen during the reign from 48 millions sterling to 96 millions, showing an increase of just double, which is only proportionate to the growth of the nation within the time, and, therefore, indicates good management of the finances. Inasmuch as extinction of debt has been going on all the time, it is evident that the expenditure must have been economically arranged.

On the other hand, the local expenditure for material improvement has grown in a manner suggestive of grave reflection. This now amounts to 68 millions sterling annually for England, 10 millions for Scotland, and 5 millions for Ireland—in all, 83 millions for the

United Kingdom; not much less than the expenditure of the Government itself. Unless this be considered together with the State budget, the full burden borne by the country will hardly be appreciated.

Prosperous as the reign has been on the whole, its prosperity has yet been chequered in most of the six decades.

In the first decade (1837–47) distress and discontent, riots and local disturbances, occurred in England. The famine in Ireland, despite the generous expenditure of large sums from the Imperial Treasury, caused first a loss of life and then emigration, reducing the population from eight to five millions. The Repeal of the Corn Laws gave satisfaction in many quarters, but naturally alarmed the agricultural interest.

In the second decade (1847–57), despite the Repeal of the Corn Laws, extraneous causes kept up the price of corn. The Industrial Exhibition, in which the Prince Consort took the leading part, was the finest display ever made. At that culminating point Britain was quite the queen of the industrial world. Sub-

sequently the progress of foreign nations has been marked, but has been under the protection of their tariffs, showing that they cannot compete with her on equal terms. But she recouped herself for the loss of European markets by finding neutral markets elsewhere. The Crimean War put a severe strain on her resources, but no damage was done to her economic position.

In the third decade (1857–67) the Indian Mutiny again strained her resources; but she suffered no material harm, as India was justly obliged to pay the cost. The American Civil War caused her distress by stopping her supplies of cotton. But she soon supplied herself from India and Egypt. After the war the American manufactures strode onwards, under the protection of tariffs. But then Britain took a fresh departure. Various causes hindered ship-building across the Atlantic, and she became the principal ship-builder of the world.

In the fourth decade (1867–77), by the Franco-German War, two manufacturing nations on the Continent were destroying each other. So an unprecedented demand arose for

British goods, with at least a temporary prosperity. Notwithstanding the loss of the Corn Laws agriculture still flourished, and land was the favourite kind of property.

In the fifth decade (1877–87) the restoration of peace in Europe lessened the demand for British manufactures. Tempests ruined the British harvests. The influx of corn first from America, then from India, depressed British agriculture on the one hand and cheapened bread for the people on the other hand. There was a lull in British progress, and in the public mind the buoyancy of previous years gave way to anxiety.

The sixth decade (1887–97) has been marked by Imperial expansion in every quarter of the globe, with an extension of neutral markets enabling Britain to hold her own, despite foreign tariffs, in the industry of the world as a whole. In 1890 British commerce stood at the highest point it had ever reached. This was described by a great financier as the apex in the curve of prosperity. Subsequently there was a slight decline, which now is apparently being followed by a further revival of prosperity.

CHAPTER VIII.

SOCIAL PROGRESS OF THE BRITISH ISLES.

DURING several years before the beginning of the Victorian Era various measures affecting the national progress had been passed, such as the Act for Parliamentary Reform, for the Amendment of the Poor Law, for Confirming the Privileges of Municipal Corporations, for the Registration of Births and Deaths, for the Commutation of Tithes. Nevertheless, it will be found that most of the improvements in our social conditions, which we see around us, have been begun and carried out during the present reign.

The most far-reaching subject has been that of Elementary Education. Before the reign, whatever was done for popular instruction came from private resources, directed by private agencies, under what is now called the Voluntary System. Among these agencies the

National Society held for some generations, as it still holds, a most honourable place. But the State did nothing in this cause, did not exercise any interference by law, and did not expend any public money thereon. In 1837 the small sum of £20,000 only was allowed by Parliament for Elementary Schools, and afterwards, though with hesitation, an additional amount of £30,000 was granted. It was at that time estimated that 3 millions of children were growing up, of whom less than half were under tuition. Full half of the population were unable to read, and nearly two-thirds were unable to write. To-day in the United Kingdom over 8 millions sterling are granted annually by Parliament for education. Attendance at school has been made compulsory by law for all children over five years of age. More than 6 millions of children are at school, which number represents nearly all those who are of a school-going age.

Before the present reign, England, with all her greatness, was, perhaps, one of the most backward countries in Europe respecting education. She depended solely and entirely upon

voluntary effort. Consequently, her people did that which no other nation, indeed, no other section of the British race, has ever done. Her private enterprise accomplished a wonderful amount of work in this great affair, unparalleled elsewhere. But this beneficent work was not sufficient for the needs of a fast increasing people.

Soon after 1837 a beginning was made by Parliament constituting a Department of Public Instruction and placing it under the Privy Council. Thereon some progress was gradually effected. Subventions for voluntary schools were granted, and a committee of the Council watched over the distribution of these funds. Then normal schools, for the training of teachers, began to be built with State aid. In 1846 public money was granted for augmenting the salaries of teachers. In 1853 the system of "payment by results" was introduced; and grants were given to schools according to the number of pupils in attendance. In 1862 the system became more stringent, and grants were made upon the results of examination. Reliance was still placed on the

voluntary system alone, with such assistance as the State might render under specified conditions. The great step was made in 1870 by the Elementary Education Act in England and Wales, with which the name of Mr. W. E. Forster will be ever associated. The principle of that Act maintained all voluntary schools which existed or might come into existence, giving them grants according to the results of examination, and allowing them to charge fees. But for all places, districts, or localities, where voluntary schools might be insufficient for instructing all the children of a school-going age, the Act not only authorized, but required the constitution of School Boards. These Boards were to gather in the children, to charge such fees as they could levy, and to defray the remainder of the cost of instruction from local rates. To the schools under these Boards the Government made grants on the same terms as to voluntary schools. The Act obliged all children to attend school, but it was optional for them to resort either to voluntary schools or to Board schools. The Government grants were

allowed alike on the same terms to all religious communities, whether Roman Catholic or Protestant, whether Church of England or Nonconformist. School Boards were by degrees established in all the principal places; and the School Board for London became probably the largest educational body, for direct administration, in the world. In the result, about half of the children, or two millions, went to voluntary schools and about the same number to Board schools.

In Scotland the public instruction had always been provided for by law, and, consequently, a School Board system had long existed there. In Ireland, during 1845, elementary education was placed under Commissioners of National Education.

The last step was taken in 1891, when school fees were virtually done away with and education was rendered free to almost all children, whether in voluntary or in Board schools. In lieu of fees a grant of 10s. was allowed annually per head of average attendance under certain conditions.

It may now be said that, with some excep-

tions, every child attends school with more or less regularity; and that the whole people, except the elderly ones whose childhood passed before, say, 1850, can read or write at least in a rudimentary degree.

Technical instruction under public direction in Britain is far behind that on the Continent of Europe, though more than one Act of Parliament has been passed for the furtherance of this object. In such comparison, however, account must be taken of the technical instruction afforded in Britain among the private establishments and factories.

Early in the reign a Department of Science and Art was constituted by the Government. In 1856 the grants to this department amounted to only £65,000 a year. They now amount to three-quarters of a million sterling annually. The control from this department ramifies over a great number of science and art schools and classes throughout the country —having in all some 20,000 pupils.

For higher education there have been instituted the University of London, the Victoria University, with which several colleges in the

north of England have been associated; and similarly several Welsh colleges have been associated under a University of Wales. The ancient Universities of Scotland have been largely reorganized under a special Act of Parliament.

It may be said that all these millions of children at school do, with few exceptions, receive religious instruction during school hours on week-days. At the same time a system of Sunday-school instruction by voluntary effort in all religious communities is now going on. Inasmuch as ceaseless exertions are made by all educational agencies, both public and private, to rescue the waifs and strays, the "ragged" children, "the arabs of civilization," we may believe that but few children can fail to be taught something of religion sooner or later.

But these various measures would never produce their full effect if there were misery and degradation in the homes of the people. Now, although the amount of remediable evil in many centres of population is still tremendous, yet it is well to remember what has been

done within living memory. Almost all that we see around us, in respect to sanitation, public and private, to the guardianship of the public health, to the prevention of many contagious and infectious diseases, to the removal of the plague-spots, which used to be called by such names as "the rookery," and "the holy land," to the improvement of artisans' dwellings, to the provision of open spaces, to stopping the interment of the dead within urban limits, to the protection of those who work underground, to the care of women and children in the mines, to the internal arrangement of factories, and to many other cognate matters—is the work of the present reign.

People whose memory may not reach so far back as 1840 would hardly imagine what terrific reports were then published regarding the condition of the people who excavated the mineral resources which were then placing Britain at the head of the industrial world. Those evils have been almost entirely remedied within the present generation; and in that work the foremost man was the seventh Earl of Shaftesbury.

At the beginning of the reign it was commonly said that the tendency would be for the rich to become richer and the poor poorer. Perhaps such an opinion would hardly be formulated now by those who are versed in economic affairs. At all events the fairly well-off are much more numerous than heretofore, while the dark margin of misery is becoming narrower and narrower. Wages all round in the various occupations in town and country are nearly 50 per cent. higher than formerly, while the necessaries of life are generally less costly than of yore, bread specially being much cheaper. In the profits of industrial enterprise generally a larger share goes to labour and a lesser share to capital than before.

Together with all this improvement, crime, relatively to the population, has diminished by one-half within the reign, and pauperism by one-third. Among the blessed effects of the national education above described there is a marked decrease in that juvenile delinquency which was deplorable in the beginning of the reign.

It is a happy circumstance that during the

reign the condition of women in the educated classes has been remarkably improved, and that the property of married women has been secured to them by legislation.

It must be admitted that, notwithstanding the great development in Savings Banks and Friendly Societies, the thrift of the working classes has hardly increased in full proportion to their prosperity. Still, the deposits in the Savings Banks have grown vastly. In 1830 they amounted to 24 millions sterling; they now amount to 90 millions. The Friendly Societies of several denominations have grown enormously during the reign; they are now 20,000 in number, with more than 6 millions of members, and more than 60 millions sterling of funds. Thus, though the British people are not reputed to be thrifty, yet they are capable of organized thrift; but not in so laudable a degree as some of the European nations.

The introduction of uniform Penny Postage, at the instance of Sir Rowland Hill, is one of the landmarks of the reign. It has been followed by a halfpenny postage for a certain class of letters. It was preceded by a measure

for cheapening the transit of newspapers. Similar measures have been adopted on the Continent of Europe, and the Berne Convention introduced an international tariff. It appears strange now to read the pessimistic views held by well-informed persons regarding the prospect of these measures at the time of their introduction. But the results have more than answered the highest expectations that were formed.

The results, too, in the United Kingdom have been even more striking than in other countries. At one time it was shown that the number of letters in the United Kingdom and the United States together was as great as in all the rest of the world. There is more postal business still done in England than in two or three of the principal European countries combined. The total number of letters and post-cards together in the year is not less than 2,000 millions, or over 6 millions a day. This result has mainly come about within the reign. The newspaper press has advanced in a similar degree, and now nearly 200 millions of copies are sent out during the year. In the beginning

of the reign the United Kingdom had about 500 newspapers; it has now some 2,000.

It was in the beginning of the reign—1837—that the patent was taken out by Cook and Wheatstone for the electric telegraph. Since then the progress of telegraphic communication has been rapid in all countries, but in no dominion so rapid as in the British Empire. In the United Kingdom there are 33,000 miles of telegraph lines. These were first opened by private companies, but were transferred to the State in 1870. But more important than the mileage is the number of messages, which now amounts to 72 millions in the year, and the above length of lines indicates a telegraphic activity unrivalled in any other country. This is partly owing to the cheapening of the rates for transmission. Indeed it hardly costs more to send a telegram now than it did to send a letter at the beginning of the reign. Results of the same sort, though less in degree, have been attained in the Colonies and Dependencies, thereby augmenting our military advances in the movement of armed forces—besides all other benefits.

But these telegraphic results on land are surpassed by the achievements at sea. There are now British submarine telegraphs from Britain to America, to India, to Australia. There are, or soon will be, similar lines from North America, *viâ* the Pacific Islands to New Zealand. The length of submarine lines now open can hardly be less than 150,000 miles, and these mostly belong to British Companies.

In legislation the reign has been signalized by two Acts for Parliamentary Reform whereby the working classes, first in the towns and then in the counties, have been admitted to the Parliamentary franchise. To these measures voting by ballot has been added.

The Parliament just opened in 1897 is the fourteenth of the Victorian reign.

The old system of local administration in the counties (outside the towns) has for the most part been swept away and a new system of local government on the elective principle has been set up first for the counties and then for the rural district and the parishes. The County Council was constituted for London, that is for the whole metropolitan area, and

has become a body of much importance. Whether economy, as well as efficiency, will be promoted by these measures remains to be seen; but certainly the educational effect of them upon the mind of the people is already apparent, and will be so more and more.

The intellectual occupation of the people has increased immensely during the reign. In the beginning of the reign about 1,000 new books were published annually; now the annual number is not less than 7,000; and if the average number of copies for each work be 1,000, then some 7 millions are issued yearly. In consequence of the spread of the English language, within the reign, all over the world, the exportation of books from Britain has increased tenfold, till the value of books exported now reaches the astonishing figure of one million sterling annually. In the beginning of the reign there were 28 public libraries in the country with 1½ million of volumes. There are now nearly 200, with some 7 millions of readers —exclusive of the British Museum. In the beginning, again, there were but 47 Learned Societies; there are now 150, with 30,000

members, and an income of £100,000 a year. But these results, though good absolutely, do not compare favourably with those attained in several other European countries.

It is impossible here to attempt any account of the literature and art of the Victorian Era. Great poets have appeared during the reign; but whether the time has been favourable for poetry is a debatable question. In fiction the richness, abundance and variety in the United Kingdom, have been wondrous, surpassing in these respects any previous time or any other country. In works of History and Memoirs the era has been conspicuous, but more especially has it been signalized by periodical literature, and by the issue of encyclopædias greatly surpassing any works previously known—indeed by all publications for reference demanding research and the collation of knowledge old and new. In Art the popularity of portrait painting has been remarkable, and the National Portrait Gallery has been established; the painting of imaginative subjects has not much advanced. The English School of Water-colour painting, perhaps the best in the world,

though previously founded, has during the reign been developed and sustained. In Ecclesiastical architecture little of note has been done; but in Civil architecture some of the finest structures ever known in England have been reared. Artificial lakes, for the water supply of cities, have been constructed, municipal buildings have been erected in number and magnitude surpassing the examples of former times.

In physical science there were many great names in Britain, and many fundamental discoveries were made by Britons before the reign. Since 1837, however, wondrous progress has been made by them, apart from their fellow-workers in other nations. Their share in the scientific progress of the age cannot be stated without specifying names. Therefore, in the Victorian era, honour may be claimed for the work of Darwin in biology, of Huxley in evolution, of Lister in antiseptic surgery, of Hooker in systematic botany, of Owen in comparative anatomy, of Michael Foster in physiology, of Thomson (Lord Kelvin) in electricity, of Joule and Balfour Stewart in

respect of heat, of Grove in the correlation of forces, of Murchison and Geikie in geology, of Tyndall in respect of glaciers, of Norman Lockyer in solar chemistry and lunar physics, of Huggins in the spectroscope, of Frankland and Roscoe in chemistry, of Tait in the atomic theory, of Cook and Grubb in telescopes, of Pitt Rivers in anthropology, of Lubbock in natural history, of Clerk Maxwell in respect of colour, of Talbot in photography, of Wheatstone in telegraphy, of Bessemer in steel, of Cayley in mathematics, of Clements Markham in geography; and of many others for whose achievements a more adequate review would be requisite than can here be attempted.

The Botanic Gardens at Kew, the Zoological Gardens, the Natural History Museum, in South Kensington, are believed to be among the finest institutions in any country. The expansion of the British Museum is among the marvels of the reign. It is noteworthy that two of the largest scientific operations ever undertaken are Anglo-Indian—namely, the Trigonometrical Survey determining the Himalayan altitudes of the highest peaks yet

discovered; and the Geological Survey of a million of square miles in India.

In the Civil engineering which has wrought wonders for Britain many great names and great works belong to previous reigns. It is possible only to touch lightly the countless works of the present reign. But we must note that the Tay Bridge, the Bhore Ghaut Incline near Bombay, the bridge over the St. Lawrence near Montreal, the Mersey Docks at Liverpool, the Thames Embankment—once described by the French Ambassador, M. Waddington, as the finest municipal work in modern Europe—the Tower Bridge, and a host of other works belong to the Victorian era.

Within the reign the labours of Carlyle, J. S. Mill, Herbert Spencer and others gave a fresh turn to philosophic speculation. The Oxford Movement imparted a powerful impulse to religious thought. The Cambridge Divinity School did much to strengthen the faith of Christians in the Scriptures. The Palestine Exploration Society threw a flood of light on the sacred topography of the Holy Land.

Charities in general and Hospitals in particular have been happily extended and improved during the reign. Their annual income, with a corresponding expenditure, amounts to 11 millions sterling. The growth of the London Charities has actually been tenfold within the reign.

Most of the Protestant Societies for conducting religious Missions among the non-Christians beyond the seas were founded before the reign; but their beneficent operations have made strides onwards since 1837. Their total expenditure in the world at large must be nearly three-quarters of a million sterling annually. Their ordained missionaries are probably a thousand in number, and the persons under their care, in various climes, are not less than a million.

CHAPTER IX.

SUMMARY OF IMPERIAL STATISTICS.

In this chapter will be adduced some statistical facts of Imperial interest, which may, indeed, be consequences of the foregoing chapter, but which have not yet been presented in combination.

The area of the British Empire, with all its latest additions, may be set down at 11½ millions of square miles. This does not, however, include the area of Nepaul, Afghanistan, Beluchistan, the Transvaal, and some other territories—all of which are, according to political calculations, to be considered as within the Empire. If these were added, then the total area would exceed 12 millions of square miles. These gigantic dimensions, as yet unequalled by the dimensions of any dominion known to history, can best be appreciated by a summary com-

parison with some other territorial areas. The nearest approach to them is afforded by Russia, with her $8\frac{3}{4}$ millions of square miles in Europe and Asia together. Next comes China, with her $4\frac{1}{4}$ millions. Then follow the United States, with their 3 millions. France and Germany have now extensive dominions outside Europe. The area of the French Empire may be set down as $2\frac{3}{4}$ millions of square miles, and of the German at $1\frac{1}{4}$ million. It will be seen, however, that if the area of France, Germany, and Russia are taken together, they will make $12\frac{3}{4}$ millions of square miles. Thus the area of the British Empire alone is nearly equal to these three areas combined.

The population of the British Empire, according to the last Census, has been stated by the latest authorities at 382 millions. In this total, however, there are not included some portions of the African Protectorates, the kingdom of Nepaul, Afghanistan—for whose foreign relations and external defence Britain is virtually responsible—Beluchistan, and some other territories. Politically, the several

millions of Egypt are not included for this purpose, although Britain is responsible for their governance and defence. Moreover, the present decade, or decennial term for census, is drawing to its close, and the population for whom the British Sovereign is responsible cannot be set down at less than 400 millions.

The statement of this sum total raises the question as to whether the British Empire is not now the most populous Empire in the world. Hitherto this title has been freely allowed to China. By the latest statistics the population of China and its dependencies is set down at 402 millions. But there is not the same certainty about this figure as there would be with the figures of the British Empire, most of which have been ascertained by censuses decennially taken. But if the Chinese total be not more than that above stated, then it soon will be outstripped, if it be not already so, by the British sum total.

In reference to European nations which have large possessions outside Europe—namely, France, Germany, Russia, Holland—their total

population in Europe and elsewhere does not exceed 300 millions, being less by one-fourth than that of the British Empire alone.

After this statement of the pre-eminent position of the British area and population in the world—the question arises as to how much of it is due to the present reign. In 1837 the area of the Empire was already enormous, not less than 7½ millions of square miles. The population of the British Isles was then about 25 millions, that of India about 180 millions, that of the Colonies of British race 3 millions, together with some slight amount for what are now known as the Crown Colonies. On the whole the population was not more than 210 millions. Thus the accessions to the Empire during the reign may be set down at 4½ millions of square miles and 190 millions of population *—an addition in itself sufficient to constitute a great Empire.*

There then arises the question as to what proportion these 400 millions of people bear to the whole human race. Now the total population of the world cannot be exactly stated. But according to present information it may be

reckoned at 1,400 millions of souls. If that be so, it follows that the British Sovereign reigns over more than one-fourth, and nearly one-third, of mankind.

But these statistics do not represent the whole of British power. For the Empire of Britain exercises a large share of influence over other countries outside her imperial limits, such as China, Persia, Turkey, Argentina, and other parts of South America. Again, the predominance of English among the other languages of the world is becoming more and more marked outside Europe. Indeed, it has become almost the *lingua franca* of the Nations. It is at least the official language of the non-European nationalities of the British Empire, including the American branch of the English-speaking race, and is thus the tongue of 115 millions of white people. No other European language surpasses it in currency ; though the Russian is close to it, perhaps is even abreast of it—at least north of the Equator. Now this expansion of the English speech has largely taken place within the present reign.

The external commerce of the British Isles

and of the Colonies of the British race, taken together, is valued at about 900 millions sterling annually. The magnitude of this figure may be measured by the consideration that it is about equal to the external commerce of France, Germany, Russia, and Austria in combination. At the beginning of the reign the external commerce hardly exceeded 110 millions sterling annually in value; and that of the Colonies of the British race amounted to but a small sum. It may therefore be said that the trade of the British race alone has multiplied more than eight-fold within the reign.

The above comparison with the Great Powers in Europe is made with the European portions only of the British Empire. It is exclusive of the Empire of India and of all the Crown Colonies, of all which the external commerce reaches a further total of 200 millions sterling annually, non-European—the great Indian value in rupees being reduced to its value in gold. If the European and non-European commerce of the British Empire were taken in combination, then the comparison would be enormously favourable to Britain.

As auxiliary to commerce the Railway System of the British Empire demands a brief notice. There are now 72,000 miles of railway open, of which 20,000 pertain to the United Kingdom and 51,000 to the Colonies and Dependencies. Here, again, it is by comparison that the importance of these facts can be weighed. The mileage open in France, Germany and Russia, taken together, amounts to 71,000 miles. Thus these three Great Powers in combination are hardly equal to the British Empire alone. If the comparison were extended to the number of passengers and the quality of goods carried, then the pre-eminence of the British railways would be apparent.

Further, it may be noted that the British Colonies and the Dependencies of Great Britain have about as many miles of railway open as Austria, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Belgium, Holland (in Europe), Denmark, Scandi navia, and Turkey combined.

But the comparison, though eminently favourable to the British Empire as regards all European Powers, yet sinks before the amazing results achieved in the United States,

where the railway mileage has reached the total of 130,000 miles, or more than double the mileage of the British Empire! But the comparison would be much less unfavourable to the British Empire if the work done by the two systems—American and British—in the conveyance of passengers and goods were to be reckoned up. For in Britain the railways are many times more active than in the United States.

In respect of canals, canalized streams and navigable rivers, it is probable that the British Empire has pre-eminence over all other Empires. The United States, with the Mississippi, the Missouri, and the Hudson, have several thousands of miles of such rivers, and so has China. Moreover, before the railways were opened, the United States had 3,200 miles of finely engineered canals for navigation, constructed at a cost of 20 millions sterling. In Europe several countries — France, Italy, Sweden, and others—have excellent canals. But these canal systems, though considerable relatively to their respective areas, cannot bear the least comparison with the systems of the

British Empire. Russia, however, is a wonderful country for inland navigation, and her navigable rivers show the high total of 47,000 miles. This, indeed, is a figure worthy of comparison with a similar figure for the British Empire. In this Empire there are several mighty river systems—namely, that of the Indus and its five tributaries, of the Ganges and Jumna, of the Brahmaputra and Megna, of the many deltaic rivers of Bengal, of the Irawaddy and other Burmese rivers, of several rivers in Central and Southern India, of the lower Niger and its affluent, the Benue, of a part of the Zambesi, of the St. Lawrence, and of the lakes from which it is the outlet. It is difficult to give exactly the sum total of all these systems, but it must fully equal, if it does not exceed, the 47,000 miles in Russia. Moreover, in India there are 15,000 miles of canals for irrigation, including their main arteries, which cost in all 25 millions sterling, and as irrigation works are not equalled in any country. They are among the achievements of the present reign. The capital outlay on these canals happens to be about the same as

that shown for the United States. Lastly, there are 4,000 miles of navigable canals in Britain itself, representing a capital outlay of 30 millions sterling. This occurred for the most part before the reign.

Forestry holds no very large place in the British Isles, but is great in some of the Colonies and Dependencies. In some of the countries in Europe—as in France, Germany, and Norway—there are excellent schools of forestry, with forest areas large enough for those countries, but not comparable with the forest areas of the British Empire. Russia, however, has an enormous area of forests, out of which 60,000 square miles are completely under State management, besides another area more or less under State control. Now, in the British Empire, the forests of Canada are magnificent, very little of which, however, is under State control—a circumstance to be regretted. From them an immense quantity of timber is drawn annually. There is also a vast area of the same sort in Australia. In many parts of British Africa the forests are too dense and the trees too mighty for man to cope with.

But India has a large forest area, of which a goodly part has been for many years past under State conservancy. There the area under regular management by the State amounts to 70,000 square miles, besides other areas more or less under official supervision. This, then, is quite comparable with the Russian area. If what is called technically the annual "cut" of timber be reckoned for Canada, for India, for Burmah and elsewhere, it will probably be found to exceed that of any other empire in the world.

The production of coal lies so near to the root of manufacturing prosperity that it may be well to consider for a moment the position of the British Empire in this respect. Not only is Britain the greatest coal-producing country in the world, but also its Colonies and Dependencies in South Africa, in India, in North America, and even in Australasia have coal fields and coal mines. The total output annually for them altogether may be taken at 200 millions or more of tons. The output of all other countries together would not much exceed 300 millions of tons annually. Thus

the British Empire has about two-fifths of the coal production of the world. Of this wonderful output of British coal about five-sixths have arisen during the reign. At the beginning of it the amount was only 30 millions of tons. One satisfactory cause of the vast increase is this, that the output per miner, that is, the average work done by each man in Britain, exceeds that done by a similar man in any European country.

In the production of gold, if the first place in the world be conceded to America, the second place belongs to the British Empire. Since 1848 the production of gold in Australia must be nearly 300 millions sterling —probably equal to one-third of the production in the world during the time. If in the future the production in Australia should not be fully maintained, still fresh gold-fields are being opened out in British South Africa.

In mining of all kinds Britain has a place of very high eminence. More than 600,000 of her people are thus employed, producing more than 80 millions sterling worth of minerals annually. These figures are just below the

results of the United States; but are nearly equal to those of France, Germany and Belgium put together. The result per miner is about £150 per head annually, nearly equal to that of the United States, and greatly superior to the corresponding averages in the European Continent.

The public revenue—irrespective of local taxation—stands at 96 millions annually for the United Kingdom, 24 millions for the self-governing Colonies, 4 millions for the Crown Colonies—in all 124 millions. To this is to be added the sum of the revenue and receipts of the British Government of India. This stands at the figure of 98 millions of rupees X, or tens of rupees, for the sake of comparison, with the long series of years before the fall of the rupee, when ten rupees represented a sovereign. In those years the 98 millions would have stood for that number of pounds sterling, and in Asia their purchasing power is the same now as then. But at the present value of the rupee they would count for 50 or 52 millions of pounds sterling, and that amount would represent their purchasing

power in Europe. It may be a matter of opinion whether the addition to the 124 millions should be the 98 millions or the 52. So the grand total for the British Empire would be either 222 or 176 millions. In either case the revenue of the Empire would greatly exceed that of any other dominion in the world—although its population generally is more lightly taxed than that of other nations. Of this fiscal wealth very much has accrued or been acquired during the reign. In 1837 the British revenue proper amounted to 48 millions sterling annually, that of India to 21 millions, while that of the other Dependencies and of the Colonies was inconsiderable.

CHAPTER X.

EPITOME OF RESULTS DURING THE REIGN.

It now only remains to summarize the events and results of the reign at home and abroad. Most, if not quite all, of these have been mentioned with more or less of detail in the foregoing chapters.

Though the triumphs of the reign have been in peace rather than in war—yet military operations by sea and land have been required on many occasions, and in many climes, to sustain the world-wide fabric of British power and influence. In the chapters on India, British Africa and the Colonies, allusion has been made to the wars in China, in Afghanistan, in Persia, in Burmah; also to the military operations in Kaffraria, in Zululand, in Ashanti-land, and to the various campaigns and warlike occurrences within the Indian limits. Besides

these there have been important expeditions to Abyssinia, to Syria and to Egypt. At one time lesser expeditions were so frequent that it was commonly said that not a day passed in the year without some British shot being fired in earnest, in one part of the world or another.

In two great conjunctures the whole power of the United Kingdom has been exerted—first, the Crimean War, secondly the suppression of the Indian Mutiny and Rebellion. During three European wars Britain succeeded in remaining neutral—namely, in that between France and Austria, that between Prussia and Austria, and that between France and Germany. In several crises, diplomatic or other—some of which are within the most recent memory—the relations between Britain and some of the Great Powers have momentarily been such that the balance between peace and war actually trembled.

On several occasions during the reign Britain has taken the lead in resorting to arbitration for the settlement of international disputes. The most notable of these were the

award of damages against her for injuries done by the vessel *Alabama*, and the determination, mainly in her favour, of the disputes in respect to the seal-catching and the fisheries in the Northern Pacific. Recently a boundary discussion between British Guiana and Venezuela has been referred to a similar tribunal; and in the early part of this year a general Treaty for the reference of all disputed questions to arbitration was provisionally framed with the Government of the United States.

After this brief preface, the principal circumstances of the reign, as shown in each successive chapter, may be summarized as follows :—

The vital need to the British Isles of an Empire beyond the seas under the free trade system, in contradistinction to the tariff system of nearly all other countries.

The opening out and the development of neutral markets in all quarters of the globe.

The accession of several Native Indian Kingdoms to the British Dominions, the direct administration of the Crown in succession to

that of the East Indian Company. The proclamation of the Empire of India—the increment thereto of 107 millions of population in sixty years — the amalgamation of the Army and Navy of India with those of the Crown.

The advancement of the natives by means of land-settlements, by a magnificent system of canals for irrigation, by public instruction, by the introduction of railways and telegraphs, by the prevention or relief of famine, by the utilization of the Suez Canal for steam communication between India and the East.

The creation of an additional dominion in Africa, composed of various regions, amounting in all to 2 millions of square miles, with a population of more than 40 millions.

The administration of Cyprus, under arrangements with Turkey; the rendition of the Ionian Islands to Greece.

The acquisition of Hong Kong, the opening of China to trade, through a number of treaty ports—the trade development of the Straits Settlements—the incorporation of a large portion of Borneo and New Guinea in

the British Dominion, the annexation of the Fiji Islands, the management of several groups of islands in the South Pacific Ocean.

The concession of autonomy under the name of Responsible Government to Canada, to Newfoundland, to Cape Colony, to Natal, to Australia, including Tasmania and New Zealand.

The amalgamation of Upper and Lower Canada, the North-West Territory, British Columbia, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick into one Dominion; the preparations for the federation of the seven Australian colonies.

The discoveries of goldfields in Australia and South Africa, whereby the British Empire has become the second greatest gold-producing dominion in the world.

The growth of these Colonies till their commerce and revenue in sum total equal those of an European Power of the second rank.

On land—the gradual raising of the peace establishment of the Empire at home and abroad to a strength of about a million of men, of whom more than two-thirds are of the European race.

The abolition of purchase in the army, the short service system, the formation of an army reserve, the further development of the militia, the reintroduction of volunteering, the organization for home defence, the fortification of military ports.

At sea, the substitution of steam vessels for sailing vessels in the Navy, the adoption of armour-plating for ships of war, the manufacture of guns of colossal calibre, the construction of the most powerful battleships and the fastest cruisers afloat, the improvements in the manning of the Navy.

The foundation of a navy in Australian waters.

The provision of fortified coaling stations at all the strategic points in a zone round the globe.

The doubling of the population within the sixty years, despite a large and continuous emigration; the fact that whereas the British Isles were formerly much below France in population, they are now equal to France, and even exceeding her by one-fourth, if the Colonies of British race are to be added.

The growth of London from 2 millions to $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions of population in the Metropolitan area proper, but to 6 millions if those districts which are virtually suburbs be included.

The development of railways to a length of over 21,000 miles, with a capital outlay of about one thousand millions sterling, subscribed by private companies—the growth of goods and passenger traffic being such as to render the British railways the most actively employed of any in the world.

The growth of manufactures to over 800 millions sterling in annual value—that is, an increase of fourfold, of which over two-thirds are used at home, proving that the home market is the best of all markets, and is an index of popular progress.

The advance of British commerce, imports and exports, from 100 millions to 650 millions sterling in annual value, or an increase of sixfold.

The increase of shipping—especially since the repeal of the navigation laws — from $2\frac{3}{4}$ millions of tonnage to over 8 millions, or more than threefold, the augmentation being

specially remarkable in steamers, till the British flag covers nearly half the sea-carrying power of the world, while nearly two-thirds of the shipbuilding of the world will be done in the British Isles.

The creation and application of mechanical resources till the total, as represented by horse power, is twenty-five or thirty times as great as it was at the beginning of the reign.

The trebling or quadrupling of the national income, till it is now estimated at 1,400 millions sterling annually, and the accumulated wealth of the nation at over 10,000 millions sterling.

The financial power of the nation, as evidenced by the fact that from 2,000 to 2,500 millions sterling have been lent to other nations.

The increase of banking elevenfold, till the banks of the United Kingdom alone are equal to half of those in the whole Continent of Europe.

The diminution of the National Debt by 150 millions sterling, with the provision of

further extinction of debt and the lowering of the rate of interest, while the power of the country to bear the burden has vastly increased.

The creation, on the other hand, of a large debt, raised for local improvement, amounting in all to near 200 millions sterling.

The rising of the State revenue and receipts from 48 millions at the beginning of the reign to 96 millions sterling annually—partly brought about by the imposition of the income tax.

The abolition of the corn laws and the repeal of many duties till free trade was fully established.

The promotion of thrift among the people, as shown by the deposits in the saving banks and the vast capital of Friendly Societies of all sorts.

The completion of measures for the abolition of slavery with the Empire.

The foundation and development of the existing system of elementary education—the State expenditure for education rising from almost nothing at the beginning of the reign

to 8 millions sterling annually at the present time, while from 6 to 7 millions of children are at school, representing nearly all those who are of a school-going age; this, irrespective of the large expenditure from local rates and the private resources still applied to voluntary schools, which have a large portion of the scholars in the country.

The introduction of technical instruction with State aid, the State grant of a million sterling annually to the department of Science and Art, the founding of several new Universities, the remarkable increase in the publication of books, in learned societies, in libraries, and in literary institutions.

A marked increase in the general employment of educated womanhood, and the securing to married women of their property.

The existing measures for sanitation, for the improvement of dwellings, for the general protection of the public health, for the public recreation, for the protection of women and children working underground, for the interior arrangement of workshops and factories, for the diminution of juvenile delinquency.

The further amendment of the Poor Laws and the relative decrease of pauperism.

The adoption of the penny postage and other postal reforms, with an amazing increase of correspondence, till the number of letters amounts to about 6 millions a day, with a similar increase in the circulation of newspapers.

The introduction of the electric telegraph, with 33,000 miles of line in the United Kingdom, first under private companies and then transferred to the State—the extending of submarine telegraphs through the oceans of the globe under British companies.

In legislation, two Reform Acts extending the Parliamentary franchise to the working classes, first in the town then in the country, together with voting by ballot; the establishment of an elective system of local government, first for counties, then for districts and parishes.

The devotion of care and money to charities at home and to missions abroad by all the religious bodies in the country.

The increase of territorial area within the

reign of about 4 millions of square miles out of the total 12 millions, and of 191 millions of population out of a total of 400 millions.

The commerce of the Empire multiplying ninefold, and now equal to that of four great European Powers put together.

The railways of the Empire, 72,000 miles in total length, equal in mileage to those of several European Powers in combination.

The Forestry in the Colonies and Dependencies, surpassing that of any other dominion —the length of navigable rivers and canals for irrigation hardly equalled in any other Empire.

The coalfields at home and abroad being so extensively worked that the total output of the Empire is equal to about two-fifths of the total output in the world.

The production of gold, first in Australia, and now in South Africa, giving to the Empire the second place among the gold-producing dominions.

The doubling—almost trebling—of the State revenues of the Empire (irrespective

of local taxation), whereby the total will amount to either 170 millions sterling annually or to 216 millions, according to the way in which the revenues of India may be reckoned—in either case the total exceeding that of any other dominion.

THE END.

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