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THE BRITISH EMPIRE

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THE HIGHLAND CHARGE AT THE BATTLE OF AMOAFUL.

Vol. v. p. 94.

THE CHARGE OF THE HIGHLANDERS AT THE BATTLE OF AMOAFUL.

The King of Ashanti having become insolent and troublesome, the British Government determined in 1873 to send a punitive expedition to the Gold Coast, with Sir Garnet (now Viscount) Wolseley in command. One of the great difficulties encountered by this force was the dense jungle through which it had to pass, where the tangled creepers hung from every tree, and the hot air was thick with steam. Moreover, the enemy in unknown force dogged the advancing column in the woods around, awaiting a favourable moment for attack. At last, on January 31, 1874, the Ashantis made a stand at a place called Amoaful. On all sides the British column was smitten by a shower of bullets, each native warrior being provided with two or three guns, which were loaded by women in the rear. Our men dropped by scores, and as the woods seemed to swarm with unseen foes, there was, at first, a feeling of panic among the troops. The guns, however, came into play, and soon the bursting shells and screaming rockets caused the terror-stricken Ashantis to fall back. Finally, a charge of the Highland regiments across a piece of open ground, where the enemy fell in hundreds, achieved complete victory for the British troops.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

IN THE
NINETEENTH CENTURY

ITS PROGRESS AND EXPANSION AT HOME AND ABROAD
COMPRISING A DESCRIPTION AND HISTORY OF THE
BRITISH COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES

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ILLUSTRATED BY ENGRAVINGS AND MAPS

VOLUME V.



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OUR EMPIRE AT HOME AND ABROAD.

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The vast continent of Africa, apart from her coast-territories, ranked until very recent days as the "great unknown" of geographers and statesmen. Her distant past is one that recalls the names of Egypt, Phoenicia, Carthage, Ophir, Herodotus, Hecataeus, the Greek colony of Cyrene, Alexander, the Ptolemies, Julius

Caesar, Cato of Utica, Antony, and Cleopatra. The earlier centuries of the Christian era bring before us, on the northern fringe, invading Vandals of Teutonic race; conquering Arabs, carrying Islâm along the northern and north-eastern coasts, and introducing some degree of political organization, commercial activity, and civilization, along with the institution of slavery. The dawn of modern history shows us Portugal in her day of exploring and commercial fame; followed by the advent, on the west coast, of English, French, Dutch, and Spanish traders; by the beginning of negro-slavery beyond the Atlantic; and by the foundation of Cape Colony. In the latter half of the eighteenth century, travellers began to raise the veil from the dark interior, but only a century ago precise European knowledge was still confined to a narrow border of the coast. The nineteenth century, especially during the latter half of the period, has brought the nearly complete knowledge, as regards main geographical facts, which has been referred to in previous pages of this work. Such has been the past of the once "dark continent" that is the diplomatic battle-ground of the present, and the political, colonial, and commercial problem of the future. "The awakening of Africa to a new life is one of the most notable events of our times", says Mr. Arthur Silva White, F.R.S.E., Secretary to the Royal Scottish Geographical Society, in the Preface to his work, *The Development of Africa*, which we recommend to all readers who require general information concerning the continent, as regards its geography, climate, populations, religions, slave-traffic, exploration, resources, and political partition. After centuries of neglect, the great region has become the arena of European rivalries which have introduced new political terms in "sphere of influence" and "Hinterland". The former "is applied to certain regions set apart for the exclusive political action of the European power to whom they have been awarded, or to whom they have been recognized as belonging by incontestable right". "Hinterland", cynically defined to mean "as much as one can get", really "applies to the interior parts of the African continent which, geographically or politically, may be justly regarded as the extension or field of expansion of territorial possessions on the coast". *The Partition of Africa*, by Mr. J. Scott Keltie, Assistant Secretary to the Royal Geographical Society, and Editor of a work that needs no praise, *The Statesman's Year-Book*, is another book

containing an excellent account of the territorial history of Africa, including a full description of the "national scramble" in the twelve years ending with 1894, and a forecast on the economic value of the "one barbarous continent now parcelled out among the most civilized Powers of Europe". It will clear the ground if we here briefly indicate the results of the "scramble". Assuming Africa to contain about 11½ millions of square miles, we assign, apart from recent events, about 1½ millions to Morocco, Bornu, Wadai, Bagirmi, and yet unappropriated regions of the north-central and central territory. Turkey, in Tripoli and Egypt, accounts for about 850,000 square miles. The two Boer republics (Transvaal and Orange Free State) in the south-east, and Liberia, the negro-state, on the west coast, contain over 200,000. Seven European nations—Belgium, Portugal, Spain, Italy, Germany, France, and Great Britain—have made away with all the rest, in regions actually occupied and directly ruled, or, to a far larger extent, in vast areas claimed, and accorded by diplomatic agreement, as "spheres of influence" within which no other Power is to intermeddle. Belgian Africa, the Congo State, has an area of over 850,000 square miles. Italy, in the north-east (Abyssinia, Somali-land, Galla), professes to hold 600,000. Spain (western Sahara, Canaries, &c.), has over 200,000 square miles. Portugal (Angola, on the west coast, Mozambique, on the east, and islands on the west) is mistress of nearly 850,000. Germany (Cameroons, on the west coast, and in the south-west, and on east coast) takes above 800,000. France (Tunis, Algeria, Sahara, Gold and Benin Coasts, Sudan, and Guinea, French Congo, Madagascar, and small portions) takes 3 millions of square miles as her share. Finally, Great Britain, with 355,000 square miles in the west (Gambia, Sierra Leone, Gold Coast, Lagos and Yoruba, Niger Territories, and Oil Rivers); 960,000 in the south, south-centre, and south-east (British South and Central Africa); and 1,255,000 square miles in British East Africa, possesses or "protects" about 2,570,000 square miles, and so accounts for the remainder of the whole enormous mass of territory whose people still await the extinction of slavery and of paganism, and the spread of Christian civilization. It is with our dominions in South Africa that we have now to deal.

The earliest history of the territory called CAPE COLONY includes the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, in 1486, by Bartolomeo

Diaz, and the landing of Vasco da Gama, in November, 1487, at St. Helena Bay (120 miles north of the Cape), which he quitted within a few days after a skirmish with natives whom he describes as small in stature, clothed in the skins of animals, and armed with weapons formed of wood hardened in fire and pointed with horn. Thenceforward, different harbours on the south African coast were frequently visited by Portuguese fleets bound to or from the East. In 1503, Antonio de Saldanha, on his way to India, anchored in Table Bay, and ascended the flat-topped mountain to which he gave its name. Seven years later, Francisco d'Almeida, first Governor and Viceroy of the Portuguese possessions in India, landed in Table Bay on his return to Europe, and was killed, with many of his men, in a conflict with the natives. In 1522, the Bay was entered by the *Vittoria*, the first ship that ever sailed round the world, commanded by Sebastian del Cano, whose vessel alone returned to Europe after completing the voyage begun by a squadron of five under Magellan (Magalhaens). The first account of the Cape written in English by an actual observer was that of Thomas Stevens, a priest in the service of Portugal, wrecked near Table Bay, in 1579, on his way to Goa. In the following year, on June 18th, Francis Drake, returning home on the first British circumnavigation of the world, sighted the headland, which he describes as "a most stately thing, and the fairest cape we saw in the whole circumference of the earth". In 1591, the first expedition that left England for the East Indies sailed from Plymouth in three ships under the command of Admiral George Raymond, and put into Table Bay at the end of July. Only one of these first English vessels that ever reached the South African coast arrived at her final destination. The *Merchant Royal*, in August, was sent back as too short-handed for a continuance of her voyage. The *Penelope*, with Raymond on board, foundered at sea on September 12th, four days after leaving Table Bay. The *Edward Bonaventure*, commanded by Captain James Lancaster, made her way to India. This notable navigator and merchant-prince afterwards became one of the twenty-four first directors of the East India Company, and "General" of the first fleet sent out, with John Davis as chief pilot, in the spring of 1601, and it is he whose name, as that of a great supporter of Arctic voyages, was given by Baffin, in 1616, to Lancaster Sound, the strait leading westwards from the north of Baffin

Bay. It is interesting to note the use made of the "call at the Cape", at this early period, by navigators whose cry was "Eastward Ho!" It was the dreadful disease called "scurvy" which, in 1591, crippled the *Merchant Royal*. The stay of some weeks at Table Bay restored the men of the other crews in supplying them with abundance of fresh food through the shooting of sea-birds and the gathering of mussels and other shell-fish along the rocky beach. About forty head of cattle and as many sheep were obtained from the natives at the price of two knives for an ox and one knife for a sheep, and Lancaster succeeded in his shot at a large antelope. Again, in 1601, Lancaster, reaching Table Bay on September 9th, procured life-saving vegetables and fresh meat for his scurvy-stricken crews. Forty-two oxen and a thousand sheep were obtained from the natives in exchange for pieces of iron hoop, and the sick were nearly all restored to health and strength during a residence of seven weeks ashore. The Dutch fleets to and from the East Indies found like advantage in the harbours of South Africa, and early in the seventeenth century Table Bay became a regular resort, a "halfway-house" of refreshment and rest, for the ships of the English and Dutch East India Companies. In 1620, two English commanders of merchant-fleets bound for Asia, Andrew Shillinge and Humphrey Fitzherbert, found themselves together in Table Bay, and, struck by the value of the place for voyagers to and from India, they hoisted the British flag and claimed the sovereignty for James the First, but their act had no sanction either from the Government or from the East India directors, and no possession followed on their patriotic impulse.

The enterprising Dutchmen of the middle of the seventeenth century, when their naval and maritime power and renown were at least on a par with those of Great Britain, were to be the first European holders of territory at the Cape of Good Hope. The enterprise had its origin in a shipwreck. In 1648 the *Haarlem*, on her return from the Indies, became a wreck in Table Bay. The crew and passengers got safe to shore, and remained for five months before they were rescued by a homeward-bound fleet. Two of their number, Janssen and Proot, addressed the directors of the Netherlands East India Company in a memorial which set forth, firstly, the danger to richly-laden Dutch ships from hostile vessels which might, in Table Bay, lie in wait for the homeward-bound;

secondly, the fruitfulness of the soil, the facilities for obtaining cattle, the salubrity and geniality of the climate, and the good behaviour of the natives under just and kindly treatment from Europeans. The Company thereupon resolved to establish a fort, with a settlement for the growth of fruit and vegetables in quantity sufficient for the wants of the garrison and for the supply of Dutch vessels. It was also hoped that a lucrative trade in cattle might be carried on with the natives, and that the undertaking might be made self-supporting. There was, at this time, no intention of founding a colony in the usual sense. In April, 1652, a body of 116 persons, all being servants of the Netherlands East India Company, or female relatives of the same by blood or by marriage, reached Table Bay under Jan Van Riebeeck, formerly a surgeon in the Company's service, as Governor. The men were about one hundred in number, and, after some suffering during the first rainy season, before due shelter had been provided, the new-comers began to flourish by trade and toil. A reinforcement of fifty workmen arrived from Holland, and the work of building and planting was pursued. English and Dutch ships alike, in time of peace between the nations, were supplied with fresh meat, vegetables, and fruit; a hospital for sick soldiers and sailors landed from out-going or home-coming ships was erected; and in a few years' time the garden-plants and fruit-trees of Europe, with young oaks and firs, sent growing in boxes; vines from France and the Rhine Provinces; pigs, horses, sheep of superior breed, dogs and rabbits, were becoming acclimatized in what had now become a genuine settlement of the colonial class.

In 1657, ground was allotted to the first "free burghers", or regular European colonists, in South Africa. These men were discharged soldiers and sailors of the Company's service, who were to have full possession of as much land as they could, in the space of three years, bring under tillage, with payment of a moderate land-tax after that time. This first attempt at colonization had little success, as the new settlers were people of a low class and character, the refuse of various European nations, originally kidnapped into the Company's service. In 1658, slavery was introduced by the arrival of about 300 persons, partly young boys and girls of Angola taken in a Portuguese slave-ship captured by the Dutch, and partly negroes brought from the Guinea coast by one

of the Company's own "slavers". It was not long before the natives, resenting the signs of permanent occupation which they beheld, and the seizure of their pasturage, began to steal the cattle of the Dutch farmers, and petty warfare began which firearms usually decided in favour of the Europeans. In 1662, Van Riebeeck was succeeded as Governor by Wagenaar, under whom peace with the natives was maintained, and some young women were sent out from the Orphan Asylum at Amsterdam as wives for the farmers. In 1672, the colony consisted of 64 "burghers", with wives, children, and Dutch men-servants to the number of about 160, and of nearly 400 civil servants and soldiers of the Company. In the same year, a purchase of land was made from native chiefs, consisting of territory northwards to Saldanha Bay. The payment was made in tobacco, brandy, beads, and bread, to the actual value of £2, 16s., as reported to the Company's Directors, though the sellers were informed, and believed, that the goods were worth 4000 reals, or £800. The natives, it must be stated, have never admitted the right of their chiefs to alienate the land which is held for the common good of all, and this typical transaction shows that the Dutch claim to territory in South Africa rested merely on rights acquired by fraud or by forcible occupation. Trouble from the aborigines soon arose through the incursions made, and through the vast numbers of wild deer of various kinds slaughtered by burghers who preferred hunting to tillage, and warfare was carried on in which both parties aimed chiefly at the capture of sheep and horned cattle.

At this point of our narrative we may briefly notice the native peoples with whom the Dutch settlers and their successors have been brought into contact in southern and south-central Africa. The *Hottentots*, a name given by either the early Portuguese or Dutch navigators, were supposed aboriginal occupants of the south-western extremity of the great continent. They never shrank from union with Europeans, and in course of time a large breed of half-castes has sprung up. The modern *Hottentots* of Cape Colony, having long since lost the language, customs, and dress of their forefathers, and adopted European habits, bear little resemblance, save in person, to those who were found by the early Dutch settlers. Slight in build, and of the ordinary stature; yellowish-brown in complexion; with projecting cheek-bones, narrow and pointed chin,

thick lips, flat nose, wide nostrils, woolly hair, and scanty beard, they added to the charm of their faces the marvellous sounds that issued from their mouths in a language that resembled, to European ears, a continued clattering of the teeth, and consisted of a series of clicks, a sort of link between articulate and inarticulate speech, made by striking the tongue in various ways against the teeth or the roof of the mouth. A slight variation in the click gave a diverse meaning to the sounds. They were a simple set of fairly flourishing people, divided into tribes each with its own chief, and living in a patriarchal fashion as tenders of herds and occasional hunters, dwelling in movable huts of wood or tents made of wicker-work and rush-mats. Their leisure hours were given to feasting with marvellous gluttony and lack of cleanliness as to the food devoured; to dancing, singing, and smoking. They have been credited with signs of some mental power in the composition of sacred and secular songs, with reed-music regularly taught to the young, and in the possession of a rich and intricate mythology, and of abundant fables, legends, proverbs, and riddles. Their religion was confined to the use of professional sorcerers in averting by prayers and charms the influence of an evil spirit. The Namas, or people of Namaqualand, have retained most of the original Hottentot type, as a nomadic people preserving many ancient practices and customs. The Griqua half-breeds are the most Europeanized, now numbering, with perhaps 20,000 surviving Hottentots, about 100,000 persons, semi-civilized in habits, customs, and dress.

The *Bushmen* (*Bosjesmans*), lower in the scale of humanity than the Hottentots whom they hated, were and are a nomadic people of the Kalahari Desert. A thin wiry dwarfish race, only $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet in average height, red-hued in skin, and an ugly caricature of Hottentots in all but their own bright eyes, they till no soil; have no cattle, sheep, or goats; are ruled by no chieftain, make no dwellings, but live in caves or in holes dug in the ground, feeding on the flesh of wild animals hunted or domestic animals stolen, and on roots and berries, wild plants and grubs, locusts and reptiles of various kinds. Their speech is a worse kind of clicking and gurgling than the Hottentot talk. Passionate, cruel, intensely fond of a free and wandering life, the Bushmen, ranking among the most degraded of mankind, would never submit to any control from or amalgamation with Europeans, and are now far on the way to extinction. South-

central and east-central Africa are chiefly peopled by various tribes of the great *Bantu* race, which may be compared, as regards extent and complexity of language, to the Aryan peoples of Asia and Europe. They include the various families of Kaffirs (Kaffres, or Caffres, from the Arabic *Kafir*, unbeliever)—Pondos, Fingos, Zulus, Swazi, and others in the south-east—and, extending northwards almost to the Somali and Swahili country of the east coast, the Bantus comprise also the Bechuanas, Basutos, Matabele, and many other nations of the south-central territories. The *Kaffirs* in no wise employ the name given to them by Europeans, but have a separate title for each tribe, ruled by a chief with authority checked by a body of councillors. Varying in colour from light brown to sepia-black, the Kaffirs are fine, tall, erect, muscular, well-formed men, with a skull of European shape, but displaying the negro type in a broad nose, thick lips, and woolly hair. With stock-breeding and hunting as the chief occupations of the men, they live chiefly on game and milk, and on maize and millet raised by the women. The kraals or villages consist of beehive-shaped huts formed of strong wicker-work frames thatched with reeds and grass, the largest dwellings being about 25 feet in diameter, and from 7 to 8 feet high in the centre. The religion of the people lies in little more than ceremonies and sacrifices used to appease malignant spirits, and in a belief in witchcraft that supports a class of “witch-doctors” for the detection of persons in alliance with the powers of evil, and for the causing of rain in time of drought. Before the days of trade with Europeans, the people had some skill in working copper and iron, and in pottery and wood-work. Ever brave in battle, the Kaffir warriors bore a shield of ox-hide on a wooden frame, five feet in length, and used in offence heavy-headed clubs and assegais, or slender spears of hard wood tipped with grooved heads of hammered iron. These weapons were hurled with great force and accuracy, and, as we learned to our cost, in conflict with the Zulus, who carried a somewhat heavier weapon, might be used with effect at close quarters against inferior numbers of men armed with breech-loading rifles. In modern days, the *Zulus* became, in physical, intellectual, and moral character, the highest development of the Kaffir tribes or clans, with a democratic polity in which elected chiefs held power during pleasure, and laws expressed the people’s will. The *Bechuanas*, best known to us

through the labours and writings of the illustrious missionaries and travellers Moffat and Livingstone, were divided into several tribes, and have been, during the nineteenth century, found more advanced in civilization than other nations of South Africa, ready to embrace Christianity, and ruled under a system of free "local government". Living chiefly by cattle-rearing and husbandry, they work with some skill in iron, copper, ivory, and skins. The *Basutos*, closely akin to the Bechuanas, are superior to most of the Kaffirs in intelligence and industry, but rank below them in bodily development and warlike energy. They are among the most civilized of the South African peoples.

Under the rule of Simon van der Stel, "Commander" of the Cape colony from 1679 to 1699, a new start was made in tillage by the establishment of eight families in the beautiful valley, with a good stream of water and fine trees, called from him Stellenbosch, about 30 miles east of Cape Town. Abundant harvests of wheat were raised, supplying the soldiers and "burghers" at the Cape with bread in place of the usual biscuits and rice. This success was followed, in 1685, by the emigration from Holland of about fifty heads of families, mostly small farmers, with a few mechanics, accompanied by wives and children, and of about the same number of young women. The new immigrants were steady, industrious, and religious people, who would have proved to be a valuable addition to the colony but for the institution of slavery, which soon corrupted their habits of steady personal application to work. In the time of Van der Stel, much exploration of the country to the north and east was made, and the natives far beyond the settlement had become subject to the Dutch authorities. The progress of the colony was much retarded by the tyrannical rule of the Company, requiring cultivators to deal only with the Government, both for the purchase of necessaries and for the sale of their produce at a price fixed by the officials. This restriction of private trade made it difficult to grow rich, and sorely discouraged the immigration of men of capital and enterprise. In 1688, after Louis the Fourteenth's revocation of the Edict of Nantes, a valuable accession of ability and character was made in the arrival of about 300 Huguenot refugees from France, men, women, and children, sent out from Holland on the footing of the other colonists, by which, having no freedom of trade and no voice in the government, they were in

reality unpaid servants of the Netherlands East India Company. In spite of this, the skill, industry, and frugality of the new-comers, some of whom were people of high rank, others manufacturers, and others vine-tillers, wine-makers, and distillers, soon placed beyond the reach of want those who had landed in a penniless condition. A great impulse was given to the cultivation of the vine and the manufacture of wine. The use of the Dutch language was imposed on the French immigrants both for religious services and in all public affairs, and the French tongue was lost in the third generation, but the Dutch idiom was much modified through the influence of the new population. A very large number of the South African Dutch, or "Africanders", of the present day are descended from these Huguenot colonists, alliance with whom was sought or gladly accepted by the better class of the whites. In 1690, Van der Stel was promoted to the rank of "Governor" for his exertions in behalf of the colony. It was he who planted the famous vineyard of Constantia, called by his wife's name, a few miles from Cape Town, which has given its appellation to the district on the eastern and north-eastern slopes of Table Mountain range, and to the well-known red and white sweet wines of fine aroma that are still among the best of the Cape vintage-produce. In 1691, the colonists numbered over one thousand, possessed of about 300 horses, 4000 cattle, 50,000 sheep, and half a million of vines, and harvesting good crops of barley, wheat, and rye. The government of Adrian van der Stel, son of Simon, lasted from 1699 to 1706, and was marked by tyrannical conduct ending in his recall. He had, however, done some good service in setting the example of constructing reservoirs for irrigating land in times of drought. The policy of the Government, compelling farmers to sell their corn and wine at the Company's stores in Cape Town for about one-third of the rates that could be obtained from ship-captains, caused an expansion of territorial bounds in driving colonists forth from tillage-farms to great tracts of grazing-land leased out to them at a trifling rent. There were also adventurous Europeans who took to hunting the abundant game as one means of living, and, with a few cattle at pasture, ever moved forward, driving the Hottentots before them.

We have some interesting accounts of life at Cape Town about this time, which contain instructive matter concerning the Dutch method of colonial rule. In April, 1691, the English ship *Defence*,

from the Indies, called at the Cape, with nearly all the crew sick of the usual mariner's scourge. Among those whom scurvy had spared was the famous navigator William Dampier, already seen by us in the earlier days of Australian history. We find from his description that the restrictions on trade produced illicit dealing, and that the colonists were prohibited from catching, for sale on their own account, any of the abundant and excellent fish in the waters of Table Bay. A modern historian of South Africa, Mr. Theal, traces to this the fact that the Dutch, who were among the most hardy and successful fishermen in Europe, have never in South Africa resorted to this means of livelihood. We learn that most families had a few Hottentots in their employ, doing light work in return for food, lounging about dressed in sheep-skins, and making a great noise on moonlight nights in singing and dancing. From other contemporary sources we hear of the harsh treatment of slaves; of the great use made of the hospital by the sick crews of the ships that were constantly calling at the Cape; of the "nearly two hundred houses" of the town, in wide streets laid out at right angles to each other, many of the dwellings having large courtyards and fine gardens; of the abundance of wild animals in the neighbourhood, with hyænas performing the work of scavengers in the streets by night. In 1713, one-fourth of the Europeans in Table Valley died of small-pox brought by patients returning from India. The disease spread to the out-settlers, and whole kraals of natives, living in filth, and overcome by despair on seizure, were destroyed. Two years later, the first colonial "commando", composed of thirty mounted burghers, took the field in pursuit of Bushmen who had driven off 700 sheep belonging to a farmer. This was the beginning of a warfare with the natives—Bushman, Hottentots, and Kaffirs,—which continued, at intervals, through the whole of the Dutch, and for many years of British rule. In 1722, the dangers of the sea in Table Bay, then unprotected by any artificial aids, were terribly shown in a storm which wrecked ten anchored ships, with the loss of 660 lives and of property worth $\frac{1}{4}$ million sterling. A government which took no pains to provide roads or bridges could not be expected to attempt a breakwater, but after a like disaster in 1737, the Company's ships were ordered to resort to Simon's Bay, to the south of the Cape peninsula, during the winter months, as complete shelter under the land was there found from

the north-west gales which then occur. From that time, the roadstead became an important naval station, situated on the west side of False Bay, and being an inlet of the land as it runs south-east to end in the actual Cape of Good Hope, about 30 miles to the south of Cape Town.

We now, as we approach the middle of the eighteenth century, find the Dutch farmers taking up vast tracts of land in the interior, and laying them out in cattle-runs of 5000 acres and upwards. In 1755, another visitation of small-pox slew nearly 1000 Europeans and a larger number of natives in Table Valley. At this time, Governor Tulbagh (1751-1771) was in power, and proved himself to be one of the best Dutch rulers of the colony. In spite of his strict sumptuary laws, rigid etiquette, and severe military discipline, he was very popular. He had risen by courage and ability from the position of a private soldier in the Company's service, and his honesty, good sense, and keenness in affairs enabled him to meet all the expenses of government without laying any new tax upon the burghers. The trade which he drove in supplies, at good prices, with British and French ships, as well as Dutch, which were by him encouraged to call at the Cape, enabled him to pay remunerative rates to the growers, and yet to leave a good margin for his employers, the Company. This period of prosperity was long afterwards spoken of as "the good old times of Father Tulbagh". Wine sent to Europe, and wheat to Batavia, were the principal exports, with some skins and ostrich-feathers, and a little ivory obtained from the adventurous hunters who had begun to turn to profit the elephants which at that time swarmed in the land. The natives caused but little trouble under Tulbagh's administration, the Hottentots within the European settlement being usually governed by chiefs of his appointment, and the courts of law being open to all natives, with a certainty of redress for oppression or ill-treatment at the hands of colonists. On the northern border there were "commandos" sent out which inflicted severe punishment on large parties of Bushmen who stole cattle. In December, 1764, Lord Clive, on his way to India, was received with distinguished honour by the Governor, who placed Government House at his disposal and furnished him with a military guard.

With the death of Tulbagh in 1771, the best days of Dutch supremacy at the Cape had an end. Among the evils of their

latest period of rule was the cruel treatment of slaves, whom their masters kept in ignorance of the Christian faith, because the Dutch law forbade any baptized person to remain in bondage. On the frontier, Bushmen and Hottentots were hunted down for compulsory service as herdsmen and domestics, the adults in the kraals being killed, and the helpless children carried off for training in servitude. The extirpation of adult heathens was supposed to be a pious work. The natives retorted by incessant robberies of cattle, and many farmers died from the Bushmen's poisoned arrows. Tulbagh's successor, Van Plettenberg, was complained of as an arbitrary ruler, and his subordinate officials were denounced as oppressive and corrupt. Prosperity and liberty were alike wanting to the colonists at and near Cape Town, and the burghers, learning the independence achieved by the American colonists of Great Britain, aspired to personal and commercial freedom. Their petitions to the Government in Holland failed, and the outbreak of war, in 1780, between that country and Great Britain, foreshadowed the opening, at no distant date, of a new era in South Africa. The colony, at this time, had a militia of 3000 men, but they were dispersed over an area of about 100,000 square miles, and were partly engaged in border-warfare with Bushmen and Kaffirs. In June, 1781, De Suffren, the great French naval commander, having outsailed the British fleet under Commodore Johnstone, saved the colony by landing two regiments. In the following year, the Cape garrison was reinforced by the arrival of the Luxemburg Regiment, raised in France to serve the Dutch East India Company. After the peace of 1783, the Company still refused to make any real change in the method of government at the Cape, and turned their attention to measures of defence against foreign foes. An officer of engineers, Cornelis Van de Graaff, was Governor from 1785 to 1791, and in 1788 the garrison at the Cape consisted of 3000 regular troops, including 400 engineers and artillerymen who greatly strengthened the fortifications of Cape Town.

In 1795, when the Netherlands had been conquered by France, and the garrison of Cape Town had been much weakened by the despatch of troops to Java, a British expedition, under Admiral Elphinstone and General Craig, arrived at Simon's Bay. Simon's Town was occupied, and the coming, in September, of three British regiments and a strong force of artillerymen and engineers, made

resistance impossible for the Dutch Commissioner, Sluysken, then in charge. A capitulation placed Great Britain in possession of the colony, on condition of the Dutch settlers retaining their existing rights and being subject to no new imposts. In the following year, a Dutch squadron of nine vessels, with 2000 troops on board, was captured by Elphinstone in Saldanha Bay, and the soldiers, who were Germans, enlisted for service in our East Indian possessions. The purpose of our conquest was revealed in 1797 when Lord Macartney, appointed Governor of the Cape, announced that it would be held by Great Britain as commanding the ocean-route to India. The declaration is itself the most severe condemnation of the almost inconceivable folly of British rulers who, in 1802, under the Treaty of Amiens, restored Cape Colony to Dutch possession. We find that in 1805 a census showed that the colonists of European descent, exclusive of Dutch troops, numbered nearly 26,000; that there were also nearly 30,000 slaves, and about 20,000 Hottentots, Bushmen, and half-breeds, as servants bound by agreements for various terms. The population of Cape Town, in these latest days of Dutch rule, consisted of 6273 Europeans and nearly 10,000 slaves. We may note here that, under the control of the Netherlands, the colony had never been open to free immigrants; that little had been done to develop the great resources of the territory; that internal improvement of the colony for its own sake had been utterly neglected; that in 1795, at the close of the Company's period of rule, there were neither roads nor bridges worthy of the name; that Table Bay and Simon's Bay were alone open to commerce, and that in those ports nothing but a wooden jetty had been erected to facilitate trade. The people were oppressed; the expenditure exceeded the revenue; the civil service was corrupt; the laws were complicated, and, in many cases, impolitic and unjust; the legislative, administrative, and judicial powers were combined in one body; personal freedom did not exist for those who lived within reach of a Government that, at any moment, might seize and exile any person without trial, and impress for service, without remuneration, the slaves, horses, oxen, waggons, and harness of any settler. The Christianity professed by the Dutch rulers had converted only a handful of Hottentots and slaves. Industry was discouraged, education neglected, slavery maintained and increased not only by importation, but by the retention in

bondage of those whom Dutch law declared to be free. The rule of the Company had been, in fact, a curse instead of a blessing to the country, and it was British conquest that alone prevented the coming of anarchy as the result of insurrection amongst colonists who were wholly unfit for self-government and only understood freedom as the right of every white man to do as he pleased, and to treat the natives according to his own will. The rule of the Company must in any case have ceased through the bankruptcy caused by the extinction of its trade in the action of British cruisers, and South Africa was saved from ruin, in the very crisis of her affairs, by the strong grasp of British intervention and control.

Already, during the brief British occupation from 1795 to 1802, the people had experienced a favourable change in the methods of rule. The torture of suspected criminals came to an end, and the racks, wheels, and other instruments of cruelty exposed to view at Cape Town were promptly destroyed. The finances were brought into a state of equilibrium; taxation was lightened; trade with Europe was thrown open to all; the natives were assured of protection from wrong, to the great disgust of the Dutch frontier-farmers. In 1800, the London Missionary Society began the civilizing work in which the labours of a noble band of men were to show them forth at once as apostles of religion, pioneers of trade, scientific explorers, and champions of freedom for native races. Within the colony, and beyond the frontiers, mission-stations arose, and little companies of Hottentots and Griquas became converts to the faith. The better class of citizens, viewing the increase of freedom and prosperity that had come with a change from Dutch to British rule, greatly deplored the retrocession made by the Treaty of Amiens, but they had not long to wait for another and final occupation. In 1801 the colony had an area of about 120,000 square miles, bounded on the east by the Great Fish River, on the north by a curved line extending from near Colesberg, just south of Orange River, to the mouth of Buffels River in Little Namaqualand, and it was divided into four districts—the Cape, Stellenbosch with Drakenstein, Swellendam, and Graaff Reinet. The two former produced large supplies of fruit, grain, vegetables, and wine; the two latter were mostly in the hands of graziers. The colony had not a single book-shop, nor was there any newspaper

until 1800, when two merchants at Cape Town, Messrs. Walker and Robertson, published the first number of the *Capetown Gazette and African Advertiser*. The first book printed in South Africa, a spelling-book for use in mission-schools, came out in 1800, under the auspices of Dr. Vanderkemp, one of the first two missionaries sent out by the London Society.

It was towards the end of 1805 that a powerful fleet under Sir Home Popham, with an army of between 5000 and 6000 men under Sir David Baird, went forth, in the days of Trafalgar and Austerlitz, for the seizure of Cape Colony. On January 4th, 1806, the fleet came to anchor off Cape Town, between Robben Island and the coast. The troops, including the 71st, 72nd, and 93rd Regiments, forming the Highland Brigade, were landed, and the march on Cape Town began. The Governor, General Janssens, with an army of about 5000 men, composed of a few regulars, mounted burghers, and a battalion of French seamen and marines, with 23 guns, met his foe at the summit of the Blaauwberg. His men were not fitted to cope with veteran troops, and, after some severe firing and a brave resistance on the part of the Dutch, a bayonet-charge of the Highlanders, forming the British left wing, put the enemy to flight with a total loss of 700 men in killed and wounded, more than three times that of the victors. Resistance to so powerful an armament was impossible at Cape Town, and on January 10th, 1806, the place was surrendered with the honours of war. Eight days later, the brave Janssens, abandoned by most of his men, also submitted on honourable terms, and the Dutch troops were all conveyed to Holland at our charge. Thus did Cape Colony pass into British possession. On the downfall of Napoleon in 1814, a convention was made between Great Britain and the Netherlands, restoring to Holland all her possessions captured during the war, except those in South America and South Africa. With all the generosity of those who deal with other people's money, the British ministers added to the crushing expenditure of the great war by paying to the Dutch Government six millions sterling for our retention of what was fair prize of war. It was also conceded that Dutch vessels on their way to the East should be allowed to obtain supplies and repairs on the same conditions as British ships, and that the colonists should be allowed to trade with Holland. Our possession of Cape Colony was finally

ratified, in 1815, by the Congress of Vienna, after its acquirement had cost in all the sum of 16 millions sterling.

Under the government of the Earl of Caledon, from 1807 to 1811, the slave-trade, as distinguished from slave-holding, was abolished, and some excellent reforms included the establishment of annual circuits of judges in the inland-districts and of postal communication throughout the country, with regulations that secured better treatment for the Hottentot subjects of the British crown. Under the next Governor, Sir John Cradock, in power from 1811 to 1814, the work of organization was vigorously maintained. Improvement of the land-laws gave security of tenure, and afforded facilities for settlers to acquire their holdings. The depredations of Kaffirs on the eastern borders were sternly repressed by regular troops, and in 1812 Graham's Town was founded as head-quarters for the military forces in that region, receiving its name in honour of Colonel Graham, whose energetic operations had driven 20,000 invaders beyond the Great Fish River. Important events occurred during the governorship of Lord Charles Somerset from 1814 to 1826. In 1815 discontent arose among a number of the Boers, or Dutch farmers of the interior, partly caused by a really beneficial change in their tenure of land, partly by laws that gave Hottentots redress for ill-usage. An open rebellion was crushed, with some loss of life, by British troops and loyal burghers, and five of the insurgents were convicted and hanged, a measure of just severity which thenceforth maintained outward loyalty, but was bitterly remembered by that class of our subjects. In 1820 and 1821 a further barrier against native attacks on the eastern frontier was created by a scheme of colonization for which Parliament voted the sum of £50,000. About 4000 new settlers, including a small body of Scottish immigrants, were landed in Algoa Bay, and the main body, after a year or two of initial difficulty, began to prosper in the Albany district, on the south side of the lower course of Great Fish River. It was at this time that Port Elizabeth was founded on the shore of Algoa Bay, and named after his wife by Sir Rufane Donkin, acting-Governor in the absence of Lord Charles Somerset. The boundaries of the colony were extended, on the east, to the Keiskama River, and two military posts were established after desperate fighting with a great host of Kaffirs. In this contest, which may be regarded as the first of a series of Kaffir wars,

the natives, headed by a chieftain named Makana, were repulsed from Grahamstown by a company of the 38th Regiment and a body of Hottentot troops, 320 men in all, strengthened by some field-guns, with the loss of 500 of their bravest warriors left dead on the ground, and about twice as many more severely wounded. The victors lost but eight men in inflicting this terrible repulse. Mr. Theal's *History of the Cape Colony* should be consulted for many interesting and, in some cases, romantic particulars concerning this and other contests with these gallant opponents of British arms in South Africa. Amidst material progress in this quarter of the empire, we may here notice the establishment, in 1818, of the collection of books at Cape Town which was to become so famous and valuable as the "South African Public Library"; and the foundation, in 1820, by the Board of Admiralty, of the Royal Observatory. The rule of Lord Charles Somerset, resumed in December, 1821, was not popular. He placed much restriction on the liberty of the press, and in 1822 issued a proclamation which forbade all persons to convene or attend public meetings for any purpose, without the previous sanction of the Governor or of the *landdrost* (judge or magistrate) of the district. Complaints to the home-government caused, after inquiry by a Royal Commission, the appointment, in 1825, of an Executive Council of six members to assist and advise the Governor of Cape Colony. In the same year, the English language was first employed, instead of Dutch, in "ordinances" and proclamations, and the residents of Cape Town soon became obliged to have their children taught to speak English, for social as well as commercial use. Judicial proceedings were first conducted in English in 1827, and in the following year all documents issued from the Colonial Secretary's office were required to be so published. Official notifications in the *Government Gazette* were still for many years made in both languages.

In 1828 a great judicial reform was effected in the establishment of a Supreme Court consisting of a chief justice and three puisne (inferior, assistant) judges, all appointed by the Crown. Since 1806 the judges in the colony had been nominated by the Governor and were removable at his pleasure. At the same time, the old Dutch *landdrosts* and *heemraden* were superseded by resident magistrates and civil commissioners in the country districts for the administration of justice and the general direction of affairs.

In the following year, British rule was honoured by the issue of an Order in Council assigning "all and every right, benefit, and privilege enjoyed by other British subjects" to "all Hottentots and other free persons of colour lawfully residing within the Colony". It was in 1833 that the Act abolishing slavery throughout the British colonial dominions placed all dwellers in Cape Colony on the same level as regards personal freedom. The slave-owners received the sum of £1,247,000 as their share of the £20,000,000 voted by Parliament, an award which was denounced as "confiscation" on the ground that the emancipated slaves were worth above 3 millions. In October of the same year, the colonists were, for the first time, in some degree represented in the government through the creation of a Legislative Council consisting of five *ex-officio* members, and of five to seven members chosen by the Governor from among the chief citizens. The colony had been making steady progress for some years prior to 1835. In 1829 the South African College was founded by means of capital subscribed by citizens desirous of superior education for their sons, and, with aid from the Government and subsequent benefactions, it became a very valuable institution. New towns and villages had arisen, and the country was being opened up in the construction of good roads. The good work of missions was actively pursued by the London, the Rhenish, the Paris Evangelical, the Berlin, and other societies, special success being obtained among the Basutos. In the eastern districts of the colony, in particular, great progress was made in agricultural and commercial affairs. Grahams-town, in 1834, contained nearly 4000 people, besides the military element, and Port Elizabeth, with 1200 inhabitants, was also becoming a flourishing centre of trade. All over the country, the landscape was made fairer by the view of comfortable farmhouses, and a friendly feeling grew between the new English settlers and the old Dutch colonists, often marked by marriages of the rising generation. Darker days were at hand, bringing renewal of conflict with the more warlike natives, and a great secession of the Dutch farmers, which, after serious trouble, ended happily in the foundation of the colony of Natal. The "Great Trek (travel by waggon) of the Boers", beginning in 1835, will be related, with its chief causes, incidents, and results, in the history of Natal.

The Kaffir War of 1835 began with an invasion made by several

thousand warriors across the south-eastern frontier. In the last days of December, 1834, the country was swept with the plunder and burning of farmhouses, the slaughter of the males, and the retirement of the raiders with a vast booty in horses, horned cattle, and all kinds of property. About 2000 settlers, reduced to destitution, fled to Grahamstown, and the total losses were officially proved to amount to about 5500 horses, over 110,000 cattle, nearly 160,000 sheep, and 455 houses, involving the ruin of 7000 colonists. The Colonial Office in London had greatly reduced the military force, and Colonel Somerset, in charge of the frontier, could only muster 400 infantry and 200 mounted Hottentots, all assembled for the defence of Grahamstown. On the last day of 1834, a mounted messenger brought the tidings to Cape Town. Sir Benjamin D'Urban, recently become Governor, sent four companies of infantry and a troop of horse under Colonel Smith, whom we have seen at a later day as Sir Harry Smith, victorious at Aliwal and Sobraon, in the First Sikh War. The men marched, almost without rest, for six days and nights, and were quickly followed by the Governor himself, bringing up a most welcome reinforcement in the 72nd Regiment (now the Seaforth Highlanders), which had just reached the Cape on the way to India. Orders had been issued for "commandos" of the farmers, and for Hottentot levies, and every male inhabitant on the scene of action, capable of service, was bidden to take arms under a proclamation of martial law. The Boers turned out in large numbers, and the whole body swept forward into the enemy's country in irresistible strength. The fierce, retributive march was only stayed on the eastern bank of the Kei River, and the hostile chiefs made a prompt submission. Fifty thousand head of cattle and 1000 horses were given up in part compensation for the losses of the settlers, and a gratifying result of this expedition was the liberation of an enslaved people called Fingos. These hapless persons, numbering 4000 men, 6600 women, and 11,700 children, were the remnants of once powerful tribes that had been dispersed and driven southwards by the conquests of a great Zulu chieftain named Tshaka, and had since then been in bondage among the Amaxosa Kaffirs, the authors of the recent invasion, and had been treated with the utmost contumely and cruelty. They welcomed, as a matter of course, the British expedition of reprisal, and gave useful information and other aid.

The greater part made their way to our camp, and Sir Benjamin D'Urban, to the intense disgust of those who saw their prey slipping from their grasp, resolved to rescue them for ever from the clutch of savage masters. They were permitted to equip themselves, at the enemy's cost, with all that was needful for a new career of liberty and peace, and it was a cheering sight for British troops and settlers when the Fingos passed into Cape Colony, the men driving forward many thousands of cattle to stock the lands to be allotted, the women laden with baskets of corn, sleeping-mats, milking-buckets, and cooking-pots, and bearing on their backs one or more infant children. The rescued nation, as they marched exultingly on, broke into snatches of wild, rejoicing, and triumphant song, crying to each other again and again, as if continued repetition could alone assure them of their almost incredible luck, "We go to the place of the good people". This exodus from the house of bondage, the passing of the Kei by the liberated Fingos, occurred on May 7th, 1835. They have never ceased to be grateful, loyal, and useful subjects of the power that set them free. It is painful to have to relate that further conflicts with the Kaffirs were made inevitable by the conduct of Lord Glenelg, then in charge of the Colonies under Lord Melbourne. Sir Benjamin D'Urban had proposed to extend the eastern boundary of the colony to the Kei River, and to secure the country against future inroads by driving the Kaffirs beyond the Kei and establishing a chain of military posts. The recent invasion had been wholly unprovoked, but the Whig official in London, knowing nothing of the Kaffir character, chose to adopt a "pacific policy", ordering the British forces to be withdrawn within the old boundary of the Fish River, and appointing agents at different points to whom farmers robbed of cattle must make complaint, and never dare, without permission, to follow the *spoor* or tracks of the animals and Kaffir thieves, and so engage in attempts at personal reprisal. The English settlers were amazed and indignant; the Dutch farmers (Boers) were more than ever resolved to quit the colony; the Kaffirs, as everyone in Cape Colony knew they would, regarded indulgence as proceeding from weakness or fear; D'Urban, like a man of spirit, promptly resigned his office, and was succeeded by Sir George Napier. The Kaffirs then resumed possession of their fastnesses in the Amatola Mountains, of which D'Urban's proposed extension of the frontier would for ever

have deprived them, and soon, on a smaller scale, but in a continuous fashion that caused great total loss, they again attacked the frontier-farms, carrying off cattle with the occasional burning of houses and murder of men. For ten years the colonists near the border had to endure this state of affairs, and the feeling in favour of representative rule, and of freedom from the control of officials in London, grew ever stronger throughout the land.

Before proceeding to a brief account of another Kaffir war due to the policy initiated by Lord Glenelg and carried out by the successors of the wise and energetic D'Urban, it is pleasing to note a great educational advance in the colony. There were free government-schools in the larger places, and a few private schools, chiefly in the eastern districts, but the backward state of elementary education for European children is shown by the fact that in 1839 only 500 pupils were being instructed at government-schools throughout the colony. The change that came was mainly due to the suggestions and personal efforts of Sir John Herschel, the eminent astronomer, whom we have seen elsewhere in this record. Residing near Table Bay, for scientific observation, from January, 1834, to May, 1838, he saw the intellectual wants of the people, and framed an admirable system of national education and public schools which was carried out in a sagacious and liberal manner by Sir George Napier, the Governor, and his Colonial Secretary, Mr. Henry Montagu. School Commissions, including the resident clergymen and justices of the peace, were appointed in each district. Pecuniary aid was awarded to properly conducted schools, and to the existing mission-schools for coloured children. Herschel, on his return to England in 1838, busied himself, amidst all his other labours, in selecting and sending out suitable teachers, and a good beginning was made in the work which, in the census-returns of 1875, showed 62 per cent of Europeans, and 16 per cent of mixed races, as able to read and write. In 1843, the establishment of "Road Boards" led to a great improvement in the colonial communications. In 1846, we find wool rising, with an export of $3\frac{1}{4}$ millions of pounds weight, to the prominent position which it was to hold among the products of South Africa.

In the same year, the "War of the Axe", long prepared for by the Kaffir chief Sandili, came to trouble the eastern border. The struggle derives its name from its immediate origin in the arrest of

a Kaffir for the theft of an axe. Manacled to a Hottentot, he was being taken by a small guard of men to Grahamstown, when a large party of Kaffirs appeared and released their friend by the simple process of severing the arm of the Hottentot, who bled to death, helpless through the flight of the guard who had to run for their lives. This atrocious outrage took place on British territory, and Sandili's refusal to surrender the murderers brought a declaration of war. At the outset, some ill-success attended our operations. A British force of 1500 men, including companies of the 91st Foot, and the 7th Dragoons, and the Cape Mounted Rifles, was led by Colonel Somerset, with a train of nearly 100 waggons laden with baggage, ammunition, and stores, into a difficult jungly country at a spot called Burn's Hill. A sudden attack by a great host of Kaffirs caused a retreat, with severe loss of life, and the capture of more than half the waggons. The enemy then poured across the frontier in force, and made their way close to Grahamstown, but they were repelled from all fortified posts, though they succeeded in capturing another waggon-train near the Great Fish River. The Dragoon Guards and some mounted Hottentots, on one occasion, caught a large force of Kaffirs on open ground, and cut down some hundreds before they could make their way into the "bush", the loss to the assailants being but one soldier killed and three officers slightly wounded. This affair made a great impression on the native mind, and on the arrival of reinforcements from England, the strongholds of the Amatola Mountains were attacked by columns moving at once from south, east, and west. Before the close of 1847, the two Kaffir chieftains, Macomo and Sandili, came into the British lines by voluntary surrender. Sir Harry Smith now arrived as Governor and "High Commissioner", and took a high tone towards the beaten Kaffirs. Knowing, as he deemed, the right way to deal with them, he made Macomo kneel down and then placed his foot, in downright boot-and-spur reality, upon his bended neck. To Sandili he said: "I am the chief of Kaffirland. From me, as the representative of the Queen of England, you all hold your land. My word shall be your law, else I will sweep you from the face of the earth." Early in 1848, Sir Harry was at King William's Town, near the east coast, and there he made a number of Kaffir chiefs, in presence of about two thousand of their countrymen, kiss his boot in token of submission. The Keiskama River

was then declared to be the eastern boundary of the colony, but British sovereignty was proclaimed over the region between that river and the Kei, as "British Kaffraria".

In 1848 the Anglican Church in South Africa was fairly started on a flourishing career by the appointment of Dr. Gray as Bishop of Cape Town, the see being endowed by the munificence of Miss (afterwards Baroness) Burdett-Coutts. A large staff of active clergy accompanied and followed the prelate, and a great impulse was given to educational and missionary work throughout the colony. The following year witnessed a struggle between the colonists and the Colonial Secretary in London, the late Earl Grey, who had procured an Order in Council making a penal station at the Cape for British convicts. The ship *Neptune* arrived at Simon's Bay with 300 prisoners on board, but the people prevented their landing. After the lapse of five months the vessel was ordered to convey her criminal cargo to Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), and in February, 1850, the Order in Council was revoked. As a matter of fact, no white man known to be a felon had ever been permitted to set foot on South African soil, and all the colonists, new settlers and old, English and Dutch, with the most loyal feelings towards Great Britain, alike rejoiced in the victory thus obtained over official obstinacy and unwisdom. The next step in advance was the issue in May, 1850, of letters-patent from the Crown, empowering the Governor and Legislative Council to establish a representative government consisting of two elective Chambers. For the time, however, measures connected with self-government were set aside by the outbreak of another, and that a very serious and lengthy Kaffir war. Sandili, undeterred by previous defeat, again took the field with his warriors, now well armed with muskets as well as with assegais and clubs. In the last week of December, 1850, the Kaffirs, treacherously informed of the British movements by a body of police in our service who afterwards went over to their countrymen, attacked a column, 700 strong, consisting of British infantry-detachments and Cape Mounted Rifles, in the Boomah Pass, a defile near the Keiskama River. Our men, assailed with musketry by thousands of natives in ambush behind rocks and in thickets, fought their way through with a loss of about 70 killed and wounded. The news was sent through Kaffir-land by signal-fires flashing from peak to peak, and all the eastern

frontier was quickly wrapped, figuratively and literally, in the flames of war. Three "military" villages, inhabited by settlers retired from our service, were attacked and burnt, with the slaughter of every man that was taken. On all sides, British troops were forced to retire before overwhelming numbers, and Sir Harry Smith himself, besieged at Fort Cox, narrowly escaped destruction in a bold dash through the enemy's forces at the head of some 200 Cape Mounted Rifles who had remained faithful to our colours. There were only 1800 British troops in the colony, of whom above half were shut up in fortified posts, and the war continued for more than two years, with alternations of success and much devastation of colonial farms. Large numbers of Hottentots, ungrateful for the good treatment of more than twenty years, joined the foe. The stubborn courage of British soldiers, in repelling attacks on our little forts, and in the endurance of burning sun and of torrents of rain and of harassing night-marches, made a gradual impression on foes who had hoped for an easy victory. The arrival of reinforcements enabled the Governor to assume the offensive towards the close of 1851. Several of the Kaffir strongholds were stormed; part of the enemy's country was scoured, with the destruction of crops and kraals; and in January, 1852, two columns of our troops returned to King William's Town with 60,000 head of cattle, besides horses and goats, and with some thousands of Fingos released from slavery among the Kaffirs. In the spring of the same year, Sir Harry Smith, with health much worn by incessant labours, quitted Cape Town amidst general expressions of regret, and was succeeded in office by Sir George Cathcart, a Waterloo veteran, who was soon to fall on the glorious day of Inkermann. This very capable commander, having at his disposal regular troops that included eight regiments of infantry, a battalion of the Rifle Brigade, the 60th Rifles, the 12th Lancers, artillerymen, and engineers, in addition to large auxiliary forces, was enabled to adopt vigorous and successful measures. Not only were the Kaffirs driven in succession from every fastness, but each point thus occupied was permanently held by means of small defensible turrets surrounded by stone walls with sufficient shelter for a large party of men in case of need. A guard of a score of soldiers held the post with stores of food and ammunition, and the neighbouring country was constantly patrolled. A permanent force of armed and mounted

European police was also formed, and has proved of the utmost service to the colony. The Amatola Mountains and the Kroomé Mountains were thoroughly cleared of the foe, and in March, 1853, the Governor received the submission of the principal Kaffir chiefs. Fingos and Europeans became possessed of farms on the forfeited lands of Kaffirs and Hottentot rebels; the Amatola country was held by numerous posts, and the frontier on the east was, for the first time, made really secure by the presence of a military police ready for instant service, and of a body of settlers all accustomed to the use of arms.

The close of this long and costly struggle opened a new era for Cape Colony. The days of trouble were ended; the time of material and moral progress had fully arrived. The wool-trade was making a steady advance; good roads and public buildings were everywhere being constructed; municipal institutions had been training men for a useful part in public affairs; the educational system was doing for Europeans what the mission-schools had long striven, with some success, to effect for natives; the newspaper, with all its civilizing powers, was abroad; ignorance and prejudice were vanishing before the enlightened views of those who held that the union of interests is the one secure bond for men of diverse races and ideas, and that legislation and government should have for their sole aim the common welfare of all classes of a nation. Above all, the colonists were now, in the choice of their rulers, to take a personal share in the management of their own affairs. It was fitting that at such a time one of the greatest of all colonial rulers should be intrusted with the task of government. On July 1st, 1854, the first Parliament of Cape Colony assembled at Cape Town. Sir George Cathcart had been recalled to command a division of troops in the Crimean War, and before the close of the year he was succeeded by Sir George Grey, K.C.B. This eminent man, of enduring fame in colonial history, was descended from a branch of the Greys of Groby, the ancient and noble house whose most famous scion was Lady Jane Grey. He is to be carefully distinguished from Sir George Grey, Bart., who was for a few months Colonial Secretary at this time, but is best known as Home Secretary from 1846 to 1852 under Lord John Russell, and in the same office under both Lord Palmerston and his former chief as Earl Russell. Sir George Grey, the great colonial governor, was

a son of Lieut.-Colonel Grey, who was killed at Badajoz, in the Peninsular War. Educated at Sandhurst, he entered the army, quitting it ten years later, as captain, in 1839. Before his appointment to Cape Colony, he had gained high credit as an Australian explorer, as Governor of South Australia, and, especially, as Governor of New Zealand from 1845 to Dec. 1853, in which capacities we shall see him, and again as Governor and Premier of New Zealand, at later stages of this history. One of his first acts in Cape Colony was to pacify certain disbanded Hottentot troops, whose promised pensions had been, in great part, unjustly withheld by the War Office in London. The money to satisfy their claims was voted by the Cape Parliament, and new confidence was aroused in the native mind. The new ruler then adopted important measures with reference to the Kaffirs. Seeking to break down the power of the chiefs in British Kaffraria, where they sat as magistrates and levied fines which they took for themselves, he assigned to them fixed salaries as assessors merely of European magistrates, and appointed head-men or councillors who, becoming rivals of the chiefs in rule, by degrees won the people over to the cause of British government. The influence of "witch-doctors", used by the chiefs as a means of oppressing wealthy natives in the extortion of money by charges of witchcraft, was undermined by Sir George Grey with admirable wisdom and success. He brought science to the discomfiture of arrant chicanery, imposture, and fraud. The troops left idle by the close of the war were employed in the construction, at King William's Town, near the south-east frontier, of the great building afterwards known as "The Grey Hospital". The Kaffirs quarried stone which the military waggons carried to the site prepared. The sappers dug the foundations and the soldiers laid the stones. Extra pay rewarded the willing zeal of men whose hands, accustomed to the musket and sword, were plying the chisel and the trowel. Organization and discipline, enlisted in a work of mercy to mankind, gave a speedy finish to the noble undertaking. The wards of the hospital soon received natives suffering from disease, and Kaffir youths were there instructed in the simpler methods of treating the more common maladies of their country and race. The growth of trust in the European knowledge whose possessors mocked at the professions of witch-doctors was fatal to the cause of imposture, and the down-

fall of a belief in witchcraft did much to further British influence among the Kaffirs.

In 1857, the leading men of the Amaxosa tribes made use of a wide-spread delusion among their people in a scheme for the annihilation of European power in South Africa. The terrible tragedy which ensued is one of the strangest events in modern history. A girl had come forward with prophetic claims. She professed, and was fully believed by the people, to have had access to long-dead Kaffir chieftains in the other world, and to have returned thence with commands and promises which no Kaffir must dare to disregard. The whole of the horned cattle, crops, pigs, sheep, fowls, and all other kinds of sustenance were to be destroyed, and then, reduced to absolute destitution, the nation was to see their ancestors rise from the dead with countless herds of cattle of a noble breed, and with abundant property of every kind, while a hurricane swept away from South Africa every trace of the Europeans. The records of this event are beyond all suspicion. Sir George Grey went in person and pointed out to the Kaffir chiefs the suicidal nature of the proposed course, but his words had no avail against those of the demented girl. He returned to make military preparations against an invasion to which desperation might urge people maddened by delusion and famine. At the same time, with great daring and skill, some of the principal chiefs were seized, and for lack of leaders no movement of importance was made. The commands of the prophetess had been, however, in part executed, and above 50,000 natives perished from starvation. The Governor did all that was possible for relief, bringing in many thousands of natives to work as servants among the colonists on fixed wages for fixed terms of years, and settling others on farms in British Kaffraria. Some of the country left void by the Amaxosas was colonized with success by about 2000 men of the "German Legion" disbanded at the close of the Crimean War, and by some thousands of North German settlers of the agricultural class who were placed along the Buffalo River on the east coast. The prompt and most valuable action of Sir George Grey in despatching to India, on the outbreak of the Sepoy revolt in 1857, every man and horse that could be spared from the colony, with two batteries of Royal Artillery, and large supplies of ammunition and other military stores, illustrates the character of the man. He even dared to

divert to Calcutta, on his own sole responsibility, the troops who were on their way to China for service along with French troops. The horses from his own private stables were among those sent to Calcutta, and he went afoot for some time in his zeal for the general interests of the empire. His influence with the Kaffir chiefs was such that, at personal interviews, he obtained their promise, which was faithfully kept, for the maintenance of peace and order at a time when the colony had been almost denuded of regular troops.

After being recalled in June, 1859, and returning to England for a brief time, Sir George Grey, at the strongly-expressed wish of the colonists, and by the Queen's own suggestion to a new Colonial Secretary, returned to the Cape as Governor early in 1860, and received an enthusiastic welcome. In August and September, a great display of loyal feeling, both from the Europeans and the Kaffirs, greeted the arrival and progress through the colony of Prince Alfred (afterwards Duke of Edinburgh and of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha), who came as a midshipman on board H.M.S. *Euryalus*. An excursion was made on horseback through Cape Colony, Kaffraria, the Orange River Free State, and Natal, and the royal lad enjoyed the novel experience of rough lodging and fare in camp beneath the Southern Cross, with fire brightly burning amidst the clumsy Cape waggons "out-spanned" for the night. Sandili, the Kaffir chief, and some of his friends, were induced to overcome their innate dread of the sea and to make a voyage on the *Euryalus* from Natal to Cape Town. They suffered horribly from sickness, but were greatly impressed, amidst all their trouble, by the wondrous things which they beheld on the ship, and not least by the sight of the prince when he resumed his duties as "middy", and rose at dawn to assist, barefooted, in washing down the decks. In an address presented to Captain Tarleton of the *Euryalus*, the Kaffir chiefs declared that, amidst many matters beyond their comprehension, they did understand "the reason of England's greatness, when the son of her great Queen becomes subject to a subject that he may learn wisdom", and averred that "your mighty Queen shall be our Sovereign in all time coming". The progress of the colony at this period is indicated by the facts that the construction of a railway from Cape Town to Wellington, 50 miles north-east, was well advanced; that Prince Alfred, on September 17th, laid the first stone of the much-needed break-

water in Table Bay; that he inaugurated the splendid new Library and Museum, an institution then already furnished with between 30,000 and 40,000 volumes, the whole enterprise being mainly due to the influence and encouragement of Sir George Grey; and that in 1860 the value of wool exported from the Cape reached nearly 1½ millions sterling. In the following year, Sir George Grey was transferred to his second governorship of New Zealand, and he quitted Cape Colony after a rule of nearly eight years' duration, nobly and durably marked by the steady reduction of anarchy to order, by the firm establishment of representative government, and by material, moral, and intellectual advance. His priceless services to the Queen's subjects in South Africa were crowned in 1864 by the presentation, to the Cape Town Public Library opened by Prince Alfred, of all his literary treasures, forming one of the finest private collections in the world. This magnificent gift included an unrivalled body of publications and manuscripts concerning the languages and ethnology of Africa and Polynesia; MSS. in Latin and modern tongues, written between the tenth and fifteenth centuries; large numbers of early black-letter printed books; the first complete edition of Chaucer's works (with the exception of the *Ploughman's Tale*), printed in 1532; the only complete copy of the First Folio Edition of Shakespeare's plays existing out of Europe; the very rare first edition of Young's *Night Thoughts*, 1743; and the first edition of Burton's *Anatomy of Melancholy*, published in 1621. The South African Library thus became third in point of size, and first in order of importance and value, amongst all colonial collections of literary treasures.

The chief events that occurred during the governorship of Sir Philip E. Wodehouse (1861-1870) were the incorporation of British Kaffraria and the discovery of diamonds in Griqualand West. By the former, in 1865, the Kei River became the eastern boundary of Cape Colony. At the same time, the growth of population caused an increase in the number of constituencies represented in the Assembly, and the Legislative Council was also enlarged. The first diamond was found by accident in 1867 and passed through many hands before its value was suspected. In 1870, exploring parties, one chiefly composed of officers of the 20th Regiment, then stationed in Natal, and another made up of Cape colonists from King William's Town, began systematic searching as they dug and

washed the alluvial drift along the banks of the Vaal River, and the speedy discovery of stones gave an impulse to the enterprise which afterwards produced such remarkable results. In 1869, a Dutch farmer, Van Niekirk, had purchased from a Griqua, for £400, a diamond which he at once re-sold for £10,000. This fine gem, weighing $46\frac{1}{2}$ carats, after cutting, was styled "The Star of South Africa", and the news caused the first great rush of diggers to the region about fifty miles north-east of the point where the Vaal River joins the Orange. A population of 10,000 diggers was soon engaged in the search for wealth in this new and unexpected form. Sir Henry Barkly was the Queen's representative in rule from 1870 to 1877, as Governor of Cape Colony and High Commissioner in South Africa. In 1872 the country reached its highest point of constitutional development in receiving "responsible government". By Order in Council, members of the Executive Council henceforth held seats and voted in one of the Houses of the Cape Parliament, and the first ministry, with Sir J. C. Molteno as Premier, was formed in November of the above year. In 1875, the census showed a population of about 721,000, of whom nearly 237,000 were of European descent.

Two years later, the advent of Sir Bartle Frere, formerly governor of Bombay, as Governor and High Commissioner, proved to be the signal for more or less disastrous and discreditable warfare. The Kaffirs on the frontier had, by their conduct, already caused Sir Henry Barkly to appoint a Commission to consider the best means of defending the Colony. After a struggle with the Galekas and the Gaikas, ending in 1878 with the forfeiture of the Gaika territory, a general disarmament of the Kaffirs on the frontier was made. It is impossible here to deal at length with the history of the Zulus, who were at this time the most powerful native tribe in South Africa, ruled by a man of energy, ability, and courage named Cetewayo. He had always striven to maintain friendly relations with the British Government, and was now provoked to hostility by the unjust and hasty action of Sir Bartle Frere. After being treated unfairly in the matter of some territory disputed between himself and the Boers of the Transvaal Republic, Cetewayo received a sudden demand from the British ruler that he should disband his powerful army, and thus lay himself helpless at the feet of those whom he now had cause to fear, and of his

inveterate enemies the Boers. To this outrageous order the Zulu sovereign made the only possible reply, in the shape of a prompt refusal, that could come from a brave, independent, and high-spirited chieftain. In the first days of 1879 the British troops, under Lord Chelmsford, crossed the Tugela River, the boundary between Zululand and Natal. On January 22nd one division of our army, under Colonel Glyn, was surprised and almost annihilated at the battle of Isandula (or Isandlana) by the warriors under Cetewayo, who rushed fearlessly, armed with their spears, to meet showers of bullets from the breech-loading rifle. One British regiment was almost destroyed, and hundreds of the colonial irregulars also perished. The colony of Natal was only saved from invasion and devastation through the gallant defence of the position at Rorke's Drift, on the banks of the Tugela, by a small force under Majors Bromhead and Chard. The struggle could, of course, have only one termination when the British troops were properly handled. On July 4th, Lord Chelmsford totally defeated Cetewayo at the battle of Ulundi, where the brave savages fell in thousands under the incessant fire of our men before the Zulu leader and the survivors of his host quitted the field. By this time Sir Garnet Wolseley had arrived from England to take the control of affairs, and in August the brave Cetewayo was hunted down by an officer and party of men, and brought a prisoner to Cape Town. In the summer of 1882 he was brought on a visit to London, and, being then restored for a time to a portion of his former power, he was defeated by a rival chief, fled for refuge to our territory, and soon died, a broken, worn-out man. In 1879, the territory of Cape Colony was increased by the annexation of the Kaffir districts known as Fingoland, the Idutywa Reserve, and No Man's Land, and the following year saw the incorporation of Griqualand West.

The policy of the Colonial Office in London led to the contest with the Boers of the Transvaal. In 1878, the Colonial Secretary, the Earl of Carnarvon, acting on false information as to the wishes of the people, annexed the territory of the Boer republic to our South African possessions, and maintained this action in spite of the strong representations of Boer deputies in England. The proceeding was strongly condemned by Mr. Gladstone, in 1879, in the famous Mid-Lothian speeches, and the Boers were thereby

encouraged to revolt. At the close of 1880 they declared the Transvaal to be once more an independent state, and prepared to defend their position by force of arms. In spite of their small numbers they proved to be formidable foes in the field, from their excellence as marksmen and their skill in irregular warfare. A detachment of the 94th regiment, 250 strong, commanded by Colonel Anstruther, was severely defeated by the Dutchmen on December 20th. All the officers were picked off; about 40 men were killed, and nearly 80 wounded. Anstruther surrendered to the enemy, and afterwards died of his wounds. Sir George Colley took the command of our forces, but his rashness soon caused fresh disaster. At Laing's Nek and Ingogo, in January, 1881, the murderous fire of the Boers gained easy victories over our men, and on February 27th, Sir George and his little army were again defeated at the fatal Majuba Hill, which was ascended and stormed by the enemy with the utmost ease and success. Sir George was killed; the other officers were nearly all shot down, and a large number of men became prisoners of war. The honour of our arms was redeemed by the gallant and successful defence of many towns and military posts, until the arrival of large reinforcements, with Sir Evelyn Wood in command, placed our rulers in South Africa, with 13,000 men, in a position of overwhelming strength. It was thought by many patriotic persons that an unqualified submission should have been extorted from the rebels, but the ministry headed by Mr. Gladstone yielded to his protests against the "blood-guiltiness" of avenging defeats, or forcing unconditional surrender. The Pretoria Convention re-established the Transvaal Republic under the suzerainty of Great Britain, with conditions which secured the rights of the native tribes from greedy and unscrupulous encroachment. Our Government also reserved a right of veto over any treaties which the Transvaal State might conclude with any foreign power.

The recall of Sir Bartle Frere, in 1880, from the scene of his mischievous activity was followed by rapid changes in the men who held office as Governors or as "Administrators" in Cape Colony and its dependencies. Between 1880 and 1889, a veteran Colonial ruler, Sir Hercules Robinson, G.C.M.G., the late Lord Rosmead, was three times Governor. In 1885 Tembuland, Galekaland, and Bomvanaland were annexed to the Colony. The

Xesibe country was added in the following year. Colonial progress, during this period, was indicated by the extension of the railway-system to Kimberley, the diamond-centre in Griqualand West, and in December, 1887, the South African Jubilee Exhibition was opened at Grahamstown. In the following year, 1888, we find a due recognition of present facts, and an anticipation of future development, displayed in a conference held at Cape Town, where delegates from the Colony, from Natal, and the Orange Free State, discussed the question of a Customs Union and Railway Extension. In 1889 Sir Henry B. (now Lord) Loch, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., who ruled Victoria from 1884 to 1889, became Governor of Cape Colony and High Commissioner for South Africa. The Premier, who held office from July, 1890, until the beginning of the year 1896, was a man of remarkable ability, energy, and ambition, Mr. Cecil J. Rhodes. Born in July, 1853, younger son of the vicar of Bishop-Stortford in Hertfordshire, he went out as a youth to Natal; gained a fortune at the Kimberley diamond-fields; returned to England and graduated at Oxford; went to Cape Colony and was elected a member of the House of Assembly, where he soon showed his qualities, and became a foremost advocate for the extension of British territory and South African federation. As a director of the British South African Company Mr. Rhodes was eager in promoting railway-works in the country towards the Zambesi River, with the view of connecting Cape Town with Fort Salisbury, the capital of Mashonaland. As head of the Cape Ministry, he aimed at bringing the two Boer republics, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, into an intimate friendly and fiscal union with Cape Colony and Natal, as an important step towards a Federation composed of all British territory in South Africa—colonies, dependencies, protectorates, and spheres of influence.

The prospect of South African federation, through arrangements which might include the two republics, was suddenly darkened by the strange, unfortunate, and, in some aspects, discreditable invasion of the Transvaal territory, which will be known in history as the "Jameson Raid". It was certain that difficulties would arise when the adventurous and ambitious Mr. Rhodes, a man worthy of the Elizabethan rather than of the Victorian age, came face to face in South Africa with the typical Boer, Paul Krüger, President of the Transvaal Republic. This very able, honest, strong-willed states-

man, shrewd and humorous, of rugged exterior, was ruling, with unbounded influence, a people, politically and socially, of a very jealous and exclusive character. The London Convention of 1884, by which the British suzerainty was restricted to the control of the foreign relations of the Transvaal, under the observation of our Diplomatic Agent, represented almost the sole connection of the Boers with the outside world until the discovery of mineral treasures, and especially of gold, brought a great influx of foreigners. In 1887 the Witwatersrand gold-fields yielded about 35,000 ounces; four years later, the product had risen to nearly 730,000 ounces, and in 1895 the total gold output was nearly $2\frac{1}{2}$ million ounces, with a value exceeding $8\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling. Johannesburg, the great mining and financial centre of the republic, had risen, in about nine years from its foundation, to a population of forty thousand, with fine public buildings and delightful suburbs. By this time, the foreign settlers in the Transvaal, chiefly drawn thither by the gold-mining, and known as Uitlanders, or Outlanders in Boer-English, greatly outnumbered the Boer population, and there is little doubt that their presence aroused the jealous suspicion of the Boers, including Krüger and his colleagues. The foreign element, creating most of the wealth, and paying by far the larger part of the taxation, of the country, found themselves devoid of any share in its government. They had no rights of citizenship, and scarcely any prospect of acquiring such rights after any number of years of residence. Republican principles were thus being violated by a Boer oligarchy, to the detriment of many thousands of inhabitants, including the chief men of enterprise, energy, experience, and resource, who were building up the greatness of a country which the Boers had only owned for about forty years, which they had done little to develop, and which the Outlanders alone had raised from commercial obscurity to a wealthy and highly progressive condition.

The Dutch or Afrikaner and the English population of all South Africa had been long and greatly agitated by the controversy on the Uitlander-question in the Transvaal, when the world, in the very last days of 1895, was astounded by news that the Transvaal had been invaded by a British force. Dr. Jameson, Civil Administrator, under the Chartered Company, for Mashonaland and Matabeleland, who had long been in communication with Mr.

Rhodes on the subject of the Outlander grievances, and expected to be helped by a rising of the "Reformers" in Johannesburg, had gathered about five hundred men of the Matabeleland Mounted Police, and the Bechuanaland Border forces, with Sir John Willoughby and other officers, at Pitsani, on the frontier of Bechuanaland and the Transvaal. Dr. Jameson's object, as stated by himself at a later period, was to occupy Johannesburg and maintain order, while pressure was brought to bear on the Transvaal Government for the redress of grievances. On December 30th, 1895, in the early morning, the troops under Dr. Jameson and Sir John Willoughby crossed the frontier into the Transvaal, and marched for Johannesburg, nearly two hundred miles distant. The lawless and foolish enterprise was already doomed to fail. The Boer Government was prepared with a large force, and Dr. Jameson's confederates in the Transvaal betrayed him, hoisting the Transvaal flag on December 31st, and "making a clean breast" of the whole plan to President Krüger on the following day. On the evening of Tuesday, December 31st, the invaders came upon the Boers, outnumbering them by six to one, and posted in a strong position, among little valleys and low hills, at Krügersdorp, a few miles west of Johannesburg. The way to that town was blocked, and the British troops suffered some loss in an attack on the position. An attempt was then made to outflank the enemy, but the "raiders" were again stopped at a place called Doornkop, where the Boers were securely posted behind ridges of rock commanding long open slopes in front, on two sides of an angle. The British were soon almost surrounded, and, with ammunition failing, they became helpless on ground swept with the fire of rifles, Maxims, and other guns. On Thursday, January 2nd, at eleven in the morning, their last shot had been spent, and the waving of a white flag was followed by the surrender of the whole of the survivors. The number of killed and wounded exceeded one hundred, with small loss to the Boers. The prisoners included Dr. Jameson, Sir John Willoughby, and about twenty other officers, some of them wounded.

The movement was disavowed in the plainest terms by the High Commissioner for South Africa, Sir Hercules Robinson, and by the Colonial Secretary, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, and after a brief lapse of time the prisoners were released by the Transvaal authorities, to be dealt with by the British Government. Mr.

Rhodes at once resigned his post as Premier of Cape Colony, and in June, 1896, when an official inquiry held at Cape Town had proved his complicity in the plan for the invasion of the Transvaal, he also resigned his directorship of the Chartered Company. In July, 1896, Dr. Jameson and the chief military officers engaged in the ill-starred enterprise were tried in London, and sentenced to terms of imprisonment for 15 months and shorter periods, with loss of commissions to officers in the imperial army. In 1897, a Committee of the House of Commons held an inquiry into the matter, and their Report acquitted most of the Directors of the Chartered Company of any guilty knowledge of intention to employ the troops of the Company against the South African Republic. Sir Hercules Robinson, who had become Lord Rosmead, and had been most unjustly and calumniously charged with some knowledge of the plan, was most emphatically pronounced free of the slightest implication, and the Committee declared that "under most trying and difficult circumstances the High Commissioner did everything that was possible to maintain the honour of his country". Two of Lord Rosmead's subordinates were severely censured for failing to inform their chief of what they knew concerning the plan of invasion. Mr. Rhodes was censured, in the strongest terms, for "subsidising, organizing, and stimulating an armed insurrection against the government of the South African Republic, and employing the forces and resources of the Chartered Company to support such a revolution". The Committee, after recording "an absolute and unqualified condemnation of the 'Raïd', and of the plans which made it possible", stated the result as being, for the time, "grave injury to British influence in South Africa", in the shaking of public confidence, the embittering of race-feeling, and the creation of serious difficulties with neighbouring States.

In connection with this "untoward event", much angry excitement was aroused at the time in the British Isles by the action of the Emperor of Germany. That hot-headed and impulsive personage, who had no political interests in the Transvaal, at once telegraphed to President Krüger his congratulations on the victory over the invaders. This needless proceeding, in which he stood alone among the representatives of civilized nations, was justly regarded as something like a wanton offence against the British government and people. The matter was noticed by the equip-

ment, within the space of a few days, and the dispatch to sea, of a powerful cruising-squadron, as a hint of what might be expected by any foreign power which should venture to interfere with our position or rights or influence in South Africa.

Sir Hercules Robinson, created Lord Rosmead in 1896, resigned his post early in 1897, from advancing age and ill-health, and returned to England to die, a few months later, after a very long and most honourable and distinguished career as a colonial-governor in many parts of the empire, as recorded in these pages. An admirable choice of his successor, at a critical time in South Africa, and under circumstances of great delicacy and difficulty mainly due to the "Jameson Raid", was made in the appointment, as High Commissioner for South Africa, and Governor of Cape Colony, of Sir Alfred Milner, K.C.B., a man in the very prime of middle age, then holding office as Chairman of the Board of Inland Revenue. Of great financial experience, author of a standard work entitled *England in Egypt*, Sir Alfred Milner had been engaged for some years in journalistic work after a most brilliant career at Oxford. A graceful and effective speaker, a man of broad intellect and of remarkable strength of character, he had won, in the course of twenty years after leaving his University, golden opinions from able men of all shades of political opinion and all the chief walks in life. He had, in the combination of gentleness and firmness, force, capacity, urbanity, and tact, precisely the qualities needed for success in his new post of duty, and it was well known that he had shown a strong interest in the colonial affairs of "Greater Britain", with special regard to the great self-governing communities.

Cape Colony, besides the annexed territories above given, includes East Griqualand, adjoining Natal; Walfisch Bay, a territory of nearly 500 sq. m., on the west coast, about 400 miles north of the mouth of the Orange River; twelve islands off Angra Pequena, on the west coast; and West Pondoland, a territory as large as Wales, with about $\frac{1}{4}$ million of natives in a very fertile country. The chief was pensioned off and the land annexed in September 1894. In November, 1895, the area of Cape Colony proper was increased by the addition of the Crown Colony of British Bechuanaland. The whole region contains nearly 280,000 square miles, with a population of about $1\frac{3}{4}$ millions. Of these, in 1891, about 377,000

were Europeans, and, since the annexation of Pondoland, we may reckon the natives at 1,400,000, of whom the greater part are Kaffirs, Fingos, Bechuanas, and Hottentots, with about $\frac{1}{4}$ million of mixed races, and 14,000 Malays. Of the whites, over 27,000 were born in England, about 6500 in Scotland, over 4000 in Ireland, and 6500 are of German race. The immigration into Cape Colony is not extensive, having only amounted to 23,300 between 1873 and 1884, and the fluctuation of resident people is shown by the fact that in 1892, over 12,600 adults arrived by sea, while over 7800 quitted the Colony by the same route. The geographical details of the territory are of a simple character. A glance at the map shows a coast-line almost devoid of deep indentations, and chiefly presenting bays with wide mouths. For mercantile purposes, the harbours most in use are those of Table Bay, Mossel Bay, Algoa Bay (Port Elizabeth), Port Alfred, and East London, all of which have been improved by various works. The country possesses no lakes, nor any rivers of great size save the Orange, in which navigation upwards from the sea is barred by rapids at about 30 miles from the mouth. Many of the streams are almost dried up in the summer, and in some parts of the colony irrigation-works for storing rain-water have been constructed as the sole means of giving success to cultivation. From the bold and rocky southern coast the land rises inwards by a series of terraces, walled by nearly parallel chains of rugged mountains, intersected by deep ravines. The Lange Berge are succeeded by the Zwarte Berge or Black Mountains, from 4000 to 5500 feet in height. North of this, at an elevation of from 2500 to 3500 feet above sea-level, lies the table-land called the Great Karroo, from 70 to 90 miles in width, with an area of 20,000 square miles composed of undulating plains devoid of trees, and barren-looking under the summer-heat, but covered with excellent grass after rain. Beyond the Karroo comes the watershed, to the north of which all streams make for the Orange River instead of for the coast. This range, varying in height from 5000 to 8000 feet, is at different parts called Sneeu-berg, Nieuwveld, Stormberg, Roggeveld, and Kamiesberg, as it runs, with an average distance of 150 miles from the coast, across from the southern part of Namaqualand to the north-east frontier. The eastern part of Cape Colony is better-watered, and far more picturesque and varied in surface than the central and western

districts. The river-courses are marked out by woods, and grassy plains and mountain-glens afford many scenes of beauty and even grandeur to the traveller's eye.

The climate, varying in warmth, according to locality, from cold temperate to sub-tropical, presents upon the whole a rare salubrity and charm, with special fitness for European constitutions. The seasons are not so well marked as in Europe. The delightful spring, with the brightest verdure, and crop after crop of the loveliest flowers covering the plains with a carpet of red, white, or yellow hue, melts into summer with almost imperceptible change. Remembering that the Cape winter corresponds to our summer, and autumn to our spring, we note that in September vernal freshness and beauty are at their height, and that solar heat reaches its maximum in January. The rainfall varies greatly in different regions of the colony. The north-west is almost rainless. The south-west has an abundant downpour in winter. On the south coast rain occurs in all months, with the least fall in December and January. In the middle, north, and east of the country, February and March bring the chief supplies of rain. At Cape Town the average annual amount is about 25 inches; at Port Elizabeth, 23 inches; in the north Karroo, from 7 to 12; and at Kimberley, about 16. The total mean annual temperature is $61\cdot26^{\circ}$ in the shade, almost exactly the same as the mean summer temperature of England (62° F.). The grand qualities of the climate in Cape Colony, alike for healthy people and invalids, are the dryness, clearness, and rarefaction of the atmosphere, the great amount of sunlight, and the rarity or non-existence of dangerous epidemic disease. Ague, yellow fever, and cholera are unknown. The fevers are of a mild type, seldom followed by constitutional mischief. The eastern districts are specially healthful, almost wholly free from malarious and endemic diseases, and the history of the settlers for over seventy years, from 1820 to 1896, displays an extraordinary natural increase of population, rare longevity, tall stature, and a healthy physical development such as can only occur under the most favourable conditions of climate and soil. The testimony of experts, writing from personal experience and knowledge, such as Dr. Symes Thompson and other distinguished physicians, has abundantly shown the climate of this part of South Africa to be of the utmost advantage to persons afflicted with pulmonary maladies. The conditions above stated precisely

suit the case of patients suffering from lung-disease and from bronchial and asthmatic affections. Before the opening of the Suez Canal the Cape was a favourite resort of invalids broken down by work in India. They found the winter equally delightful and beneficial in its invigorating freshness, with a rapid clearance of the clouds after rain, and a brightness of sky and a transparency of air astonishing to those who have been only accustomed to judge of distance through the medium of haze.

The timber includes trees well suited for making waggons and house-furniture. The botany is of a very interesting character. The castor-oil plant and others of high medicinal value abound. European gardens and conservatories have been enriched by many beautiful flowering shrubs in heaths, proteas, and pelargoniums, and by charming bulbous plants of the iris, amaryllis, and lily class. The chief indigenous fruit is the "Cape gooseberry", a product of boundless abundance, and of a peculiar and exquisite flavour which have now made it an article of export both in a bottled and a boiled-down condition. Viticulture and its result in very fine grapes have been already noticed. Almost all the fruits of temperate and sub-tropical Europe have been introduced with success, and the gardens and orchards grow apples and pears, apricots and peaches, oranges and figs, pomegranates and limes, walnuts and almonds, with quinces and the banana of tropical climes. The corn-crops comprise wheat, maize, oats, barley, rye, and millet; large quantities of grain, including rice, are grown on the banks of Olifant River, in the north-west, by deposit of the seed in the rich alluvial sediment left behind after overflow in the rainy season. The native fauna of this part of South Africa, formerly so rich both in variety and numbers, have become almost extinct (in the finer forms), through slaughter due to commercial greed or to wanton cruelty, or have retired in disgust before the advance of civilization. It is possible to find elephants and buffaloes in "preserved" tracts of forest in the south-east, but the hippopotamus, rhinoceros, giraffe, and lion, with the eland, zebra, quagga, gnu, and other large game, have for ever vanished from Cape Colony. Tiger-cats, leopards, jackals, hyenas, wild dogs, baboons, monkeys, jerboas, ant-eaters, porcupines, and rabbits are still to be seen. It is among the finer specimens of the deer and antelope tribes that the ruthless hunters of the last half-century in South Africa have wrought the greatest havoc. The eland, noblest

of all the antelopes of the world, with a small game-like head, handsome horns, and slender elegant limbs, has been known to exceed in height nineteen hands (six feet four inches) at the shoulder. The flesh provides the finest venison in Africa, giving forth, freshly killed, the sweet smell of aromatic herbage on which the clean and dainty animal has fed, and, to the eater, resembling fat young beef, with a game-like flavour. A few of these comely, striking, and gentle beasts may be seen in some of our noblemen's parks. In South Africa, long driven beyond the borders of Cape Colony, the eland now roams in the solitudes of the upper Kalahari, the region north of the Orange River, where grasses, melons, and tubers, in the lack of surface-water, supply at once meat and drink to this creature and to the hartebeeste, gemsbok, koodoo, and other specimens of the antelope race. The graceful spring-bok, or Cape gazelle, and various kinds of small antelopes are still found in the wooded eastern districts. There is a great variety of birds, including many birds of prey, with cranes, storks, pelicans, flamingoes, and many game birds for the sportsman's gun. Among peculiar specimens are the ostrich; the secretary-bird, that has its popular name from the plumes of feathers projecting from the back and sides of the head, like bundles of quill-pens stuck behind the ears, and that renders much service as a destroyer and eater of snakes; and the weaver-bird, or social grosbeak, living in assemblages of from 100 to 200 nests arranged like the cells of a honeycomb beneath an umbrella-like roof constructed of coarse grass. The *reptilia* include the iguana, and the cobra, the puff-adder, and other venomous snakes. Spiders, tarantulas, stinging ants, scorpions, and occasional flights of locusts occur. The chief domestic animals are horses of a small and hardy breed; oxen raised for the meat and hides, and largely used for farm-work by the Dutch colonists and for draught in the travelling-waggons; and the merinos of the finest breeds which have replaced the native big-tailed hairy sheep owned by the former Dutch occupants. Angora goats are largely kept for the sake of their long, soft, beautiful, white, silky and woolly outer coat furnishing the material called mohair, which is made into camlets, plush, shawls, braidings and other trimmings, and, in France, into a kind of lace.

In mineral wealth, the discovery of diamonds has placed Cape Colony among the foremost countries of the world. Since 1870,

when diamonds were first discovered in the loose red surface-sand near the spot where the town of Kimberley stands, apart from the previous river-diggings, the famous De Beers, Dutoitspan, Bultfontein, and Kimberley Mines, all lying within a circle of $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles diameter, have for years produced an average annual value of over 4 millions sterling. The deepest workings are over 800 feet below the surface. The diamonds exported from South Africa, as officially known, have reached 74 millions sterling in value; a considerable unknown addition must be made for stones brought away in personal possession, and for stolen diamonds secretly transmitted. In Little Namaqualand, to the north-west, near the mouth of the Orange River, copper-mines, with ore of very rich quality, are largely worked by two companies, one of which has constructed a narrow-gauge railway of over 90 miles to the shipping-place, Port Nolloth. Coal-fields of immense extent have been recently opened in the Stormberg Mountains, on the north-east. The working is rendered easy by the "lie" of the mineral, needing no shaft, but only a tunnel to follow the seam into the hill-side. The engines on the eastern railway-system are wholly supplied from this source, with a great saving in cost of working. This local supply, in the event of war, would prove of great value to merchant-steamers and our naval marine. Iron, lead, good sandstone for building, millstone, marble, granite, salt, manganese, a beautiful fibrous quartz called crocidolite, largely used for ornamental purposes, china clay, chalcidony, and agates are among the numerous other mineral products.

The chief industries are agricultural and pastoral, with mining in diamonds and copper, and ostrich-breeding. The annual production of wheat, which is of the finest quality, has now reached over 2 millions of bushels; oats, barley, and rye together exceed 3 million bushels; Kaffir corn (millet) averages over 1 million; and "mealies" (maize) approaches 3 millions. A vast amount (over 100,000 tons) of oat-hay is obtained, being largely used, as in Australia, for the feeding of horses and horned cattle. About $4\frac{1}{2}$ million pounds of tobacco are grown. The vines of the western districts yearly yield grapes converted into more than 6 million gallons of wine, $1\frac{1}{2}$ million gallons of brandy, and about 2 million pounds of raisins. Nowhere in the world is the vine more productive than in Cape Colony, nor are any grapes of much higher quality; it seems clear, from good evidence, that the wine produced needs

greater skill and care in the making. In 1896 the farmers possessed about $2\frac{1}{4}$ million horned cattle, nearly 15 million sheep, nearly 5 million Angora and other goats, and 225,000 ostriches. The work of the colonists is aided by about 388,000 horses, and 95,000 asses and mules. Up to the end of 1895 over 123 millions of acres of land had been disposed of. The larger sheep-farms, mostly the property of the graziers, vary in size from 3000 to 15,000 acres. The Great Karroo is the chief pastoral region for sheep, containing nearly half of the merinos in the colony. The supply of mohair to Great Britain from the 3 millions of Angora goats now generally exceeds in quantity, and nearly equals in quality, that which is derived from Turkey. The goats of other breeds, and the hairy native sheep, furnish large quantities of skins for exportation to tanners. Ostrich-farming, which began about 1864 with the capture of a few wild chicks, was made commercially successful, some years later, by the introduction of artificial incubation. An ostrich-farm, of 13,000 acres, in the Eastern Province, contains 600 birds, fed on grass, karoo (a sort of heather), and succulent bushes, and, in the case of the chicks, on lucerne produced by irrigation. Strong wire fences, five feet in height, surround the whole domain, and many separate camps are therein inclosed in like fashion, a space of 100 acres being assigned to each set of young birds, and allotments of 25 acres to each pair of old birds used for breeding. Larger inclosures, of about 2500 acres, each contain 150 grown and growing ostriches producing the feathers which are plucked for sale. A "Department of Woods and Forests" has control of the Crown reserves of about 250,000 acres of the valuable timber growing on the slopes of the mountain-ranges in the southern and eastern districts. Among other useful kinds, the Amatola forests produce a timber called sneeze-wood, which is capable of resisting the attacks both of the *teredo navalis* (the destructive ship-worm) below water, and of the termites ("white ants", as they are unduly called) on land, whose habitations, from two to four feet in height, are to be seen throughout the country. A "Department of Agriculture" controls schools for instruction, and aims at improvement in the breeds of sheep and horses, in the making of wine, and in the growth and preparation of tobacco, and at devising methods for dealing with cattle-diseases. Manufactures give employment, by the census of 1891, to about 33,000 persons, including the diamond,

copper, and coal miners. Wool-washing, tanning, carpentry in cabinet-work and waggons and carts, brewing, flour-grinding, tobacco-cutting, and, at Cape Town, iron-founding and biscuit-making, are the chief occupations apart from tillage, the care of stock, and mining.

Internal communication is now in a fairly satisfactory and progressive condition. Over 8000 miles of road exist, and solid bridges have been constructed at various points over rivers which formerly were a serious bar to traffic. The Orange River, draining about 400,000 square miles of territory, yearly blocked trade with the interior by its wide-spread floods. This great stream is now spanned, in its course from east to west, at or near Aliwal North, Bathulie, Colesberg, and Hope Town, by bridges from 860 to 1480 feet in length, erected at a total cost exceeding £360,000. The Kei River is crossed by a like construction of utility so plain that our good friends the Fingos, whom we have favourably seen in the history of Cape Colony, freely contributed £1500 towards the cost of the approaches. The Vaal River is traversed, at Barkly West, near Kimberley, by a bridge built by a Company, and the northern highway of commerce is thus kept open at all seasons of the year. The colonial railways now have a total length of about 2500 miles, including nearly 200 miles of private lines and 17 miles of tramway in Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, and Kimberley. The three main or trunk systems are the Western, Midland, and Eastern, with branches to the more important places lying off the route. The Western Railway, starting from Cape Town, joins the Midland, from Port Elizabeth, at De Aar, 501 miles from Cape Town and 339 from Port Elizabeth. Thence the line runs on to Kimberley, a further distance of 146 miles; to Vryburg in British Bechuanaland, and on to Mafeking, on the borders of the Transvaal State. Express trains, carrying the British and foreign mails, and provided with dining, sleeping, and lavatory accommodation, run through, within a few hours of the arrival of the mail-steamer from England, from Cape Town to Vryburg, 774 miles, in about 40 hours, and from Port Elizabeth, every Monday, to the same point. From Naauwpoort Junction, on the Midland system, a line runs through Colesberg, across the Orange River, to Bloemfontein, the capital of the Free State, and thence, by Johannesburg, beyond the Vaal, to Pretoria, the capital of the Transvaal or South African Republic.

Branch lines, on the southern part of the same system, connect Port Elizabeth with Uitenhage, Graaff Reinet, Grahamstown, and Port Alfred. The Eastern railway-system starts from East London, and, with a branch to King William's Town, runs north-west and north, by Molteno, to Aliwal North, 280 miles, on the Orange River; a branch to the west crosses the Orange and joins the Midland system in the south of the Orange Free State. Mail-carts, coaches, and, in the rougher country, bullock-waggons, afford means of transit between outlying towns and the railway-lines. About 1050 post-offices, and 6,400 miles of Government telegraph-lines, give facilities for transmitting news. In connection with business affairs we may note that the coins in use, and the weights and measures, are exclusively British, with the exception of the old Dutch *Morgen* (a little over 2 acres) in land-surveying, and the foot-rule, equal to 1.03 British imperial measure. The chief harbours of the colony have been already noticed. Steam-communication along the coast is well maintained, and the well-known *Union* and *Castle* lines convey passengers and goods, in from 15 to 20 days, over the 6000 miles of sea that divide the colony from the British Isles. The Western cable, by way of Cape Town, and eastern submarine wires, by Natal, Zanzibar, and Aden, connect these South African possessions of the Crown with every part of the civilized world. Another step forward was taken for the purpose of commercial and other communications to and from this part of the Empire when, on January 1st, 1895, Cape Colony, after being for years a solitary exception amongst the great civilized communities of the world, at last joined the Universal Postal Union. By this most important international arrangement, reduced charges and other advantages came into operation on July 1st, 1875, as the results of a treaty concluded at the Postal Congress held at Berne in October, 1874.

We come next to deal with the commerce arising from the industrial occupations of our fellow-subjects in Cape Colony, and carried on by the methods that have just been set forth. The total annual exports of colonial produce exceed 17 million sterling in value, of which, apart from diamonds (nearly 4 millions), nearly £5,000,000 come to the United Kingdom, wool and mohair amounting to nearly 3 millions; copper ore to £300,000; ostrich-feathers, £500,000; and skins and hides to over £800,000. The

value of merchandise imported into the colony reaches £13,000,000, of which nearly 8 millions are due to Great Britain in textile fabrics and apparel, representing over 2 millions; wrought and unwrought iron, £1,000,000; machinery and mill-work, £900,000; leather and saddlery, £600,000. Food and drink to the value of nearly 2 millions sterling also comes chiefly from the mother-country.

The executive rule is vested in a Governor, who is by virtue of his office commander-in-chief, with a total salary of £9000, of which one-third accrues to him as "High Commissioner", with a general charge of South African affairs; and in an Executive Council of office-holders named by the Crown. Legislative power resides in a Legislative Council of twenty-two members elected for seven years, with the Chief Justice as President; and in a House of Assembly of seventy-six members, chosen for five years as representatives for towns and country-districts. Both Houses are elected by the same body of about 91,000 registered electors, each of whom must be qualified by occupation of house-property worth £75, or by receipt of annual wages to the amount of £50. All members of Parliament are paid one guinea per day for their services, with an extra allowance of fifteen shillings per day, for not more than 90 days in the year, in case of residence at a distance of over 15 miles from Cape Town. Speeches in Parliament may be made either in English or in Dutch. The Roman-Dutch Law, modified by Colonial statutes, is the basis for the administration of justice, the machinery of which includes a Supreme Court, with a Chief Justice and eight assistant-judges; sessions, circuit-courts in towns and country-districts, and resident magistrates in 77 districts. The Ministry is composed of an unpaid Premier, and a Colonial Secretary, Treasurer, Attorney-General, Commissioner of Crown Lands and Public Works, and Secretary for Agriculture and Native Affairs, each of whom receives a salary of £1500. Local government is well developed in 69 divisional councils composed of eight members triennially chosen by the parliamentary voters; in about 80 municipalities partly elected annually by the ratepayers; and in 73 village management-boards, each of three members yearly elected by the parliamentary voters within the special area. Roads and other public works, land-boundaries and beacon-lights, licensing and police, thus receive due regard from responsible officials. The total annual revenue is

about $5\frac{1}{2}$ millions, chiefly derived from loans, railways, customs-duties and other taxation, and colonial estate. The annual expenditure is about £5,400,000, of which the chief items are railways, interest on public debt, police and prisons, public defence, and civil establishment. The public debt is about 27 millions, including over $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions raised for corporate bodies, harbour boards, &c., guaranteed in the general revenue. This debt is mainly caused by loans, of which about 70 per cent has been expended on directly reproductive public works, including $18\frac{1}{4}$ millions on railways alone. In religious affairs, the Anglican Church, a very popular communion, is represented by the three dioceses of Cape Town, Grahamstown, and St. John's, Kaffraria, and by about 140,000 adherents. The Dutch Reformed Church, strong among the Boer population, has above 300,000 adherents; the other Protestants, to about the same number, include Lutherans and Moravians (36,000 together), and members of the various chief Nonconformist bodies known in Great Britain, the Wesleyans and Independents forming a large majority. In 1898, there were over 17,000 Catholics, 15,000 Mohammedans, 3000 Jews, and about $\frac{3}{4}$ million pagans, impolitely described as "of no religion". There is no "Established Church", and the annual small grants made to the Dutch Reformed, Episcopalian, Presbyterian, and Roman Catholic churches, for "religious worship", are now, under an Act of 1875, being gradually withdrawn. The higher education is represented by the "University of the Cape of Good Hope", established in 1873, with a royal charter of 1877, making the authorities an examining body empowered to grant degrees in Arts, Medicine, and Law. Five colleges, aided by Government-grants, have each a full staff of teachers in classics, mathematics, and physical science. The colony contains about 100 public libraries, with a total number of 320,000 volumes, and 80 newspapers and periodicals are regularly published. A Superintendent-General of Education, with a staff of inspectors, controls elementary instruction, which is not compulsory. The non-compulsory system, in contrast with that prevailing in the great North American and Australasian colonies, has had results which must be held to be discreditable. In 1891, of the European population, nearly 29 per cent of the males, and 28 per cent of the females, could neither read nor write. Of 100,000 European children

between 5 and 14 years of age, about 60,000 were under instruction, but one-third were being taught at home or only in Sunday-schools. Of 316,000 native or non-European children of the same ages, 34,000 were in Government-aided schools, and a few thousands more had private, home, or Sunday-school teaching only.

As regards defence against external foes, the whole of the Cape Peninsula, including the great naval station at Simon's Bay, is guarded by a series of batteries and forts, and an imperial garrison is maintained at Cape Town and Wynberg. The colony is now left to defend itself against native foes, trouble from that quarter being a highly improbable contingency. The Cape Mounted Rifles number nearly 800 officers and men; the Cape Police now consists of 48 officers and about 1200 men, with over 1000 horses. The volunteer-corps, of all arms, including garrison and field artillery, muster about 6000 officers and men, and a law of 1878 renders every able-bodied man in the colony, between the ages of 18 and 50 years, liable to military service beyond as well as within the colonial limits. The neighbouring seas are patrolled by the ships of the Cape and West African squadron.

The chief towns are *Cape Town*, population (1891) over 51,000, and nearly 84,000 with suburbs; *Kimberley*, nearly 29,000; *Port Elizabeth*, 23,260; *Grahamstown*, 10,500; *King William's Town*, 7220; and *East London*, 7000. The view of the capital, lying between Table Bay and the northern base of the steep and massive flat-topped Table Mountain, about 3500 feet in height, is very grand on approach by sea. The reverse prospect, when the traveller ascends behind the town, and gazes over gardens, villas, and vineyards, joining plantations of pines and silver trees that cover the mountain-foot, to the waters of the bay, is suggestive of the Bay of Naples. The old Dutch town has flat-roofed, oblong, white-washed houses, arranged in streets that cross each other at right angles. The finest buildings are the Parliament Houses, opened in 1885, at a cost of £220,000. Public convenience and comfort are provided for by spacious markets, gas-lit thoroughfares, tram-cars, cabs, omnibuses, and by the beautiful Government-gardens in the heart of the town, with an oak avenue stretching for three-quarters of a mile. The breakwater, docks, and graving-dock have cost about 2 millions sterling. The coast and neighbouring inland scenery is very charming in its succession of fair hamlets and

marine villas lying amidst vineyards, orchards, and woods. A large part of the population is composed of negroes, Malays, and South African natives, employed in various handicrafts and as gardeners, grooms, coachmen, and carters. No town in South Africa has had so rapid and remarkable a rise as *Kimberley*, the diamond-centre in Griqualand West. About a quarter of a century ago the ground which it covers was a desert. The "rush" for diamonds created a collection of tents and huts. The traveller now sees a city of 30,000 people, with handsome public buildings, botanic gardens, a hospital with 360 beds, specially useful to the many sufferers from accidents in the mines, and waterworks constructed at a cost of nearly half a million sterling, bringing a supply from the Vaal River, 17 miles distant. Society is well ordered, and excellent arrangements exist for the well-being of the thousands of native workmen, particularly as regards the detestable and destructive traffic in the worst kind of alcoholic compounds. The neighbouring town of *Beaconsfield*, also in the diamond-district, has a population exceeding 10,000. *Port Elizabeth*, on Algoa Bay, is called the "Liverpool of South Africa", a title not absurdly bestowed on a town of fine public buildings, including a library of 20,000 volumes, and possessing, as the chief port of the eastern districts of Cape Colony and of the Orange River Free State, a commerce in which the yearly imports exceed 4 millions in value, and the exports amount to about 2 millions. *Grahamstown*, beautifully placed at 1800 feet above sea-level, is in a district that enjoys the advantage of a genial climate, with an equable temperature and a rainfall fairly distributed throughout the year. The soil is fruitful, living is cheap, and easy access is afforded by rail to the sea-coast thirty miles away, to the dry inland plains, and to the bracing air of mountain-regions. Its ecclesiastical and educational resources, with the intellectual and social activities of an English cathedral town, have caused it to be described as the "Winchester of South Africa". A notable and beneficial custom of the place is the annual "tree planting", when every child plants a young *Pinus insignis*, a noble species native to the west of North America.

We proceed to a brief account of some other territories under British rule, influence, or control in the south, the centre, and the east of Africa. *Basutoland*, a territory with an area of about 10,300 sq. miles, nearly the size of Belgium, is surrounded by the

Orange Free State, Cape Colony, and Natal. In the second decade of the nineteenth century a young, vigorous, and able chieftain named Moshesh acquired power, which he wielded for about 50 years. After a war with Cape Colony in 1852, and defeat by Sir George Cathcart, submission was made, and then Moshesh became involved in lengthy hostilities with the Orange Free State and with the Boers of the Transvaal. In 1868, when the Basutos were hard pressed by the Boers, and by danger of famine, a second appeal for British rule was successful, and the land was annexed to Cape Colony in 1871. Eight years later, a rebellion against our rule began under the leadership of a chief named Moirosi, but in December, 1879, his stronghold was stormed with the loss of his life in the assault. Further trouble arose from British proposals to allot territory to European settlers, and from an Act which aimed at a general disarmament. Indecisive warfare occurred, and the Basutos were, in 1881, driven to submission by the loss of cattle and interruption to tillage. At last, in 1884, the country was separated from Cape Colony, and came, as it remains, under imperial rule through a Resident Commissioner directed by the High Commissioner for South Africa, whose proclamations have legislative force. The chiefs decide on matters at issue between natives; a right of appeal to British magistrates controls cases in which Europeans are involved. The native population may number 250,000; European settlement is not permitted, and the few hundreds of Europeans found in the country are engaged as traders, or as missionaries, or in the work of government. The missionaries, almost the sole educators, have schools containing 7000 pupils, of whom nine-tenths are in charge of the French Protestant Mission. It is pleasant to be able to record a steady improvement in the observance of law and order, along with the non-existence, in the whole country, of a single canteen or "drinking-shop". The missionaries, the British Government, and the leading chiefs have united in producing this excellent result of war waged against the alcohol which was threatening to exterminate the people. Good roads favour transport by ox-waggons and light carts, and there is a weekly postal mail-service for letters, parcels, and money-orders, reaching Cape Town in about 6 days. A telegraph-office at Maseru, the capital (850 people), communicating with the Cape Colony system, was opened in July, 1892. The

revenue of £46,000 a-year arises from the Cape contribution of £18,000, the post-office, a tax on native huts (10s. per annum) and the sale of licences. The well-watered territory, with a fine climate, fertile soil, and grand and beautiful scenery among mountains connected with the Drakenberg chain, is richly stocked with horses and horned cattle, sheep, goats (including Angora), and pigs. The tillage, chiefly in wheat, mealies (maize), and Kaffir corn (millet), is extending so as to drive the pastoral farming more and more into the higher grounds of the broken and rugged plateau that forms Basutoland. Two coal-mines are worked for a local supply of fuel. Grain, cattle, and wool are the chief exports, imported goods being mainly blankets, ploughs, clothing, saddlery, groceries, and ware of tin and iron. British coin is current, but trade by barter still largely exists. In 1891, the country entered the Customs Union existing between Cape Colony and Orange Free State.

British Bechuanaland consisted, until 1896, of a Crown Colony and a Protectorate. The colony was bounded by the South African Republic on the east, by Cape Colony on the south, by the 20th meridian of east longitude (the eastern border of Namaqualand) on the west, and by the Molopo River on the north, with an area variously stated at 51,000 and 71,000 sq. miles. The Protectorate extends northwards over the Kalahari Desert to the line of 22° south latitude, and westwards to 21° east longitude. The whole area is given as 386,000 square miles with a population of about 60,000, including over 5000 Europeans. The events which led to our acquisition of this territory may be briefly told. Prior to 1884 two reigning chiefs were engaged in warfare with rivals who were supported by Boers of the Transvaal. The legitimate rulers were vanquished in the contest, and then the South African Republic officially intervened and made a "peace and settlement" which included the confiscation of most of the land belonging to one of the defeated chieftains. The British Government had already decided on a protectorate of Bechuanaland, in favour of the two chiefs, and Mr. Cecil Rhodes, Deputy-Commissioner from Cape Town, promptly set aside the Boer arrangement. The President of the Transvaal thereupon proclaimed the "protection" of his state for the lawful rulers who had been ousted from power. The Convention of London, concluded in February, 1884, required

the Queen's assent to such a step, and our Government caused the Boers to annul the proceeding. All was now anarchy in Bechuanaland, and the first necessary step was British mastery and enforced pacification. Sir Charles Warren, as special Commissioner, went thither at the head of 4000 men of all arms, including 2000 irregular cavalry. Not a blow was struck in the way of resistance, and Sir Charles remained in military occupation until August, 1885, when he quitted the country after the complete restoration of peace and order, the execution of useful public works, the demarcation of borders, and the conclusion of treaties with various powerful chiefs to the north. In September, the Crown colony was annexed, and the protectorate proclaimed, under the rule of the Governor of Cape Colony, represented on the spot by an official who is at once "Administrator, Deputy High Commissioner, and Chief Magistrate". British colonial history has no finer instance of successful vigour than this peaceful acquisition of a magnificent territory. An expert in South African affairs, Mr. John Mackenzie, long a missionary in Bechuanaland, and Deputy-Commissioner prior to Mr. Rhodes, declared that we had gained "a region which any colonizing power might covet; which is necessary to our supremacy in South Africa, and to the welfare and future confederation of our colonists", and that "the Bechuanaland expedition had helped our South African colonists to believe in the British Government once more".

In November, 1895, the Crown Colony was annexed to Cape Colony, and new arrangements were made for the administration of the Protectorate, in which the chief tribe is the Bamangwato, under the excellent chief named Khama, who visited England in 1895. The natives pay a hut-tax collected by the chiefs. The sale of spirits is prohibited. Order is maintained by a force of native mounted police.

The country forms part of a plateau from 4000 to 5000 feet above sea-level, with a dry and very healthy climate. An annual rainfall of about 25 inches occurs between November and April; good water for drinking and irrigation can always be obtained by digging on or near the river-banks, or by sinking wells. Extensive woods are found in the north-east. A very fertile soil gives sustenance to vast numbers of antelopes, and tillage produces good crops of mealies (maize), vegetables, and Kaffir corn. Wild indigo

furnishes a dye of rare excellence, and cotton is one of the indigenous shrubs. The minerals include lead, tin, silver, gold, iron, and coal. The natives, whose chief occupations are cattle-rearing and the growing of corn and tobacco, are a fine, hardy, well-formed race of people, more advanced in civilization than others in South Africa, and attentive, with good results for peace and social order, to the teaching of earnest men supported by the Anglican Church, the Wesleyans, and the London Missionary Society. Communications are fairly maintained by roads, by the extension of the railway from Kimberley to Vryburg and then northwards to Mafeking, and by telegraph-wires which have now reached Fort Salisbury, in Mashonaland. Vryburg is now within two days of Cape Town, a fact which speaks volumes for the rapidity of progress in South Africa during the last quarter of the nineteenth century. From the seat of government there are daily coaches to Johannesburg, in the Transvaal, in connection with the train-service from the south. The trade of Bechuanaland lies in the import of needful manufactured goods, and the export of maize, wool, hides, cattle, and wood to Kimberley and other markets. Mafeking is the centre of traffic with the interior, favoured by the connection of the colony, since 1891, with the South African Customs Union. The defence of the country is in the hands of the Bechuanaland Border Police, a well-trained force of 450 men recruited chiefly from the young farmers of the east of Cape Colony, of versatile powers which enable them to construct their own little forts, to build their barracks, to sink wells and make roads, to act as thorough cavalymen, to dismount and do good service on foot, and to load and fire the six field-guns which compose the artillery of this new and rising state.

British South and Central Africa, or British Zambesia and Nyassaland was till recently the name of a vast region, estimated to have an area of half a million square miles, lying south and north of the great river Zambesi. To the south, the territory comprised Mashonaland and Matabeleland. Northwards, the territory extends to the southern end of Lake Tanganyika, and the western shore of Lake Nyassa, including the district known as the Shiré highlands. Until recent years, the region was only known, among Europeans, to adventurous sportsmen in search of big game and to the devoted missionaries and explorers Moffat

and Livingstone. The first British trading connection with this part of Africa arose in 1878, when a company of Scottish merchants was formed, under the name of "The Livingstone Central Africa Company", for the purpose of opening up to navigation and trade the rivers and lakes of Central Africa to which the Zambesi is the approach. In the course of ten years, the operations of the "African Lakes Company", as it was commonly styled, and private enterprise, had established stations on the Shiré and on the western shores of Lake Nyassa, and a highroad had been formed between Lakes Nyassa and Tanganyika. Some planting of coffee, sugar, and cinchona was begun, a small amount of trade was carried on, and the Company's boats rendered service in carrying missionaries and their stores to the stations in Nyassaland. The European "rush" for the partition of Africa brought into the field a new Company possessed of greater resources and formed with more ambitious aims. In October, 1889, a royal charter was granted to the "British South Africa Company", a body of associates whose capital, nearly all derived from cash-subscriptions, amounted to one million sterling. The president and vice-president were the Dukes of Abercorn and Fife, and the Hon. Cecil J. Rhodes, Premier of Cape Colony, took the post of managing-director. Very extensive powers were granted for the encouragement of colonization, the promotion of trade, and the development and working of mineral and other resources, all subject to the approval of the Colonial Secretary. It is well to note that the charter requires the Company to use all legitimate means for the discouragement and gradual abolition of the slave-trade and domestic servitude, and to prevent, so far as possible, the sale of any alcoholic liquors to natives. No official interference with any native religion was permitted, "except so far as may be necessary in the interests of humanity"; all forms of religious worship were to be allowed, and careful regard was to be paid, in the administration of justice, to native customs and laws. The administrative rights of this powerful Company included the making and maintenance of roads, railways, telegraphs, harbours, and any other needful works; the making concessions for mining, timber-cutting, and other industries; the clearing, planting, irrigation, and cultivation of lands; the granting of lands for terms of years or in perpetuity, and either absolutely or by way of mortgage or otherwise. Accounts of the financial condition of the

Company, of its public proceedings, and of the condition of its territories, were to be furnished yearly to the Secretary of State.

Thus commissioned and armed, the South African Company proceeded to take possession of its territories. Lobengula, the king of Matabeleland, had made a treaty, in 1888, with Sir Hercules Robinson, Governor of Cape Colony, and High Commissioner for South Africa, in which British influence, as regarded his country, was secured against all native and European rivals. This powerful chieftain ruled a section of the Zulus who, about 1840, had migrated towards the north, and had, at the period with which we are dealing, become an independent nation of 200,000 persons, retaining the warlike habits of their race, with an army of 15,000 warriors, commanded by *indunas* or chiefs, and distributed by *impis*, or regiments, in military kraals. The social system included no regular industries for the men. The women grew maize and millet; the king held large herds of cattle in trust for the fighting-men and their dependants. The warriors made raids, from time to time, upon their weaker neighbours in Mashonaland and elsewhere, slaying the men, and returning with booty that included women and children for incorporation in their own community. Nominally despotic, Lobengula was not always able to restrain his *indunas* and their men, who were eager to "wash their spears" in blood, and to "eat up" all the white men in or near their own territory. For a time, however, all collision was avoided, and the northward march of the Company's pioneering column was safely made through Matabeleland. This expedition was a memorable event in the history of the expansion of British rule. A police-force of 500 men and a band of 200 pioneers, commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Pennefather, and guided by Mr. F. C. Selous, the famous hunter, who knew the country well, started in June, 1890, from the Macloutsie River, a tributary of the Limpopo, and made their way, north-east and north, over the gradually rising plateau to Mount Hampden in Mashonaland. Over these 400 miles of ground a rough road was made during the advance, with bridges over rivers and platforms crossing marshy ground, forts, with small garrisons, being established at three points of the line. A fourth and last stronghold, named Fort Salisbury, was built near Mount Hampden, and a town soon arose with hotels, hospitals, churches, lawyers, land-agents, stores, clubs, newspapers, a sanitary board, and other

appliances of civilization. In September, 1890, the pioneers were disbanded, and, in accordance with the terms of service, were allowed to peg off claims in the rich gold-bearing quartz districts of Mashonaland. After much suffering and many deaths during the exceptionally severe rainy season of 1890-91, the new-comers began to prosper, and in September, 1891, only twelve months after the first occupation, there were six gold-fields open, with above 11,000 mining-claims allotted. Silver, copper, tin, antimony, arsenic, lead, coal, and plumbago have also been found. Farmers from Cape Colony and the Transvaal have taken up an area of 2 million acres of land in this favoured country, Mashonaland, a plateau from 4000 to 4600 feet above sea-level, well watered by streams, with a rich soil, and a strong and bracing air. The natives, of Bantu race, are peaceful and industrious, devoted to cattle-rearing and to tillage which produces rice, Kaffir corn, maize, sweet-potatoes, tobacco, and cotton. From the spun cotton they weave blankets, and they have no mean skill in working iron.

It was in 1891 that the British Government extended the field of the Company's operations to the north of the Zambesi. The Nyassaland districts, however, form a "Protectorate" proclaimed in 1891 as the British Central Africa Protectorate, and administered under the Foreign Office by a "Commissioner and Consul-General", the cost of rule in "Northern Zambesia" being partly borne by the British South African Company. The Anglo-Portuguese agreement of June, 1891, and arrangements made with Germany, added about 350,000 square miles to our territory, officially styled "British Central Africa", in one of the best-watered and most promising parts of the great continent. At the end of 1892, the African Lakes Company was incorporated with the British South African Company. The new territory is being well organized for the development of British power and civilization. The seat of government is at Zomba; the largest town is Blantyre, in the Shiré highlands, with about one hundred Europeans and 6000 natives. On Lake Nyassa lie Fort Johnston, named after the able and energetic British ruler, Fort Maguire, and Livingstonia, and other settlements have been made near Lake Tanganyika, on Lake Moero, and on the Upper Luapula River near Lake Bangweolo. The Shiré province, between the southern shore of Lake Nyassa and the Zambesi, is the chief scene of European

effort, divided into eight districts, provided with custom-houses, post-offices, and good roads, and rendered safe for property and life. The chief exports are ivory, india-rubber, oil-seeds, bees'-wax, rice, coffee, hippopotamus-teeth, and rhinoceros-horns. For the maintenance of order and for checking the slave-trade there is a body of 200 Sikhs from the Indian army, with mountain-guns, aided by about 500 black police. The Zambesi and Shiré rivers and Lake Nyassa are patrolled by five gun-boats, with as many naval stations between Chinde, on the only navigable mouth of the Zambesi, and Fort Maguire, at the southern end of Lake Nyassa. River-boats of the Central African Administration, and of two steam-traffic companies, meet the ocean-going steamers at Chinde, taking down exported goods, and loading in return with cotton-fabrics, machinery, provisions, hardware, and agricultural tools, to the value in one year of £83,000.

In 1895-6-7 important events occurred in this Central Africa Protectorate, which, with its "sphere of influence", includes all the region surrounded by the Portuguese and German possessions, the Congo Free State, and Rhodesia, the Protectorate itself being a narrow strip of country along the Shiré river and the western shore of Lake Nyassa, now made a model territory of its class under the very able rule of Sir Harry Johnston. It is described by him, in a recent work, as a country rejoicing in the possession of plateaux with a cool and bracing air, where the sunshine from a lovely pale blue sky is only pleasantly warm, where fatigue is not felt, and thirst can be quenched from countless ice-cold brooks; with beautiful bamboo glades, and a vast natural aviary, with an infinite variety of life and colour, on the estuary of a river falling into Lake Tanganyika. The drawbacks are the malaria in certain districts, and a troublesome south-east wind at certain seasons. In seven years of splendid work, from 1890 to 1897, Sir Harry Johnston provided the country with the machinery of civilization, including a civil service and military establishment, law-courts, post-offices, four hundred miles of roads, and seventeen steamers on the Zambesi and Shiré rivers. In the five years from 1891 to 1896 the trade of the country increased about threefold, and the number of settlers nearly sixfold. Above all, the curse of slavery had been for ever wiped out of British Central Africa. In December, 1895, the slave-raiding chief Mlozi, of North Nyassa, was subdued in a

brilliant campaign. On December 1st, after a toilsome and difficult march, and the capture of some outlying stockades, his stronghold, a walled town half a square mile in area, near the river Rukuru, was completely invested by the British force. The thick mud-walls, strongly wattled, with stout beams supporting a thick flat mud-roof along the ramparts, and loopholed for the defenders' fire, was severely bombarded after many women and children had been allowed to come forth and pass the outposts. The central part of the town was soon on fire, and the besieged suffered great loss, but the mud ramparts and roofs seemed little the worse for shelling. Mlozi's marksmen made good practice with Remington rifles, but much of the fire from the walls was high and inaccurate. As night came on, with moonlight, the ring of besiegers was tightened up and the Nordenfeldt gun was brought opposite to the big gate in readiness to prevent sorties for escape made by the Arabs, who knew that they were caught in a trap. The fight continued through the night, and some shells exploded quantities of gunpowder in some of Mlozi's magazines. In early morning a white flag waving from the ramparts caused the "cease-fire" to sound, and at last Mlozi came forth from the main gate and asked for terms, which were announced to be immediate surrender of the place and the arms, with sparing of life on that condition. The chief retired within the town, and returned to request the Commissioner to walk unarmed into the stockade for the discussion of terms. Before a reply could be made to this ludicrous proposal, he stated that the Arabs meant to fight it out to the end, and "if the British wanted them they must come and take them". The flags of truce were then pulled down, and the bombardment was resumed at noon on December 3rd. No breach, however, was effected in the walls, and preparations were being made for an assault on the main gate, when a chief who had escaped from the town came into camp and pointed out to the Commissioner the position of the strong building in which Mlozi and his fighting-men were taking shelter. Three shells from the nine-pounder gun were promptly dropped into the place, and then the assailants were surprised by an immediate sortie in great force from two parts of the stockade. The rush was accompanied by sharp volleys, doing some damage to the British, and a great number of women and children ran for safety to the nearest British camp. The besiegers closed up to a hand-to-hand

conflict with the enemy, doing great execution by regular volleys, and then two officers, with thirty Sikhs, clambered up on the ramparts, and leapt down into the stockade. The ramparts were scaled in other parts, and the Commissioner, with some officers, rushed up to the main gateway, which was quickly breached by a gun brought up close. When the town was entered, the native allies of the British began to drive out all the cattle, while close fighting went on inside the place. Mlozi, who had been wounded by one of the three shells which caused the sortie, had taken refuge in a house, the roof of which was fired after a refusal to surrender. The people rushed out and were shot down by the Sikhs, and then the chief was captured in a hiding-place inside, and brought into camp. Very few of his fighting-men survived, numbers being pursued and killed by our native allies. Nearly six hundred miserable slaves were rescued. The whole British loss was very small. On December 4th, Mlozi, after trial by a council of native chiefs, presided over by the Commissioner, was condemned and hanged. In the course of the campaign, nearly 1200 slaves were rescued and set free, with provision made for their future living.

This sharp lesson to slave-raiders was repeated in 1896. In January, the Protectorate forces gained two brilliant victories over the slave-trading chiefs on the western shores of Lake Nyassa, and once for all broke the power of the slave-system in that region. A powerful chief, of Zulu origin, named Mwasi, having formed a confederacy against the British, closed the important trade-route from Lake Nyassa to the Luapula River and the Congo, and began raiding for slaves far into a district within the administration of the Protectorate. An expedition composed of 150 regular troops, Sikhs and negroes, and about five thousand native allies, was sent against Mwasi, who put twenty thousand fighting-men into the field. In three sharp encounters this great force was utterly beaten; all his fortified places were taken, and fifty of his settlements were destroyed, with trifling loss to the Protectorate force. Over six hundred prisoners, including fourteen chiefs, were taken, and one of these was tried and executed for the treacherous murder of two British subjects, Dr. Boyce and Mr. McEwan, in 1891. Some hundreds of cattle, nearly six hundred rifles or muskets, and a quantity of gunpowder were also taken. A British fort replaced Mwasi's town, and, as a result of the operations, the trade-route

into the far interior westward and north-westward of Lake Nyassa was opened, and the slave-route to the Zambesi was closed. Shortly afterwards, two other slave-trading strongholds, the last remaining in the British Protectorate, were captured, after the complete defeat of the chiefs' forces, and a British fort was built on the site of the principal village.

In October, 1896, a serious attack was made on the south-west of the Protectorate by a tribe called the Angoni Zulus, who had been aroused by news of the Matabele war. Some uneasiness was felt at Blantyre, and three columns of troops were despatched against the invaders. These Zulus, under a chief named Chikusi, were related to the Matabele south of the Zambesi, and refugees from Matabeleland had spread reports that the British were getting the worst of the struggle. Chikusi had suffered much loss of revenue from the stoppage of his slave-raids by the erection of forts in the upper Shiré district, and this stirred his enmity against the British. On October 8th six hundred of his warriors attacked the Zambesi industrial mission station, burning villages and slaying people attached to the mission. After this, villages on the upper Shiré were raided by Chikusi, and more people were massacred. The three columns of Sikhs and native troops converged on Chikusi's country, and a battle was fought, with 350 men, including about 100 Sikhs, against several thousand Angoni warriors, headed by the chief. A steady fire of twenty minutes broke the enemy, and Chikusi, taken on the field, was promptly tried, condemned and hanged. Another column encountered a powerful Angoni chief, and, though the British force numbered only 30 Sikhs and 40 native soldiers, his strong stone fort, on the slopes of a mountain, was taken by surprise, with great loss to the enemy, the chief being captured and sent as a prisoner to one of the British forts. This was the end of trouble from the Angoni Zulus.

Among recent events in Southern Africa to affect British interests have been wars with the Matabele. Their renewed raids on the Mashonas under the protection of the Company brought a conflict in October, 1893, between the *impis*, or native regiments, whom it is believed that Lobengula in vain endeavoured to restrain, and the Company's forces, aided by the Bechuanaland Border Police, Khama's men, and volunteers. Breech-loaders and Gatling guns were too powerful for spears, and, after a difficult march and

several battles, the defeat of Lobengula's forces was followed by his death. In November his capital, Bulawayo, was occupied, and early in 1894 Matabeleland was annexed to the British Empire.

In the last days of March, 1896, a formidable rebellion occurred in the newly-conquered territory which, with Mashonaland, makes up the region popularly known as "Rhodesia", as large as Spain, France, and Italy together. Matabeleland had been placed under a regular administration, with magisterial districts, and was guarded by armed police, distributed at various stations all through the territory. The rising of the natives was intimately connected, as regards the time of its occurrence, with the "Jameson Raid". At the end of 1895, as we have seen, the larger part of the Matabeleland Mounted Police had been taken away to assist in that disastrous enterprise, and it was this depletion of the force which gave their opportunity to the Matabele. The natives had only been very partially subdued in 1893, and they had a rankling memory of what they did not by any means at first regard as conquest, but only as "a passing raid". Before three years had elapsed, however, they found that the British had come as permanent occupiers and settlers, and that Bulawayo was fast becoming a European town. There were already four thousand whites in the country, and the state of peace and order which existed was a sore grievance to tribes of freebooters who had been wont to live by harassing their neighbours, especially those in Mashonaland, in cattle-forays and other modes of plunder. Their supplies of food had been reduced by drought and by swarms of locusts, and especially by the rinderpest, or cattle-plague, which had made its way into the territory, in the course of three years, from Somaliland, two thousand miles away to the north-east. The Matabele herds had been ravaged by the pestilence, and then, to their amazement and disgust, the British authorities, in order to stay the progress of the scourge, began to slaughter cattle in all directions. The idea rapidly spread among the natives that the intention of their conquerors was to annihilate them by starvation, and with death, as they believed, staring them in the face, the Matabele warriors formed a bold and comprehensive plan for the extinction of all the whites. All the fighting-men were called upon to assemble in arms, on a certain "moon", around Bulawayo. The town was then to be "rushed" in the night, and the white people slaughtered

without quarter to any. The town was not to be destroyed, but kept as the royal "kraal" for Lobengula, who had, it was asserted, come to life again. After the slaughter at Bulawayo the army was to break up into smaller *impis*, and go about slaying all outlying farmers. The superstitious minds of the natives were tempted by the declaration that the white men's bullets would, in their flight, be turned into water, and the shells into eggs. This plan of warfare failed only because the Matabele, in their haste for vengeance, began at the wrong end. The outlying settlers and prospectors for gold were attacked before the night-surprise of Bulawayo. The people of the town were thus warned in time, and enabled to prepare the place for defence.

The position of affairs soon became serious. Before the middle of April, with the slaughter of scores of outlying settlers, the whole country, outside the towns and forts, was in the hands of the rebels, who had a specially strong position in the Matoppo Hills, a range running for one hundred and fifty miles to the north-east from Bulawayo. Hundreds of cavalry and mounted infantry hurried to the scene of conflict from Natal and Cape Town, and volunteers, with infantry from England, soon made up a force of about five thousand men, under the chief command of General Sir Frederick Carrington, a man of great personal influence in South Africa, well acquainted with most of the men whom he was to lead, and with a thorough experience of Matabeleland and of native warfare. The rebels were aided by many of the native police, and were to a great extent armed with excellent rifles. The campaign, one of several months' duration, included much hard fighting of small columns against large native forces, but the chief scenes of action were at Bulawayo and the Matoppo Hills. The town had been well provisioned and fortified, with strong outposts, and with a train of dynamite, ready to be fired by electricity, laid around the outskirts, and along the side-streets, the mines being at all points connected with the central "laager", and capable of being separately exploded. In the last half of April sorties were made from Bulawayo, and the enemy were attacked with success in several positions, but they could not be brought to a general action, and before the end of the month many thousands of the rebels were gathered within two or three miles of the town. Maxim and Hotchkiss guns did good service on April 25th in a hot fight

of three hours against three thousand Matabele in the bush outside, on the Umguza river four miles to the north. At least five hundred Matabele were left dead on the ground, after a series of British charges to close quarters. During May there were many minor actions at various parts of the country, and several kraals of the rebels were captured and burned. Attacks on the British position in and near Bulawayo were often repulsed, and the enemy would never face the charges of the troopers. On June 1st Mr. Rhodes arrived at Bulawayo with a column of troops from Fort Salisbury, in Mashonaland, and on June 6th the enemy were again routed a few miles from the town. Hot work continued in many quarters, the rebels being favoured by the great extent of country, and by the difficulty of getting at them in the bush and the rocky hills. Sir Frederick Carrington formed three columns at Bulawayo for the purpose of marching north, north-east, and north-west, as part of a general plan for dispersing and disarming the foe, but before the end of June the rising had extended into Mashonaland, and it was seen that more force was needed to cope with the rebellion. The imperial troops were by this time coming to the front, and Fort Salisbury, long beleaguered, was relieved by a cavalry-force escorting needful stores of arms and ammunition. Early in July, an almost impregnable position, near Inyati, north-east of Bulawayo, was gallantly stormed, with severe loss to the rebels, and the capture of many women and children, with large numbers of cattle, sheep, and goats.

On August 5th, a strong position in the Matoppo Hills, held by five rebel *impis* or regiments, was captured after fighting which lasted from eight in the morning until three in the afternoon, with more than a dozen British officers, commissioned and non-commissioned, and many men, killed and wounded. The Matabele lost some hundreds of men, and a serious impression was made on them by this defeat. About the middle of the month, Mr. Rhodes, trusting to a messenger from some rebel chiefs, rode boldly out, unarmed, with but five attendants, from Bulawayo, to a point in the Matoppo Hills, thirty miles from the town. There, surrounded by hundreds of armed Matabele, he held a conference with six principal chiefs, two of Lobengula's brothers, and over thirty *indunas* and captains of the *impis*. This trustful and courageous conduct was of great service to the cause of peace.

The "Indaba" or parley continued for five hours, and then the chiefs consented to surrender all guns and assegais, to put an end to hostilities, and to guarantee safety to the roads and the coaches. After further negotiations, Earl Grey, the Chartered Company's Administrator, was able to dispatch a cablegram on August 22nd, stating the conclusion of the war on terms practically amounting to unconditional surrender on the part of the Matabele. The whole struggle was over throughout Rhodesia before the end of the year, with not the least likelihood of any future trouble. The natives, in danger of starvation from the loss of cattle and of their stores of grain at captured kraals, had been promptly supplied with food and seed-corn by the Company.

After the conclusion of the troubles, very rapid progress was made in Matabeleland. The railway from Capetown, through Bechuanaland, to Mafeking, was quickly extended across Khama's country, and at the beginning of November, 1897, the whistle of the locomotive was first heard at Bulawayo, standing on a plateau about 4,500 feet above sea-level, in one of the most pleasant and salubrious climates in the world. The place had become a considerable town, with streets and avenues extending for twenty miles of total length, laid out at right angles to each other, the chief parallel thoroughfares, called Main-street, Abercorn-street, Fife-street, and Rhodes-street, with others, being each about a hundred feet wide. In the centre of the town is a large market-square, and the chief buildings include the High Court of Matabeleland, the Resident Magistrate's Court, the armoury and stores of the British South Africa Police, a Stock Exchange, Postal and Telegraph Offices, offices for the Administrator and the Civil Service, and the Bulawayo Club-house. Blocks of substantial edifices have replaced the temporary erections of corrugated iron, and the wants of civilization are met by several daily newspapers, a score or two of solicitors and barristers; banks, breweries, auctioneers, "stores" of every class, a brick-field turning out a million bricks weekly, a lending library, restaurants, hotels, a theatre, and places of worship representing the Church of England, the Dutch Protestant Church, the Wesleyans, and the Jews. Prospectors and mine-managers were hard at work in preparations for the development of the gold-industry when, on November 4th, 1897, the railway was opened, amidst great rejoicings, by Sir

Alfred Milner, the High Commissioner, in presence of the Governor of Natal and other leading officials of South Africa, and of chiefs and *indunas* from all parts of the vast territory. Bulawayo was thus brought within three days' journey from Cape Town, and three weeks' reach of London, and the magnificent country was fairly started on what should be a prosperous career. The defence of the territory of Rhodesia (Matabeleland and Mashonaland) is intrusted to 1200 well-armed and well-disciplined police, with regular patrolling in all parts occupied by settlers, and with forts and small garrisons in different districts. All these armed posts, in touch with the white population, and keeping a close watch on all native movements, are in telephonic or telegraphic communication with Bulawayo, and are so placed as practically to surround the town. In the Matoppo Hills, a chain of forts runs from north-east to south-west, and the mining-districts are specially guarded. A standing force of over 200 men is maintained at Bulawayo, with a mule-battery of machine-guns, and 2000 Martini-Henry rifles for the purpose of arming, in case of need, the white civil population of the town. At the farewell banquet of the railway-festivities on November 10th, 1897, the Governor of Natal, Sir W. Hely Hutchinson, a pupil of Lord Rosmead in colonial government, and a man of great experience as colonial official and ruler in New South Wales, Barbados, Malta, and the Windward Islands, made a speech in which he declared that "the brain of Africa is white, the sinew is black. 'Labour' is the cry, and to the teeming thousands of natives we must look for the development of our resources. It behoves us to use the power we possess with kindly firmness and sympathetic interest."

British East Africa was until recently the name of a vast vague territory, which, with "the sphere of influence" thereto attached, was estimated to have an area of a million square miles. This region, bounded on the north by the Galla country, and on the south by German East Africa (westwards from Zanzibar), extended from the Somali country and the Indian Ocean on the east to the Congo Free State on the west, thus passing to the north of Lake Victoria Nyanza and beyond the Upper Nile, so as to include the territory called Uganda. Through concessions made by the Sultan of Zanzibar and agreements with the Italian and German Governments, the territory was placed under the immediate ad-

ministration of the Imperial British East Africa Company, whose charter was signed in September, 1888, with rights of coinage under which their silver and copper became largely used. From the initial letters of the Company's title their territory was often styled *Ibca*. A coast-line of about 700 miles, including the ports of Kismayu, Lamu, and Mombasa, gives a fine outlet for trade, conducted by caravans and by steamers on the Juba and Tana rivers, with exports consisting of ivory, sesame-seed, india-rubber, maize, rice, millet, copra, gum, coir, and hides, and imports of Manchester and Bombay cotton-cloth, iron and copper wire, beads, &c. *Mombasa*, the seat of government, has a natural harbour equal to any on the African coast of the Indian Ocean, capable of admitting the largest steamers, and furnished with landing-stages, piers, and other works that have created a very important coaling-station for the use of the British Navy in those waters. Mombasa is now connected by a good road with Kibwezi, about 200 miles inland, where the Scottish East African Mission is actively engaged in the religious and industrial training of the natives. A submarine-cable links the chief coast-ports with Zanzibar, and the country has been surveyed for a line of railway from Mombasa to Lake Victoria Nyanza, a distance of about 400 miles. *Lamu*, for some years the seat of a flourishing commerce chiefly conducted by the Queen's British Indian subjects, is a port of call for the mail-steamers of the British India Company's fleet. The Company, in March, 1893, retired from the occupation of Uganda. In July, 1893, the administration of the territory between the Tana and Juba rivers was transferred by the Company to the Sultan of Zanzibar. This fact, however, is of the less importance in that Zanzibar is now a kind of British Protectorate, wherein the state-accounts, kept in English and Arabic, are always open to the inspection of the British Consul-General, whose consent is required for all new undertakings and expenditure. The town of Zanzibar, on an island with an area of 625 square miles, has a population of about 30,000, including a few score Europeans, and 7000 British Indian subjects. The island of Pemba has an area of 360 square miles, and the two islands have a population of about 200,000. The commerce, with the usual exports of that region, has a total annual value of $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions. The British Consular Court has jurisdiction in all cases concerning British subjects, and also in matters affecting the slave-trade and

naval prize. The police, and an army of 1000 men, are commanded by a British officer. Early in 1895, the British East Africa Company, in exchange for the sum of £250,000, surrendered their charter and concession, and became extinct by the transference, to the Imperial Government, of all their property, assets, and rights. In June, 1895, a British Protectorate was proclaimed over the whole of the territory, from the coast to the boundaries of Uganda, and in August, 1896, all the territories in British East Africa, except the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, and the Uganda Protectorate, became the "East Africa Protectorate", under the immediate control of the Foreign Office, governed by a Commissioner and a Consul-General, who is also British agent at Zanzibar. At the same time, the Uganda Protectorate, controlled by the Foreign Office, had its boundaries extended so as to include, besides Uganda proper, Unyoro and other countries to the west, and Usoga to the east. The territory is governed by a Commissioner residing at Port Alice, on the Victoria Nyanza, the chief town being Mengo, defended by a fort at Kampala in the near vicinity. There are also forts in Unyoro and other districts on the borders. British connection with Uganda goes back to 1877, when English Protestant missionaries, at the request of King Mtesa, settled in the country, and were followed, two years later, by French Catholics. The Christians were cruelly treated by Mtesa's son, King Mwanga, at whose order Bishop Hannington, the first prelate in Eastern Equatorial Africa, representing the Church Missionary Society, was murdered in October, 1885, and several hundred native Christians suffered martyrdom by burning. Further trouble was due to the presence of Mohammedans. In 1892 there was warfare between Protestant and Catholic sections of the people, greatly to the detriment of the cause of Christianity at large. Much progress has been made since the establishment of settled rule under the Protectorate. In the spring of 1897, the road to Lake Victoria Nyanza was completed and opened the whole way for waggon-transport. Two new fortified stations had been established on the Nile, at Foweira (Fauvera) and at Murchison Falls. In the summer of that year, a solidly-made railway-line had been carried about eighty miles into the interior from Mombasa towards Uganda. Three steamers—two government-craft, and a mission-boat—and a steel sailing-vessel ply on the Lake.

CHAPTER XII.

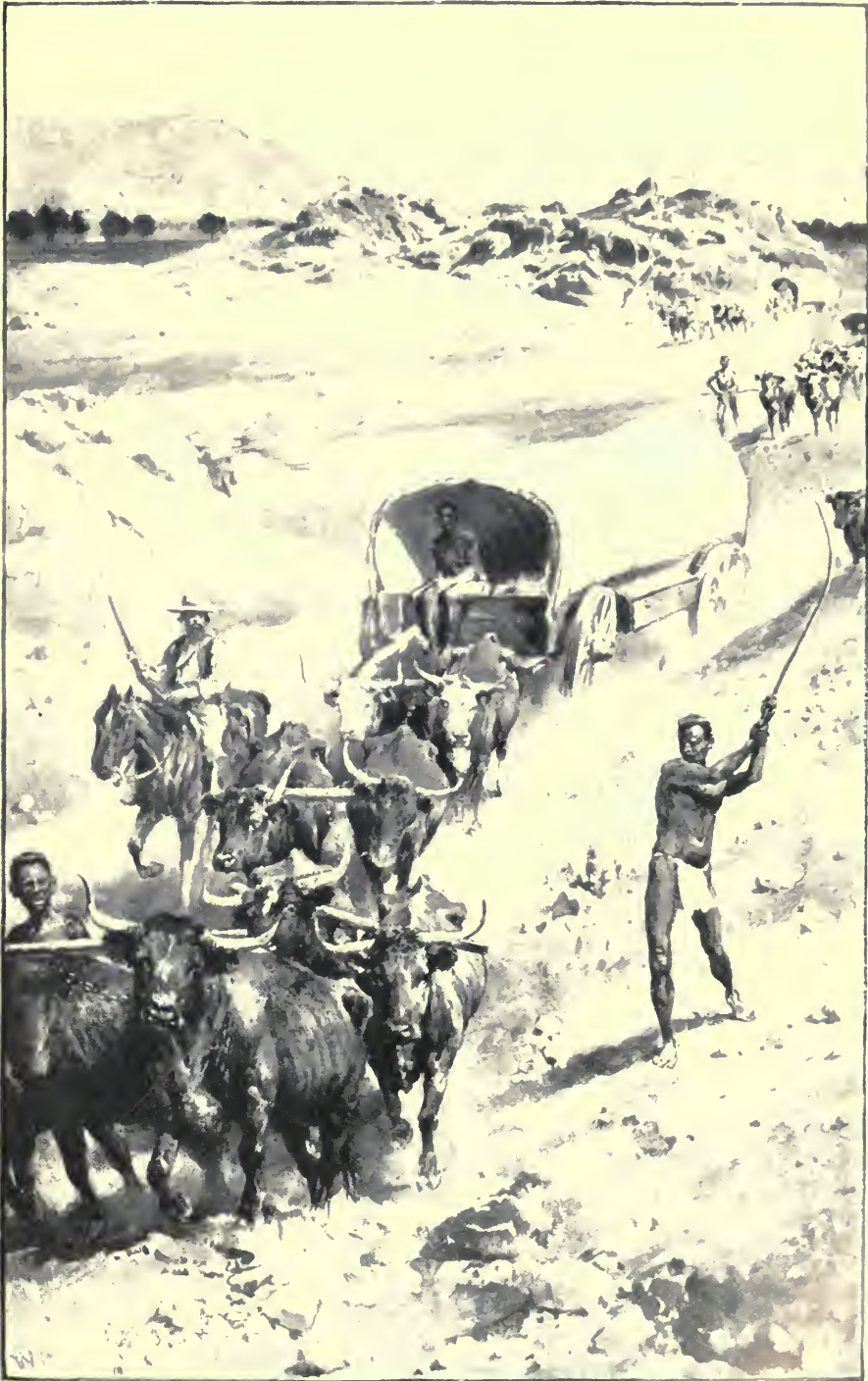
NATAL, MAURITIUS, WEST AFRICA.

History of NATAL—Its geographical features and climate—Products—Internal resources and trade—Finances—Chief towns—Legislature and education—Zululand. Earlier history of MAURITIUS—La Bourdonnais and Bernardin de Saint-Pierre—Captured by the British in 1810—Theodore Hook's administration—Devastation wrought by hurricanes, disease, and fire—Geography and productions of the island—Population—Public works, &c.—Trade—Chief towns—Legislature, education, &c.—Dependencies: Rodriguez—Seychelles—Amirantes—St. Brandon or Cargados Isles—Oil Islands—Diego Garcia—St. Paul Island—New Amsterdam Islet. WESTERN AFRICA—Gold Coast—History of the settlement—War with the Ashantis—Administration of Governor Maclean—Accession of territory—Renewed trouble with the Ashantis—Successful expedition of Sir Garnet Wolseley—Burning of Coomassie and submission of King Koffee—Government of the colony—Products and trade of the country—Social condition—Chief towns. Lagos colony and town. Gambia—History of the colony—Its products and trade. Sierra Leone—Its boundaries and physical features—Superior character of the native population—Bishop Crowther—State of education—Products and trade—Freetown. Niger Territories or Protectorate. Oil Rivers Protectorate.

It is nearly four centuries since the territory which forms the fine colony of Natal was first viewed by Europeans. On Christmas-day, 1497, Vasco da Gama, about a month after rounding the Cape of Good Hope, came in sight of the land to which he promptly gave its abiding name, from *Dies Natalis*, as the anniversary was styled in the Latin of the calendar. Nearly two centuries passed away before the first recorded visit of people from the British Isles. In 1683, a ship carrying 80 persons, passengers and crew, was wrecked near Delagoa Bay, the survivors making their way overland to the Dutch settlements at the Cape. In 1721, Dutch traders went thither, but soon abandoned their enterprise. Another century elapses, and we find Lieutenant Farewell, of the Royal Marines, in 1824, striving to colonize the territory, then in the possession of the powerful Zulu king Chaka. That potentate gave permission for the founding of a settlement, but no success attended this undertaking. Chaka, slain by rebel chiefs, was succeeded by his brother Dingaan, the instigator of the crime. Farewell was killed, and his colleague, Mr. Fynn, after remaining for some years as ruler ("great chief") of the Natal Kaffirs, under Dingaan, returned to Cape Colony in 1835. A few farmers from that colony had arrived overland in the previous year, and a site had been chosen for the township of Durban, when Natal history began, in 1837, with the

THE GREAT BOER TREK INTO NATAL.

Dissatisfied with the policy of the British Government, the Boers, or Dutch farmers, determined to emigrate from the Cape territory into the unoccupied region across the Orange river. They resented the abolition of slavery in South Africa, considered themselves wronged in the amount of compensation they received for their liberated slaves, and, above all, they desired to treat the native races just as they pleased. Accordingly, they trekked across the Orange river, a large number of them reaching Natal under the leadership of Pieter Retief. There they were received with the appearance of friendship by Dingaan, the Zulu chief, but during the negotiations about 600 men, women, and children were treacherously massacred. The Boers, however, rallied their forces, and under the leadership of Pretorius inflicted a crushing defeat on the Zulus. Thereafter, they founded the towns of Durban and Pietermaritzburg, and proclaimed "The Republic of Port Natal and adjoining countries".



WAL PAGET.

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THE GREAT BOER TREK TO NATAL IN 1835-36.

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famous "trekking", or emigration, of a large body of Boers, or Dutch farmers, from the Cape territory, under Pieter Retief, Maritz, Pretorius, and other leaders. The causes of this remarkable movement, whence arose also the Orange River Free State and the Transvaal Republic, may be briefly stated. The old Dutch colonists were dissatisfied with the policy of the British Government in regard to the native population of South Africa and to the abolition of slavery. They resented the Order in Council of 1834, assigning equal personal rights to the Hottentots. They greatly objected to the reversal of Sir Benjamin D'Urban's annexation, up to the Kei River, of territory gained in the first Kaffir War. They considered themselves wronged in the amount of compensation awarded for the loss of their slaves. They desired, above all, to be their own masters as against the native peoples, and during 1835-36, with many adventures and hardships, some thousands of Dutch settlers made their way beyond the Orange River and to the region between its upper waters and the eastern coast. Those who reached Natal, under the guidance of Pieter Retief, suffered grievous treatment at the hands of the cruel and faithless Dingaan, who had pretended to receive them in a friendly spirit. In February, 1838, Retief and about sixty of the principal Boers were murdered during negotiations at the chieftain's kraal, and other parties, to the number of over 600 men, women, and children, were treacherously massacred by the Zulus. The Boers, rallying their strength in a stern and just spirit of retaliation and self-defence, maintained a fierce struggle with their Kaffir foes, and in December, a sanguinary defeat was inflicted, by the Boers under Pretorius, on a host of warriors who attacked his camp.

The successful party, in October, 1839, were joined by a large number of Zulus, under Panda, Dingaan's brother, and in January, 1840, another defeat of Dingaan's army transferred the Zulu kingship to his rival. The Boers, having laid the foundations of the towns of Durban and Pietermaritzburg, and reserved certain territories for their own use out of the Zulu king's possessions, proclaimed "The Republic of Port Natal and adjoining countries". This action brought them at once into collision with the Government of Cape Colony, then in charge of Sir George Napier. That ruler asserted the Queen's claims over her emigrated subjects, and required them to receive a military force. The refusal of the

Boers led to a war, ending in 1842-43, after some disaster to the small British force, with the submission of some of the Boers, the passage of others beyond the Drakensberg Mountains, and the proclamation, in May, 1843, of Natal as a new British Colony. In the following year, however, the country was made part of Cape Colony, so remaining until November 5th, 1856, when it became a distinct colonial state under a royal charter which appointed a Legislative Council of 16 members, of whom four were to be nominated by the Crown, and twelve elected as representatives of towns and districts. Between 1849 and 1852, a good start was made in colonization from Great Britain. In 1853, Dr. Colenso, justly renowned for his chivalrous and truly Christian advocacy of native rights, became the first Bishop of Natal. In the following year municipal corporations were established at Durban and Pietermaritzburg. Among the troubles arising with native powers, the war with Cetewayo, successor of his father Panda, as Zulu king, in 1872, has been noticed in the history of Cape Colony. A Kaffir chieftain named Langalibalele, resident in Natal as a subject of the Government, became rebellious in 1873, but was taken prisoner, tried, and removed as a prisoner to the Capè. Since the time of the Transvaal and Zulu wars (1878-1881), the prosperity of Natal has fairly increased, partly in consequence of the discovery of rich gold-fields in the Transvaal, promoting the transport trade of the British colony, and creating a demand for her agricultural products.

Lying about 800 miles beyond the Cape of Good Hope, and 7000 miles from England by the direct sea-route, between $27^{\circ} 20'$ and 31° south lat., Natal is bounded on the north-east by the Buffalo and Tugela rivers, dividing it from the Transvaal and Zululand; on the east by the Indian Ocean; on the west by the Drakensberg Mountains, beyond which lie the Orange River Free State and Basutoland; and on the south-west by Griqualand East and Pondoland. The country, with an area of 20,460 square miles, is mainly a land of hills and valleys, rising by terraces from the coast to the northern and western boundaries, with a great plateau in the north-central region, attaining at some points a height of 6000 feet above the sea. The broken hilly coast-belt, with patches of wood and "bush", extending about 15 miles inland, has much picturesque dale-scenery in the lower valleys of more than a score

of streams running eastwards to the sea. The cataracts which lend beauty to the landscape block navigation on all these little rivers. The climate and products vary according to elevation. For 30 miles inland, a sub-tropical region has a mean annual temperature of about 69° , ranging from 45° to 95° , with a rainfall of about 40 inches. The weather is at its best in the winter-season, from April till October, when summer begins, to end in March, the solar heat of December, January, and February being mostly tempered by the breeze from the sea. The only drawbacks are an occasional hot sirocco from the tropical north-western regions, and some hailstorms in summer that damage growing crops, and are sometimes violent enough to kill fowls and sheep and goats on open ground. As in Cape Colony, the climate is generally very beneficial to persons suffering from pulmonary disease. At Pietermaritzburg, 50 miles inland and more than 2000 feet above sea-level, the mean annual temperature is 64° , with 29° as the minimum, and a yearly rainfall of 30 inches. Farther inland, on still higher ground, the nights become very cold, and the mountain-air by day is bracing. The chief growths of the coast-region are sugar-cane and tea, with tropical fruits of almost every kind—pine-apples, bananas, plantains, mangoes, custard-apples, guavas, lemons, limes, oranges, and many more varieties. The production of sugar is now a most important industry, supplying all South Africa, and exporting a large amount to England. Introduced in 1856, and pursued with unceasing success, the culture of the cane, needing special labour not supplied by Kaffirs, now engages over 40,000 coolies from India. North and south of Durban for about 70 miles, to a distance of six or eight miles from the coast-line, the sugar-estates are found, from which the planters send truck-loads and waggon-loads of canes, by rail and road, to the mills where the manufacturers work with the best of modern machinery and appliances. The tea-industry began in 1877 with the introduction of the plant from Assam, and the plantations are yearly extending in area. The uplands of the mid-country produce the usual European cereals and fruits; the still higher regions furnish the best of pasture for herds and flocks that, in the possession of Europeans and natives, together number about 750,000 horned cattle; over 350,000 goats, of which about 67,000 are "Angoras", belonging to Europeans; 950,000 wool-bearing sheep, all on Europeans' land;

and about 60,000 horses. While $2\frac{1}{4}$ million acres have been set apart for native occupation, and 9 million acres have been acquired by Europeans, mostly on grant from the Crown, the total area under tillage by whites is about 204,000 acres, with 380,000 acres estimated as the area cultivated by native farmers. 700,000 acres are held on lease from the Government for grazing, and about 1 million acres are still at the disposal of the Crown. The wild plants of Natal, resembling those of Cape Colony, include many kinds of heath. The eucalyptus or blue gum-tree, and other kinds of timber, have been planted by colonists to increase the supply of home-grown needful wood. The eland and hartebeest, now preserved as "royal game", are the only survivors of the former vast herds of antelope. There are some poisonous snakes, including the puff-adder. The huge python may be found in sea-board woods, and in the reed-beds of river-banks; alligators are seen in some of the rivers, and at the mouths of the northern streams the hippopotamus is not unknown. The minerals of the colony include a large supply of coal, useful for all ordinary firing and as railway-fuel. The annual output from coal-fields directly connected with the sea-outlet at Durban exceeds 160,000 tons.

Good roads, railways, telegraph wires, and several lines of steamers, including the ships of the *Union* and *Castle* Companies, afford internal and external communications. Steamers for Cape Colony leave two or three times a week, and there are regular vessels plying to and from East African ports, Mauritius, India, and Australia. The colony is connected with London by cable through Zanzibar and Aden. Over 400 miles of railway, all Government-lines in construction and working, were open in 1898. The main line, 307 miles in length, passes from Durban, by way of Pietermaritzburg and Ladysmith, to Charlestown on the frontier of the Transvaal Republic, and thence to Johannesburg and Pretoria, the total distance from Durban being 511 miles. The total cost of construction has exceeded 6 millions. The net receipts for the year 1895 afforded an interest of £4, 1s. per cent upon the capital expended. The European population, nearly 47,000 by the census of 1891, was found to have been more than doubled in the twelve years since 1879, an increase of which nearly one-third was caused by free passages for domestic servants, and for farmers and their families taking up selected lands, and by assisted passages

granted by the same authority, the Land and Immigration Board in Natal, to farm-labourers, miners, mechanics, and artisans, nominated by residents in the colony who guarantee employment at stated wages for a certain term. The Indian coolies, chiefly from Madras Presidency, are indentured for ten years, at the end of which time they may either settle in the colony, or be sent back to India without charge. In 1891, their number just exceeded 41,000. The great proportionate number of natives, forming over four-fifths of the whole population, is a peculiar feature of Natal. Chiefly Kaffirs of the Ama-Zulu tribe, they numbered, in 1891, about 456,000, of whom over four-fifths live on lands as owners or tenants or squatters engaged in pastoral work or in the production of the universal native cereals used as food, maize (mealies), and millet (Kaffir corn). The rest are employed as domestic servants, as farm-labourers, and in other work. The Kaffirs are a fine, intelligent, frank, and well-mannered people, easily ruled under a system which wisely and liberally gives ample scope to native law and custom in the administration of justice, and even provides means for their acquiring colonial rights including the franchise. The recent growth of prosperity in Natal is partly due, as already stated, to the great development of gold-mining in the two adjacent Dutch republics, causing an increased transit-trade in specie and goods, through the British colony, to and from the eastern coast. The extension of the railway-system, and a wise fiscal policy, are also largely concerned in this matter. An *ad valorem* duty of only 5 per cent on imported goods is a customs-rate which has drawn to the Natal shores much trade with the interior which a high tariff would have driven into other channels. In referring to the exports of this thriving and promising British possession, we omit the gold produced outside the colony, and must note that only a small portion of the wool is raised in Natal, the weight due to the colony itself being estimated at about 1,600,000 lbs. The total imports by sea exceed the value of $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions; the exports reach nearly $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions. The whole value of British produce and manufactures sent thither is nearly 2 millions; the British imports from Natal are about $\frac{3}{4}$ million in value, the chief items, apart from wool (about £500,000), being hides and raw sugar. To other countries, the colony despatches Angora hair, coal, sugar, and rum.

With a public debt over 8 millions sterling, the annual revenue now amounts to about $1\frac{1}{4}$ millions. Over half a million is derived from the railways, about £200,000 from customs, over £20,000 from excise, about £45,000 from land-sales, about £70,000 from mails and telegraphs, £24,000 from stamps and licenses, and about £85,000 from the native hut-tax of 14s. a year, with a rental of £1 per hut on natives living on Crown-lands. The chief items of expenditure are about £305,000 for railways, £42,000 for education, about £117,000 for defence, £65,000 for public works, and a sum of about £148,000, as "loan expenditure", giving a total of about £1,150,000. The chief towns are the municipal boroughs of Durban and Pietermaritzburg, and Ladysmith, Newcastle, and Verulam, governed by local boards. *Durban* (Port Natal), the chief port of the colony, lies on the northern shore of a nearly land-locked tidal bay. With a population, in 1898, of about 28,000, the town has excellent public buildings, including a museum, library, and theatre, with Town Gardens in the centre, Botanical Gardens, two public parks, a race-course, fine streets, tram-cars, good lighting, a good supply of pure water, and an average death-rate of only 17 per 1000. The low wooded hills overlooking the town, styled the Berea, display the chief residences. The Bluff, a bold promontory at the southern entrance to the port, which is called The Point, is armed with heavy Armstrong guns. The sand-bar at the entrance of the harbour was for many years a hindrance to shipping, but great improvement has been recently made. Thirteen feet of water now cover the bar at ebb-tide, and the tidal rise varies from 3 to 6 feet. Three powerful Government-tugs assist vessels of smaller size across the bar to the inner harbour, kept by dredging at a minimum depth of 27 feet. The largest ships find good anchorage outside, where they deliver and receive cargo by means of lighters conveyed to and fro by tugs. A million sterling has been expended on harbour-works, including the breakwater on the southern side, with 32 feet low-water depth at its outer end; a training wall on the north side of the entrance-channel, 300 yards broad; inner wharves, tugs, and dredging apparatus. The town maintains four corps of volunteers, naval, infantry, cavalry, and artillery, with a total strength of about 500 men and 8 guns. The situation of *Pietermaritzburg*, the capital and chief military station, has been already noted. The population (July, 1891) was 17,500.

The public buildings, including a fine town-hall, are good, and the city, well supplied with water, has streets and suburbs planted with trees that afford a grateful shade in the summer-heat.

In July, 1893, the colony of Natal came under "responsible government". The Legislative Council, appointed by the Governor with the advice of the ministry, consists of 11 members chosen for ten years, each of whom must have resided at least ten years in the colony, and be 30 years of age. The Legislative Assembly of 37 members is chosen by about 9000 registered electors for towns and divisions, qualified by possession of real property to the value of £50, or by a £10 rental, or, after three years' residence in the colony, by an annual income of £96. The first ministry of five members, Premier and Colonial Secretary in one, Attorney-General, Treasurer, "Native Affairs", and "Public Works", was formed in October, 1893, and is described, by one who ought to know, as "composed of hard-headed, intelligent, and energetic colonists of tried integrity and experience". The Legislative Assembly may exist for four years without dissolution; the members are paid £1 per day during the session. Education for white children, 96 per cent of whom are under instruction, is conducted in 2 Government high schools, 13 Government primary-schools, 46 aided establishments, many private schools, and 227 assisted "farmhouse centres". About 5500 Kaffir and Indian (coolie) children are taught in about 100 schools with Government-grants. The defence of the colony, and the maintenance of order, are in the hands of 260 mounted European police, and over 1600 volunteers, with about 1200 Imperial troops, including a battery of mountain-guns quartered at the capital.

Zululand was lately a British "protectorate" beyond the Tugela River, in charge of the Governor of Natal, with a "Resident Commissioner and Chief Magistrate" as his deputy. The territory, taken over by the British Government in 1887, after the Zulu War, the dethronement of Cetewayo, his restoration and death (February, 1884), and warfare between the Boers of the Transvaal and Cetewayo's rival, Usibepu, was annexed to Cape Colony in 1897. The country, about 12,500 square miles in area, with a population of about 165,000 natives and 1250 whites, has its capital at *Eshowe*, in telegraphic communication with Natal, and having a daily post of native runners. Good roads are made to the

Tugela, and to several points on the Transvaal frontier. The native chiefs are allowed to keep their tribal authority, and to administer native law. In other respects, the law of Natal is in force, modified in special cases by the Governor's proclamations. Expenses of rule are partly met by the annual hut-tax of 14s. levied on the natives, whose occupations are the growing of maize and breeding of cattle. The trade consists largely in the barter of these products for cotton-goods, hardware, and other articles. The supply of alcoholic liquors to the Kaffirs, in any way of trade or payment or gift, is strictly forbidden. The settlement of Europeans is only allowed for purposes of trade or mining or missionary work. A few hundreds of native children attend schools conducted by the agents of four societies. The Anglican Church is represented by the Bishop of Zululand and some clergy, the see being founded in 1870 in memory of Bishop Mackenzie of Central Africa.

Mauritius, historically reviewed, is an island of abundant interest, bringing before us many celebrated names. It was discovered in 1507 by a Portuguese navigator, Don Pedro Mascarenhas, exploring under the orders of Almeida, the famous East Indian viceroy. Then devoid of inhabitants, it presented no traces of any previous dwellers. During the sixteenth century it appears to have remained uncolonized, with the name of Cerné, bestowed by the Portuguese under the belief that it was the island so styled by the elder Pliny in his *Historia Naturalis*. In 1598 this name was changed for "Mauritius" by a Dutch admiral, Van Warwick, whose vessel was driven thither by a storm, being thus parted from her consorts of a squadron sailing for the Dutch East Indies under the command of Admiral Van Neck. His flagship *Mauritius* was named after the illustrious Maurice of Nassau, Prince of Orange, and Stadtholder of the United Provinces, youngest son of William the Silent, whose great task of freeing the country from Spanish domination was by him so nobly fulfilled. The new possessors used the island for many years merely as a place of call for ships. Abel Jansen Tasman stayed there for a month in 1642, the year wherein he immortalized his name as the discoverer of Tasmania. In 1644, the Dutch made three settlements, and built a fort at Grand Port, on the south-east coast, for the purpose of summary dealing with pirates who used the island

as a resort for provisions and fresh water. In 1712, however, the place was abandoned, and three years later the French, who had long held the neighbouring Bourbon (Réunion), saw their advantage in occupying territory which two other European nations had in turn declined. In 1721, the island, under the name of "Ile de France", was assigned to the French East India Company, and in 1767 passed to the French crown. It was between these two last dates that a successful attempt at colonization was made, bringing before us the name of the distinguished Frenchman of Clive's earlier days, Bertrand François Mahé de La Bourdonnais, a man not less remarkable for his talents and virtues than for the gross ingratitude with which, like Dupleix and Lally, he was treated by the wretched Government of Louis the Fifteenth. This brave, resolute, enlightened, and energetic man waged war, with much temporary success, against British commerce in the Indian seas; he was the captor of Madras; and he returned to France to be flung into the Bastille, which he quitted only to die, after years of unmerited suffering. He it was that created French prosperity in the island which he ruled from 1735 to 1746. Peace and order were established in the destruction of a body of fugitive slaves living in the hilly districts, whence they sallied forth to plunder the settlers. The foundation of Port Louis, the capital; the building of forts, the creation of docks, the clearing of forest, and the making of roads, were only accessories to La Bourdonnais' scheme for the creation of a solid and enduring prosperity. It was he who introduced the cultivation of the sugar-cane which still furnishes the staple industry of Mauritius. The bronze statue, erected in 1859, which stands in one of the public squares facing the harbour at Port Louis, testifies to the esteem in which his memory has been held. The commerce of Great Britain, in the eighteenth, and in the earlier years of the nineteenth century, suffered much, directly and indirectly, through the strong representations by which he caused the French Government to make the island a base of operations against our trade and power in the East. Ships and soldiers were provided for the Ile de France and Bourbon, and, in the ensuing warfare, down to the period when the power of Napoleon was at its height, our great European foe made good use of her point of vantage midway between the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Comorin.

The colony steadily rose in value during its tenure by the

French crown. One of the later governors, De Poivre, introduced the growth of clove, nutmeg, and other spice-trees. It was at this period that the picturesque scenery of the Ile de France was viewed and employed by a writer whose chief work has an enduring place in literature. Bernardin de Saint-Pierre, a disciple of Rousseau in his sentimental views against the social system and in favour of a return to a state of nature, passed three years in the island, from 1768 to 1771, and, after giving a new element to literature in the appreciation of natural beauty and its power over man's spirit which he displays in his *Voyage à l'Ile de France*, he published in 1788 the fourth volume of his *Etudes de la Nature* which contains the exquisite love-idyll known as *Paul et Virginie*, praised by Humboldt for the wonderful truth of its descriptions of tropical vegetation, translated into all the chief European tongues, and a special favourite with Napoleon. Passing from the region of romance to the stern realities of war, we now deal with the change of masters in the land which inspired the pen of Saint-Pierre. During the long struggle with Napoleon, the Ile de France, as the resort of French frigates and privateers, became an intolerable mischief to British trade. The seas from Madagascar to Java were swept by these cruisers against our Indiamen and other ships. The merchants of Calcutta alone set down their losses at two millions sterling, and the East India Company, in a single year, suffered to the extent of half a million. In 1810, a powerful naval and military expedition, despatched from India, effected the capture. The name of the island again became Mauritius, and its possession was confirmed to Great Britain by the Treaty of Paris in 1814, under which instrument the French inhabitants were guaranteed in the possession and use of their laws, religion, and institutions. To this day, the Code Napoléon is the basis of the judicial system, and the Catholic Church receives the same state-assistance as the Anglican. From 1812 to 1818, the post of treasurer, at a salary of £2000 a-year, was held by Theodore Hook, foremost of English diners-out, *improvisatori*, and practical jokers. The scandalous job of appointing such a man to such a post was perpetrated under the rule of his boon-companion, the Prince Regent, who had remarked that "something must be done for Hook". A deficiency of £12,000 was discovered in the public accounts, probably due to Hook's gross carelessness in supervising the work of subordinates. The man's

reckless wit, when he was asked, on his way home under arrest, if he were returning "for his health", prompted the reply that "they do think there's something wrong in the chest".

Fairly prosperous, in a commercial sense, during the British occupation, Mauritius has suffered, from time to time, calamities almost unparalleled, in so small a territory, for variety and intensity of mischievous effect. Storm, pestilence, and fire have wrought havoc by turns on "Maurice La Malheureuse". In 1754 a devastating hurricane visited the island, and small-pox destroyed many hundreds of lives. The season of cyclones, accompanied by torrents of rain, comes between December and April, the extreme violence of the wind usually lasting for about eight hours. In 1773, another of these terrible storms drove 32 ships ashore in the harbour, and, with loss of life, laid low in ruin 300 houses and the church at Port Louis. In 1819 Asiatic cholera was very fatal, and in 1854 a far worse visitation of the same disease carried off 16,000 people. Another cholera-epidemic did its evil work in 1862. Only four years later, in 1866-67, a malarial fever surpassed in fatality the worst assaults of the former plagues. The population was, literally, more than decimated. Port Louis lost about 21,300 persons in 1867, more than a quarter of her whole number, and the death-rate for the whole island, in that miserable year, reached the appalling proportion of 111 per thousand. Scarcely had the survivors ceased to bewail their dead when, in March, 1868, a cyclone did work of almost unequalled violence and power. The wind uplifted and flung to the bottom of a ravine 220 tons of the iron-work of the railway-bridge crossing Grande Rivière, near the coast south-west of Port Louis. The same storm destroyed canes estimated to produce 60,000 tons of sugar. In April, 1892, a cyclone, described by a resident as "unprecedented in destructiveness to life and property", destroyed one-third of Port Louis, with the loss of about 1000 lives, laying in ruins all the houses over thirty acres of the chief residential quarter of the town. This disastrous event was succeeded by a serious bank-failure; a fatal epidemic of small-pox; and an outbreak of influenza, slaying the poorer inhabitants at the rate of over one hundred per day. On July 23rd, 1893, fire laid waste, at the fashionable end—the west end, as in London—of Port Louis, nearly all that the previous year's cyclone had spared. Fifteen acres of the best shopping and commercial quarter were

reduced to ashes. The Chaussée—the local Regent-street, the French Creole ladies' shopping-lounge, the emporium of Palais Royal jewellery and Parisian fashions—ceased to exist, with the principal hotel, the leading newspaper-office and printing-house, the largest ironmongery store, the one ice-house with all its machinery, and some of the chief warehouses. The buildings of the town were highly inflammable, and the place was deplorably and culpably deficient in the means of coping with fire. The engines were wholly inadequate, and there were no hydrants for the supply of water. The only loss of life was that of a British tar engaged in the work of rescue, one of the hundreds of sailors who were landed from the war-ships of the East Indian squadron then lying in the harbour.

Mauritius, of volcanic formation and surrounded by a girdle of coral-reefs broken only by passages opposite the river-mouths, lies 550 miles east of Madagascar, and is about 7000 miles from England by way of the Suez Canal. The shape is an oval, somewhat pointed at the north, with coasts little broken, and land rising rapidly into a plateau marked, on the east, south-west, and north-centre, by many ridges of hills varying in height from 500 to over 2000 feet. The highest peaks are Pieter Both (or, Peter Botte), a sharp bare cone or obelisk crowned by an enormous globular crag, and 2676 feet in height; La Pouce, 2650 feet, named from its resemblance to the human thumb; and the culminating point, Piton de la Rivière Noire, 2711. The numerous streams, navigable for only a short distance from the sea, generally flow in deep ravines, with some fine cascades. Lava and basaltic rock abound, and a few volcanic lakes may be seen. With a length of 36 miles from north to south, and an extreme breadth of 25 miles, the island has an area of about 710 square miles, nearly equal to that of Surrey. The north is a great plain covered with plantations of sugar-cane, and the east has rich and well-tilled districts, with a soil variously composed of stiff clay and of black vegetable mould. The only natural harbours that vessels can safely approach and enter are Port Louis on the north-west, Baie de la Rivière Noire (Black River Bay) on the south-west, and Grand Port on the south-east. The climate, on the whole, is agreeable and healthy, the hottest time being from December to April, with comparative coolness in other months, and a lower temperature always in the hills than is found at Port Louis,

with its mean of 78° . The annual rainfall in the north amounts generally to about 40 inches; in the south the downpour is more abundant, but in this respect the climate, throughout the island, is capricious, and the rainfall varies much from year to year. The forests of the days of Saint Pierre have now been largely removed for the culture of the sugar-cane in the fields where their bright green gives a charming freshness and beauty to the landscape viewed from the sea. The ebony-tree, the benzoin, iron-wood, cocoa-nut and other palms, and bamboo abound. The other vegetation resembles that of the Cape in succulent plants such as cactuses, spurges, and aloes. The fruits of this tropical land include pine-apples in perfection, delicious to eat, fork in hand, freshly cut in the early morn; the tamarind and banana; the guava and shaddock; the fig and avocado-pear; the custard-apple and the litchi (lee-chee), with its slightly sweet, subacid, and all-pleasant flavour; and mangoes, good for all sorts and conditions of men, best gift of nature to dwellers in the hotter regions of the earth; refreshing and reviving for those who have tossed and turned during a sultry, sleepless night. The objects of tillage, besides the cane, are vanilla, coffee, cocoa, maize, rice, yams, many European roots and other vegetables, and manioc, as it is called in Brazil, the cassava of the West Indies, whose huge tuberous root, grated, dried on hot metal plates, and powdered, furnishes meal for thin cakes, starch for the British manufacturer, and the article known as Brazilian arrowroot. The original fauna, save a fruit-eating bat, are almost extinct. The birds include doves, parroquets, and shrikes; monkeys, rats, shrews, hares, and other creatures have been introduced; the game includes deer that abound in the woods, with partridge, quail, and several kinds of wild duck. For the scenery as it now exists, and the way of life among Creole or British planters, we must refer readers to those charming productions of Besant and Rice, *My Little Girl* and *They Were Married*, in the latter of which Mauritius appears as "Palmiste Island".

The population, by the latest estimate, is about 380,000, with a majority of more than 40,000 males, and the high average density of 530 per square mile. Above two-thirds of the people are of Hindoo origin, the majority being descended from coolies imported for the sugar-cane tillage. The Europeans are chiefly French and English and of these two races mingled; there are

many half-castes, and thousands of negroes, Malagasy (Madagascar people), Chinese, and Malays, with Singhalese (Ceylon people) and some Parsees. The French element includes many descendants of the old French nobility, and the higher and middle classes are of distinguished intelligence, culture, and education. No other tropical colony has so many permanent residents of European blood. In religion, the census of 1891 showed nearly 210,000 Hindoos, above 115,000 Roman Catholics, 7300 Protestants, and nearly 35,000 Mohammedans. French is spoken all over the island, and English also is largely used; the latter is the language of the public courts; either tongue is admissible in debate at the Legislative Council. As regards public works, the chief centres of population now enjoy a good supply of pure water brought by mains from the upland springs, and, for Port Louis, from a reservoir on the Grande Rivière, a benefit which has already had a marked effect on the prevalence of fever. The different parts of the island are connected by macadamized main and branch roads, well maintained under Government care, and 92 miles of railway, constructed and worked at the public cost, pass through the centre, the north, the east, and the south, connecting the chief towns, with telegraphic wires running along and beyond the lines. Port Louis harbour, naturally one of the best and safest in the Eastern seas, with room for 100 sail, and entrance for the largest steamers, is provided with three spacious dry docks and a slip for vessels of 350 tons. The mail-steamers of the *Messageries Maritimes* ply monthly to and from Marseilles, with an average passage for that route of 21 days, on their way between France and New Caledonia. The boats of the British India Steam Navigation Company run monthly to Colombo, and by the *Messageries* and other vessels, sailing and steam, Mauritius has frequent communication with neighbouring islands, and with India, Australia, Natal, and other parts of the world. Durban and Zanzibar are at present the nearest points where a telegraph-cable is found. The standard coin is the Indian rupee, and the Indian metric system of weights and measures is in force.

The trade of Mauritius is carried on not so much with the United Kingdom as with other parts of the British Empire. The annual exports to the British Isles, chiefly in sugar, drugs, hemp, and aloe fibres, caoutchouc, and rum, have a total value of

£100,000. The imports of the colony from Great Britain, consisting of cotton-goods, coal, hardware, cutlery, machinery, manure, drapery and clothing, beer and ale, bullion and specie, amount to about £250,000. As the total value of her imports reaches over 2 millions sterling, and that of her exports nearly 3 millions, it is plain that we must look elsewhere for much of the Mauritian commerce. Without going into details further than stating that sugar alone, in one year, accounts for a value of over 2½ millions sterling, we find that the colony was exporting aloe fibre and vanilla to France, and rum to Madagascar, and was receiving coal from Australia; coffee, rice, wheat and other grains, flour, and cotton piece-goods from India; wheat and flour from Australasia; dried and salted fish from Cape Colony; drapery, millinery, and wine from France; guano, much used in the cane-culture, from Australasia and Peru; oxen from Madagascar; and sheep from Australia and South Africa. The chief towns are Port Louis, Curepipe, and Mahébourg. The capital, *Port Louis*, a municipal borough, with a debenture-debt of £153,000, is inclosed by a ring of lofty hills. Rising now from the ruin caused by the disasters of storm and fire above recorded, she possesses the usual public buildings; a population, in town and suburbs, exceeding 60,000; barracks and military stores; Fort Adelaide (the citadel), Fort George, and other works for the defence of a place which is the seat of all the Mauritian trade, and is also a coaling-station for ships of the royal navy. *Curepipe*, in the south-central part of the island, connected by rail with Port Louis, is a municipal borough of 11,000 people. Lying over 1800 feet above sea-level, it is blessed with a comparatively cool climate, which attracts many persons to their hill-residences in the hot season. *Mahébourg*, on the south-east coast, with about 4000 people, derives her name from one of the forenames of La Bourdonnais, added to his baptismal names for his services, in 1724, as a captain in the French royal navy, at the capture of the town of Mahé, on the Malabar coast of Southern India.

In system of rule, Mauritius is a "Crown colony", with a constitution modified in 1884-85. The Governor is aided by an Executive Council of seven members, including two elected members of the Council of Government or Legislative Council. This latter body consists of the Governor and 27 members; nine are nominated by the Governor, eight sit *ex-officio*, and ten are chosen, under

a moderate franchise, by the inhabitants, two for Port Louis, and one for each of the other eight rural districts into which the island is divided. Primary education is given in Government and state-aided schools having about 16,500 pupils on the roll, and above 10,000 in average attendance. For higher instruction, the Royal College, in 1892, had 200 pupils, and 313 were attending schools connected therewith. The annual revenue, derived mainly from customs-dues, railway traffic, and licenses and permits, exceeds $8\frac{1}{4}$ million rupees; the expenditure is about $8\frac{1}{2}$ millions. The Government debt is about £1,280,000. In regard to the development of education and general culture, we may note that in the capital eight daily newspapers, as well as weekly and other periodicals, are published. For the maintenance of order and for general defence, about 700 police, and 950 officers and men of the Imperial army, are maintained, one-third of the military expenditure being borne by the colony.

Many islands, islets, and groups are dependencies of Mauritius, subject to the rule of the Governor and Council at Port Louis. Spread over the Indian Ocean, to the number of about 100, with a total population of 17,000, they include Rodriguez, four groups—the Seychelles, Amirantes, Oil Islands, and St. Brandon or Car-gados Isles—and many scattered little sea-beaten belongings of the Crown. *Rodriguez*, with Réunion (Bourbon) and Mauritius, belongs to a group sometimes called the Mascarene Isles, or Mascarenhas, from the name of the discoverer of Mauritius. This volcanic, coral-girt, hilly region, rising to a height of 1760 feet above sea-level, discovered by the Portuguese in 1645, and occupied as British territory in 1814, lies 380 miles north-east of Mauritius, and is 18 miles long by 7 broad. Well-wooded in parts, it is picturesque, fertile, healthy, and fairly tilled, with a population a little exceeding 2000, ruled by a civil commissioner with the powers of a police-magistrate. Among the local attractions are two caverns displaying beautiful transparent stalactites, and each containing a well of good fresh water. The bracing air made the island of great service to the British troops, as a station and a sanitarium for sick and wounded men, at the time of the expedition against Mauritius and Bourbon. The fauna include deer, wild pigs, guinea-fowl, and partridge. Abundant springs of fresh water and excellent pasture favour the rearing of cattle and goats; the soil is well suited for

sugar-cane, cotton, coffee, rice, maize, beans, and vanilla; the fruits grown are oranges, citrons, limes, and most others usual in the tropics. The annual exports amount to about 170,000 rupees, and are made up of cattle and goats, beans and maize, pigs and poultry, salt-fish and fruit.

The important group called the *Seychelles*, with an area of 78 square miles, and a population (1891) of nearly 16,500 (ruled by an "Administrator" aided by an executive council of three, and a legislative council of five), consists of 30 larger islands and many smaller ones, lying about 600 miles north-east of Madagascar. Fairly fertile, very hilly, with a rainfall of 80 to 100 inches, the islands, with a temperature very moderate for a region within 5 degrees of the equator, are extremely healthy for Europeans. Probably known to, but not occupied by, early Portuguese navigators, the group became the resort, in the seventeenth century, of pirates infesting the Indian Ocean. French occupation, in 1742, when La Bourdonnais ruled Mauritius and Bourbon, introduced the growth of cinnamon, nutmegs, and cloves, with the object of depriving the Dutch of their lucrative monopoly in those spices. The group derives its name from a French noble of the period, the Vicomte Hérault de Seychelles. When war arose between France and England in 1778, the whole of the spice-trees were destroyed by fire at the hands of the French officials, in fear of a British occupation, which first occurred in 1794, and was formally renewed on the seizure of Mauritius in 1810. The largest island, Mahé, named after La Bourdonnais' forename of honour above mentioned, is 17 miles by 7, having an area of 59 square miles, and containing the greater part of the inhabitants of the group, who are mainly French creoles, negroes, and Indian coolies, with some British officials. The mountains in Mahé reach a height of nearly 3000 feet. The chief town, Victoria, in a valley on the north-east, has a safe and convenient harbour, which makes it the port of call for the *Messageries Maritimes* steamers on the voyage to and from Australia, and also a coaling-station for our navy and for the merchant-steamers of several nations. There is also steam-communication with Mauritius, Madagascar, and Zanzibar. The other islands, many bearing the names of former French nobles and officials, include Praslin, Silhouette, La Digue, Curieuse, Aride, Félicité, and Denis. The yearly imports amount to over 750,000

rupees in cotton-goods, flour, beans, alcoholic liquors, tobacco, sugar, salt, hardware, and various provisions. The exports, worth about 700,000 rupees, consist of cocoa-nuts and the oil extracted therefrom, maize, vanilla, tortoise-shell, and soap, with some cacao, nutmegs, and coffee. The people make beautiful hats from the leaves of the hard-wooded palm called *coco de mer*, whose fruit, with two nuts in one case, ripens only in the islands of Praslin and Curieuse. Carried by ocean-currents to the coast of the Maldivé Isles, to the Indian mainland, and to further regions of the East, the double-kernelled nut became the subject of fables as to its growth on a submarine tree, and its power as an antidote for poison. Education is liberally aided by the Government in twenty primary schools, eight managed by clergy of the Anglican Church, and twelve under the Roman Catholic Mission. The negroes of the Seychelles are mostly men rescued from slavery through capture, by British cruisers, of the Arab dhows that conduct their infamous traffic on the north-eastern coast of Africa.

The *Amirantes* are a group of eleven low-lying wooded islands of coral formation, south-west of the Seychelles. The products are cocoa-nut oil and a little maize, and some of the islets are used as fishing-stations. With a total area of about 32 square miles, they are peopled by about 100 French-speaking half-breeds. The *St. Brandon* or *Cargados* isles (Tromelin, Coco, and Albatross, with some mere sand-banks), lying between $16^{\circ} 20'$, and $16^{\circ} 50'$ s. lat. and about $59^{\circ} 30'$ E. long., produce some salt fish. *The Oil Islands* include the *Chagos* group, the *Trois Frères* or *Eagle Isles*, and the *Cosmoledo Isles*, to be found between about 7° and 10° s. lat., and from 48° to 72° E. long. Among all these, the only important one is *Diego Garcia* (or *Great Chagos*), chief of the *Chagos* isles. It lies in 7° s. lat. and between 72° and 73° E. long., about 100 miles south of the main group. The island is a coral atoll, a form of coral island consisting of a ring of rock, with greater or lesser openings, inclosing a lagoon. The horns of the irregular horse-shoe or crescent-shaped land, nowhere exceeding 10 feet in height above the sea, embrace a fine bay, 15 miles in length and from 2 to 5 in breadth, with entrance for large ships. A glance at the map shows the value, especially since the opening of the Suez Canal, of *Diego Garcia* to the British navy and mercantile marine. The island lies on a straight line drawn from the Gulf of Aden, the

approach to the Red Sea, and Cape Leeuwin, on the south-west coast of Australia. It is thus placed full on the route for steamers between Great Britain and Australian ports, and has become a coaling-station, inhabited by 700 people, chiefly negro-labourers from Mauritius. There is a considerable export of cocoa-nut oil. The detached islands in the Indian Ocean, belonging to Great Britain, and subject to the Government of Mauritius, are scarcely worth naming, since none have at present any permanent population. *St. Paul*, a bare volcanic islet, 2 miles long, and towering up nearly 900 feet above the sea, lies midway between Africa and Australia, in $38^{\circ} 42'$ s. lat. It was here that in June, 1871, the troopship *Megaera*, with hundreds of soldiers aboard, was perforce beached by her captain, in order to save the lives of men sent to sea in a vessel notoriously unfit for so lengthy a voyage. After a detention of eleven weeks, they were rescued by a P. and O. steamer despatched from Batavia on receipt of intelligence conveyed by one of the *Megaera's* officers, who thus risked his life in an open boat. *Amsterdam*, or *New Amsterdam*, 50 miles to the north of St. Paul, is a smaller, almost inaccessible, islet with dense vegetation. St. Paul and Amsterdam were lately ceded to France.

From the Indian Ocean we must now take our flight across the continent to Western Africa, where the British colonial empire consists of the Gold Coast, Lagos, Gambia, Sierra Leone, the Niger Territories, and the Oil Rivers Protectorate. The *Gold Coast* colony is a territory in Upper Guinea, extending for about 350 miles of sea-board, between 3° w. long. and $1^{\circ} 20'$ E. long., bounded on the west by the Ivory Coast, and by the Slave Coast on the east. The inland boundary is vague, but the districts under immediate British rule generally extend about 50 miles from the sea to the borders of the territories called Ashanti and Dahomey, with an area estimated at 15,000 square miles, increased by our "protectorate" to thrice that amount. The whole population may be $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions, of whom only about 150 are Europeans, dwelling amongst pure negroes of various tribes. The country rises gradually from the lagoons near the low, swampy, harbourless, surf-beaten shores into a region of forests watered by many small streams. The Volta, on the east, and the Ancobra, on the west, are the only navigable rivers, traversed by steam-launches and other small craft, both during the dry and rainy seasons, for 50 or 60 miles inland.

The moist heat and malaria make the climate, as is well known, very unhealthy for Europeans. The mean temperature is 80° in the shade, ranging from 72° to 90° at Cape Coast Castle. The sanitary state of the colony has, however, been much improved of late years. British rule has at last interfered with the dirty conditions of life prevalent among the natives, who have been prohibited from burying their dead in the ground adjacent to their dwellings. The annual rainfall, coming between April and October, amounts to 60 inches.

The history of the Gold Coast settlements up to 1801 has been already given. The "African Company of Merchants", who were then in possession, received an annual parliamentary grant of about £13,000 from 1750 to 1807, a sum increased to £23,000 after the latter year, when the Company's finances began to suffer through the abolition of the slave-trade. In 1821, the Company was dissolved by Act of Parliament, and the Crown took charge of the settlements and forts, placing them under the rule of Sierra Leone. It was in 1824 that, with Sir Charles MacCarthy as Governor, the Ashantis first came into serious collision with British power. That conquering negro-race, skilled in the simpler arts of manufacture, addicted to human sacrifices, and maintaining a real army of warriors, rose to power early in the eighteenth century, with Coomassie (Kumassi) as their capital. In the desultory warfare between the Dutch and the English, they always took part with our foes, while the African Company were aided by the Fantis, a people akin to the Ashantis. From 1807 onwards the Ashanti king was almost as much master on the coast as inland, and Sir Charles MacCarthy, on visiting Cape Coast Castle, was stirred into action on behalf of British interests and of our oppressed allies. His zeal was not backed by prudence and skill. Ignoring the prowess of the enemy, and the need of waging war, in all fields of action and against all opponents, on the scientific principle of adapting means to ends, Sir Charles divided his forces into four bodies, and on January 21st, 1824, he found himself, with one of his divisions, surrounded in a hollow near a river-bank by a host of 10,000 Ashantis. In the battle which ensued, the British leader was killed by a musket-ball in the chest; all the British officers, save two, were captured or slain, and MacCarthy's head, and those of two officers, were carried off as trophies of victory. It was not until the following May that

our forces again appeared in the field. Colonel Sutherland had then arrived as the new Governor. The coast-forts were manned by seamen and marines, and their garrisons were thus set free to act with our native allies, the whole being commanded by Colonel Chisholm. On May 21st, a great army of Ashantis, after five hours' hard fighting, was driven from the field, but the advantage could not be followed up, from lack of ammunition, transport, and stores, and from the desertion of the natives whose cause we were aiding. The enemy then returned in force and burnt the villages near Cape Coast Castle. Early in July, some reinforcements arrived from England, and the Ashantis, bringing 16,000 warriors to the encounter, were defeated with great loss, leaving many of their principal chieftains on the ground. Further weakened by mutiny and desertion in his still great and formidable army, the hostile king withdrew from the coast a few days later, leaving behind him bare and blood-stained fields where his advance had found rich crops of bananas and maize, plantains and yams. The horrors of famine befell the native population within the settlements, and the British garrison was, for a time, hard put to it for beef and bread. After two years' quiet preparation for a renewal of the struggle, the Ashanti king appeared again near the coast in July, 1826, and on August 7th a tremendous battle was fought. The enemy were routed with the loss, it was believed, of 5000 men; on our side, the killed and wounded approached 3000. The victory was decisive in the capture of the Ashanti king's golden state-umbrella and state-stool, with much wealth of ivory, gold-dust, and other native products; and in the loss of his great talisman, which was found to be Sir Charles MacCarthy's skull, enveloped first in paper covered with Arabic characters, then in a silk handkerchief, and finally in leopard-skin.

The Colonial Office of that day had, by this time, grown weary of the Gold Coast and its affairs, and the government of the colony was now transferred, with a payment of £4000 from the Exchequer, to the local and London merchants who were interested in the trade of that region. They appointed, in 1827, Mr. George Maclean as Governor, a gentleman afterwards, for a very brief space, the husband of the once popular writer of charming verse, "L. E. L.", letters representing Laetitia Elizabeth Landon. She died by accidental poisoning in 1838, two months after arriving

at Cape Coast Castle. Governor Maclean, for some years, did excellent service in maintaining peace and gaining respect for the British name by an administration displaying, towards the natives, admirable tact and judgment, honesty and justice. In 1843, the Crown again took charge of the colony, which was made a dependency of Sierra Leone, and Mr. Maclean continued to direct Native Affairs, as "Judicial Assessor to the Native Chiefs", until his death in 1847. Three years later, the Danish settlements at Accra, Quittah (Kwitta), Addah, and Ningo, along with the "protectorate" connected therewith, were sold to our Government for £10,000. The next accession of territory in this quarter came in 1872, when Holland transferred her forts at Elmina, and all her rights on the Gold Coast, to the possession of Great Britain.

Returning now to the Ashantis, we find that people causing trouble again in the spring of 1863. The Governor had very properly refused to give up some slaves of the king who had escaped to British ground, and the Ashanti monarch, invading the territories of neighbouring chiefs, and destroying many villages, arrived within 40 miles of our frontier. Sound strategy would have awaited his advance, but the British ruler thought fit to send an expedition into his territory during the unhealthy season, and the result was total failure. Even our black troops from the West Indies could not endure the hot and pestilential air, and, after much loss of life, without any fighting, the undertaking was abandoned and the Ashanti forces also retired. Ten years later, a final decision of our old quarrel was reached in the application of military force directed with consummate judgment and skill. The Ashanti king, Koffee Kalkalli (or Kari-Kari), claimed payment of a tribute formerly allowed to him by the Dutch, and refused to evacuate territory ceded to us by the recent arrangement with Holland. In December, 1872, an army of 40,000 men started from Coomassie to invade the British protectorate, and crossed the boundary-river Prah on January 29th, 1873. Our allies, the Fantis, were twice defeated, in April and June, and then the invaders marched to attack Elmina. In front of that coast-fortress they were well beaten by our seamen, marines, and colonial forces, all commanded by Colonel (the late Sir Francis) Festing. Captain (the late Sir John) Glover was then sent to the east of our territories, to organize the tribes with a view to a flank-attack on the Ashanti kingdom.

In the meantime, the Government in London had resolved to strike an effective blow at the native hostile power in that region. Sir Garnet (now Viscount) Wolseley has been already seen by us at work in Egypt and the Soudan, and will be met hereafter, in Canadian history, in the Red River expedition of 1870 which founded his military fame. It was above all things needful to select the comparatively cool season for operations in the climate which had, in a previous war, proved to be the Ashanti king's most powerful ally. In December, 1873, the British expedition arrived off the coast. Some of our best regiments, including the 42nd Highlanders (the famous "Black Watch") and the 23rd Welsh Fusiliers, had been chosen for the enterprise. A road to the Prah had been taken in hand by a body of men under a volunteer, Lieutenant Gordon, of the 93rd Highlanders, but it was not yet completed, and the troops were sent to sea again for a cruise in pure air until all was ready. Prior to this, Sir Garnet, invested with power as "Administrator of the Gold Coast" and commander-in-chief, had driven the Ashantis back towards the Prah, using for that purpose West Indian troops, seamen, and marines, and native levies that included the brave and faithful Houssas (Haussas), a Soudanese people of Mohammedan faith, now largely employed as armed constabulary on the Gold Coast. Towards the end of December the British regiments were landed, and on January 20th, 1874, Wolseley and the advance crossed the Prah. The Ashanti king took a serious view, as it seemed, of his position, and sent in some missionaries and other captives to our camp with overtures for peace. Sir Garnet, distrusting his sincerity, dismissed his envoys and moved forward through the woods. It was here that the value of forethought, neglecting no detail tending to safety and success, was triumphantly shown. The "cool" season had still an ample store of fever for the European troops, 1500 strong, who should neglect due precautions against the lurking dangers of water and air. They were traversing jungle in which the lofty trees, entwined and hung with a dense growth of creeping plants, created a twilight where the air reeked with a steam like that seen and felt in a freshly-watered hot-house. Sanitary care had provided pocket-filters for purifying all the water drunk by the men, and every soldier, under his officer's eye, took his daily dose of quinine. Practical skill of a high order was needed to cope with foes

who, in force unknown, dogged the march in the woods around, and awaited the moment for attack in odds which proved to be ten to one. The British commander had taken with him some light field-guns, and some rocket-batteries served by the men of a small naval brigade. At every point of the marching column, in front and flanks and rear, some of this artillery was ready to pour its fire into the thickets, and special care was used, by night and day, against surprise. On January 31st, the enemy's main body made a stand near a place called Amoaful. All sides of our little army were attacked at once by showers of bullets from old-fashioned muskets, the incessant stream of fire being due, as it was found, to each warrior being provided with two or three guns, deftly loaded by women crouching in the rear. It was well for the gallant invaders that the powder used by the Ashantis, purchased from dishonest dealers on the coast, was so lacking in propulsive power that a bullet could only inflict a real wound when it was fired at very close quarters, within one or two score yards. Our men, kneeling or lying down, smitten by scores under the leaden hail, unable to see one of their assailants, maintained a steady swift fire from the well-depressed muzzles of their breech-loaders, and wrought such havoc that some of the Ashanti prisoners piteously complained that "the British did not fight fair, in firing without loading". It was thus only that they could account for the slaughter made by so small a force. In this battle of Amoaful, at one moment, in the front of the fight, where the bush swarmed with the greatest host of foes, the nerves even of the Highlanders seemed to be shaken as they fell fast under the fire. Shells from the guns, and rockets, were brought to bear, and the enemy were specially terror-stricken by the frightful scream and rush of the latter missiles. The word for a charge with the cold steel was given. The Highland rush drove the enemy in flight over some open ground where they fell in hundreds before the rifles, and the fighting at all parts of the column ended in our complete victory. Even then, however, the brave Ashantis disputed, for four days of less severe struggle, the advance to their capital, Coomassie. The place was occupied on the evening of February 4th, and again the royal state-umbrella was captured. The king, who had fled to the bush, declined at first to come to terms, and Sir Garnet Wolseley, anxious to bring his men back to the coast before the rainy season

began, started his return-march on February 6th. The engineers set fire to the town as the troops quitted it, and a visible memorial of utter defeat was thus left behind. The Ashanti king seems to have been most impressed by the famous flank-march made by Captain Glover. That officer, coming from the east with a body of Houssas and other natives, met with little resistance, and on February 12th he passed through the smoking ruins of Coomassie. The appearance of this new and unexpected foe at once brought Koffee Kalkalli to a sense of his powerless condition. On the following day, envoys were sent forward in haste to overtake Wolseley, and a peace was concluded on satisfactory terms. The Ashanti king renounced all claims on the British protectorate; he undertook protection for traders, and the abandonment of his abominable human sacrifices; he promised to maintain a good road from his capital to the Prah, and to furnish an indemnity of 50,000 ounces of gold. An instalment of 1000 ounces was paid forthwith. The British commander, declining any title, received a pecuniary reward of £25,000, and Captain Glover became K.C.M.G. No serious trouble came from the Ashantis for many years after the conclusion of this admirably devised and most successful campaign. In 1881 some Ashanti envoys arrived at Elmina demanding the surrender of a certain prince who had escaped to our territory. They brought with them the golden axe, an emblem believed by the Governor to convey a threat of war. Some preparations were made, and the arrival of reinforcements at once brought the Ashantis to terms. Their ambassadors were received by the new Governor, Sir Samuel Rowe, on the frontier at Prahsu, and the matter ended with an apology, the payment of 2000 ounces of gold, and the surrender of the golden axe, which was dispatched to England as a present to the Queen. At the close of 1895, a dispute with King Prempeh, who became ruler of Ashanti in 1888, with regard to the non-fulfilment of the treaty of 1874 as to the cessation of human sacrifices and of the capture of men to hold as slaves, caused the dispatch from England of another expedition when Lord Wolseley, as successor to the Duke of Cambridge, had just become Commander-in-Chief. The Colonial Office in London required the Ashanti king to receive a British Resident at his capital, Kumassi (Coomassie), and his refusal was one ground of British action.

The troops sent out to Cape Coast Castle, under the command of Sir Francis Scott, went to the front in December, 1895, and January, 1896, and crossed the Prah on the way to Kumassi, the officers including Prince Henry of Battenberg and Prince Christian Victor, eldest son of Prince and Princess Christian. No foe was encountered on the march, the country being entirely deserted by the fighting-men of King Prempeh, under whose rule Kumassi, which means "the death place", had been a constant scene of horrible bloodshed. A service to humanity was rendered when, without the firing of a shot, British power swept this system away on January 20th, 1896. The king, awaiting his foes in his capital, surrounded by his chiefs, made a humble submission, "kneeling on a biscuit-box", to Mr. (the late Sir W. E.) Maxwell, Governor of the Gold Coast, and was removed as a prisoner to Cape Coast Castle, along with his nearest relatives and three petty kings. The Fetish houses and groves were destroyed, and the expedition then returned. There were many cases of malarial fever among the troops, and the royal family and the nation had to lament the loss, from that malady, of Prince Henry of Battenberg, who died at sea on board H.M.S. *Blonde*, on his way from Cape Coast Castle to Madeira. The husband of the Queen's youngest daughter, Princess Beatrice, had in the course of his ten years of married life greatly endeared himself to the sovereign and to all who knew him, and it was a sincere and manly desire to do something for his adopted country which took him away to the region where pestilential air brought him to a death not less honourable than that of a soldier on the field of battle. Ashanti was placed under British protection, with a Resident at Kumassi, and some effects of this change of rule from King Prempeh to Queen Victoria were quickly visible. The people, delivered from a bloodthirsty and drunken tyrant, welcomed their new masters. Missionaries were soon installed at Kumassi; the country was opened up to trade. A firm hold on the capital was secured by the erection of a fort of stone and brick in the centre of the town, with corner-turrets mounting Maxim guns, and with an open space of 200 yards on every side, to be always kept clear of trees and buildings. A fine solid road was made between Kumassi and the coast, with "rest-houses" at four points on the route, and the country was, for the first time, brought within the sphere of civilization.

The government of the Gold Coast territory was settled in 1874, 1883, and 1886. Finally separated, as regards rule, from Sierra Leone, it became the "Gold Coast Colony", with a Governor aided by an Executive and Legislative Council. The former consists of the officer commanding the troops, the Colonial Secretary, the Queen's Advocate, the Treasurer, and the Inspector-General of Constabulary. The latter includes the Executive, with the addition of the Chief Justice and two unofficial members nominated by the Crown. For judicial affairs, there are districts, each with a commissioner invested with magisterial powers, subject to appeal to the Supreme Court, which tribunal also controls the settlement of disputes between natives according to native law. Domestic slavery, not affected by the statute of 1807, was abolished within the Protectorate by colonial ordinances of 1874.

The chief products of the region are palm-oil, palm-kernels, india-rubber, and gold. The fruit of the oil-palm, which does not grow near the coast, is brought from inland on the heads of native carriers and by canoes down the Volta River. The oil, obtained by boiling in water the bruised pulp of the orange-coloured fruit, is consumed by the natives as butter; the exported article, as is well known, is used to an enormous extent in the manufacture of candles, soap, and lubricants for railway-carriage wheels, and for other purposes. The fruit-kernels have been, of late years, very largely sent to Marseilles, Hamburg, and other ports for crushing which extracts a valuable oil, while the residue is used for making oil-cake. The india-rubber trade is of recent origin, and has increased from an export of 64 cwts. in 1882 to about 30,000 cwts., with an annual value of over £320,000. We may mention, by the way, that in one year monkey-skins were exported to a value exceeding £15,000, and that some ivory, copra (broken and dried coconut kernels), gum-copal, and valuable native woods are also articles of foreign trade. The gold industry is one which has been revived, in the way of regular mining, since 1889, five companies being now at work. Its past importance is indicated by the name assigned to this region by the early traders. The Portuguese, the French, the English, and the Dutch obtained large quantities between the fifteenth and the eighteenth centuries. During the nineteenth century the value of the metal imported into this country is computed at 5½ millions sterling. The natives have shown the auri-

ferous nature of the soil in many parts by the amount which their rude appliances have unearthed. In small grains and nuggets mixed with gravel or red loam, and sometimes found in quartz, and in sand from the beds of streams, the rudest kind of crushing and washing made an annual average, in the six years inclusive from 1883 to 1888, of over £78,000 in value. The chief districts for gold are in the north-west and north. European capital and skill are now at work, and in 1890 the export from this source, the companies' mines, reached £33,000. Three-fourths of the whole Gold Coast trade is carried on with the United Kingdom, the rest being divided between the United States, Holland, Germany, and France. The exports, mainly of india-rubber (£322,000), palm-oil (£231,000), palm kernels (£93,000), and gold (£91,000), have a total value of about £880,000. The imports, consisting of cotton-goods, hardware, cooperage, alcohol, and sundries, approach a million sterling in value. The revenue, chiefly from customs, exceeds £230,000, with an expenditure, not increased by charge for any public debt, of £265,000. The legal currency is British coin, with Spanish, French, and United States gold coinage. The total tonnage of vessels entered and cleared at the ports in 1895 was 1,053,366, of which British ships accounted for 744,615 tons.

There are two Government elementary schools at Accra and Cape Coast Castle, but religious teaching and secular instruction are mainly in the hands of Wesleyan, Roman Catholic, and Lutheran missionaries, aided by grants to the amount of over £2000: the whole number of pupils is about 7500. English is taught in all the higher classes, and in some schools instruction in handicrafts is given. The Basel Mission Society is specially active in the teaching of male and female pupils, and the services of masons, carpenters, and blacksmiths trained in its schools are in great request among European employers at various parts of the coast. In 1890, a Botanical Station was founded at Aburi, some distance inland from Accra, at a height of 1400 feet above the sea, near the Government Sanitarium. A curator from Kew Gardens there has charge of a small farm planted with cocoa, coffee, tobacco, cotton, jute, various spice-trees, eucalypti, fruit-trees, and divers useful plants, with the object of apprenticing native boys from the schools to gardening work, and teaching them how to develop the agricultural resources of the colony in raising new products for

export. There are no railways, and few regular roads, except in or near the towns; inland paths are kept open through the bush by chiefs paid for this service. A tolerable road, made by the troops in 1874, covers the 75 miles from Cape Coast Castle to Prahsu, and Accra and Aburi are also thus connected. There is a land postal-service for letters and telegrams between the chief towns along the coast, and the money-order system, and the advantages of the Postal Union and the parcels-post, are established with the United Kingdom. Four submarine cables connect the colony with England by way of Sierra Leone, Bathurst, and St. Vincent (Cape Verd Islands); with Lagos, the Niger, and the Portuguese and French settlements, to the east and south; and with Liberia to the west. The voyage from Europe, about 4000 miles (Liverpool to Accra), is performed by weekly steamers of the "British African" and "African Steamship" Companies, from Liverpool, Hamburg, Havre, and Antwerp, and from Hamburg by monthly steamers of the Woerman Line. The chief towns of Gold Coast Colony are Accra, Elmina, Addah, and Cape Coast Castle. *Accra*, the seat of government, lies on the coast almost in a longitudinal line with Greenwich. With a population of nearly 20,000, the town is now made fairly healthy by due attention to the water-supply and drainage, and has the principal share in the commerce above described. *Elmina*, on the coast between the mouth of the Prah and Cape Coast Castle, has about 11,000 people. *Addah*, far to the east, near to the mouth of the river Volta, may have about the same numbers, and *Cape Coast Castle*, a little west of 1° west longitude, with about 12,000 population, lies in a hollow, defended by the great castle near the water's edge, and by three small forts on the hills behind, one of them serving as a signal-station and lighthouse. Much of the trade in palm-oil is done from this port. Other smaller coast-towns are Annamaboe, 10 miles east of Cape Coast Castle; Dixcove, west of the Prah mouth; Winnebah, and Quittah (Kwitta), the last being situated far to the east, near the borders of the German Protectorate.

Lagos, in recent history, had an evil name in connection with the slave-trade, and it was for refusal to assist in the suppression thereof that British troops, in 1851, expelled the native king. Treaty-promises made by his two successors were not observed, and in 1861 the native ruler was forced to yield his territory to the

British crown in return for a yearly pension of £1000. Made a separate colony in 1863, and, three years later, a dependency of Sierra Leone, then, in 1874, incorporated with the Gold Coast colony, Lagos again became, in 1886, as it remains, a distinct Crown Colony, with a government precisely like that of the Gold Coast, save that the Legislative Council has one more unofficial nominated member. Probably discovered, and certainly named, by the Portuguese, after the little seaport and fishing-town on their own, southern coast, the island of Lagos, with an area of nearly 4 sq. miles, lies midway between 3° and 4° E. longitude. This and Iddo Island, the original British settlements, formed a nucleus increased by the annexation, between 1862 and 1885, of neighbouring districts and petty native kingdoms, to the present area, with protectorate, of 1071 square miles, stretching nearly from 2° to 6° E. long., and bounded on the south-east by the river Benin, dividing Lagos colony from our Niger Protectorate. The population is estimated at 100,000, mostly negroes, with about 200 Europeans. In religion, the natives are chiefly still heathens, though the Christians may amount to 6000, and the Mohammedans to double that number. Education, mainly conducted, as on the Gold Coast, by missionary efforts, with Government inspection and grants, has been so far successful that one-fourth of the natives speak or understand English. The Church Missionary Society, very active in this region, supports most of the Anglican clergy, who are subject to the Bishop of Sierra Leone.

The town of *Lagos* claims commercial importance in being the largest place on the West African coast, with a population of 35,000, and in having the only safe harbour for 1000 miles, with a bar that needs some care in navigation, but admitting vessels drawing up to 12 feet of water. As regards communications for trade with the interior and along the coast away from the sea, the absence of roads is the less felt owing to the great facilities given by creeks, lagoons, and rivers extending in all directions. The climate and products of the colony resemble those of the Gold Coast, the palm-oil of Lagos being esteemed the best in the market. The fishing-industry is very active, and includes in its catch creatures so diverse in size and character as shrimps and sharks. Shrimps, greatly esteemed by the native chiefs of the interior, are caught in vast quantities by means of bamboo-baskets fastened to poles along the

shore, into which receptacles the incoming tide sweeps the prey. The sharks, numerous both at the river-mouths and far up the stream, are taken both for eating fresh and for curing. The handicrafts, besides the making of palm-oil, are the weaving of cloth in cotton and native grasses; and the making of mats, bamboo-furniture, boats, pottery, and bricks. The telegraphic, steamship, and postal communications are the same as those given for the Gold Coast, but Lagos has, in addition, frequent sailing-vessels to and from the United States and Brazil, and steam-communication with the latter country. The currency is the same as that on the Gold Coast, and there is a Government savings-bank, with deposits of over £5000 at the close of 1890. A branch of the African Banking Company has lately been opened. The commerce of Lagos colony, largely carried on with Germany as well as with the United Kingdom, has a total value of about £1,150,000. The exports (£985,000) include palm-kernels to the value of £320,000, and palm-oil to more than two-thirds that amount, with some ivory and gum-copal. The imports of cotton-goods are worth over £274,000; alcoholic spirits, £106,000, and tobacco, over £25,000. The revenue, from customs-duties on alcoholic drinks, tobacco, salt, arms and ammunition, with a 4-per-cent *ad valorem* charge on most other imports, exceeds £142,000; the expenditure is about £144,000.

The history of *Gambia*, down to the beginning of the nineteenth century, has been given in a former section of this work. We are now taken westwards and northwards to the most westerly part of the continent, where the great river Gambia, after a journey estimated at 1400 miles, overflowing its banks in the lower course, like the Nile, during the rainy season, and leaving a deposit of fertilizing mud, and, after widening to an estuary 27 miles across, contracting at its mouth to little more than 2 miles, enters the Atlantic in about $13\frac{1}{2}$ degrees north latitude, and about $16\frac{1}{2}$ degrees west longitude. From June to November the stream is navigable, for vessels of 150 tons, up to Barraconda, a distance of 400 miles from the sea. The British colony proper, with an area of about 70 square miles, includes St. Mary's Island, a sandbank $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles long by $1\frac{1}{4}$ broad, at the river-mouth; some territory on the adjacent mainland; and MacCarthy's Island, about 180 miles up the river. All these lower waters, from Georgetown (MacCarthy's

Island) to the sea, are under British control, and the "protectorate" makes up an area of 2700 square miles, having a total population of 50,000, mostly negroes, with about threescore resident Europeans. The population of the British settlement somewhat exceeds 15,000, and includes, in religion, about 2400 Christians and 5300 Mohammedans. Gambia, after being, since 1807, first attached to Sierra Leone, then independent, and then again attached to what were called the "West Africa Settlements", became a distinct colony in 1888, governed by an "Administrator", assisted by the usual Executive and Legislative Councils, the latter including three nominated unofficial members. Friendly relations are maintained with the surrounding native tribes, the Mandingos and others, and the chiefs are subsidized for preserving peace among the natives and keeping open the trade-routes from inland which, save a metalled road from St. Mary's Island across a narrow creek to Cape St. Mary on the mainland, are the only roads in the settlement. The climate is stated to be "fairly healthy during the dry months" (October to June), with a rainfall of 44 inches, and a mean temperature of 82°, ranging from 60° to 104°.

The chief products of the colony and inland districts are ground-nuts, hides, bees'-wax, cotton, rice, maize, india-rubber and palm kernels, the staple being ground-nuts for the extraction of oil. This vegetable production, also called ground-bean, pea-nut, and earth-nut, is the fruit of an annual plant of the leguminous order, growing its pod in the air, and then, by a natural motion of the stalk, forcing it 3 or 4 inches into the earth, where it ripens. A very sweet oil, not becoming rancid, but improving with age, is obtained by pressure from the seeds or beans in the pods. In 1895, these nuts, exported to the value of about £56,000, chiefly to France, with rubber worth nearly £19,000, were the chief item in the total of £93,000. The only handicrafts are the making of vegetable oils, the weaving of native cotton-cloths, boat-building, and brick-making. The import-trade, with a value, in 1895, of £97,000, is chiefly carried on with Great Britain, and consists mainly of cotton-goods, hardware, spirits, tobacco, salt, and gun-powder. A considerable entrepôt traffic in these and other articles is done with the neighbouring French settlements. Import-duties, except on firearms, are very light, producing an annual revenue of over £15,000, increased by minor items to about £21,000,

against an expenditure of £28,900. Christian education is in the hands of Anglican, Wesleyan, and Roman Catholic missionaries, and the Mohammedans have also several schools. Telegraph-cables connect the capital, *Bathurst*, on St. Mary's Island, having a population of 6000, with Europe and with all the chief points on the West African coast. "British and African" line steamers run from London every three weeks, and mail-steamers from Liverpool call every fortnight. There is also regular sea-communication with Bordeaux and with Germany.

The origin of *Sierra Leone*, as a British settlement, has been already given. In 1807, after the abolition of the slave-trade in our possessions, the rights of the Sierra Leone Company were transferred to the Crown, and the place became largely peopled by captured cargoes of slaves carried off from almost every tribe on the western and south-western coasts of Africa, and now made free residents in our new settlement. The nucleus of the existing colony was a peninsula, 26 miles long and 12 broad, with an area of 300 square miles, extending westwards to Cape Sierra Leone, lying in $8\frac{1}{2}$ degrees N. lat., and $13^{\circ} 18'$ W. long. This territory is bounded on the south by the sea, and on the north by the Sierra Leone estuary, the lowest part of the river Rokelle. The land rises, four miles from the river-mouth, into a chain of hills 1700 feet in height, with Sugar Loaf Mountain, 3000 feet, as a culminating point, the whole territory being covered with dense vegetation. Successive purchases and annexations of native possessions have extended the colony, a little to the north, and far to the south-east until, bounded on the north by French settlements, and on the south by the Republic of Liberia, it stretches along 180 miles of coast, with an area of about 4000 square miles, and a population (1891) of nearly 75,000, including 210 resident whites. The "protectorate", or territory under immediate British control and influence, is estimated at 15,000 square miles, with a population of 180,000. Sherbro Island, at about the centre of the coast-line, and a number of other smaller islands, are included in our territory. After being connected at various times, as we have seen, with the Gambia and the Gold Coast settlements, Sierra Leone became, in 1888, a separate colonial state, ruled by a Governor with the usual Executive and Legislative Councils, three of the latter body being natives nominated by the Crown.

The scenery of the Sierra Leone peninsula has all the beauty afforded by masses of evergreen foliage on the huge trees which cover the undulating hills. The soil is good for tillage, and there is an ample supply of pure fresh water. The climate, very hot and very moist, with malaria produced by the exhalations from the dank vegetation of mangrove swamps, is proverbially unhealthy for European constitutions, but Sierra Leone no more deserves, if no less, the style of "White Man's Grave" than any of the neighbouring regions on the West African coast. Much of the mortality for European residents is due to lack of sanitation and of care as regards exposure to bad air and indulgence in alcoholic liquors. Nothing more, however, than a fair degree of health can be expected by white men in a region where the temperature ranges from 64 to 100 degrees in the shade, and the rainy season, lasting from May till October, gives an annual downfall of 144 to 170 inches.

The native population is remarkable for the mixture of negro-races which it presents, and also for the superiority of mental and moral character which has been, in many cases, developed amongst them. The census gives half the negroes as "Liberated Africans and their descendants", the variety of race in whom has been noticed above. A high authority declares that "many of these indigenous West African races who are under Her Majesty's rule are superior in intelligence, enterprise, and integrity to any of our negro fellow-subjects in South Africa or the West Indies". Sir H. H. Johnston, Imperial Commissioner for British Central Africa, then names, as instances of "admirable and useful recruits to civilized society" hence obtained, such men as Bishop Crowther, Archdeacons Crowther and Johnson, Samuel Lewis, and other distinguished divines, lawyers, and Government-officials who have shown themselves to be at all points equal to well-trained whites. One of the highest products of the negro-family of mankind was, beyond doubt, the late Missionary Bishop of the Niger territory, Samuel Adjai Crowther. Born in 1812, with the native name Adjai, in the kingdom of Dahomey, and carried off as a slave in the year of Queen Victoria's birth, he was rescued by a British cruiser three years later (1822), and landed at Sierra Leone. The lad of ten years, trained in religious and secular matters by a missionary at Bathurst, became a Christian in 1825, and took his new name from that of a London vicar. He had charge of a mission-

school in early manhood, and, visiting London in 1842, was ordained in the Anglican Church by Bishop Blomfield, and, returning to West Africa, worked with great ability and zeal in the mission-field. His consecration as Bishop was accompanied by the conferring of the honorary degree of D.D. in the University of Oxford. Bishop Crowther's chief literary work has been the translating of the Bible into the Yoruba language, that of the country lying, with a population estimated at 2 millions, to the north-east of Dahomey, between our Lagos colony and the Niger Company's territories. The advanced state of education in Sierra Leone is another proof of what is above claimed for the West African negroes. The natives well appreciate the advantages offered by Europeans. The Government system of inspection and grants was established in 1882, and we find ten years later that without compulsion, and with payment of fees, eighty-five elementary schools contain nearly 10,000 pupils, and that six high schools, including three for girls, supply secondary instruction. These institutions are chiefly maintained by the Wesleyan and the Church Missionary Societies. The C. M. S. has also a training-college at Fourah Bay, near Freetown, founded in 1828, and affiliated in 1876 to the University of Durham. The clerks in the Government service, and some of the higher officials, are natives. On a lower side, the peculiar intellectual character of the Sierra Leone negroes is shown in their neglect of tillage for trade. Devoted to the work of store-keeping, or to hawking and bartering goods throughout the settlement, and for a long distance inland, the negroes of this British colony are found acting as middlemen in the Niger traffic, and in every trading-centre of West Africa. The improvement of commerce with the producing inland-districts depends upon the degree in which the British rulers employ force to restrain inter-tribal warfare which, mainly carried on for purposes of general plunder and slave-catching, has in past years reduced large neighbouring territories to a state of devastation. At the present time, treaties exist with many of the inland chiefs by which, in return for pay, they undertake to keep open the bush-roads and to protect traders. The only handicrafts are boat-building, tanning, mat-making, and the weaving of native cloths. Large canoes are made from single logs of some of the magnificent trees, which include ebony, ironwood, cedar, and oak.

The products of the soil, within the colony, are of trifling value.

being confined to a little ginger for export, and to yams, cassava, sweet-potatoes, and other articles of food, grown on little plots of land for home-consumption. Poultry are plentiful, and the markets have a good supply of fish, but the beef and mutton come from the interior, with the other productions, derived from slave-labour, which make up the exports of Sierra Leone. That trade, in 1895, had a value exceeding £452,000, chiefly in palm-kernels, india-rubber, palm-oil, beni-seed, ground-nuts, copal, hides, and kola-nuts. Beni-seed, the *Sesamum Indicum* or til-seed of India, yields a valuable oil used for the same purposes as that of the ground-nut already described. Nearly the whole export is sent to France, which country, along with Italy, uses the best qualities of ground-nut oil for the adulteration of olive-oil, while Holland employs it in the making of "butterine". Inferior oil from ground-nuts is used for lubricating machinery, and the lowest quality for soap and coarse illumination. Nearly all the india-rubber goes to the British Isles, one-sixth of whose whole import of caoutchouc is derived from her West African possessions. Kola-nuts, or Guru Nuts, are the seeds of a tree indigenous to Africa south of $7\frac{1}{2}$ degrees N. lat. In 1865 it was discovered that they contained an alkaloid like that of tea, coffee, and maté or Paraguay tea. The natives chew the nuts to prevent hunger, thirst, sleepiness, and fatigue. In European commerce they are used for mixing with chocolate, and for making various preparations for which medicinal value is claimed. The people of the Soudan and other dwellers in the distant interior import this nut from Sierra Leone by way of the Gambia. The imports of the colony, in 1895, exceeded the value of £427,000, mainly consisting of cotton-goods, spirits, hardware, provisions, haberdashery, gunpowder, and tobacco. The revenue, in the above year, was nearly £98,000, derived to the extent of £80,000 from light import-duties on a few articles, including a 5-per-cent *ad valorem* charge. There is a public debt of £50,000, payable between 1896 and 1898; the expenditure, £96,000 in 1895, shows a satisfactory annual surplus. The West African Bank has a branch at Freetown, and Government savings-banks contain deposits to the amount of £34,000. The internal communication is chiefly by the many lagoons and streams. Cable-telegrams reach Europe by way of Bathurst, and other ocean wires communicate with the rest of the West African coast. Steamers from

Liverpool reach the colony weekly in about fifteen days, by way of Madeira, and frequent steam-ships pass to and from Marseilles, Hamburg, Havre, Lisbon, and Algiers.

Freetown, the capital, lying four miles up the Sierra Leone estuary, has the finest harbour on all the West African coast, admitting ships of the largest size, and contains a population exceeding 30,000. Its commercial importance and excellent position have caused it to be made a second-class coaling-station for the Imperial navy, defended by batteries armed with heavy guns. The land-forces of the colony consist of 800 men of the West India Regiments, whose African head-quarters are at Freetown, with some artillery and engineers, and an armed constabulary of 570 men for frontier-service. In religious affairs, the Anglican Church, which employs many native clergy, is governed by the Bishop of Sierra Leone. The Wesleyan Methodists are strong in numbers and zeal, and the census of 1891 gives the number of "Protestants" at nearly 41,000, with a few hundred Catholics, and over 7000 Mohammedan negroes. The whole commerce of the United Kingdom with her West African colonies, according to the Board of Trade returns for 1895, reached a value of over $2\frac{3}{4}$ millions, in which British produce and manufactures figured for about £1,084,000. The tonnage cleared at all the ports was about 3 millions, of which nearly $2\frac{1}{4}$ millions of tons were British shipping.

The *Niger Territories* is the name now officially assigned to a region whose area is estimated at half a million square miles, with a population which is guessed at as from 20 to 35 millions, situated on the middle and lower courses of the great river which, after a course of 2600 miles, under the names of Joliba and Quorra at different parts, falls into the Gulf of Guinea 200 or 300 miles south-east of Lagos, after forming one of the most remarkable mangrove-covered deltas in the world. This vast territory and "sphere of influence", including the great native "empire" of Sokoto and the kingdom of Borgu, is under the control of the Royal Niger Company, which received its charter in 1886. The Company's territorial limits were settled by agreements concluded in 1886, 1890, and 1893 with the French and German Governments, and by many previous separate treaties made with native states and tribal chiefs. To the north and the east the Company's territories are respectively bounded by the French and German spheres of influence. The

coast-line of the British territory extends along the Gulf of Guinea for about 120 miles, between the Forcados and the Brass Rivers, bounded east and west by the Oil Rivers Protectorate. Great commercial advantages ought to accrue from our presence and power in regions rich in agricultural and other resources such as have been already seen in our account of West Africa. In 1896 the exports of gums, hides, india-rubber, ivory, palm-oil and palm kernels, and many minor products, had a value of £508,000. The town of *Asaba*, 70 miles beyond Abo, at the head of the Niger delta, is the capital of the Niger Company's territories, containing the usual public buildings, civil, military, and judicial, with a botanical garden established under the enterprising policy which has already started considerable plantations of cocoa and coffee. The varied imports include textile fabrics of silk, cotton, and wool, hardware and earthenware, tobacco and salt. It is gratifying to learn that the trade both in gunpowder (chiefly used in the interior for slave-raids) and in alcohol has been much lessened by the heavy duties which the Company impose. Salt, guns, and tobacco also pay duty, but all other imports enter free of taxation. The importation of spirits into regions north of 7 degrees north latitude, in other words, into most of the Company's territory, is absolutely prohibited. Many settlements exist up the course of the Niger and its chief tributary, the Binuë, traffic being maintained by a fleet of 30 or 40 steamers plying between the coast-port *Akassa*, where the Company have repairing-yards and engineering-works, and the Boussa Rapids on the Middle Niger, in one direction, and *Ribago*, 450 miles up the Binuë, in another. *Lokoja*, at the junction of the Niger and Binuë, is the head-quarters of the military force, consisting of about 1000 Houssas (Haussas), armed with Snider rifles, and commanded by British officers. Various districts have each a police-magistrate with a body of constabulary. The region, under the control and orders of the Council in London, is locally managed by an Agent-General, as executive chief, a chief-justice, a principal medical officer, and the commandant of the troops. From Brass and Bonny there is cable-communication with Lagos, and thence with other parts of the West African coast and with Europe. Steamers run regularly every three weeks to and from Liverpool.

Early in 1897, the Niger Company was at war with the Sultan

of Nupé, one of the most powerful chiefs of the Fulahs, Mohammedan conquerors from the north who held a despotic sway over the Pagan tribes of the interior within the Company's sphere of influence. The Fulah emirs had been cruelly raiding by slave-hunts the subject-populations bound to the Company by hundreds of treaties, under which they can claim protection in return for freedom of trade. It was resolved to give a lesson to the ruler of Nupé, the boldest of these aggressors, who had crossed the Niger, from the south-west, to Kabba, in defiance of the treaties, and had made that place a raiding-centre. The Company's campaign was carefully planned by Sir George Taubman Goldie, K.C.M.G., president of their council in London, a man whose administrative ability, enterprise, and resource have placed him high on the list of pioneers of British civilization, and he took a personal and leading share in the operations, aided by officers lent by the Imperial government. The base of operations was Lokoja, and the chief object of the expedition was the capture of Bida, the Sultan's capital and chief stronghold, about seventy miles to the north, and on the east side of the Niger. The troops employed were the Hausa levies in the Company's service, with white officers in the proportion of one to every twenty men. Every precaution that skill, experience, and forethought could suggest was taken, the stores including blue lights to burn in case of night-attacks, and barbed wire to check the rush of the Nupé cavalry. On January 6th, the land-force, consisting of 520 soldiers and a thousand carriers, started from Lokoja through the bush, commanded by Major Arnold, on the way to the great camp of the Fulahs at Kabba. At Sura, half-way to the point aimed at, a permanent fortified post for reserve-stores was established, and when the advance was resumed by the main body in forced marches, ten thousand of the enemy broke up in terror, leaving the Kabba camp to be destroyed. The southern part of the Nupé territory was thus freed from the slave-raiding which had continued unchecked for many years. The Company's flotilla was at the same time engaged in seizing the enemy's canoes and blocking the crossings of the Niger, so as to cut off retreat from Bida to the west. The Nupé people, so long oppressed by the Fulahs, made common cause with their deliverers, and cut to pieces the panic-stricken fugitives from Kabba, and the flotilla, on January 14th,

drove the last of this body of Fulahs from Shonga, a riverside stronghold, and destroyed the town. A few days later, Fulah power in the regions to the west of the Niger came to an end in the taking of Ladi, which was burnt along with vast stores. Twelve hundred slaves, mostly elderly men, were there rescued, the enemy having taken the women and young children, youths and maidens, away to Bida.

Major Arnold then formed a column of 600 Haussas, with six Maxim-guns, five seven-pounders, and some nine- and twelve-pounder Whitworths, and marched on Bida, a town with a population of about eighty thousand. On January 25th the enemy's advance post, twelve miles from the capital, was driven in, with the loss to them of many men slain and captured. The decisive struggle came on the two following days. On January 26th, the enemy, composed of cavalry and foot, to the number of thirty thousand men, were found to be occupying a ridge between the British force and Bida. Cautious tactics were needed against odds so great, and the movements directed by Major Arnold and his fellow-officers were marked by consummate skill. The fighting, which lasted from sunrise until dark, began with the driving-in of outposts, from seven till nine. The Fulahs then threw forward strong brigades to move round the flanks, attack the guns, and envelop the rear. A square was formed, with Maxims at the corners, and the enemy's repeated charges were repulsed with terrific loss, the Haussas being under perfect control, and their fire-discipline equal to that of the best white troops. An advance was then made in square, supported by the guns, and an accurate, well-maintained fire was poured on the dense masses of the enemy's main body at a range of 1500 yards. Towards three o'clock the Fulahs began gradually to retire, and the arrival of the Whitworth guns, causing more heavy loss, hastened the movement. The only British officer killed was Lieutenant Thomson, of the Leicestershire Regiment, on special service with the Company. The engagement was renewed at seven o'clock on the following day, January 27th, the British force advancing in two half-squares, attended by the guns, against the enemy who covered the slopes in front of Bida, and presented a splendid sight in their picturesque eastern costumes. The Fulahs then closed in upon the square which had been formed by the union of the two halves, and about

twenty thousand men, cavalry and foot, surrounded it on all sides. Their force had been diminished by the withdrawal of two contingents whose emirs had been killed on the previous day by shells. The fire of the Maxims, with the rifle-volleys, kept the Fulahs at bay as the British force slowly advanced towards Bida. When a position commanding the town was reached, the enemy slowly retiring before the advance, a bombardment began from the Whitworth and other guns, and about noon a company of troops entered the place, which is about three miles square. After further shelling, from two till four o'clock, half of the Haussas were sent inside, and Bida was thus captured. The enemy had dispersed, after suffering enormous loss from the fire of the Maxims, the Emir of Nupé's brother and many other chiefs being severely wounded, while the casualties on the British side were confined to fifteen wounded Haussas. The strength of the enemy was utterly broken, and the chiefs and men fled for safety to the north. Ten cannon, many horses, rifles, muskets, and tons of gunpowder, were taken in the town, and the houses of the chiefs were destroyed, the mosques, however, being carefully preserved.

Bida, a place almost utterly unknown until the Niger Company, with Sir George Goldie as its Cortes or Pizarro, threw it open to the world, was found to be a most interesting town, with schools, charities, art-industries, and even some slaves who read and write. On January 31st Sir George Goldie visited a large number of natives, chiefly Haussas in race, at a great camp near the city, and made a speech assuring them of such safety in the Nupé territory that a woman or child should be able to pass unmolested from one end of the country to the other. Unbounded delight was expressed, and Sir George then received a deputation of chiefs and leaders of caravans, who expressed their gratitude for deliverance from Fulah domination and undertook to spread the news throughout Haussaland. An end was made of slave-raiding and slavery throughout the Niger Territories, and the decree abolishing the latter came into force on Diamond Jubilee Day. A new Emir of Nupé, entirely dependent on the Company, was set up, and in February, in order to follow up and emphasize the success obtained at Bida, an expedition was sent against Ilorin, the capital of the Yoruba state, on the west side of the Niger, whose rulers were known to be hostile to British influence, and favourable to the

Fulah cause. This great town was captured, after two days' fighting, with no casualties in the Company's force, and this memorable campaign thus ended. The triumph achieved by prudence, courage, tactical skill, discipline, and the deadly "Maxims" was the most important ever gained by Europeans in Western Africa. For the first time one of the Mohammedan kingdoms of the Sudan had been conquered, and a fine fertile territory, hitherto subject to slave-raiders, was made free for peaceful tillage and trade. The moral effect of the Niger Company's victory could not fail to be great and wide-spread in the Sudan.

The *Oil Rivers* or *Niger Coast Protectorate* is the last on our list of African possessions. The first name is derived from the staple product, in palm and other oils, of the deltaic region in which the several outlets of the Niger are intermingled with many seaboard streams. The coast-region, where the rivers Brass, Benin, Opobo, Quaëbo, New Calabar, and Old Calabar are found, had been long frequented and inhabited by British traders before the Niger Company was formed. A century ago, the main purpose of their presence was the slave-trade; the earlier decades of the nineteenth century saw the institution and development of a large traffic in the vegetable products of the coast and inner country. For over fifty years, British missionaries have been active in the Calabar country, and the United Presbyterians have been successful in warring against pagan cruelty and superstition. The coast-lands are low, swampy, and flat, with the malarious climate so often referred to in our description of West Africa. It was in 1884 that, under various treaties with native chiefs, a British protectorate was established over the district between Lagos colony and Yoruba on the north-west and the German boundary of Cameroons on the east. In 1891 the Protectorate was formally intrusted to the rule of an official who, as "Imperial Commissioner and Consul-General", has executive and judicial powers, the right of taxation, and the control of six vice-consuls, stationed on the several rivers. The Protectorate Force, consisting of 16 officers, and 450 men, armed with the Martini-Henry carbine and sword-bayonet, and a battery of four carriage-guns for bush-service and some "Maxims", was formed chiefly by the efforts of Captain Boisragon, commander of the Protectorate Constabulary, of distinguished service in the Nile expedition of 1884-85. In 1889

a Company, including most of the merchants trading in the Oil Rivers, was formed at Liverpool under the style of the "African Association". In the earliest days of 1897, the attention of the world was called to this region by a very tragical event. The country called Benin, lying between the Lower Niger and Dahomey, was formerly one of the most powerful kingdoms of West Africa, but had been broken up into several smaller states. The territory now recognized as Benin was ruled, at the time of this occurrence, by King Dvunami, an important personage, holding supreme power fettered by fetish customs, his capital Ubini (Benin city), about 25 miles inland east of Gwato, being the seat of a powerful theocracy of fetish-priests. Human sacrifices, as formerly in Ashanti and Dahomey, were very common, the usual mode of execution being by crucifixion or decapitation. The dense population dwells in a region covered with forest, except for occasional clearings, the roads being mere bush-paths. The King was putting obstacles in the way of trade with the interior, and had threatened death to any white men who attempted to visit him. It was resolved to send a "peaceful mission" to this truculent potentate, and the expedition left Sapele on January 2nd. In the absence of Major Gallwey, the Acting-Commissioner, a great mistake was made in the composition of this "mission". The body was too large for a peaceful purpose, and too small for defence in case of need. It included Mr. Phillips, Acting-Consul-General; Major Crawford, Deputy Commissioner; Captain Boisragon and his colleague Captain Maling; Mr. Locke and Mr. Campbell, of the consular staff; Dr. Elliot, the Medical Officer; Mr. Powis and Mr. Gordon, two British merchants; with two Government interpreters, some servants, and over 200 native carriers. Mr. Phillips persisted in the journey towards Benin in spite of a message from the King desiring him to postpone the matter for about a month, and then to come attended only by one native chief. On arriving at Gwato, after notice given to the chief or "headman" at that place, the white men found all ready for the accommodation of themselves and their large following, and Mr. Phillips next day pressed forward, though three King's messengers arrived and begged for a day's delay. The Gwato people seemed pleased to see the Europeans, and on January 3rd the expedition started for Benin. Moving forward in single file along the bush-path, the

doomed men came, about 4 o'clock in the afternoon, to a small gorge, the Europeans, headed by Mr. Phillips with his guide and interpreter, walking in front. As the head of the column rounded a corner, firing was heard, and it was quickly seen that they had fallen into an ambush. The carriers were being massacred in the rear, and the Europeans ran back in order to get their revolvers out of their boxes, but failed to do so. Mr. Phillips was shot dead at the outset, and the other white men, retiring slowly along the route by which they had come, were under fire on both sides at very close quarters. All were soon killed, except Mr. Locke and Captain Boisragon, who crept into the bush, both being wounded, and, after wandering for five days and nights, reached a waterside-market about twenty miles above Gwato, and were taken down stream in a canoe by a friendly native. A few carriers also escaped to the coast. Captain Boisragon and District-Commissioner Locke, the sole European survivors, had subsisted for over five days on bananas and the heavy dew on the leaves. All the slain Europeans were beheaded, and the finger-rings of Mr. Phillips were sent back by the King of Benin, an act which was supposed to indicate defiance of British power.

When the news of this atrocious outrage arrived at the Foreign Office, the Imperial government resolved on inflicting prompt and signal punishment. Admiral Rawson, commanding the Cape and West African squadron, organized and led the expedition, which consisted of 120 Marines from England, 250 men of the Protectorate Force, and a naval brigade in two divisions, each composed of 350 men, the whole body being provided with seven-pounder guns, rocket-tubes and Maxims. The boats of the squadron were used for conveyance up the Benin river to Warrigi (a few miles below Sapele), whence the main advance northwards on Benin was made. Vessels were also sent up the branch-river to Gwato, on the west of Benin, and a land-force to Sapoba, on the south-east, to divert the attention of the enemy from the main body. Under a heat of ninety-five degrees in the shade, the force left Warrigi on February 11th, and proceeded in boats up the Ologi creek to Ologbo, about 15 miles north of Warrigi. A landing was there made, covered by a hot fire from the Maxims, while the enemy shot fast from the dense bush. The town, nearly a mile from the beach, was occupied, as the enemy retreated before

the advancing troops. Meanwhile, Gwato had been taken with slight loss, after being shelled from the boats, and at Sapoba a strong force of well-armed natives was driven back, after an obstinate fight, in which Commander Pritchard, of H.M.S. *Allecto*, was killed. Some deaths from sunstroke occurred in the British force. The march from Ologbo on Benin, about 16 miles to the north-west, was made through almost impenetrable bush, where the enemy offered a fierce resistance, climbing the trees and firing down from the branches, happily with inaccurate aim. On February 18th the invaders were near enough to the city to make a final dash, and a column was formed which left camp at half-past six in the morning, and had to fight its way through foes briskly firing from cover. Five miles ahead, the British came on a strong stockade mounted with cannon. The troops sprang forward, and made their way inside with the help of gun-cotton, the enemy retiring before the charge. A mile further on, there was a clear space, and the seven-pounders were brought into action, while shells and rockets were sent screaming and whizzing towards the town. A brief halt was then made, to enable the rear-guard to close up, and then the whole force plunged again into thick bush, expecting a desperate encounter. In a few minutes, however, the men emerged from the narrow path into a broad avenue leading to Benin, flanked on each side by dense masses of undergrowth. This was the critical time of the contest. The enemy, mostly armed with breech-loaders, and perched on trees amid the thickest foliage, poured in a hot and well-aimed fire. The assailants—blue-jackets, marines, and Haussas of the Protectorate Force—went down the avenue at the double, loudly cheering, against a rattling fire from cannon, and a shower of rifle-balls from loop-holed houses and the shelter of tree-trunks. This splendid charge soon gave possession of the King's "compound" or palace-garden, and Admiral Rawson ordered "cease-fire" to sound, that the troops, exhausted both by the tremendous heat and through lack of full rations and allowance of water, might have a respite. Over forty men had been killed and wounded, and Dr. Fyfe, of the *St. George*, was shot dead as he was attending a severely injured officer. The utmost steadiness, gallantry, and cheerfulness under privation, were displayed by all ranks. No man had been able to wash for five days in the almost waterless country, and when

Benin was captured, a body of 300 carriers had to be sent, under escort, to a creek two miles away, for a supply of water.

Horrible scenes met the eyes of the victors. The whole city was reeking with human blood, and the bodies of many crucified and beheaded victims were found. The crucifixion-trees and the houses of the fetish-priests were at once destroyed, and by the capture of the city, and the flight of the enemy into the bush, one of the foulest dens of slaughter in one of the worst regions in Africa was for ever closed. The stores and kit of the murdered officers were found in the King's palace. The miscreant had, for the time, escaped inland beyond reach of pursuit. In March, many chiefs and priests came to Benin and made their submission, and the place was again inhabited by natives carrying on their usual pursuits, now without fear of becoming victims to murderous superstition. It was not until August that the King returned from his hiding in the bush and made his submission in Benin, prostrating himself in the dust before the British Resident. He seems to have cleared himself of direct responsibility for the massacre, and to have proved it to be due to his fetish-priests. He thus escaped a death-penalty, but he was taken down to the coast as a prisoner, and carried round, in fetters, to various points, and exhibited among the natives who had refused to believe in his being conquered and captured. The nature of the climate in this part of Africa was shown by the fact that, before the end of March, more than seven hundred cases of malarial fever, contracted during the expedition, had occurred on board the vessels of the squadron. Before the close of the year 1897, Benin had shown its entrance on a career of civilization by a fortnightly post to and from England, by a condition of perfect peace and order, in charge of a garrison of 100 Haussas with Maxims, seven-pounders, and a rocket-tube—and by the establishment of golf-links.

The coast-line of the Protectorate extends from Lagos to the Cameroons, with the exception of the Niger Territories portion, as we have seen, between the Forcados and Brass Rivers. The precise area and population cannot be given. The chief towns are *Old Calabar* (about 15,000 people), the seat of government, having schools and churches, founded by two Protestant missions; *Opobo*, near the mouth of the river so called; and *Bonny*, 8 miles from the sea on the Bonny river, with a station of the Church Missionary

Society. The traffic on the rivers is worked by launches and small steamers, which can ascend as far as Gwato, on the river of that name, a branch of the Benin river, and by the main stream can get up for about eighty miles from the sea to Sapele, where there are a Vice-consular station and barracks for sixty men. Communication with Europe is given by steamships of the "African", and "British and African" lines, running to Liverpool, Havre, and Hamburg, with a direct line from Liverpool to Accra and Old Calabar river. Commerce is largely carried on by exchange of European goods, through native traders who supply the shippers, for the up-country produce of the negro peoples. Above half the trade is done with Great Britain, the rest chiefly with Hamburg, Rotterdam, and Havre. The annual exports reach a value of £825,000, in palm-oil, palm kernels, ivory, india-rubber, ebony, gums, hides, indigo, and some dye-woods. The imports, to the value of £750,000, include cotton goods, hardware, spirits, tobacco, salt, guns and powder, rice, pottery, with beads and many fancy goods dear to the natives of those regions.

The commercial importance of the Oil Rivers territory lies in the fact that it is the centre of the palm-oil industry, which is the most valuable in West Africa. The oil is produced from the fruit of the *Elæis guineensis*, a tree of very extensive geographical distribution, from about 15° north of the equator to 35° south latitude. It is, however, cultivated only in certain districts; on the West Coast, chiefly near the villages. Attaining a height of 60 to 80 feet, it has a spreading crown of pinnate leaves, each about 15 feet long, the footstalks of which are armed with stout hooked spines. The extraction of the oil, which is reddish or orange in colour, with a scent like that of violets, involves the labour of bruising the fruit-pulp in wooden mortars, boiling in water, and careful skimming off after the oil, risen to the surface, has cooled. It is composed of about thirty-one parts of stearin and sixty-nine of olein. In warm countries the oil remains oil; in cooler climates, it assumes the form of butter. In the British Isles it is chiefly used by candle-makers, soap-makers, and manufacturers of grease for railway use. There are also many valuable medicinal plants, and the export of coloured woods for dyeing purposes, such as camwood or campwood, barwood, and redwood, is rising.

BOOK VI.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AMERICA IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORY OF CANADA (1803-1841).

Primitive state of Upper Canada—Political discontent in both provinces—Despotic proceedings of the Executive—Signs of social progress—Constitutional struggles continue—Reforms recommended—Robert Gourlay expelled from the country—The “Family Compact”—Some advances towards freedom—Vigorous efforts of William Lyon Mackenzie and Robert Baldwin—Growing disaffection in Lower Canada—The “Papineau Faction”—The Ninety-two Resolutions—Seditious proceedings—Policy of the Home Government—Rebellion breaks out, but is suppressed—The insurrection in Upper Canada—Governorship of Sir Francis Head—Ignominious defeat of the rebels, and flight of Mackenzie—Raids from the United States—Results of the rebellion—Ability of Sir John Colborne—Lord Durham sent to Canada—Charles Buller and Edward Gibbon Wakefield—Treatment of the rebels—Lord Durham censured—His famous Report—Its influence on the ministry—Lord John Russell’s despatch—Canadian Union Act passed—Its main provisions.

In resuming the history of Canada as a British colony we note again that, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, George the Third was there ruling a progressive and prosperous community whose tranquil condition was in vivid contrast to that of Europe, then convulsed by the greatest war of modern times. In 1806, Upper Canada (now Ontario) had a population numbering 70,000, while Lower Canada (Quebec), comprising the older settlements, contained about a quarter of a million persons. Upper Canada was still in a very primitive state, with a backwoods population partly consisting of poor gentlemen and half-pay officers from the British Isles, learning to swing the axe and to hold the plough as dwellers in a new land where their own exertions must win a livelihood from the forest and field. The virgin soil of clearings studded with blackened stumps yielded a large return for seed scattered over ground ploughed and harrowed by teams of oxen or horses, who drew the sheaves in rude waggons over rough roads to homesteads where the ears reaped by sickle or scythe were threshed out with the flail and winnowed by the wind, giving grain to be ground,

in the lack of machinery driven by water or breeze, in handmills of steel supplied by the Government, or to be pounded in huge mortars hollowed from hardwood stumps. The abundant fare of the homely, comfortable log-huts included venison of the deer that roamed in the forest which on all sides girdled the farm, and wild-fowl swarming on the lakes and rivers, which also supplied the finest fish. The farmer and his family were guarded against the Canadian frost by flannel or frieze of homespun and often home-woven wool. The very light taxation, mainly on goods for the grocer's store, levied but sixpence per gallon on spirits and ninepence on wines, with evil effect to the habits of many settlers. The roads, at this early period, were often merely blazed paths through the woods, with logs laid transversely for support of the traffic over swampy ground. There were more regular communications in the Governor's Road, running westwards through the province, along the northern shores of the St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario, to Amherstburg, at the head of Lake Erie, and in "Yonge Street", from York (Toronto), on the north-west of Lake Ontario, northwards to Holland River, about half-way to Lake Huron. The Indian tribes, under a paternal policy which expended a large annual sum in presents, left the settlers without any fear of the troubles which had harassed their French and British forerunners. There was little education for the young, although a "grammar-school" had been established in each of the eight districts of the province. Religious teaching was provided for by only four clergymen of the Anglican Church, and by a few Methodist and Presbyterian ministers who made their way through the wilderness to visit scattered groups of the people intrusted to their spiritual care. A revival and mimicry of Old World gaiety and fashion were seen from time to time at York and other little towns when the judge of assize came round with the lawyers in his train.

Even thus early in her history Upper Canada gave clear signs of political discontent. The Government, under the constitution of 1791, was largely divested of responsibility to the people. All the administrative influence lay with the Governor and his Executive Council of five removable nominees. There was no newspaper except the official Gazette, and even the judges, holding their posts at the pleasure of the Crown, did not always enjoy popular confidence. Departmental offices were almost all filled by gentlemen

from home who had recoiled from the hardships of life in the backwoods, and, after selling their grants of land, had eagerly sought employment under Government, where their zealous support of the Executive, and their aristocratic exclusiveness of feeling, excited the jealous resentment of the yeomen who were tilling the soil and creating the country's wealth. Many of these, born in the same position as those who looked down on the agricultural element in the colony, and retaining the tastes and feelings of gentlemen amid their rude surroundings, became centres of influence and leaders of opinion in the country-districts. Thus arose an ever-growing party of those who aimed at obtaining a larger measure of constitutional freedom. The *Upper Canada Guardian* was started in opposition to the champion of privilege, the official Gazette, and the Executive then intervened by depriving its editor of his office as sheriff, and by his imprisonment for "breach of privilege" in his sharp criticisms on public measures and men.

In Lower Canada, during this period, a similar contest was waged between an irresponsible Executive under Sir James Craig, a military veteran who was Governor-General from 1808 till 1811, and the elective Assembly which claimed to control the financial expenditure. In 1809 and the following year parliaments were dissolved by the Governor, who was generally supported by the British section of the people, while the French Canadians took up the cause of the popular House. Six members of the Opposition were arrested on charges of "treason", and the Opposition organ, *Le Canadien*, started in 1806, and the first Canadian newspaper printed entirely in French, had its printer, press, and type seized by the Government. The ferment which arose on these despotic proceedings was allayed by the release of the imprisoned members and by other concessions to popular feeling. Sir James Craig was succeeded in office by Sir George Prevost, whose misconduct during the war with the United States from 1812 to 1814 has been already noticed.

The close of that unhappy contest found the country burdened by the expenses of the struggle, but the colonists soon applied themselves with vigour to the work of development and peaceful progress. Manufactures of leather, hats, paper, and iron were begun; potash and pearlsh were made from the ashes of timber burned for the clearing of land. Ship-building became an active industry at Quebec

and other ports. One of the chief Canadian wants was met in the establishment of the Banks of Montreal, Kingston, and Quebec. Roads were improved or newly made in many districts, and the abundant water-power of the streams was used for mills engaged in the sawing of timber and the grinding of corn. The years 1821 and 1824 saw the beginning of two great public works to be hereafter described, the Lachine Canal for avoidance of some of the St. Lawrence rapids, and the Welland Canal, which, in despite of Niagara Falls, connects Lake Erie with Lake Ontario. The distress caused in Great Britain, in the years following Waterloo, by the depressed condition of manufactures and trade, brought from the mother-country thousands of immigrants who were welcomed by the Canadian Government and assisted by grants of farming-implements, and of rations supplied until a first harvest could be reaped from the newly-broken soil. The might of steam came to the aid of navigation, and the paddle-wheels of craft that scorned wind and current alike were soon churning the waters of the great river and the lakes.

In the years which followed the conclusion of the war, each province was again the scene of political conflict and disquiet. In Lower Canada, the Legislative Assembly was almost powerless, in financial affairs, against the Executive Council, because the latter body commanded independent sources of revenue in the form of duties and taxes levied by the Imperial authorities, and expended by the colonial administration without any check from the elected representatives of the people. The position was aggravated by the fact that four-fifths of the Legislative Assembly were French, while four-fifths of the office-holders appointed by the Executive Council were British. In 1819, the civil list, exceeding £81,000, showed an increase of £15,000 on that of the previous year, and included an evil element in a permanent annual charge of £8000 for pensions payable at the pleasure of the Government. The Assembly cut down the estimates by about £20,000, and the Legislative Council then refused to pass the amended supply-bill. The conflict was interrupted for a time by the somewhat tragical decease of the Governor-General, the Duke of Richmond, formerly Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. In August, 1819, while he was making a journey through both provinces, he arrived at the village of Richmond, named after himself, on the river Ottawa. There it was that the

bite of a tame fox, which proved to be rabid, brought him to his death by hydrophobia. In the following January, the death of George the Third caused the dissolution of a newly-elected Assembly, and a further postponement of the contest with the Council. In an address of loyal congratulation to the aged monarch's successor, M. Papineau, Speaker of the Assembly, whom we shall see hereafter in a different guise, used most eulogistic and enthusiastic terms concerning the advantages which Canadians had received in the free constitution that British supremacy had substituted for the arbitrary and oppressive rule of the French Crown-officials.

Under the new Governor-General, however, the Earl of Dalhousie, the constitutional struggle was soon renewed, and the breach between the mainly French Assembly and the Legislative Council, chiefly composed of men of British descent, and of place-holders dependent on the Executive, became ever wider. At the same time, the increasing body of British colonists were discontented with the feudal mode of land-tenure, and with the French code of law under which justice was administered, and there were those who already urged the union of the two Canadas as one remedy for existing evils. A bill which embodied clauses to that intent was greatly favoured by the colonists of Upper Canada and by the British party in Lower Canada, while the French denounced the union-policy as a violation of their guaranteed rights and privileges. The Assembly of the lower province protested against the measure, and anti-union petitions, signed by sixty thousand French people, of whom nine-tenths were unable to write their names, were despatched to the Imperial Parliament. In 1825, during the absence of the Governor-General in England, the Lieutenant-Governor, Sir Francis Burton, conciliated the Assembly by yielding the point as to their control of the Crown-revenue, but his good work was soon undone by Lord Dalhousie. That high-handed ruler had, on assuming office, demanded a vote of supply for the period of the king's life, and, on the Assembly's refusal, he had appropriated money in the hands of the Receiver-General. On his return from England, he renewed his demand for a permanent civil list, and met the refusal of the angry Assembly by a dissolution in March, 1827. Public feeling was strongly aroused, and found bold expression at tumultuous meetings, with Papineau as the chief French agitator. Appeals were made to the Home Government for the redress of

political grievances; a large number of the British population petitioned for the union of the Canadas, and Papineau's invectives against the Executive Government were rewarded by his almost unanimous election as Speaker in the new Assembly. The Governor-General declined to accept him in that capacity, and prorogued the House when the members persisted in their choice. In 1828, a committee of the Imperial Parliament reported in favour of substantial reforms in the system of Canadian government. The Assemblies ought, it was laid down, to control the expenditure of the Crown-duties. The Executive and Legislative Councils should be made more independent of Government-influence by the introduction of non-official members, without distinction of nationality or religion; the public accounts ought to be audited by a Board; the tenure of land, for British settlers, should be conformed to English law, and the administration of the Crown-lands and the Clergy-reserves should be modified in such a way as to promote immigration and settlement. The Assembly of Lower Canada hailed this report as "a monument of the justice and profound wisdom of the Committee", but no immediate effect was given to these recommendations, though the retirement from rule of the coercive Lord Dalhousie gave much satisfaction to Canadian reformers.

In Upper Canada we also find political disquiet due to various causes. The question of the Clergy-reserves there, as in the other province, involved a chronic grievance. One-seventh of the Crown-lands, by the Act of 1791, was to be set aside "for the support and maintenance of a Protestant clergy". It was natural that, in Lower Canada especially, such an enactment should have aroused the jealous resentment of both French and Irish Catholics, priests and peasantry alike. The Executive Council had also interpreted the measure almost exclusively in favour of the Anglican Church, and this could not fail to offend the Scottish Presbyterians whom immigration was yearly adding in large numbers to the people of Upper Canada. We may here note that while the population of the lower province increased, between 1814 and 1831, from 335,000 to 553,000, that of Upper Canada grew, in far greater proportion, from 95,000 to 236,000. The power of the Government was sternly used against assailants of the existing abuses. Robert Gourlay, an energetic and ambitious Scottish immigrant who had

severely denounced official corruption, favouritism, and misrule at a convention held at York (Toronto) in 1818, was, after two abortive trials for libel, imprisoned for "sedition" and then expelled from the country under an Alien Act of 1804, really aimed at political agitators from the United States. This arbitrary action occurred under the rule of Sir Peregrine Maitland, son-in-law of the Duke of Richmond above noticed.

The key to Canadian history at this time, prior to the reign of Queen Victoria, lies in the fact that these colonies, or at any rate the main body of the British inhabitants, were groping after the fulness and reality of constitutional freedom and self-government, of which the Act of 1791 had accorded only a mere instalment and outline. British officialism had not yet conceived the idea of complete civic and political rights for British colonies as propounded in later days by such men as Sir William Molesworth and Edward Gibbon Wakefield. A representative system gave to the electoral body an opportunity to air and to discuss their grievances, but did not furnish the power of prompt and effectual remedy. Between the elective system and the Crown-nominee system arose a struggle which was to end in a paralysis of all administration. The legislative body could not duly control the Executive Government. In the mother-country, a parliamentary vote could hurl a ministry from power. In Canada, a Governor and his Executive Council, grasping the moneys levied as duties at the ports, and the receipts from the sale of timber on the Crown-lands, could withhold from the colonists the control of their fiscal policy, and go on paying the salaries and pensions of their supporters and dependents to the extent of those ever-growing revenues. The Canadians were thus contending really not only for their own interests, but in the cause of freedom to be hereafter attained by British colonies in far-distant lands. In the Canadian histories of the period under review, we come frequently across the phrase "Family Compact". This was the term applied to a group of holders of power, a governing clique, an oligarchy composed of members of a few families connected by social intimacy. In Upper Canada, this party arose chiefly among the descendants of those "Loyalists" who, at the time of the Revolutionary War, had left the States for Canada, and its ranks were reinforced, from time to time, by the immigration of well-born and able men from the British Isles. In Lower Canada, the

French aristocracy, largely influenced by feelings of nationality and religion, held aloof from the British governing body. In both provinces the executive administration was mainly in the hands of the Family Compact, which filled the Legislative and Executive Councils, and, in Upper Canada, for many years also formed a majority of the Legislative Assembly. The monopoly of power was there maintained by the votes of placemen, and hostile criticism of the Government, or agitation against grievances, either in the public press or on the platform, was visited by prosecutions for libel, social ostracism, imprisonment, and exclusion from the public service.

Prior to the opening of the Victorian age, some advance towards freedom for the Canadian colonies was effected, partly in concessions made by the Home Government, and partly through the influence of the Legislative Assemblies on the local authorities. The Colonial Office in London removed from the Legislative Council in Lower Canada all the judges except the Chief Justice, and, increasing that body by a number of members who were mostly French Canadians, gave it a large majority of non-official persons. In 1831, an Act of the Imperial Parliament gave the Assembly the whole and unconditional control of the customs-duties hitherto appropriated by the representatives of the Crown. In 1824, the elections in Upper Canada, in spite of the utmost efforts of the "Family Compact", for the first time gave a majority to the reforming party. A new popular leader and agitator arose at this time in the person of William Lyon Mackenzie, a fervid, impetuous, and sturdy Scot, born in 1795 at Dundee. In 1820 he emigrated to Canada, and four years later, after a trial of store-keeping in several towns, he found his true vocation as a journalist. The *Colonial Advocate*, founded by him at Queenstown and removed to Toronto (York), became the terror of the official world in its sharp exposure of abuses which Mackenzie, a loather of injustice, ferreted out with equal acuteness and industry. In 1826, some youthful emissaries of the "Family Compact" sacked his printing-office, with the result of heavy damages paid by the aggressors, and of an access of favour for the ardent champion of popular rights. In 1828, Mackenzie was returned to the Assembly as member for York County. The little man, but five feet and a half in height, having a slender frame surmounted by a massive head, high and broad of brow, with a piercing eye, and a mouth and chin

that gave token of strong and resolute character, betrayed his restless disposition in ceaseless motion of the fingers and a constant twitching of the lower face. In 1829, Sir Peregrine Maitland was succeeded as Governor by Sir John Colborne, a soldier of somewhat severe character. He began his term of office by refusing to pardon, for the sake of his young and helpless family, a gentleman who had been fined and imprisoned for libel, under a Government-prosecution, in his capacity as editor of the *Canadian Freeman*. The king's representative rejected the Assembly's petition in behalf of Mr. Collins; the king, George the Fourth, met the same prayer by the release of the prisoner and the refunding of the fine. The new Assembly chose an ultra-reformer as Speaker, and the "Family Compact" soon received another blow in the defeat of its candidate for the aristocratic stronghold, the town of York or Toronto. Mr. Baldwin, the successful competitor, was a lawyer of excellent ability and spotless character, who won the respect of his opponents in his prominent career as a man who "led his country through a great constitutional crisis into an era of larger and more matured liberty". Mackenzie continued his war against abuses by constant motions in the Assembly, attacking pensions, officials, and general corruption with stinging sarcasm. In 1830, the Assembly went so far as to ask, of course in vain, for the dismissal of the Executive Council, and the "Upper House", or Legislative Council, threw out forty Bills passed by the other body. The same year saw a temporary reaction in the return, at a general election, of a majority for the Family Compact government. Mackenzie was again elected, and continued his agitation for reform both inside and outside the walls of the Legislative Assembly. His expulsion from that body was caused by an alleged breach of parliamentary privilege in an article appearing in the *Colonial Advocate*. Re-elected and expelled again and again until the Government refused to issue the writ, the popular hero, in 1832, was sent to England with a petition of grievances from the reforming party, and there he received the aid of Mr. Joseph Hume, elsewhere favourably seen in this record, and succeeded in procuring the removal from office of the Law officers in Upper Canada. On his return in 1834, Mackenzie was chosen first Mayor of Toronto on its incorporation as a city. In the following year, a general election gave a majority to the reformers, and the Executive

Council, whose influence had been long declining, made a desperate effort for the cause of religious privilege by setting apart for the Anglican clergy a large number of rectories with glebe-lands attached, and putting incumbents in possession as a security against alienation through any coming legislation. The day was near at hand when political struggle was to end in armed rebellion.

It seems clear that the growing disaffection in Lower Canada had its origin in a desire, not so much, as in the other province, for the establishment of responsible government, as for French supremacy over the British element in the community, and French control of the executive. A good authority, indeed, declares that the ulterior object of "the Papineau faction" was to separate the country from the British empire and to make an independent Canada, a *Nation Canadienne*. Such was the view of Lord Gosford, Governor-General from 1835 to 1837, a man of conciliatory disposition, despatched from this country with a friendly mission to the French Canadians. In 1830, only eleven members, or one-eighth of the whole, in the Legislative Assembly, were British, and the Home Government therefore declined to accede to a demand that the Legislative Council should also be elective, or to yield control of the revenue derived from timber and mining dues, and from the sale of Crown-lands. Under the rule of Sir James Kempt (1828-1830) and of Lord Aylmer (1830-1834) the Assembly refused to vote supplies for the civil list, and left the salaries of officials unpaid. Among other troubles of this period were severe outbreaks of cholera in 1831 and 1834, with an excessive immigration, to the number of fifty thousand, in the former year, of ill-provided Irish, who landed at Quebec during the summer, and spread themselves over the St. Lawrence valley, burdening the people with the care of thousands of sick or destitute souls, and with the burial of the dead. The moving spirit of disloyalty in this province was Louis Joseph Papineau, born at Montreal in the year of the first French Revolution, 1789. He was a man of considerable energy and talents, well fitted for the part of an agitator, but devoid of the sobriety, prudence, and single-minded devotion to a cause which are needed for success in the legislator or the statesman. Of middle size, with a Jewish cast of face showing quick, bright eyes beneath large high-arched dark eyebrows, he was well read in the olden history of Canada concerning the days when the

French ruled the land, and he could appeal with powerful effect, both in oratory and in conversational speech, to the prejudices and passions of his French brethren. He was chosen, at twenty years of age, as a member of the Assembly, where he soon made his way to the leadership of the French party. We have seen him as the eulogizer of British rule, and as Speaker of the Assembly, a post which he held from 1815 till 1837. In 1834 the newspaper styled *Le Canadien*, suppressed by Sir James Craig in 1810, was revived, and the British were, in its columns, denounced as intruders and foreign usurpers of power. The Legislative Assembly then drew up the famous Ninety-two Resolutions, embodying all the grievances under which the French party conceived that the country was suffering. The British Parliament gave careful heed to the French-Canadian petitions based thereon, and to the counter-petitions of the British section of the colonists, and appointed a commission of inquiry composed of the new Governor-General, Lord Gosford, Sir Charles Grey, and Sir George Gipps. Papineau, in his harangues, now began to talk of "American republics", and civil war seemed to loom in the distance when French-Canadians were drilling in secret, and British associations of volunteers were formed for the defence of the existing Government.

At last, in 1837, the year of Queen Victoria's accession, the crisis came. The chief complaints of the French-Canadians were directed against arbitrary conduct on the part of the Governors; the non-elective character of the Legislative Council; illegal use of the public money; and undue prorogations of the provincial parliament. The British colonists, on their side, had bitterly complained of subjection to French law and procedure in the tenure of land and other affairs. In March, 1837, the Home Government, on receiving the report of the royal commission of inquiry, adopted a decided and vigorous line of policy. The Houses at Westminster, by large majorities, rejected the demand for elective Councils. The Colonial Secretary gave authority to the Governor-General to take moneys from the public treasury for the payment of salaries left in arrear through the refusal of the Assembly to vote supplies, and the "Ten Resolutions" proposed by Lord John Russell in the House of Commons, and there adopted, seemed to declare that the colony was to be henceforth ruled at the pleasure of the "Family Compact", or the oligarchy of officials and Crown-nominees. When

Te Deums were sung in the colonial churches for the accession of the young Queen, the French-Canadians walked out, and turbulent meetings, attended by many armed men, assembled to express the indignation of the people. The Catholic bishops and clergy acted a loyal part, but they were unable to control the excited *habitans*, who tore from the walls the printed copies of Lord Gosford's proclamation against the seditious gatherings, amid cries of "Down with despotism!" and "Long live Papineau!". Dr. Wolfred Nelson, of English descent, born at Montreal, was an ardent supporter of the rebellious party, who now displayed the French eagle and tricolour, and sent forth mobs of "Patriots" and "Sons of Liberty", marching to the tune of revolutionary songs. On the other side, Sir John Colborne was placed in military command of the three thousand regular troops and of other forces in both provinces, and volunteer companies of infantry and cavalry were raised and armed in defence of the Government. On November 6th, 1837, a fight took place in the streets of Montreal, the centre of disaffection, between bodies of loyalists and "Sons of Liberty", and the office of a revolutionary paper was wrecked by the victorious British. A few days later, a large party of rebels, after some firing, rescued two prisoners from a small body of volunteer cavalry, and on November 23rd, Colonel Gore, with three hundred men and one gun, was repulsed at St. Denis, on the river Richelieu, with some loss in killed and wounded, in an attack on a large stone-built brewery held by Dr. Nelson and a large body of rebels. We may here give a final account of Papineau. His plans did not include personal encounter with the authorities, and, in face of a warrant for his arrest on a charge of high treason, he fled across the frontier to the United States, made his way to Paris, returned to Canada, a pardoned man, in 1847, and died there in 1871.

The success of the rebels swelled their numbers, but on November 25th, two days after the encounter at St. Denis, Colonel Wetherall, moving down the Richelieu from Chambly to St. Charles, seven miles from St. Denis, with 500 men and three guns, routed 1000 insurgents in an intrenched position, with the loss of about three-score in slain. Dr. Nelson, a few days later, was captured and lodged in the jail at Montreal. In the middle of December, Sir John Colborne, at the head of 2000 men, inflicted a severe defeat, with the loss of 300 men in killed, wounded, and

prisoners, on a body of 1000 rebels intrenched at St. Eustache, on the Ottawa, nineteen miles from Montreal. Sixty buildings were destroyed in the fire kindled by the shells. Other smaller bodies of insurgents were forced to surrender, or were driven over the frontier to be disarmed by the American authorities. The Home Government, on receiving news of the revolt, recalled Lord Gosford, suspended the constitution, and created a special council, equally composed of British and French, to act with full powers. When navigation was opened by the melting of the ice in the St. Lawrence, ships of war and reinforcements of troops arrived from England and Halifax, and, after some further small encounters, and severe retaliation on some rebel districts by bodies of exasperated loyalists, the rebellion in Lower Canada came to an end by the close of 1838.

The insurrection in Upper Canada differed both in degree and in kind from the movement in the other province. The chief part of the population were loyal to the British crown, and most of the reforming party were seeking beneficial change only by peaceful and constitutional methods. The small revolt which occurred was due partly to excitement aroused by the rebellious proceedings in Lower Canada, of which extreme and exasperated reformers took advantage, and partly to sympathy and aid supplied by republican emissaries from the United States. In January, 1836, a new Governor arrived from England in Toronto. This was Major (afterwards, by creation as a baronet in 1837) Sir Francis Bond-Head, a Waterloo man born in 1793, and now retired from the Royal Engineers. As a man of action who also wielded a lively pen, Head was a forerunner of the famous Colonel "Burnaby of the Blues", who "rode to Khiva", and, as we have seen, died fighting as a volunteer in the Soudan. In 1825, the dashing Major was engaged under a private company working mines on the Rio de la Plata, and he gained the name of "Galloping Head" on the publication of his *Rough Notes* describing a journey across the pampas from Buenos Ayres, and over the Andes. Avowed indifference to political questions both at home and abroad did not prevent the clever, impulsive, and chivalrous soldier from playing a successful part, in one sense, in his new sphere of action. He found the parliament in session, with Mackenzie, the extreme reformer, as popular leader. The moderate Robert Baldwin and

two of his reforming friends were placed on the Executive Council, but they resigned their posts when the new ruler declined to allow its responsibility to the Legislative Assembly, thus adopting the cause of the "Family Compact". The Assembly retorted by refusing to vote the supplies, and Mr. Bidwell, the Speaker, read in the House a letter from Papineau which the Governor saw cause to denounce as seditious. He met threats of republican aid from the United States with the defiant words, "In the name of every militia regiment in Upper Canada, let them come if they dare", and at the ensuing general election, he so strongly appealed, in his proclamations and harangues, to the loyal feelings of the community, that Mackenzie and many of his associates were excluded from the new Assembly. It was then that resolves of rebellion came to the extreme party, and Mackenzie, by articles in his paper, the *Constitution*, and in speeches delivered throughout the country, incited armed revolt.

The Governor, firmly relying on the militia and the general loyalty of the people, sent away all the regular troops to the aid of Sir John Colborne in the lower province, even declining to retain two companies as a guard for Toronto, where 4000 stand of arms were stored in the City Hall. During the later months of 1837, the rebellious party were drilling and arming, while the Governor appeared to pay no heed. On December 4th, about 400 insurgents failed in an attempt to surprise Toronto, in the dead of night, and on the following night double that force, approaching the city under the leadership of Mackenzie, ignominiously fled before the fire of a loyalist picket. The militia throughout the country mustered in arms; many of the rebel leaders fled to the States; and within a week the rising was crushed by the decisive defeat, near Toronto, of another body under Mackenzie, after some sharp fire of musketry and of two field-guns, followed by a bayonet-charge, delivered by the loyalist troops. Mackenzie, with a price set on his head, fled to the Niagara frontier, making his way through snow-clad woods and icy streams. After many narrow escapes, he entered the United States, where he organized the struggle grandly styled "The Patriot War", which was little more than a series of raids perpetrated by hordes of American and Canadian border ruffians. On December 13th, a body of these men took possession of Navy Island, about two miles above

Niagara Falls, and at this point Mackenzie, proclaiming the "Republic of Upper Canada", gathered about a thousand desperate adventurers, eager for plunder, and supplied with artillery and stores at the cost of American citizens. Colonel Sir Allan McNab, commanding on the frontier with a mixed force of 2500 men, militia and Indian volunteers, took prompt action against the enemy, who opened fire against the Canadian shore from a battery of 13 guns. A hired American steamer, the *Caroline*, was transporting men and stores to Navy Island, and on the night of December 29th one of McNab's officers, Lieutenant Drew, of the royal navy, with a party of men, cut her out, after a sharp fight, from under the guns of Fort Schlosser. The strength of the current made it impossible to tow her across to the Canadian side of the river, and, being fired and abandoned in the rapids, she glided swiftly down and went over the Falls. A heavy artillery-fire from Fort Chippewa caused the evacuation of Navy Island on January 14th, 1838. The American President, Van Buren, issued a proclamation forbidding any aid to the invaders and rebels, and the capture of the *Caroline*, strongly resented in America, became the subject of negotiations between the two Governments. Other attacks, at various points of the frontier, were made during the year by forces supplied with arms and ammunition by members of secret societies in the States, known as "Hunters' Lodges", organized at Detroit, Sandusky, and other border-towns. The Canadian militia and our regular troops gave a good account of all these attempts, capturing a piratical vessel near Amherstburg in January; driving a "patriot" gang from Point Pelé Island, on Lake Erie, in March; routing out filibusters from the Thousand Islands, in June; and inflicting severe loss, in November and December, on invaders at other points. Mackenzie, the prime mover of the troubles which thus befel Upper Canada, and retarded her prosperity by interrupting peaceful industry, by actual losses from ravage, and by heavy military expenditure, remained in the United States, leading for twelve years a life of penury, varied by a year's imprisonment for breach of the neutrality laws. He was allowed to return to Canada in 1849, under an amnesty, and, becoming again a member of the Assembly from 1850 till 1858, without attaining his former prominence, he died in Toronto in 1861, after seeing most of his political aims peacefully attained.

A large number of the Canadian insurgents captured in both provinces during the rebellion, apart from the so-called "patriot war", were sentenced to death by hanging, but most of these were reprieved, and either suffered transportation to Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), or imprisonment in a local jail.

Sir Francis Head, approved by many for his administration of affairs, and censured by others as having first provoked and then trifled with the rebellion in Upper Canada, was admired even by many of his opponents for his bold reliance on the spirit of loyalty in the province. He was recalled early in 1838, and published in the following year a *Narrative* in vindication of his official career beyond the Atlantic. With no small loss of valuable lives and heavy pecuniary charges, the Canadian rebellion had the advantage of causing the country to be placed in a good defensive condition. Sir John Colborne, whom we have seen as a rather arbitrary civil ruler, was in his right place when revolt gave him supreme military control. His experience and services were of a distinguished character. He had, after campaigns in Holland, Egypt, and Calabria, fought with Sir John Moore at Corunna; he had then commanded a brigade under Wellington in Portugal, Spain, and the south of France, winning clasps for Albuera, Ciudad Rodrigo, Nivelles, Nive, Orthes, and Toulouse; he had shared, at the head of the 52nd Regiment, in the crowning victory at Waterloo. There were times, during his Canadian career, when war with the United States seemed to threaten, in connection with troubles on the frontier of New Brunswick and the state of Maine, and with the destruction of the *Caroline* at Niagara Falls. After suppressing the revolt in Lower Canada, Colborne repaired all the frontier-forts, and placed therein effective garrisons of regular troops. Returning to England in 1839, he was rewarded with a peerage as Lord Seaton, and, after being Commander of the Forces in Ireland, he died many years later as Field-Marshal. In Upper Canada, the rebellion had given ample proof of the determined loyalty of most of the colonists, and advantage was taken of this spirit to organize there a really powerful body of militia. The province, with a population of about 450,000, raised 106 regiments of infantry, complete in officers and staff, and a due proportion of cavalry and artillery, thus providing a citizen-soldiery of 40,000 men, or nearly one-tenth of all the inhabitants. We must now deal with the highly

important and salutary issue of these troublous events in Canadian history.

We have seen that the constitution of Canada was suspended by the Home Government, the ministry of Lord Melbourne, when the news of revolt in Lower Canada arrived. They resolved at the same time to send out some man of high political ability and character to closely examine Canadian affairs, having ample powers to deal with existing circumstances, and instructions to suggest any needful changes of the political system in both provinces. The Earl of Durham, of the ancient family of Lambtons in the northern county, deriving vast wealth from coal-mines in their later days, was the man chosen for the work in hand. Now in his forty-sixth year, he had long been known as a very advanced, able, energetic, outspoken, and indiscreet reformer, who, as son-in-law of Earl Grey, was believed to adopt an almost imperious attitude towards that statesman and his other colleagues in the cabinet. After sitting in the Commons for fifteen years as M.P. for his native county, he became a peer in 1828, and as Lord Privy Seal in Grey's administration he shared in drawing up the Reform Bill. He left the ministry in 1833, after collisions probably due to his intemperate zeal, and, serving for a time as ambassador at St. Petersburg, he returned to England to become again, in stirring speeches up and down the country, the hope of the Radicals, the terror of timid Whigs, and an object of aversion to all good old Tories. No political foe, however, denied the ability with which Lord Durham, caring nothing for conventional beliefs and ways, went straight to the core of political questions. When he went out to Canada as "Governor-General and High Commissioner", he had the great chance of his whole career. It was his remarkable fate to ruin his political prospects, to incur treatment at home which helped to bring him to his grave in the prime of life, and yet to win undying fame in the "Durham Report", which every Canadian history is bound to notice in connection with the most critical period of the country's constitutional life. It is his glory to have caused British statesmen at home to finally abandon the old colonial policy of regarding settlements and dependencies beyond the seas as existing in a large measure for the benefit of the mother-country. In winning political regeneration for the Canadas, Lord Durham was also laying the foundation of political success and social prosperity for other colonies

destined to become great in no distant future, for vast regions in South Africa and in Australasian seas.

Such was the man who, on May 27th, 1838, landed at Quebec. He was accompanied by two of the best authorities in England on the subject of colonization and colonial rule. Mr. Charles Buller, born in Calcutta in 1806, son of an Anglo-Indian official, and educated at Harrow and Cambridge, and for two years a private pupil at Edinburgh of Thomas Carlyle, was one of the philosophical Radicals of the school of Jeremy Bentham and the two Mills. His abilities and accomplishments, together with his lovable disposition, made him a favourite both inside and outside the House of Commons, of which he was a member from 1831 until his untimely death at the close of 1848. His skilful pen is generally understood to have given its literary form to the Report of his friend the High Commissioner. Lord Durham's private secretary and other adviser in his important work was Mr. Edward Gibbon Wakefield. This gentleman, ten years the senior of Buller, was son of a country gentleman in Essex. Trained for the Bar, he showed his slight regard, in 1826, for both morality and law by the audacious abduction of the daughter and heiress of the High Sheriff of Cheshire. The marriage between them, which was "solemnized" by the blacksmith at Gretna Green in Dumfriesshire, was dissolved by Act of Parliament, and the abductor underwent three years' imprisonment. Not many men would have risen so fairly as Wakefield after so disastrous and disgraceful a fall. His enforced retirement was employed in the zealous study of colonial affairs, constitutional questions, and the condition of the poor, on all of which subjects he became a copious writer. His *Letters from Sydney*, a book on Australian colonization, was so lifelike and true that nearly all readers assumed it to be a record of personal travel and experience. In 1833 his *View of the Art of Colonization* propounded his great principle of selling the public lands at an upset price, and the devotion of the proceeds to the aid of industrial immigration. His reputation for ability and for sound views on colonial questions was now established, and his selection as assistant in Lord Durham's task links the name of Wakefield with the establishment of self-government in Canada. The new Canadian dictator began his brief career by issuing a proclamation of excellent tone, in which he threatened punishment to all violators of existing

law, and invited the help of loyal colonists in framing a new system of government adapted to their needs. His next step was the one which laid him open to the successful attacks of virulent foes in both Houses of Parliament at home. The rebellion in Lower Canada was dying out, as recorded above, and eight of the leaders were in custody at Montreal. There were sixteen others, including Papineau, who had escaped out of British jurisdiction. On June 28th, the High Commissioner issued an ordinance whereby the prisoners in his hands were to be transported to Bermuda, while the punishment of death was appointed for any of them, or of those who had escaped, who should return to Canada without permission. A general amnesty had been accorded, and Lord Durham's dealing with the above exceptions was marked equally by boldness, mercy, and sound judgment. He knew that he could not, under the ordinary forms of law, find an unpacked jury in all Lower Canada that would convict the prisoners of treason. He could not leave them unpunished for their offence, and he got rid of them by the penalty of exile to another British possession. The misfortune was that, both in the banishment of men who had not been tried, and in the threat of capital punishment for return to Canada, Lord Durham was going beyond the bounds of British law and of the authority granted by the Act which had just been passed concerning Canadian affairs. He also took an arbitrary course in setting aside the existing Council, by five at least of whose members, according to the Act, every ordinance of his was to be signed, and substituting for it one of his own making, chiefly composed of his secretaries, Buller and Wakefield, and of other members of his staff. His conduct was fiercely assailed in both Houses, and the weak Ministry, severely bullied in the Lords by Brougham, on August 10th annulled Lord Durham's ordinance concerning the rebels. The High Commissioner's sensitive spirit was wounded to the quick, and he at once decided on resigning his post. Along with the issue, on October 9th, of a proclamation that declared the abrogation of his ordinance, he also published an appeal to the colonists against the conduct of the Government, justifying his own course and announcing his resignation. The *Times* newspaper, when the tidings reached England, styled him "the Lord High Seditious", and the Government visited this last imprudence by removal from his office. With characteristic self-will, Lord Durham

had already started for England without any leave sought or granted. When he landed at Plymouth, without any of the official honour usually shown to returning Governors, he was received with acclamations by the people, and John Stuart Mill, who afterwards claimed to be "one of the prompters of his prompters" in the policy propounded in the Report, published an article in the *Westminster Review* demanding praise and honour for the defeated and discredited statesman. The blow, however, was fatal to the man whose eager and passionate nature lacked that element of greatness which consists in the proud patience, the dignified resignation to the misjudgment of the hour, the calm acknowledgment of personal error in minor matters, wherewith men of supreme moral strength, conscious of high powers nobly employed, await the verdict of a later day. The chief founder of Canadian self-government, whose health had long been failing, died at Cowes, in the Isle of Wight, on July 28th, 1840, within a few days after the passing of the Canada Government Bill which embodied many of his suggested reforms.

Lord Durham's Report, based upon a careful examination of affairs not only in the two Canadas, but in New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland, conducted during the five months which elapsed before his departure on November 1st, 1838, was in great part prepared during the voyage home, and was published early in the following year. In regard to existing facts, the author declared that "in each and every Province the Representatives were in hostility to the policy of the Government, and the administration of public affairs was permanently in the hands of a ministry not in harmony with the popular branch of the Legislature". He found that in Lower Canada the contest was not one of classes but of races; that the only public occasion on which French and British colonists met was in the jury-box, and then they only met to the utter obstruction of justice; that the French *habitans*, so long under seigneurial rule, were very ignorant, and totally wanting in the art of self-government; that the slow and leisurely French Canadians were alarmed and repelled by the progressive spirit of the energetic British immigrants who took up abandoned farms and made them pay for cultivation, and, creating trade by their keen business faculties, were buying out the seigneurs from the soil. In Upper Canada, where the race-question scarcely existed, the hostility

of the people was directed against the enormous power of the oligarchy known as the "Family Compact", which had long filled the Bench, the magistracy, and the higher offices of the Episcopal Church, and reformers there desired to effect the responsibility of the Executive Council and to make them amenable to the popular will. In both provinces the question of the Clergy Reserves needed to be quickly settled. In regard to remedies, Lord Durham both laid down important principles and suggested definite measures of reform. He required that the colonists themselves should not only make but execute the laws under which they were to live, and that the Imperial Government should only regulate matters in which the interests of the mother-country were closely concerned, such as the form of government, foreign relations, trade, and the disposal of the public lands. Municipal institutions ought to be thoroughly established, and it might well be hoped that the exercise of local government, and an extension of the powers of representative rule, would give alertness and a progressive impulse to the most apathetic French Canadians. The independence of the judges should be secured; all officials, except the Governor and his secretary, should be made responsible to the colonial legislature; and all former legislation with respect to the reserves of land for the clergy ought to be repealed. In order to restore the balance of power between the French and English races, and to remove the commercial difficulties between Upper and Lower Canada, he proposed that the two provinces should be politically reunited and have one legislature, containing the representatives of both races and of all districts. The Report also suggested that other colonies in North America should, on their own request, and with the consent of Canada, be admitted to a federal legislative union therewith.

The influence of the Durham Report upon the Home Government is strikingly shown in a despatch of Lord John Russell, as Colonial Secretary, under date October 14th, 1839, to the Governor-General of Canada. This document, a constitutional charter of colonial government, embodies the accepted principles that regulate the connection between the mother-country and her chief dependencies inhabited by subjects mainly of the British race. "The Queen's Government", it is declared, "have no wish to make the provinces of British North America the resource of patronage at

home. . . . Her Majesty has no desire to maintain any system in policy among her North American subjects which opinion condemns. In receiving the Queen's commands to protest against any declaration at variance with the honour of the Crown and the unity of the Empire, I am instructed to announce Her Majesty's gracious intention to look to the affectionate attachment of her people in North America as the best security for permanent dominion No official misconduct should be screened by Her Majesty's representative in the Provinces; and no private interests should be allowed to compete with the general good." This excellent official paper then insists on the necessity of the Governor-General maintaining the harmony of the executive with the legislative authorities, and, pointing to the absolute need, for the very existence of a political constitution in which different bodies share the supreme power, of forbearance on the part of those amongst whom this power is distributed, the Whig statesman warns the Queen's representative against opposing the wishes of the Legislative Assembly except where the honour of the Crown or the interests of the Empire are deeply concerned, and requires the Assembly to refrain from disturbing all political relations, embarrassing trade, and retarding the prosperity of the people, by employing its power of refusing supplies. The Governor-General to whom these words of wisdom were addressed was the successor of Sir John Colborne. Mr. Charles Powlett Thompson, a man too little remembered in this generation, was a merchant who had risen to be President of the Board of Trade, in which capacity he proved himself to be a statesman of liberal views, a pioneer of Free Trade, an able financier, and a man of admirable judgment and tact. His prudence and skill were employed in overcoming local objections to the legislative union of the two Canadian provinces, and the draft of a Bill based upon the resolutions of their two legislatures was submitted to the Home Government and, passing the Imperial Parliament, received the royal assent in July, 1840.

This Canadian Union Act provided for a Legislative Council of not less than twenty life-members appointed by the Crown; for a Legislative Assembly of eighty-four members elected by the people, with an equal number from each province; and for an Executive Council of eight members, to hold office, like a ministry, only so long as its measures were supported by a majority of the

Legislative Assembly. In place of the territorial and other revenues previously held by the Crown, a permanent civil list of £75,000 was established for the payment of all official salaries and other civil service expenses. The people thus acquired the control, through their chosen representatives, of all the public revenues, and the judges were made independent of the annual votes of the Assembly. Mr. Thompson, raised to the peerage as Baron Sydenham, of Sydenham in Kent and of Toronto, found himself charged with the important work of inaugurating the new Canadian constitution, which came into effect, by proclamation, on February 10th, 1841, the first anniversary of the young Queen's marriage. We may here note the limitations which, both in theory and in fact, existed upon perfect freedom for the Canadian people, as conceived and desired by advanced reformers. The Legislative Council was not made elective, and might check legislation by throwing out measures passed in the Lower House. The Governor still had much real power, in being the nominee of the Crown, invested with the right of initiating all bills for appropriating any part of the revenues. The Imperial Government retained its hold over the Crown-lands, and a special clause in the Act withheld from the decision of the colonial legislature several subjects, including the Clergy Reserves, provided for in legislation of George the Third's reign. In spite of all defects and reservations, however, the progress made towards self-government was far beyond anything hitherto seen in colonial affairs, and was of good augury for the future of the Queen's dominions in North America. The spirit of the Home Government at this time was shown when Lord Sydenham opened the first united Parliament of Canada, on June 13th, 1841, at Kingston, on the north-east shore of Lake Ontario. He informed the Legislature that, in order "to maintain the utmost possible harmony, he had been instructed to call to his counsels and to employ in the public service those persons who, by their position and character, have obtained the general confidence and esteem of the inhabitants of the province".

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY OF CANADA (1841 TO THE PRESENT TIME).

Administrations of Lords Sydenham and Metcalfe—Earl of Elgin Governor-General—Concessions to the colonists—Irish immigrants—Opposition to the Rebellion Losses Bill—Rioting in Montreal—Lord Elgin's firmness—A new era opens to Canada—Expansion of trade—Continued reforms—Reciprocity Treaty with the United States—Provision by the colonists for self-defence—Sketch of Sir John Alexander Macdonald—Ottawa becomes the seat of government—Codification of the statute law—Proposed federation of North American states—An historic conference—The Dominion of Canada established—Its constitution—Local government in each province—Material progress—Growth of population—Railways and shipping—Relations with the United States—The Reciprocity Treaty not renewed—Fenian troubles—The fisheries question—Popularity of Lord Dufferin—Education and temperance—Marquis of Lorne Governor-General—Canadian Pacific Railway—The fisheries question again raised—Improved ocean service—Population—Death of Sir John Thompson—Great Intercolonial Conference.

Lord Sydenham, during his too brief tenure of office as Governor-General, not only acted with excellent effect as a mediator between conflicting parties, but guided the new legislative bodies in useful measures concerning the customs, the currency, public works, education, and the establishment of municipal government in boroughs and in the form of district and county councils. The hand and judgment of an expert were being felt in the construction of new political machinery. The new parliament was soon actively engaged on legislation, including the excellent system of local government which transferred the control of affairs from Quarter Sessions to bodies elected by popular vote. In September, 1841, Canada and the empire sustained a serious loss in the death of Lord Sydenham, due to shock to a system naturally weak and impaired by public toils. In his forty-second year he succumbed to the fracture of a leg caused by the fall of his horse, and he was buried, by his own request, at Kingston, among the people to whom he had devoted the last efforts of his life, in the country with whose history his name must be ever, and with high honour, associated. His successor, Sir Charles Bagot, in power only from January, 1842, until his death at Kingston in May, 1843, recognized the important constitutional principle that the administration should be controlled by the parliamentary majority. The next Governor, Sir Charles (afterwards Lord) Metcalfe, has been seen as acting Governor-General of India in 1835-36, and will

appear hereafter in this record as ruling in Jamaica antecedent to his period of office in Canada. Lord Macaulay, in the eloquent epitaph on his friend, claims for him that in a country "not yet recovered from the calamities of civil war, he reconciled contending factions to each other, and to the mother-country". Of Metcalfe's munificent liberality, other personal virtues, and high popularity in British North America, no doubt can be entertained. He seems, however, to have held somewhat high notions of prerogative, reserving to himself the selection of the Executive, and thereby causing, on one occasion, the retirement of ministers who commanded a majority in the Legislative Assembly. In 1844, the seat of government was removed to Montreal. In November, 1845, Lord Metcalfe, suffering from the terrible malady, cancer in the face, returned to England only to die, and power was, for twelve months, in the hands of Lord Cathcart, the commander-in-chief in Canada, who remained wisely neutral between two evenly-balanced political parties during hot disputes concerning a measure for indemnifying the loyalists of Upper Canada for losses incurred during the rebellion.

It was early in 1847 that the Earl of Elgin, whom we have seen in China and India, and shall meet again in Jamaica, at a prior period of his distinguished career, became Governor-General of Canada. He had been just married to a daughter of Lord Durham, and he showed, during his eight years' tenure of office, that he was thoroughly imbued with the doctrines and the principles of colonial government set forth in the deceased statesman's Report. Those principles were now applied, by a man of thoroughly sound judgment, conciliatory manners, and commanding ability, with a firmness and an impartiality which, in somewhat troublous times, did much to render Canada a loyal and contented land. He carried with him instructions from the Home Government "to act generally upon the advice of his Executive Council, and to receive as members of that body those persons who might be pointed out to him as entitled to be so by their possessing the confidence of the Legislative Assembly". When the Parliament met in June, the new Governor had to announce that the Imperial authorities were giving up the control of the Canadian Post-Office department, and that the provincial legislature was now empowered to repeal the differential duties on imported goods which had

hitherto favoured British manufactures. This concession was followed by a surrender of all control over the Civil List, and by the throwing open to colonists of many posts which had been held by nominees of the Crown. Among the difficulties which confronted Lord Elgin early in his period of rule were colonial jealousies caused by race-antipathy and by the indemnity-question due to the rebellion; the obstruction of a "British party" which professed devotion to the interests of the mother-country; and the influx of vast numbers of helpless Irish emigrants, fever-stricken, penniless, well-nigh starving, who had been driven from their homes by the potato-famine. Above 70,000 of these hapless persons arrived at Quebec by the end of the first week in August, and, in spite of every effort made by public and private charity, 4000 quickly succumbed to exposure and disease. Acting as a mediator and moderator between politicians of all shades of opinion, and supporting only such ministers and measures as obtained the approval of the Assembly, the new Governor, during his first year of office, saw comparative harmony and peace prevail. The old Tories of the British party were pleased by the possession of power. The Liberals, including the French party, welcomed a man who declared, when he was sworn in, that he had frankly adopted Lord Durham's views of colonial government. All men were delighted with a young, vigorous, and genial Governor-General who could endure the hardest official work, and cheerfully face long and toilsome journeys in the depth of a Canadian winter; who was ready with replies to sudden addresses, was the best public speaker in the whole province, and was able freely to discuss affairs with the French Canadians in their own tongue. A change came o'er the spirit of his dream, and days of calm were followed by a storm of trouble. The general election of January, 1848, sent a large Reform majority to the Assembly, including the pardoned rebels Papineau and Dr. Wolfred Nelson. The "old British" party fell from power, and the French or "rebel" politicians, for the first time in the constitutional history of Canada, obtained the full control of affairs. "Responsible government" was at last vindicated by the existence of an Executive Council of whose eleven members four were French, while the seven British members included such sturdy reformers as Robert Baldwin and Francis Hincks.

Lord Elgin was now called upon to endure the bitter enmity of an Opposition deprived of a sway which they had come to regard as their vested right, and composed of men who looked on him as a traitor to the British cause in having given a fair field to the alien French. All forms of Canadian discontent gathered around this hostile party, and especially those who hated the free trade established by the legislation of Sir Robert Peel. The chief battle-ground was to be the Rebellion Losses Bill for indemnifying those who had suffered by the outbreak in Lower Canada. In Upper Canada, both Conservatives and Reformers objected to this measure, and there were some who even signed an address for annexation to the United States rather than contribute to any "pay to rebels", as the phrase went. The Bill, introduced by the ministry in January, 1849, was carried through the Assembly, after long and vehement debates, by a majority of 48 to 32, and received the assent of the Legislative Council. The British party had already stooped so low as to show annoyance when the Governor-General, on opening the session, had delivered his speech both in English and French. Their wrath was kindled to the utmost when, as a constitutional ruler of Canada, he declined to veto the Bill, or to dissolve the Parliament, or to reserve the matter for the consideration of the Home Government. On April 26th he gave his assent to the measure at the Parliament House, Montreal, and was hooted and pelted, by a well-dressed mob, when he quitted the building, which was afterwards set on fire and burned to the ground. The portrait of the Queen was rescued by Sir Allan McNab, but the public records and the splendid library of many thousands of valuable books perished in the flames. The houses of the premier, Mr. Lafontaine, and of Mr. Baldwin, Mr. Hincks, Dr. Wolfred Nelson, and other prominent members of the Liberal party, were attacked, and only the bayonets of a strong military guard prevented the storming of Government House where Lord Elgin and the ministers were assembled in council. Four days later, when the Governor-General drove into the city to receive an address from the Assembly, he narrowly escaped personal injury from showers of stones which shattered every panel of his carriage and severely wounded his brother and aide-de-camp, Colonel Bruce. The infamous and ruffianly violence of the infuriated "loyalists" had succeeded in

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destroying the legislative halls and much other valuable property, and had come near to slaying the representative of the Queen. In one thing, however, they signally failed. They never shook the nerves of the high-souled man whom she had sent to administer in Canada the constitutional rule which, under her benignant sway, was enjoyed by the people of the British Isles. Throughout this crisis he displayed perfect calmness and courage, insisting in his despatches to the Home Government that no concessions should be made to violence, and declining to enter the capital with any military force, lest the rioters should seize an opportunity for causing bloodshed. He had his reward not only in the esteem of all good men then living and in posthumous renown, but in the instant and complete approval of his action by the highest authorities of his own country. When he expressed his readiness to resign office if such a course were deemed beneficial to the Queen's service, he was assured by Lord Grey, the minister in charge of colonial affairs, that he possessed the complete confidence of the Crown, and that the Queen begged him to retain his post. The matter was hotly debated in the House of Commons, where the Prime Minister, Lord John Russell, declared that the best judge of the questions to be referred to the Home Government was the colonial Governor, and that in the case of the Rebellion Losses Bill his judgment had been good. The seat of government for Canada was finally removed from Montreal, being transferred for the next two years to Toronto, with an arrangement that Quebec and Toronto should afterwards be alternate capitals every four years.

During the rest of his term of office, until he quitted Canada in December, 1854, Lord Elgin showed the same firmness, impartiality, and tact in the management of parties, alike resolved to let the country be governed by the expressed and deliberate will of a majority of the parliamentary electors, and to maintain the Imperial authority both against men who advocated annexation with the United States, and "philosophic" politicians who believed that the natural end of a constitutional monarchy was development into an independent republic. With the details of Canadian party-strife we have here no concern, and need only note the advances made in the prosperous path of constitutional freedom and of a sound fiscal policy. In 1850, the British North American colonies had entered on a new era, and

were almost arrived at political manhood. The Home Government now reserved only the right of disallowing any legislation opposed to Imperial interests, and, on the other hand, they assumed the burden of colonial defence. Canada was thus one of the most lightly taxed and favourably treated countries in the world, offering great inducements to the influx of capital and immigration, with results to her prosperity to be shortly noticed. The repeal of the Corn-laws had thrown British markets open to any surplus of Canadian grain. Foreign manufactures, as above noticed, were in 1847 allowed to enter the country at the same rate of duties as British-made goods. The repeal of the Navigation Laws, in 1849, removed the only remaining barrier of Protection, and the waters of the St. Lawrence were thrown open to the shipping of all nations. The competition of American vessels, which could now be registered in British ports, and share with the colonial shipping in the carrying-trade to and from the British Isles, caused a temporary Canadian depression, but energy, enterprise, and self-reliance soon restored matters for colonists who could now trade freely with any part of the world, import as they pleased, fix their own tariffs, and develop home-manufactures. In 1852, the growth of population caused an Act which raised the number of members of the Legislative Assembly from 84 to 130, equally divided between the provinces, Upper and Lower Canada, with a more equitable distribution of seats. In 1853 the Home Government made another concession to colonial feeling in formally surrendering, for decision by the Canadian Legislature, the long-standing question of the Clergy Reserves, with strict protection for the life-interests of existing claimants. In the following year the matter was finally settled by an Act which established the principle of religious equality. The lands were sold, and the proceeds, after provision made for existing claims, were divided amongst the municipalities, according to population, for purposes of education or local improvement. In the same session, an urgent matter, solely concerning Lower Canada, was also dealt with. Seigneurial tenure was abolished, with all its feudal absurdities and restrictions on agricultural enterprise, the seigneurs being bought out, with all their vested rights and privileges, partly at the cost of occupiers and partly at the charge of the State. Freehold tenure thus became the rule throughout the country, with great benefit to the progress of tillage and trade. In June, 1854, Lord Elgin crowned his career

of good service to the Canadas by concluding, with the Government of the United States, the long-mooted Reciprocity Treaty, which provided for the free interchange, between the two countries, of all products of the sea, the soil, the forest, and the mine. This arrangement, which was to continue in force for ten years from March, 1855, and then be terminable on twelve months' notice from either side, opened all the Canadian fisheries to Americans, and yielded to Canada the navigation of Lake Michigan. The waters of the St. Lawrence, the St. John, and the canals were also at the service of citizens of the United States on the same terms as for British subjects. The effect of this free-trade policy on Canadian commerce was such that, in the first year after the treaty came into operation, the value of her dealings with the States rose from a little over $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling to nearly thrice that amount.

At the close of 1854, Lord Elgin was followed by Sir Edmund Head, a gentleman who, after a distinguished career at Winchester School and at Oriel College, Oxford, succeeded his father in a baronetcy, served as a Poor-Law Commissioner, and held the lieutenant-governorship of New Brunswick during the same period that saw Lord Elgin ruling in Canada. A man of admirable attainments and taste in art, scholarship, and literature, Head was also possessed of considerable skill as an administrator, and Canada made good progress during his seven years' term of office. In 1855, the colonists who were claiming, and were soon to attain, an even larger measure of self-government, made provision for more efficient self-defence. A new Militia Act caused the enrolment of large volunteer-forces, and provided for the due organization, command, and equipment of the troops. The martial spirit of the country was shown, in Sir Edmund Head's time, by the raising of the Royal Canadians, or 100th Regiment of the line, the first colonial contribution to the British army, and a feeling of the utmost loyalty was displayed, both in words and in contributions to the Patriotic Fund, towards the mother-country during the Crimean War. In 1856, with the Parliament sitting at Toronto, the Reform party gained another victory, with a Conservative cabinet in office, by carrying a Bill which made the Legislative Council, the second or upper chamber, an elective body. It will be remembered that the constitution of 1841 had retained the members in the position of nominees of the Crown. Existing councillors were to keep their seats for life, but twelve

new members were to be biennially chosen, to hold office for the term of eight years. This elective character of the Council did not, however, prove to be an enduring element in the Canadian constitution. It was at this time that the most distinguished of Canadian statesmen attained a leading position in the Conservative party. Sir John Alexander Macdonald, according to the title which he earned, was descended from a Scottish Highland family, and, being born in Glasgow in January, 1815, went out, five years later, with his parents to Canada. The young emigrant was educated at the grammar-school of Kingston, in Ontario, and after brilliant success at the bar, he was chosen to represent that town in the Legislative Assembly, retaining the seat from 1844 until 1878. His combination of administrative skill with rare political sagacity and tact, knowledge of constitutional law, ability in debate, powerful eloquence, fascination of manner, ready and daring wit, old-fashioned courtesy, love of books, and power of abstraction, render him one of the most eminent men that the Empire has ever produced. The creation of the Dominion of Canada and of the Canadian Pacific Railway, largely due to his energetic support, were the principal achievements of the man who cherished a noble and inspiring faith in the destinies of the British people, and their immeasurable power for good in the world. His heretical notions on the subject of free-trade caused him to adopt, even against the productions of Great Britain, a policy of protection for native industries. Ranking as a Conservative statesman, Sir John Macdonald went beyond many of the self-styled Liberals and Radicals in his conciliatory attitude towards the French population of Canada. After holding the offices of Receiver-General (1847), Commissioner of Crown-lands (1847-48), and Attorney-General for Upper Canada (1854-56), he succeeded Sir Allan M'Nab as Conservative leader and premier in 1856, and was again Attorney-General from 1858 to 1862 and 1864 to 1867. In July of this last year he became the first premier of the new Dominion, holding the offices of Minister of Justice and Attorney-General of Canada until his resignation in 1873. Rising again to power in 1878, he remained one of the most prominent figures in Canadian politics until his death in 1891, when the Queen, who had previously bestowed on the great Canadian the honours of a privy-councillor, and of a Grand Cross of the Bath, raised his widow to the peerage as Baroness Macdonald of Earnsccliffe.

After this brief digression in order to complete our account of the rising statesman of the period now under review, we note the adoption of Ottawa, in 1858, as the Canadian seat of government. The choice was the Queen's, exercised according to resolutions passed by both Canadian Houses, begging her to settle a much-disputed question, and it has been amply justified in the suitability of a city whose geographical position commands steam-traffic both by road and river, and is equally aloof from the local jealousies of Upper and Lower Canada. Among other notable men of this epoch were Mr. George Brown, born at Edinburgh in 1821, an energetic, eloquent, and indomitable reformer who advocated the principles of "representation by population", and of a federation; the late Sir Alexander T. Galt, the eminent financier, a son of John Galt, the Ayrshire novelist and friend of Byron; and Mr. (afterwards Sir) George Cartier, who formed, with Macdonald as premier, the Macdonald-Cartier ministry in November, 1857. Cartier, a lineal descendant of the nephews of Jacques Cartier, the discoverer of Canada, was a distinguished lawyer of high character, an excellent speaker both in English and French, and vastly popular with the French Canadians. The session of 1859 was made useful by the codification of the statute-law of Upper and Lower Canada. The following year was remarkable for the visit of the Prince of Wales, who received a most enthusiastic welcome, and brought the progress of Canada before the world in a striking fashion when he drove the last rivet of the great Victoria Railway Bridge at Montreal, and laid the foundation-stone of the new Parliament buildings at Ottawa.

In October, 1861, Sir Edmund Head was succeeded as Governor-General by Viscount Monck, an Irish peer, who had sat for some years in the House of Commons, and had held office under Lord Palmerston. He proved himself to be a truly constitutional ruler, perfectly neutral in reference to contending political parties, and he is regarded as the man who finally established the true relation of the colonial Governor to the colonial constitution. The question of the federal union of our North American states was now prominent. As far back as 1849, a "North American League" held a meeting at Toronto in favour of confederation. In 1854, the Legislative Assembly of Nova Scotia had passed resolutions urging a closer connection of the British provinces. Three years later, the Nova

Scotians pressed the matter on Mr. Labouchere, the Colonial Secretary. The movement in Canada was closely connected with the Upper Canadian demand for representation according to numbers. We shall see from figures hereafter given that the upper province had grown in population far more rapidly than the lower, and it seemed to be unfair that, with a considerable excess in numbers, and contributing the larger part of the public revenue, Upper Canada should have only an equal parliamentary representation, and an equal amount expended on her needful public works. The jealous feeling of the Lower Canadians, backed by the solid vote of their representatives in the Legislative Assembly, obstructed the efforts of the Upper Canadian members, and the evenly-balanced condition of parties brought about five changes of ministry between May, 1862, and June, 1864.

It became clear that the only way of issue from the difficulty was a federal union, and a coalition-government, including Brown, Macdonald, and Galt, was formed with the object of such a settlement. The Governments of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island had appointed delegates to meet at Charlottetown, in Prince Edward Island, in September, 1864, in order to arrange the terms of a legislative union of those maritime provinces. The Canadian Government, at their own request, were allowed to be there represented, and eight delegates, including Macdonald, Brown, Cartier, and Galt, went down the St. Lawrence to put forward the views of the River provinces. The smaller scheme was thenceforth merged in the larger, and it was arranged that a conference should be held, in the following month, at Quebec. On October 10th, under the presidency of Sir E. P. Taché, the Canadian premier, 33 leading men from the six provinces began a session of eighteen days' deliberation, with closed doors, in a chamber of the Parliament buildings. The Canadas were represented by twelve members of all shades of political opinion; New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island each sent seven; Nova Scotia, five; and Newfoundland, two. This historic gathering was one of peculiar interest and importance. Side by side, with a common country and a common cause, sate in peaceful debate, "beneath the shadow of Cape Diamond, on the site of the old castle of St. Louis, with the broad St. Lawrence stretching away in front, the Plains of Abraham in sight, and the St. Charles wind-

ing its silvery course through scenes replete with the memories of old France", the descendants of those men of two great and gallant races who had there fought, in opposing ranks, in days now above a century past, beneath the lilies of France and the cross of St. George. Chosen for their work by parliaments of popular election, they were assembled, with the sanction of their sovereign, to lay the foundations of a new state in which legislative union for great common interests should exist along with provincial autonomy, or the local self-government which could best find remedies for local evils. They were to decide whether the vast region in which they dwelt should be consolidated into "a State combining within its area all the elements of national greatness, providing for the security of its component parts, and contributing to the strength and stability of the empire, or whether the several provinces should remain in their present fragmentary and isolated condition, comparatively powerless for mutual aid, and incapable of undertaking their proper share of imperial responsibility". In the arduous work of harmonizing conflicting interests, and removing local difficulties, the members of this conference were sustained by an outburst of loyal enthusiasm, kindled by the thought of unification, in which political feuds were for the time forgotten under the ennobling and elevating influence of the national feeling which pervaded all ranks of the community. The close of the sittings was followed by public banquets to the delegates at Quebec, Montreal, Ottawa, Toronto, and other towns, where the leading men of every class and profession vied in showing honour to the guests. As the general outline of the scheme became known, it was received in Canada with almost unanimous favour as containing the germ of a new and vigorous national life. In the words of Dr. Withrow, an able Canadian historian, "the bonds of a common allegiance to the sovereign, and of common sympathies and interests, were recognized. The restraints of local impediments upon free intercolonial trade were felt to be increasingly irksome. The differences of productions and industries in the several provinces made their union seem all the more necessary for the greater prosperity of all. The wheat-fields and lumber interests of Canada needed, and were needed by, the fisheries and mines and shipping of the maritime provinces. The magnificent waterways of the west furnished unrivalled facilities for commercial relations with the east; but the

lack of a winter seaport made an intercolonial railway, and the harbours of St. John and Halifax, necessary to the development of Canadian trade. A federal central government also promised to lift politics above the level of a jealous conflict between parties into that of a patriotic ambition for the prosperity of the whole country, and for the development of a vigorous national life; and the local legislatures offered a guarantee for self-government in the domestic affairs of each province. The long-continued demand of Upper Canada for representation by population would be granted in the constitution of the central parliament, and the jealousy of the French population of Lower Canada for their religion, language, and laws, would be appeased by their numerical representation in their local legislature."

Such were the views on confederation generally held in the two Canadas, and the seventy-two resolutions passed at the Quebec Conference, and forming the basis of the subsequent Confederation Act, were agreed to by both Houses in March, 1865, when they voted an address to the Queen, praying her to submit to the Imperial Parliament a measure "for the purpose of uniting the provinces" in accordance therewith. There was, however, for some time considerable opposition in the maritime provinces. In New Brunswick, at a general election, all candidates who had been Quebec delegates from that province were rejected at the polls, and a strong anti-confederation party existed in Nova Scotia. The powerful support of the cause of confederation by leading Conservatives and Liberals at home, and a change of feeling in New Brunswick, expressed at a new election, with financial concessions to Nova Scotian opponents, issued in the despatch to London of 16 delegates, in December, 1866, representing Upper and Lower Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. The result of the Westminster Palace Conference was seen in the passing, in March, 1867, of the "British North America Act", whereby, from July 1st, the above provinces were to form one Dominion, under the name of Canada. That day, as "Dominion Day", is now observed as a public holiday throughout the whole of the Queen's dominions on the mainland of North America and on the Pacific coast. In order to describe the existing form of government in the Canadian Dominion, we may so far anticipate matters as to state that, in accordance with provision made in the Act of 1867, the Confedera-

tion, starting with the four provinces Quebec (or Lower Canada), Ontario (or Upper Canada), Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, was joined in 1870 by the new province called Manitoba. In 1871, British Columbia (with Vancouver Island), and in 1873, Prince Edward Island, were admitted. Three years later, the North-West Territories became a Province of the Dominion, and in 1880, by an Order in Council, all British provinces in North America (other than Newfoundland), not previously included in Canada, were annexed to the Dominion.

The Canadian constitution was without precedent in the history of the British Empire in so far that it interwove federal principles with monarchical institutions, and strove to combine methods of government adopted from the constitutions both of the mother-country and of the United States or of Switzerland. Its foundation was a great political act which carried into practice the eloquent words of Burke uttered in his historical speech on "Conciliation with America", when he insisted on likeness of privileges and equality of political rights for colonists as essential to the unity and cohesion of the empire. Monarchical forms and supreme authority in Great Britain became co-existent with the free working of democracy in the Dominion, and the experience of nearly a generation seems to display the successful grafting of a new growth upon the old stem. The Governor-General, with a salary of £10,000 a-year, is assisted by a body called the Queen's Privy Council, consisting of fourteen members, acting as ministers or heads of departments, or, in one or two cases, "without portfolio", who must all be maintained in office by a parliamentary majority. In the Governor-General, as the direct representative of the British sovereign, lie the executive power of the law, the appointment of Provincial Lieutenant-Governors and of judges, the chief command of the military and naval forces, the assent needful to turn "Bills" into "Acts", and the right of commuting sentences passed in courts of justice. The Parliament consists of two chambers, the Senate and the House of Commons. The Senate is a body replacing the former Legislative Council, as it existed, before 1856, in its non-elective form. It resembles what our House of Lords would be if it consisted of life-peers only, all at least 30 years of age, removable for misconduct, and nominated by the Crown as representative, in fixed numbers, of special dis-

tricts. In other words, the Canadian Senate is composed of members appointed by the Governor-General for the several provinces, with the proviso that each member must reside in the province for and from which he is summoned by writ issued under the great seal of Canada. He must also have a qualification consisting of personal or real property, clear of debt, to the value of at least 4000 dollars (or £800) in the province for which he holds his seat. The Speaker of the Senate is appointed by the Crown, and may vote on all questions, with only a negative vote when the House is equally divided. The number of senators, which has varied from time to time, both in the total and in the proportion for each province, according to changes in the population as disclosed by decennial census, now amounts to 81, namely, 24 for Ontario, 24 for Quebec, 10 each from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, 4 each from Prince Edward Island and Manitoba, 3 from British Columbia, and 2 from the North-West Territories. The House of Commons, which has also been adjusted in accordance with changes in population, may sit for five years, and is now composed of 213 members, namely, 92 for Ontario, 65 for Quebec, 20 for Nova Scotia, 14 for New Brunswick, 7 for Manitoba, 6 for British Columbia, 5 for Prince Edward Island, and 4 for the North-West Territories. The franchise for the whole Dominion is uniform, except in the North-West Territories, and consists of a vote given to every male of full age with a moderate qualification as owner, tenant, or occupier of real property, or as receiver of income from earnings or investments, or as son of a farmer or any other owner of real property in value sufficient to qualify two persons, or as a fisherman owning real property and gear together to the value of £30. In the Territories, every male of full age, not an Indian or alien, may vote after a residence of 12 months. Voting is by ballot, except in the Territories. The members both of the Senate and of the House of Commons receive pay for attendance and for travelling expenses. This House elects its own Speaker, voting only when the House is equally divided; debates may be in either English or French, but the proceedings are recorded in both languages. All money-bills (measures affecting taxation or revenue) must be recommended by a message from the Governor-General, and can be introduced only in the House of Commons. The Dominion or federal Parliament deals with all matters concerning

the collective interests of all the Provinces, such as the public debt and property; expenditure and public loans; customs and excise-duties; trade and commerce; navigation, shipping, and fisheries; the naval, military, and postal services; banking, currency, coinage, insolvency, and all other monetary and financial affairs of general importance; patents, copyright, the census, statistics; marriage, divorce, and criminal procedure; the provision of salaries for civil and other officers of the Dominion; lighthouses and harbours, beacons, buoys, and quarantine; naturalization, aliens, Indians and Indian Reserves; public works, railways, and canals.

It is in the possession, on the part of each Province, of a separate parliament and administration for its local affairs, that the Canadian constitution resembles that of the United States. For each Province of the Dominion the Governor-General appoints a Lieutenant-Governor to hold office for five years. He is assisted by an Executive Council composed of the chief officials who possess the confidence of the provincial Assembly. Bills passed by the provincial legislatures require the assent of the Lieutenant-Governor, and may be disallowed within a year by the Governor-General. The local legislatures in Quebec, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island have each two chambers, an elected Assembly which may sit for four years, and a Legislative Council nominated by the Crown. In New Brunswick, Ontario, Manitoba, British Columbia, and the North-West Territories there is only one chamber, the Legislative Assembly; the number of members in the elective provincial chambers varies from 94 in Ontario to 26 in the Territories. In all the Provinces the ministry is responsible to the Assembly, and in the Territories the executive, composed of four members, is also chosen by that body. The matters within the scope and control of the provincial legislatures include direct taxation within the Province; local loans, public works and improvements; municipal affairs; education, justice, local institutions for criminal affairs and charitable purposes; licenses, and the appointment and maintenance of provincial officers. Before leaving this subject, we may note that the acting portion of the Privy Council or Ministry, of the Dominion at present includes a Premier (also President of Council), with a salary of £1600 yearly, and the following 11 chief officials, or heads of departments, each paid £1400 per annum:—a Minister of Trade and Commerce: of

Finance; of Marine and Fisheries; of Railways and Canals; of Public Works; of Militia and Defence; of the Interior; of Agriculture; a Postmaster-General; a Secretary of State; and a Minister of Justice (and Attorney-General). There are two members of the Ministry without any specified official duties. Lord Monck became the first Governor-General of the newly-constituted Dominion, and Sir John Alexander Macdonald, with Cartier and Galt among his colleagues, was the first Premier. Before proceeding with the general history of the Dominion, we must retrace our steps to observe the material progress made up to this time.

The growth of population, mainly due to immigrants from the British Isles, was rapid and continuous. Political enfranchisement, followed by the reign of peace and order, allowed the expansion and prosperity due to unchecked human enterprise and effort. In the lack of precise figures, the population of Upper and Lower Canada, in 1841, may be estimated at about 1,100,000. In 1851, these two provinces had over 1,840,000, Upper Canada now, with 952,000, for the first time showing a greater population than Lower Canada, with 890,000. Ten years more roll away, and Upper and Lower Canada contain, in 1861, above $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions, of which the upper province has nearly 1,400,000. At the same time, New Brunswick just exceeded $\frac{1}{4}$ million; Nova Scotia had 331,000 and Prince Edward Island 81,000, making a grand total, for all the provinces, of 3,171,000. Another decade passes, and in 1871 the Dominion (Quebec, Ontario, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia) contains nearly $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions, while Prince Edward Island has 94,000, and the new provinces of British Columbia and Manitoba respectively show over 36,000 and nearly 19,000. During the forty years between 1831 and 1871, the annual increase had averaged 70,000. The great strides made in education are noticed in another part of this record. The railway era of Canada fairly began in 1850, when Lady Elgin turned the first sod of the Northern Railway, an event followed, in 1851, by the adoption, under the Colonial control of the Post-Office, of the uniform charge of threepence per half-ounce for letters. In the next year, the Grand Trunk Railway, connecting the tidal waters of the St. Lawrence with the great lakes, was taken in hand, and the Great Western Railway was planned to join the United States systems at the Niagara and Detroit rivers. At the first of the

great International Exhibitions, the Crystal Palace display in Hyde Park, London, in 1851, Canadian products made a creditable show. The commerce of Quebec and Montreal was greatly developed through the establishment, in 1852, of speedy and regular steam-communication with the British Isles in the famous Allan line of vessels. This enterprise, aided by the Canadian Government, was mainly due to the energy of Mr (afterwards Sir) Hugh Allan, born at Saltcoats, in Ayrshire, in 1810. His father was a successful trader between the Clyde and Montreal. The son went out to Canada in 1826, and having inherited the sire's ability and liking for the shipping business, he created, with his brothers, a large shipping interest at Montreal. The fortnightly steamers soon ran weekly, and long before his death in 1882, Sir Hugh's firm were possessors of one of the largest steam-fleets afloat, as well as of a great number of sailing-vessels. The transaction of business was greatly facilitated by the introduction and extension of the electric telegraph, culminating in 1866 in the cable-communication with Europe. The second London Exhibition, in 1862, gave Canada another opportunity, well employed, of displaying her valuable products from the field and the orchard, the forest and the mine. The growth of municipal institutions, creating an interest in the local direction of public affairs, greatly fostered improvement and enterprise. The establishment, in 1852, of the Municipal Loan Fund for Upper Canada, afterwards extended to the lower Province, enabled the local authorities to raise money for works of great and permanent value in the form of bridges, roads, and railways, and the introduction of capital and its profitable use were promoted in the formation of joint-stock companies and the development of banking. In 1854, the customs-duties, at the average rate of 12 per cent, reached nearly 5 millions sterling, and the total public revenue exceeded 6 millions, with an expenditure of only a little more than 4 millions.

The country, like all other great and civilized communities, where the very existence of highly developed methods of locomotion and production includes the increased possibility of mischief, had her share of disastrous events. Apart from destructive conflagrations in town and forest, to be elsewhere noticed, we may here refer to the first railway-accident that ever happened in Canada, a tragedy which slew about 70 persons, on March 12th,

1856, when a train on its course from Toronto to Hamilton, on the north-west shore of Lake Ontario, plunged through an open draw-bridge in the Desjardens Canal. A still worse fatality came on June 26th, 1857, on the lower course of the St. Lawrence, when the steamer *Montreal*, carrying Scottish emigrants, took fire opposite Cape Rouge, near Quebec, and burned to the water's edge with the loss of 250 lives. The assassination of the Hon. Thomas D'Arcy McGee, on April 7th, 1868, was perpetrated at an early hour in the morning by a Fenian fanatic, Patrick Whelan, who shot the eloquent statesman as he entered his hotel on returning from the House of Commons at Ottawa. Mr. McGee, a former Irish patriot, who had shared in the schemes of Mitchel and Meagher elsewhere related, became member for West Montreal in 1858, and held office in several Canadian ministries. He was one of the ablest and most earnest advocates of confederation, representing his adopted country both at the Charlottetown and the Quebec conferences, in 1864. His death was nationally mourned, and the victim was honoured by a grand public funeral. The arrest, trial, and conviction of the assassin sent him finally to the gallows.

In foreign affairs, the United States, as a great and powerful neighbour with a common frontier extending over thousands of miles, is the only country in the world that has been, or is likely to be, in any intimate relations with Canada. We may here take a brief review of matters in this direction subsequent to the Union Act of 1841. The conclusion of the Reciprocity Treaty in 1854 had, as already hinted, a vast effect on international trade. The products of Canada in cattle and corn at once acquired a higher value, and her ship-builders, millers, and manufacturers in various lines, felt the change alike with the breeders of stock, the growers of wool, and the tillers of the soil. In the railway era, on the eastern seaboard, Halifax and St. John became connected with Portland, in the State of Maine, and thereby with the railway-lines of the United States in that portion of her vast dominions. In 1857, a commercial panic in the States acted with severe effect on the financial interests of Canada, a state of affairs which was aggravated by a comparative failure of the wheat-crop, and by over-speculation in imports, stocks, and land-enterprises. The outbreak of the Civil War in the States, between "North" and "South",

“Federalists” and “Confederates”, in April, 1861, aroused sympathy in Canada mainly for the side which sought in battle the maintenance of the Union. It is estimated that during the struggle about 50,000 Canadians enlisted in the Northern armies, while it is certain that few, in comparison, took part with the South. Passing over the occasion when hostilities appeared imminent in connection with the seizure of the Confederate commissioners from the British mail-steamer *Trent* in November, 1861, a transaction dealt with elsewhere, we find that Canada derived much indirect advantage from the civil warfare in the neighbouring country. In her fisheries she was, for the time, relieved of American competition, and her stock-owners and corn-growers had an increased sale for their products in regions where so many men had laid aside the ploughshare for the sword. There was also a great demand for Canadian horses as remounts for the Union cavalry and in the artillery, and the general prosperity of Canada was attended by rapid recovery from indebtedness due to rashness and extravagance in the past, by a diminution in the profits of money-lenders and the earnings of lawyers, and by a marked decrease in the amount of crime. Ample employment, high wages, and the departure of turbulent elements to the armies beyond the frontier, had a large share in this condition of affairs. The colonists, in their hour of sunshine, did not forget to relieve the gloom of Lancashire by generous contributions to the Cotton Famine Fund.

Towards the close of the Civil War in the States, some ill-will arose between the Northern or Federal government and their supporters, on the one hand, and a portion of the Canadian people on the other. This was mainly due to the lawless violence of Southern or Confederate refugees on Canadian soil, and partly to ill-judged action of Canadian authorities and to expressions of Canadian sympathy for the falling Confederate cause. Some of the refugees, regardless of international law and of their duty to the neutral country whose hospitality they enjoyed, or perhaps anxious to embroil the Federal government with Great Britain, made their place of refuge the starting-point of raids across the frontier. In September, 1864, some of these desperate men seized two American steamers on Lake Erie, with the design of rescuing Confederate prisoners on Johnson's Island, and of destroying the shipping on the lake. The failure of this enterprise was followed,

a few weeks later, by an infamous and successful attack on the banks of St. Albans, in the State of Vermont. The robbers, about a score in number, after adding murder to their crime of lawless plunder, escaped back to Canada with booty to the value of over 230,000 dollars, or about £46,000. Fourteen of the men were arrested, but were discharged by a judge at Montreal, and the just indignation of the Federals was heightened by the illegal surrender to these ruffians of 90,000 dollars of the stolen money. The Canadian Government afterwards repaid this sum, and, somewhat late, took measures to prevent these attacks on friendly territory by strong frontier-patrols and by an Alien Act permitting the summary arrest of suspicious persons. At the close of the war, the assassination of the noble-hearted President Lincoln stirred to abhorrence and grief all the best feeling of Canadians, and expressions of national sympathy were made in the words uttered by speakers at crowded meetings, and in the tolling bells, lowered flags, and other emblems of mourning which marked the day when Lincoln was borne to his grave. In 1866, the United States Government declined to renew the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854, being partly influenced by a hostile section of Congress who hoped to damage the trade of Canada so seriously as to cause her to seek for annexation with her powerful neighbour. The effect of this proceeding differed greatly from the calculations made in the States. It was they, and not Canada, that suffered from the change by which the States, in face of the vast debt incurred in the Civil War, imposed a high customs-tariff on Canadian products as well as on goods coming in from other countries. Before the termination of the treaty in March, the Canadian dealers sent all their surplus live stock and farm-produce pouring over the frontier, to the great profit of the owners of railways and shipping that, with all their resources, could scarcely meet the demand for transport. When the protection-policy came into operation, the New England manufacturers of woollen and worsted suffered from the higher price of Canadian long-staple wool; the brewers of New York and Pennsylvania felt the loss of cheap Canadian barley; the ship-builders and other users of wood had to pay enhanced prices for Canadian lumber; the workers in the States were wronged in the matter of the cheap provisions which Canada had once so lavishly supplied. The spirit of nationality and patriotism was aroused in all the Canadian provinces, and,

quickly rallying from the first shock to commerce, their merchants, aided by a large marine, sought and found new markets in the West Indies, in South America, and beyond the Atlantic. The manufactures of the country were developed in the effort made to dispense with the purchase of goods from the States, and the measure which had been devised for harm resulted in great and permanent advantage.

The neighbourhood of the States was, however, seriously felt through the action of the Irish element in her population. The Fenians, whose abortive efforts in Ireland and England during this period have been already described, aimed a blow at Great Britain through her North American colonies. The thousands of Irishmen disbanded at the peace between North and South supplied gangs of armed invaders of Canada, and there were shameful instances of connivance and aid on the part of United States officials, moved by a desire to retain the Irish vote in political contests. Local organizations in the frontier-towns raised large funds for the purchase, at a cheap rate, of the arms, equipments, and military stores thrown upon the market at the close of the Civil War; prominent citizens, in speeches delivered at public meetings, hounded on the Fenians in the planned invasion of an unoffending neighbour; and bands of intending assailants were openly paraded and drilled. We shall not here give historical importance to any leaders in this wicked scheme by recording their names. St. Patrick's Day, March 17th, was announced as the date of invasion, and the Canadian Government, with a prompt reply to this insolent threat, called out 10,000 volunteers in an appeal which, within 24 hours, produced 4000 men in arms beyond the number summoned. The frontier was manned at the most open points, and St. Patrick's Day passed off without any alarm. In April, on the New Brunswick border, some "invaders" decamped at the mere sight of a few regulars and volunteers, and, after stealing a custom-house flag, returned to boast of capturing the British colours, a feat which, when the truth became known, raised peals of laughter through the North American continent. In the middle of May, as nothing serious seemed to be coming, most of the Canadian volunteers were dismissed to their homes, and then the Fenians found their chance of action. Attacks on Canada were arranged for various points, the main effort being made on the Niagara frontier. About 1500

ruffians from Buffalo, Cincinnati, Detroit, Chicago, St. Louis, and other towns crossed the border-line on June 1st, and, after doing some damage to the track of the Grand Trunk Railway, advanced towards the Welland Canal, as if with the intention of destroying the locks. The Canadian volunteers, on the first news, rushed to arms, and a thousand men, with 750 regulars and a battery of field-guns, took post at Chippewa, near Niagara Falls, while another body, with men of the Rifle Brigade, guarded the Lake Erie entrance to the Welland Canal. In the fighting which ensued, the Fenians, at one point, were repulsed with loss; at another, a small force of volunteers, overpowered by tenfold numbers, lost forty men as prisoners. The commander of the invading force was bitterly disappointed at meeting with a stout resistance from loyal Canadians instead of the expected sympathy and aid, and on June 3rd he withdrew his men, leaving behind his dead and wounded, his pickets, and all his Canadian prisoners. The Canadians were, by this time, again thoroughly aroused, and every menaced point was guarded in force, while the railway depôts had their sidings filled with trains of wagons laden with artillery, shot, and shell, ready to start in case of need. Wherever the frontier was crossed by the Fenians, they were promptly driven back before they could do much damage to property. The Government of the United States, moved to action by the vigorous remonstrance of the British minister at Washington, at last interfered in behalf of international law and order, and the able and honest General Meade, the victor over the noble and chivalrous Lee at the decisive battle of Gettysburg in 1863, seized a large quantity of Fenian arms and stores at Ogdensburg, on the St. Lawrence, above Montreal, and disarmed and dispersed a body of men near St. Albans, after their flight from the Canadian forces. So ended the Fenian scare, with utter disgrace to its promoters; with some loss of life and great expense to the country thus wantonly assailed. The brief campaign, however, had its compensating good in revealing certain defects of the military system, and the matter was of real value in the impetus given to patriotic feeling, and in the demonstrated readiness of Canadians to defend their country against foreign aggression.

In resuming the general history of the Dominion after the Act of Confederation, we note that in November, 1868, Lord Monck was succeeded, as Governor-General, by Lord Lisgar, an able

man better known as Sir John Young, who was Chief Secretary for Ireland from 1852 to 1855, and Governor of New South Wales from 1861 until his appointment to Canada, where his peerage was earned. The increase of territory in 1869 by the cession, through purchase, of the Hudson Bay Company's lands, and the Red River Rebellion of the same year, are elsewhere noticed. When the Washington Treaty of 1871, concerning the *Alabama* claims and other matters in dispute between the United States and Great Britain, was concluded, the fisheries of both Canada and the States were again thrown open to either country, a large money-compensation being paid to Canada in consideration of the superior value of her fisheries. Thus was settled a question which had assumed a threatening aspect in consequence of American encroachments on Canadian waters that had been legally closed to them since the annulling of the Reciprocity Treaty. The claims of the Dominion against the States on account of losses and expense incurred through the Fenian raids were abandoned by the Canadian Government at the request of the British authorities, who guaranteed, as compensation, a Dominion loan of $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions of dollars (£700,000), and continued their guarantee of a previous loan for fortifications.

At the close of the year, Mr. Edward Blake, a gentleman of good Irish family, became premier of Ontario for a short time. Called to the Bar in 1856, he entered the first Dominion Parliament (1867), and at once came to the front as an able speaker both in debate and at public meetings. It was an unique event in Canadian history when, at the general election of 1892, Mr. Blake entered the Imperial Parliament as M.P. (Nationalist) for South Longford, an Irish county constituency. In February, 1893, he delivered in the House of Commons a brilliant and powerful maiden speech in favour of Home Rule, on the first reading of Mr. Gladstone's Bill.

In the next year (1872), the Earl of Dufferin (afterwards Marquis of Dufferin and Ava), assumed the office of Governor-General. This brilliant statesman and diplomatist has been already before us as British Commissioner in Syria (1860), and as Viceroy of India (1884-88), since which last date he has held the posts of ambassador at Rome and Paris. His keen estimate of a constitutional ruler's rightful position in Canada after the establishment of self-government to its full extent is shown in his

witty comparison of himself to the man in a fustian jacket who may be seen in an engine-room tending the complicated piece of work, and going about with a little tin oil-can with a long spout, pouring in a drop here and there to secure the easy working of the huge machine. The new Governor-General's genial courtesy, charming oratory, and devotion to every interest of the country committed to his charge, quickly won for him a very high degree of popular favour. Canadian finance was in a very prosperous condition, the budget of 1873 showing a large surplus. The Governor-General and Lady Dufferin made a summer "progress" through the maritime provinces, everywhere winning the hearts of the people and receiving the most loyal demonstrations. In November, Sir John Macdonald and his cabinet resigned office in connection with charges of corrupt conduct concerning a charter granted to a company for making a railway to the Pacific coast. A new ministry was formed by another Scot, Mr. Mackenzie, born near Dunkeld in 1822, educated at the parish-school, left an orphan at the age of fourteen, earning his bread by the labour of his hands, diligent in self-improvement, emigrating to Canada in 1842, and there becoming noted as the advocate of liberal principles in the struggle for responsible government. A general election, conducted for the first time with simultaneous voting, gave Mr. Mackenzie and his colleagues a very large majority. Subsequent legislation aimed at the suppression of corrupt practices at elections, and included measures for reorganizing the militia and for establishing the Royal Military College at Kingston. In the summer of that year (1874) Lord Dufferin made an extended tour among the upper lakes, and paid a brief visit to Chicago, where he was well received by the citizens of the States. In 1875, a Supreme Court of Appeal for the Dominion was established; the postal service was improved; and a convention with the States gave increased postal facilities with a large reduction of charges. During the summer, the Governor-General returned home on a visit, and made a striking address on behalf of the vast territory beyond the Atlantic before the Canada Club in London.

The general progress of the country was satisfactory. The interest taken in education was shown in New Brunswick by heated disputes, in and out of Parliament, concerning a Common-School Act of the provincial legislature (1871) making assessment

compulsory, and requiring all schools to be non-sectarian in order to be entitled to aid from the public funds. The British North America Act of 1867 had granted to provincial legislatures the exclusive right to deal with education, provided that nothing were enacted to limit existing privileges. The Catholic minority therefore insisted on their right to legislative grants for their denominational schools. The Privy Council of the Dominion declined to advise the Governor-General to disallow the Common-School Act of the New Brunswick legislature, and the Minister of Justice, Sir John Macdonald, contended that the jurisdiction of that body was supreme in the matter. The Privy Council in England sustained this view, and in 1875 a large majority of the electors in Prince Edward Island also supported the non-sectarian system. In the early summer of 1876, the Intercolonial Railway, from Quebec to Halifax, was opened, forming a new bond of union between the maritime and western provinces, also much lessening the time of transit for European mails. Vigorous progress was now being made with public works, including new constructions and excavations on the Welland and St. Lawrence Canals. At the United States Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia, the Canadian department gave abundant evidence of the skill and energy of the colonists, and revealed to multitudes the extent and magnificence of the Dominion resources. Ontario was foremost in the variety, richness, and beauty of her show, and won special admiration for the display made in her educational department. In August of that year, Lord and Lady Dufferin visited British Columbia, and, received with the utmost enthusiasm, were greatly impressed by the magnificent scenery, and by the extent and importance of the natural resources of the province. In vindicating the policy of the Canadian Government concerning the Pacific Railway then under consideration, the Governor-General's tact was such as at once to allay local irritation and to win the special thanks at home of the Colonial Secretary. In many ways, the Dominion was going forward to a grand and prosperous future. The growth of business demanded and received extensions of the postal system. Montreal and Toronto were raising noble public buildings and wholesale stores. Railways were being carried through Northern Ontario; new townships were everywhere being opened up and settled. In 1877, a check to financial prosperity.

caused by commercial and manufacturing depression, was shown by a deficit of nearly two million dollars in the budget of the Dominion Parliament, and Sir John Macdonald, leader of the Opposition, urged his protection-policy in a motion which demanded a readjustment of tariff in order to benefit and foster the agricultural, manufacturing, and mining interests. At that time, however, this policy was defeated by a large majority. The movement in favour of temperance in alcoholic drinks made much progress at this time, both in the way of voluntary total-abstinence pledges and in the carrying of bye-laws, in many municipalities of Ontario and Quebec, controlling and restraining the trade. In the course of the summer, Lord Dufferin and his wife visited Manitoba, whence large amounts of wheat were now coming into the European markets. His excellent addresses at Winnipeg and elsewhere delighted all hearers, and set forth in glowing terms the future which awaited a region of such vast extent and capabilities as the Dominion of Canada. In the session of 1878, an amendment moved by Sir John Macdonald in favour of "a judicious readjustment of the tariff" was again defeated, and a Temperance Act enabled municipalities to prohibit, by popular vote, all sale of alcoholic liquors within their limits. At the general election of 1878, the existing government, Mr. Mackenzie's, was utterly defeated, and a new ministry was formed by Sir John Macdonald. In October, amidst universal demonstrations of esteem and regret, the Earl and Countess of Dufferin quitted Canada.

The new Governor-General, the Marquis of Lorne, eldest son of the Duke of Argyle, born in 1845, was a man of high culture and character, distinguished by his marriage, in 1871, to the accomplished Princess Louise, fourth daughter of the Queen—the first modern instance of the marriage of the daughter of a reigning sovereign of Great Britain to a subject. He had sat in the House of Commons for Argyleshire, and had travelled in Canada, the States, and the West Indies, thus bringing much knowledge of men and affairs to bear upon the discharge of his new duties. The Canadians were pleased that their sovereign was to be represented in their midst by personages so near the throne, and the progress of the vice-regal party from Quebec to Montreal and Ottawa in the last week of November was a fine display of loyalty and pomp. On February 13th, 1879, the

Marquis of Lorne, with the Princess as a spectator, opened the parliamentary session at Ottawa in a speech which, amongst other matters, congratulated the country on the success of the Canadian exhibitors at the Paris Exhibition of the previous year, and on the development of trade with France and Spain and their respective colonies. In regard to legislation, Sir John Macdonald at last had his way concerning his protection-tariff. Mr. Mackenzie's amendment was defeated by a majority of more than two to one, and the hostile criticism of British and Canadian free-traders was aroused by the "national policy" which now levied higher customs-duties in order to protect the manufacturing industries of Canada at the expense of the mass of Canadian consumers. The long-proposed and much-debated Canadian Pacific Railway, to be hereafter described, now came to the front as a practical scheme, and on October 21st, 1880, the contract for the construction of the line was signed. The position of Canada in reference to the mother-country, as "trustee for the Empire at large", to quote Sir John Macdonald, "of half the continent of North America", was now recognized in the appointment of a High Commissioner for Canada as resident-representative of the Dominion in London. Sir Alexander Galt was the first man to hold this important post, taking charge of the financial interests of the Dominion, and communicating directly and fully with the Colonial Office on all points that concern her interests. The census of 1881 showed that the whole population of British North America was nearly approaching $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions, of whom Ontario contained close upon 2 millions; Quebec, 1,359,000; Nova Scotia, 440,000; New Brunswick, 321,000; Prince Edward Island, 108,000; Manitoba, 65,000; British Columbia, 49,000; and the North-West Territories, 56,000. On May 2nd, the Canadian Pacific Railway was actually begun in the work of pick and spade, after heated discussions in and out of Parliament, Sir Charles Tupper, the Minister of Railways, who supported the conditions of the contract, being stoutly opposed by Mr. Blake, who denounced them as ruinous to the country, in the lavish grant of lands to the contracting company. During the summer of this year, the Governor-General, Lord Lorne, made a tour through Manitoba and the great North-West, travelling to and from the Rocky Mountains in a journey which exceeded 8000 miles by rail, wagon-road, or trail, and water. This distant

part of the Dominion was now made better known in Great Britain than ever before in the pen and pencil contributions supplied to London illustrated papers by gentlemen who accompanied his Excellency. At the opening of the session of 1882, the Governor-General was able to congratulate the country on the flourishing condition of agriculture, manufactures, and trade, and on the increase of revenue attributed to the fiscal policy of the ministry, sustained by a very large majority at the general election of December, 1881. The Canada Pacific Railway was making rapid progress, and a great tide of immigration was flowing towards Manitoba.

In October, 1883, a new Governor-General arrived in the person of the Marquis of Lansdowne, fifth of his name and title, born in 1845, educated at Eton and Balliol College, Oxford, who had served under Mr. Gladstone as Under-Secretary for War and for India. Nothing of moment occurred during 1884, save that Canadian loyalty was shown by the despatch to Egypt of a force of nearly 400 *voyageurs*, who rendered valuable service to Lord Wolseley in conveying British troops and stores by haulage and otherwise up the Nile in the region of the rapids. In November of the following year the Pacific Railway was completed, and on June 28th, 1886, the first through train left Montreal with warlike stores transferred from Quebec to Vancouver. The part taken by Canada in the Indian and Colonial Exhibition held in London during the summer of this year was very distinguished, in regard to her products and resources of every kind. There was trouble with the fishery-question on the expiration of the Washington Treaty in that regard, and the Dominion authorities were driven to seizing American vessels for illegal fishing in the Bay of Fundy. American reprisals were made, and efforts for a settlement then led to the appointment, in November, 1887, of a Fisheries Commission. In accordance with the report of this body, a Fisheries Treaty was signed at Washington in February, 1888, but this instrument, in the following August, was rejected by the Senate of the United States. An arrangement was, however, afterwards concluded, based upon a clause in the treaty, by which United States fishing-craft were admitted to Canadian waters on payment of a license-fee according to tonnage. In 1887, the Jubilee of Queen Victoria's accession was celebrated with the most enthusiastic loyalty, and the mails between Great

Britain and Japan began to be sent by way of the Canadian Pacific Railway. In 1888, Lord Stanley of Preston, a son of the Earl of Derby who was thrice premier, became Governor-General. Two years later the "Express" line of steamships began to run between Vancouver, Japan, and Hong Kong, in connection with the Canadian Pacific Railway, and much more rapid communication was thus afforded between the British Isles and the distant east of Asia. By this route the distance from Liverpool to Japan and China is 1000 miles shorter than by way of New York and San Francisco. The census of 1891 showed a population of nearly 5 millions, Ontario (Upper Canada) having increased to 2,113,000; Quebec (Lower Canada) to close upon 1½ millions; Nova Scotia to 450,000; New Brunswick remaining, as ten years previously, at 321,000; Manitoba having risen to 154,000; Prince Edward Island, by an increase of only a few hundreds, to 109,000; British Columbia to nearly double, at 92,000; and the North-West Territories remaining still at about 56,000. In September, 1893, Lord Stanley was succeeded in office as the Queen's representative in the Dominion by the Earl of Aberdeen, a grandson of the earl who was premier in 1852-54. The new Governor-General was High Commissioner to the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland from 1881 to 1886, and he won rapid and great popularity in Ireland during his tenure of office as Lord-Lieutenant from February to August in the latter year.

The next event in Canadian history was one of singular and mournful interest. On December 12th, 1894, Sir John Thompson, Premier and Minister of Justice in the Dominion, went to Windsor Castle for the purpose of being sworn in as a member of the Privy Council. About five minutes after leaving the Queen's presence, he sat down to luncheon with members of the royal household, and was quickly seized with an attack of faintness, which, after a brief recovery, ended in death from disease of the heart. The deceased statesman first entered public life in 1877, as a member of the Nova Scotia House of Assembly, rising to be Premier and Attorney-General in that province. His legal ability then made him a judge of the Supreme Court in Nova Scotia, a position which he resigned, at the request of Sir John Macdonald, in order to enter the Dominion Parliament. His powers of oratory and debate, combined with conspicuous knowledge and ability in several directions, made him

leader of the Conservative party after the death of Macdonald, and caused his appointment as Prime Minister in December, 1892. He rendered valuable service on the Halifax Fishery Commission of 1877, and on the Washington Fishery Commission ten years later, and showed rare dignity and impartiality as one of the British arbitrators at Paris concerning the Behring Sea dispute elsewhere recorded. In the summer of 1893 he took a chief part in the great Intercolonial Conference held at Ottawa, attended by representatives of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and the Cape, to consider questions of common interest, chiefly those concerning their commercial relations and the improvement of means of communication. This assembly, as a matter wholly colonial in inception and execution, was one without precedent in the history of the Empire. In welcoming the delegates in the Senate Chamber at Ottawa, Sir John Thompson declared that the Canadian people were filled with zeal both for the development of their own country, and for the strengthening of the Empire, and that they were delighted to see the kindlings of the same ambition in the sister-colonies throughout the world. "The great object of our hope", he added, "is that, as a result of the deliberations of this Conference, the ocean which divides the colonies shall become the highway for their peoples and their products. . . . On this happy occasion, these delegates assemble after long years of self-government in their countries, of greater progress and development than the colonies of any empire have ever seen in the past, not to consider the prospects of separation from the mother-country, but to plight our faith anew to each other as brethren, and to plight anew with the motherland that faith which has never yet been broken or tarnished." On the sudden death of the utterer of these spirited and pregnant words, the British Government, with excellent feeling and judgment, made use of a melancholy occasion to strengthen the tie between Canada and Great Britain by demonstrations of honour and regret. The noble palace of Windsor became a temporary shrine for the body, where the Queen laid wreaths on the coffin in token of her respect and grief. The body was conveyed to Halifax, Nova Scotia, on board the first-class cruiser *Blenheim*. On the first day of 1895 the coffin, wrapped in a Union Jack, and bearing one of the Queen's chaplets, was there received by the Governor-General and the Countess of Aberdeen, amidst crowds of people whose demeanour testified to

the national grief of the Dominion. After lying in state for two days in the Legislative Council Chamber, the remains were buried with all the pomp of a State-funeral. Sir John Thompson's successor in the Canadian premiership, Mr. Mackenzie Bowell, at once received the honour of knighthood, not only by reason of his high office, but, as expressly stated in the *London Gazette*, as "President of the recent Colonial Conference at Ottawa", of which Mr. Bowell was a chief promoter. The Canadians were deeply touched by the sympathy of the mother-country. Sir Mackenzie Bowell soon resigned office, being succeeded by Sir Charles Tupper, who gave way, in July, 1896, to the Hon. Wilfrid Laurier, Q.C.

CHAPTER III.

GEOGRAPHY, NATURAL PRODUCTS, CLIMATE, PEOPLE.

Boundaries and extent of the Dominion—Physical features—Lakes and rivers—Mineral wealth—Wild animals and birds—Vegetable products—Timber—Former mistaken views regarding the climate—Now proved to be healthy and invigorating—The long summer, and "Indian summer" in autumn—Population—Nationalities—Immigration—Indians and Eskimo.

The DOMINION OF CANADA, which embraces the whole of British North America, save Newfoundland and the coast of Labrador, extends from about 42° north latitude to the Arctic Ocean in its extreme length at the region of the great lakes, and northwards from about 49° in the western half, being everywhere bounded on the south, except in Nova Scotia and some adjacent territory, by the United States. With a length of about 1400 miles up to the Arctic Circle, and a breadth, from the Atlantic on the east to the Pacific and Alaska on the west, of about 3500 miles, this enormous region has an area, including the lakes and rivers, exceeding 3½ millions of square miles. We may make an attempt to convey an idea of the size of the Dominion by a few statements in the way of comparison. The territory is about as large as Europe; it is half a million square miles larger than the United States, without Alaska; about the same amount larger than Australia; four times the area of British India; sixty times greater than England and Wales; and the inland lakes and rivers, put together as one piece of water, would float Great Britain and Ireland, leaving a good

strip of water all around. The country extends from a region where maize and peaches grow and ripen to a line where all vegetation fades away upon shores of perpetual ice. The variety of aspect and the size of Canada are such that she includes, on the east, one of the greatest forest regions in the world; in the centre, a vast prairie territory; on the west, a "sea of mountains" far surpassing in extent any rugged portion of Europe. The map shows, on the eastern coast, a circuitous indented line extending, along the inlets and round the islands, for more than 10,000 miles, and the Pacific shore, with its many islands and bays, is of almost equal extent. The east central portion is nearly split through by the huge Hudson Bay, running due south from near the Arctic Circle for 1000 miles, with 600 miles of extreme width, and the Gulf of St. Lawrence has an area of 80,000 sq. miles, being connected with the Atlantic by two channels, one of which is 60 miles in breadth. Such is the colossal scale of the Canadian Dominion, of which not more than one-fourth, or about 900,000 sq. miles, can be regarded as "settled" country, while regions yet untilled and ungrazed are capable of supplying hundreds of millions of human beings with bread and meat of the highest quality.

As regards the conformation of surface, we note that the eastern hilly region has its chief ranges nearly parallel to the St. Lawrence. On the north side, the Laurentian Range varies in height from 1000 to 3000 feet; on the south, the river-bank is fringed by the Notre Dame or Shickshock Mountains, rising to 4000 feet. The central prairie, the region of wheat-production, actual and possible, stretches north-westwards from Lake Superior to the Rocky Mountains. At the eastern end, this great region of plains, with low hills in some places, and well-wooded in many parts, is about 800 feet, and on the western side, about 3000 feet, above the level of the sea. In the south of this territory lies the watershed whence the rivers on the northern slope flow to Hudson's Bay or the Arctic Ocean, while the streams of the southern slope go to form rivers that make their way into the Gulf of Mexico. Beyond the great plain come the Rockies or Rocky Mountains, a range of triple chains with an average elevation of 7000 to 8000 feet; low in the extreme north, rapidly increasing in height towards the south, and culminating, as regards the most easterly chain, near to the 52nd parallel of north latitude, with Mounts Brown, Hooker,

and Murchison attaining quite or nearly 16,000 feet. The magnificent country on the Pacific slope has for its peculiar features lofty mountains, deep gorges or canyons, large and rapid rivers, long narrow lakes, great forests of gigantic trees, and countless narrow inlets or fiords. The Dominion is, above all, a region adorned and fertilized by grand expanses and noble rivers of water supplied by perennial springs and by an abundant fall of summer rains. The fresh-water lakes surpass, in number and size combined, all that any continent in the world can show. Apart from the five great lakes, with a total area of 90,000 sq. miles, of which Canada only shares four with the United States, the country shows, as solely her own, magnificent sheets of water ranging from the area of a large English county to beyond the size of Belgium, in Lake of the Woods (1500 sq. miles), Manitoba (about 2000), Winnipegosis and Athabasca (each 3000), Winnipeg (9000), Great Bear Lake (10,000) and Great Slave Lake (12,000). Smaller lakes, many of which surpass in size the largest in Switzerland, are yet unnamed and almost unknown save to trappers and to travellers of wide range. The rivers, without including any of the largest in the world, are almost as striking as the lakes. The St. Lawrence, issuing from Lake Ontario, runs for 700 miles below Montreal, receiving the Ottawa, the St. Maurice, and the Saguenay, as its chief Canadian tributaries, on the northern side. Lake Winnipeg, receiving a river of its own name, the Saskatchewan, and the united waters of the Assiniboine and the Red River, sends forth the Nelson into Hudson Bay, which also receives the waters of the Churchill, the Severn, the Albany, and of many other rivers which would, in Europe, be of the first rank. The Athabasca and the Peace rivers flow into Lake Athabasca, which discharges the Slave River to flow into Great Slave Lake. The Mackenzie, fed from both the Great Slave and the Great Bear Lakes, drains an area of above half a million square miles, and reaches the Arctic Ocean after a course estimated at 2500 miles. The Coppermine and the Back or Great Fish River have the same destination as the Mackenzie. On the eastern coast, the St. John enters the Bay of Fundy after traversing Maine and New Brunswick for 450 miles, and the Pacific Ocean ends the career of the Fraser, the Thompson, and other large rivers in British Columbia.

The mineral wealth of the Dominion is very great, but has

hitherto not been fully developed. The product of 1895, in minerals of every kind, reached a value of about $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling, chiefly made up of coal ($3\frac{1}{2}$ million tons, value $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions); gold, about £382,000; petroleum, over £240,000; copper, about £190,000; iron and steel to a large value for which no certain figures are forthcoming; nickel worth £272,000; and asbestos, phosphates, gypsum, lime, pyrites, salt, and silver of considerable worth. Gold was till recently found almost entirely in Nova Scotia and in British Columbia. In 1897, an immense and richly auriferous region was opened up in north-western Ontario, in the region of Lake of the Woods, Rainy Lake, the Seine river, and the Manitou districts. The territory producing gold is about 250 miles long, and about half as broad, the metal occurring only in quartz veins, in reefs from two to sixty feet wide, with ore producing an average of one ounce of gold per ton. The usual rush to the district was made, no part of the region being more than forty miles from a railway or steamboat, and the whole possessing an abundance of fuel for "milling" purposes. The recent discovery of nickel in copper deposits at Sudbury, in the province of Ontario, is regarded as of great importance, probably revealing the largest supply of nickel ore in the world. Silver-mining is chiefly carried on near Port Arthur, on Lake Superior, and the largest petroleum supply comes from a depth of between 400 and 500 feet on the peninsula between Lakes Erie and Huron. The chief mines of gypsum are in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and the phosphate of lime, greatly used as a fertilizer, is worked in Ottawa county (Province of Quebec), and near Kingston, Ontario.

Of the *fauna* of Canada we reserve many of the fur-bearing creatures until we come to deal with the industries of the Dominion. The buffalo or bison, once so abundant in this paradise of sportsmen, is becoming very scarce, and will probably soon be extinct as a wild animal. The panther (cougar, or catamount), much resembling the puma of South America, is now only found among the tangled swamps of the northern solitudes. The gray wolf, a strong, very cunning animal, may be seen on the north-western prairies, among willow-thickets and in the long grass, and is abundant in the great northern forest-region, where deer provide him with his favourite food. The traveller may descry on distant

hilly ground packs of the smaller, cowardly coyotes or prairie-wolves, or hear them howling round his camp at night. The black bear, never attacking man, unless first assailed, is plentiful in many districts, feeding on berries and the larvæ of ants and other insects, or provoking his fate from the farmer's gun by inroads among the ripening grain. The terrible grizzly, a monster of size, ferocity, and strength, often exceeding 700 lbs. in weight, and most tenacious of life, has his home in the Rockies, where only the boldest and most skilful shots can with impunity seek to make a trophy of his claws. The polar bear, in the extreme north, abides generally safe from the attacks of man. The wild cat and lynx are common in the far west; the red fox abounds, being sometimes hunted with packs of hounds; silver and other foxes are shot or trapped for their valuable skins. The countless creatures of the deer tribe include the huge moose or elk, the red deer, the caribou or American reindeer, and the swift and beautiful antelope. The Rocky Mountains have the so-called "sheep" of those ranges, the wary big-horn of the high cliffs, and the mountain-goat with its long white silky hair. The musk-ox, small, short-legged, and yet fleet of foot, with a kind of double covering composed of long hair above and close fine wool below, ranges from the northern shores of Hudson Bay to the Arctic Ocean, and supplies the successful hunter with a robe prized more than that which the buffalo used to furnish. Rabbits of a non-burrowing kind, and the prairie-hare, are very common. Of birds for sport there is no end—wild turkeys and geese, the bittern and the heron, teal and grouse, plover and woodcock, partridges and prairie-fowl, quail and snipe and pigeon, and wild duck in great variety and number. Eagles, hawks, owls, and many other smaller birds, go to make up the more than 700 Canadian kinds of feathered creatures. The lakes and rivers swarm with delicious trout and other fish; the salmon and the sea-fisheries are elsewhere described. Reptile life is not abundant, and except for the somewhat rare rattlesnake, there is little to fear from poisonous varieties. During the summer, butterflies and brilliant beetles charm the eye, and the mosquito makes its presence fearfully known in many quarters.

Among vegetable products not due to the tillage of man, timber claims the foremost place. Leaving the commercial view aside for the moment, we note that Canada proper possesses four or five

kinds of pine, including the white and the red, with eight kinds of oak; chestnuts, beeches, planes, walnuts, alders, ashes, birches, cedars, various poplars and willows, four kinds of fir, the larch, the arbor-vitæ, the yew, and the valuable sugar-maple. The trees of the Dominion also include hickory, elm, iron-wood, butter-nut, bass-wood, and the grand Douglas pine of British Columbia. Wild fruits are abundant and very various, the cranberry, raspberry, and blueberry being those of chief value. The summer season makes the country gay with flowers, including many of our British kinds.

The climate of the Dominion is a much-vexed subject, and one on which the colonists justly complain that gross misstatements have been made by ignorant and prejudiced persons. Until recent years, it was an article of faith among ordinary Europeans that Canada was a region to a large extent doomed to barrenness from intense and enduring cold. The land which sent such large supplies of fur across the Atlantic must needs be one of Arctic severity in regard to temperature, it was assumed, and the multitude could not be expected to be in advance of an eminent English statesman who, at no very distant day, referred to Canada as "those huge ice-bound deserts of North America". "Canadian cold" became a proverb, and the popular belief applied the stories of Arctic navigators to the valley of the St. Lawrence, the region of the great lakes, and the north-western plains. The experience of emigrants and the publication of facts have corrected erroneous ideas, and silenced the utterers of fable, while good sense has seen that, in describing a territory of so vast a range in latitude and longitude, and existing under conditions so diverse in various parts, it is idle to speak of "climate" as if it were uniform over the whole area. The Canadian Dominion possesses all the climates of Europe from the north of Italy to the Arctic Ocean, with all their extremes and intermediate stages of heat and cold. There are regions where the frost never leaves the ground and the earth is clad in perpetual snow; there are others enjoying almost perennial sunshine, where fruits and flowers flourish as in Italy or the south of France. The eastern coast has the humid air of the Atlantic, with a temperature greatly modified by the waters of the Gulf Stream; the Pacific shores, fanned by genial breezes from the ocean, have a climate influenced by the warm Japanese

current. In Ontario and the region of the upper St. Lawrence the climate may be fairly called temperate, although the heat in summer and the cold in winter are on the average twenty degrees greater than during those seasons in Great Britain. The large bodies of water have much influence on the climate. Hudson Bay, with a mean summer temperature of 65 degrees, is 3 degrees warmer in winter than Lake Superior. The finest climate east of the Rocky Mountains is that of the peninsula lying between Lakes Ontario, Erie, and Huron, where fruit-trees, shrubs, and flowers can be grown that cannot endure the winter elsewhere. In the Peace River district of the Mackenzie basin, the temperature throughout the year is remarkably genial. In Vancouver Island, the resident is, in respect to climate, in the position of the dweller in Devonshire, except that in summer he has greater heat with less moisture. One of the highest authorities, the great Danish geographer Malthe Konrad Bruun, commonly known as Malte-Brun, writing in the second decade of the century, declared that "Canada and the other British possessions in North America, though apparently blessed with fewer physical advantages than the States to the south, contain a noble race, and are evidently reserved for a lofty destination. Everything there is in proper keeping for the development of the combined physical and mental energies of man. There are to be found at once the hardihood of character which conquers difficulties, the climate which stimulates exertion, and the natural advantages which reward enterprise." The experience of more than eighty years has proved that Malte-Brun is right, and the detractors of Canada wrong.

The chief requisites of a good climate are that it should be healthy for the human constitution, and capable of producing food suited to maintain in good condition the human body. From these tests the climate of Canada, as a whole, emerges with triumphant success. The weight of children at birth, and the size at twenty-one years, are above the average of Europeans. In 1885, out of six thousand men, troops and non-militant assistants, who were sent, without any special selection, from the Niagara peninsula, and from all the towns between London and Halifax, to suppress an insurrection in the North-Western Provinces, not one died from any disease which could be traced to the climate. They travelled in open box-cars over the Canadian Pacific Rail-

way, marched across the gaps in the then unfinished line, trudged through snow and slush by forced marches northwards from three points on the railway hundreds of miles distant from each other; they slept in tents, without any unusual precautions, and during months of exposure in a journey up to the 53rd parallel of latitude, every man escaped climatic effects of a fatal character. The truth is, that a mere thermometric test of severity in climate is fallacious as regards its effects on the human frame. Granted that at Toronto the glass falls in winter, at its extreme point, to about 13 below zero; at Montreal, to -23; at Halifax, to -11; at St. John, to -19; at Charlottetown, to -20; and at Winnipeg to -40, the dryness and stillness of the air, in central and western Canada at least, make large amends for the low temperature. The cold is easily borne by the well-clad and the well-nourished; the air is most bracing and exhilarating, and the people enjoy a high degree of health. In the North-West Territory, there are horses in good condition that were born on the prairie and have for six or seven years never been under a roof. Cattle can live outside during the whole winter, and, having horses with them to break the snow-crust, and enable them to reach the dry grass beneath, they would come home in fair health in the spring. As a matter of fact, the farmers do house both horses and horned cattle in the winter months, but the cold is not of such a character as to make it absolutely needful. When we apply the test of vegetation suitable for human food, we find an almost equally satisfactory result. With the one drawback of an occasional summer-frost that, on its occurrence, works much mischief, the climate of the North-West Territories, where very rigorous conditions prevail, is such as enables the finest wheat in the world to be grown. The wheat-producing region of North America has been, by the Canadian colonists, carried steadily forward towards the north, and the danger to the plant from summer-frosts has been already met, to a large degree, by earlier sowing and by the adoption of hardy kinds of seed. The compensating power and graciousness of nature are wonderfully shown in the Canadian Dominion. The long winter lasts from the middle of November to the end of March or middle of April, or from four and a half to five months. The spring, in April and May, with its warm sunshine and sufficiency of rain, brings conditions so conducive to rapid growth

that, by the middle of July, the crops are as well advanced as those of England in a good season. Below the whole surface of the vast, fertile area where wheat is or can be grown, past ages of severe cold have stored up a well-spring of moisture in the frozen ground which, tapped by the penetrating rays of the sun, exudes constant nourishment for the roots that the wheat-plant sends deep down for sustenance. The long summer of four months, from June to September both inclusive, gives an average of two hours more of sunshine per day, in that latitude, than in any other wheat-growing region. There are thus, from the additional length of the days, practically eight days in the week for growing and ripening plants, as compared with lower latitudes, and the sun's forcing rays cause rapid progress. The autumnal season, October and part of November, includes the famous and charming "Indian summer", with frosty nights and bright, sunny, slightly hazy days; the season esteemed by many as the finest time of the Canadian year, when the forests are as varied as flower-beds in colour, with every brilliant hue save the blue which the sky supplies; the soft maples clad in crimson leaves, the oaks in every shade of bronze, the beeches in orange, and other foliage half bright green, half scarlet, toned down by groups of sombre pines.

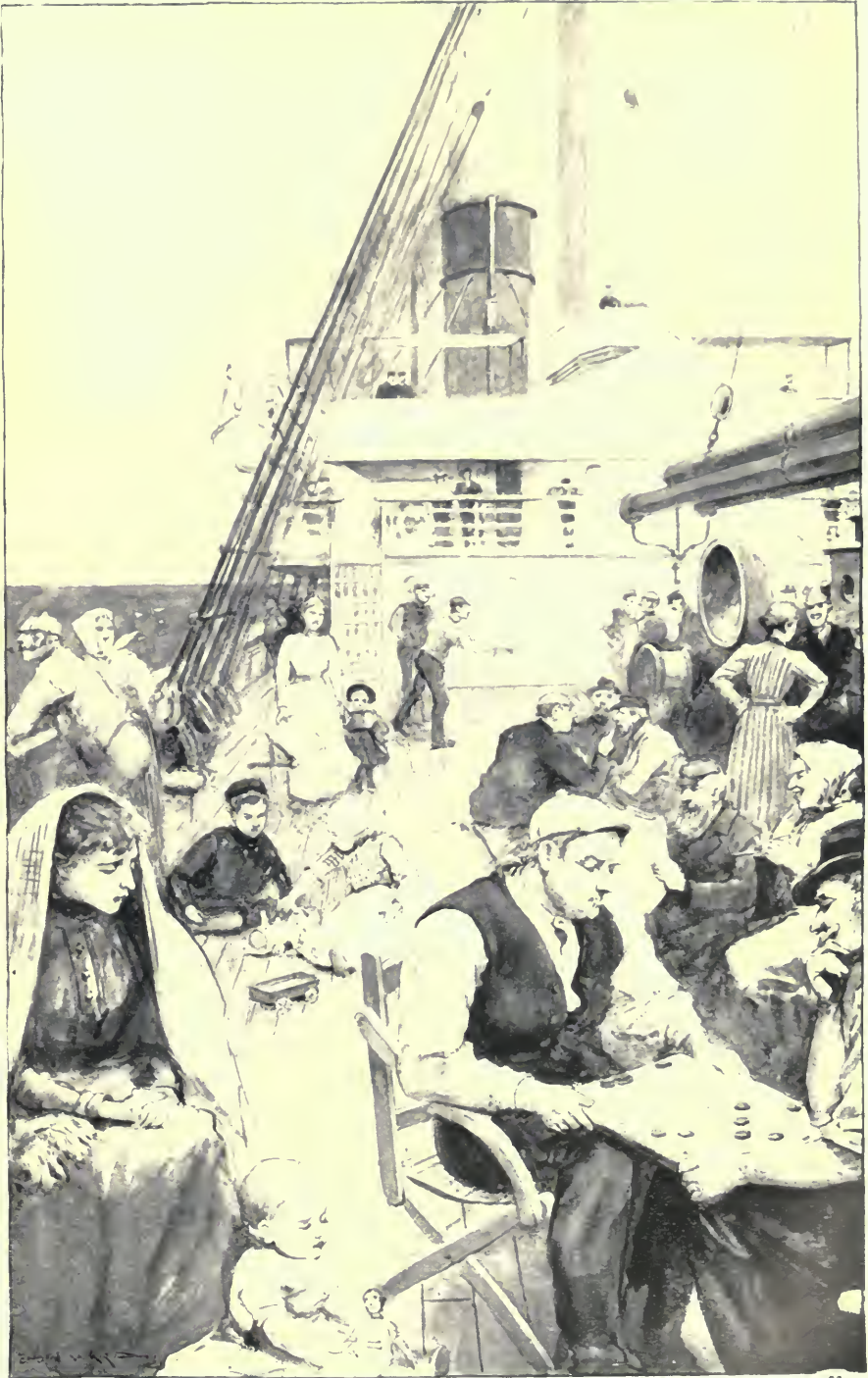
The figures indicating the population at several decennial returns have been already given, but we may here again note that the population of Canada, estimated at about $\frac{1}{4}$ million in 1800, is at present, for the Dominion, about 5,400,000, of whom somewhat more than half are males. Natives of British North America make up about 90 per cent of the total. Of the rest, 500,000 are British-born; about 81,000 are natives of the United States, nearly 28,000 are Germans, over 9000 Russians, nearly 8000 Norwegians or Swedes, about 5400 French, nearly 3000 from Italy, Spain, and Portugal, over 9000 are Chinese, and about 14,000 come from other countries. Over $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions are English-speaking, and about 1,420,000 use the French language. In the Quebec Parliament, speeches are usually delivered in French, and in the streets of Quebec city a policeman is uselessly addressed in English. The *habitans*, or French Canadians, speak a language more nearly resembling the French of the seventeenth century than that of modern Paris. The

statistics are too imperfect to enable us to calculate the natural increase of population as contrasted with that which is due to immigration. On this last subject no returns are now published, and we can only give some particulars of the emigration to British North America between the years 1830 and 1884. In the decade 1830-39 the total from the United Kingdom was nearly 321,000; in 1840-49, over 428,000; in 1850-59, about 258,500; in 1860-69, under 170,000; and in 1870-79, over 184,000. The decline observed after 1850 was due, of course, to the superior attractions of Australasia, where gold had then been discovered in rich deposits. A slight rise is seen in the decade 1870-79, and this improvement continued for a time, since in 1883 there were 44,000 persons of British origin only who sailed for Canada, a considerable increase on any previous year. It appeared that the home-population was at last waking up to the attraction and importance of the Dominion, with her far greater choice of good land in favourable positions than is now the case in the fast-filling United States.

The Indians of various tribes, including Algonquins, Hurons, and Iroquois in the St. Lawrence region, were officially given in 1895 as numbering about 102,000, of whom one-fourth, perhaps, are in the Eastern provinces, one-half in Manitoba and the North-West, and one-fourth in British Columbia. In the older provinces, very few are of pure blood; the mixed race or half-breeds, of mingled Indian and white (especially French) extraction, speaking a corrupt French patois, are intelligent people, fairly civilized, and chiefly engaged in agriculture and other industries, the franchise being extended, in 1886, to those having the needful property qualification. A separate Government-department has charge of Indian affairs, and schools have been established in which they show quickness in learning to read and write, and in music and drawing. In the North-West Territories and British Columbia the Indians are placed upon reserve-lands, being instructed in tillage by Government-officials. There are many, however, that decline to be imbued with this kind of civilization, and live by hunting and fishing, carrying their furs to the forts or trading-stations of the Hudson Bay Company. The Eskimo (Esquimaux), meaning "eaters of raw flesh", call themselves "Inuit" or "the people". They are of doubtful American or Asiatic origin, and their appearance, habits, and mode of life as seal-hunters and fishermen are too well known

AMUSEMENTS ON BOARD AN EMIGRANT SHIP.

During the period 1890-97 the stream of emigration from the British Islands somewhat slackened, yet the numbers that left these shores (including foreigners) averaged annually about 300,000. Most of these, no doubt, went to the United States, but many of them elected to settle in Canada, where favourable facilities are given by the Government for the acquisition of land. British Columbia has special attractions for the British emigrant, because the climate there resembles that of England; and the recent discovery of gold at Klondyke in the North-West Territories has added a new interest to Canada as a field for emigration. Her Majesty's Government supplies all information for emigrants through The Emigrants' Information Office, and the various shipping companies vie with each other in giving comfort during the voyage. In our illustration the emigrants, favoured with good weather, are enjoying the various games which are encouraged by the ships' officers.



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to need description. They rarely come south of 55 degrees N. latitude; they live in small settlements of from 40 or 50 to 200 or 300 people scattered over an enormous range of territory, and number only a few thousands in the Mackenzie River basin, in the Arctic or sub-Arctic region to the east of that, and in Labrador. On a general review of the nationalities found within the limits of the Canadian Dominion, we note that amongst the emigrant and native population outside the province of Quebec, the prevailing types are English, Scottish, and Irish, in that order of importance, with a large preponderance of the English element. Scandinavians and Germans, Icelanders and Russians, are helping to form a new strong nation, mainly of the Northern Celt and Teuton races, to the north of latitude 45°, a nation admirably suited, in a climate so congenial to hardy constitutions, for developing the resources of a magnificent country.

CHAPTER IV.

INDUSTRY, COMMERCE, COMMUNICATIONS.

Agriculture—Stock-breeding—Cheese-farming—Experimental Farms—Success of Canadian farmers at the Chicago Exhibition—Trade in timber—Lumbermen—Value of the fisheries—The fur trade—The trapper—Manufactures—Commerce—Exports and imports—Shipping—Coinage and banking—Communication—Railways—Along the Intercolonial Railway—Grand Trunk Railway—Canadian Pacific Railway—Waterways—Welland Canal—Ottawa and Rideau Canals—Postal communication—Lines of ocean steamships.

The chief industries of Canada are, beyond doubt, agriculture, dairy-farming, and meat-raising, which supply about one-half, in value, of all the exports. With a rapid increase ever being made, over 65 millions of acres are now occupied, and the arable land produces, from Ontario and Manitoba alone, over 25 million quarters of corn in wheat, barley, oats, and maize. The majority of the holdings are farms of between 50 and 200 acres, with much larger areas in Manitoba and the North-West, both under tillage and pasture. Wheat, barley, oats, rye, pease, maize, buck-wheat, turnips, potatoes, and mangold-wurzel are the chief crops in corn and roots. Fruit-growing is now conducted on a large scale in the St. Lawrence valley, the Niagara district of Ontario being

notable for its peach-orchards, some of which cover many acres. Cheese is becoming yearly a more important article of production, the export now exceeding £3,100,000 in value. Stock-breeding on a large scale is now pursued, especially in the North-West Territories; the number of horned cattle in the Dominion certainly exceeds 4 millions, and the horses are estimated at about 1,360,000. The number of sheep is not in proportion to that of horned cattle, and it is doubtful whether that class of stock is destined to approach in Canada the importance which it has long had in Australasia. The owners of sheep are obliged to house them during the long winter, and the exports to the British Isles and the United States, reaching 5 million head in 15 years, have come mainly from Ontario and Quebec. As regards cattle-breeding, the purchase, at high prices, of many of the best male and female animals from British herds has produced its effect, and Mr. Cochrane, having a farm of 1000 acres at Hillhurst, in the south-east of Quebec, is known all over Europe as a breeder whose Black Angus cattle and Herefords command the highest prices. The high position of Canada as regards her most important industry was established beyond dispute by the awards of judges at the Chicago Exhibition of 1893. The variety of her vegetable products finely illustrated the climate and the fertility of the soil. The excellence of the wheat, after tests for quality made by chemical analysis, was such that an immediate demand arose, among farmers in the United States, for seed-grain from Manitoba and the North-West Territories. The result of the competition in cheese and butter was very remarkable. It is nothing to state that Canada, in the largest show of products of that class ever held in North America, beat all competitors. Two competitions for Cheddar or factory cheese were held in June and October. In the first, the entries from the States numbered 505, and the Canadian 162. Out of the 138 prizes awarded, the Canadians carried off 129, and the United States 9. A victory so overwhelming produced a marked change in the number of United States competitors at the second trial. In October, there were but 82 entries from the States, and 524 from Canada. There were 110 prizes offered, and Canada secured them all. The cheese mentioned above was all made prior to the year of exhibition, 1893, and it is a fact that there were 31 exhibits of Canadian cheese that, at the June show, scored higher

points than the best United States production. Out of 414 awards for cheeses made in 1893, Canada obtained 369, and the United States 45. The general result was that the States cheese-farmers took 54 prizes for 587 exhibits, and the Canadians 608 prizes for 686 entries. Of the three judges for cheese, two acted for the United States, and one for Canada. The significance of the above facts is much enhanced when we contrast the 5 millions of Canadian population with the 65 millions of the States. At the risk of repetition at a later stage, we will here note that the annual exports of Canadian cheese to the British Isles, now exceeding that of the States by several millions of pounds, rose from under 31 million lbs. in 1875 to nearly 156 million lbs. in 1895. There are many Yankee traders who send their cheeses to Canada for shipment in order to benefit by the reputation of the Canadian products, and it is highly to be desired that our colonists should have their own brand duly recognized in the British market. The Canadian cheese is very largely made at factories to which the material is sent from creameries established throughout the provinces for the advantage of small farmers who have very little time to make cheese and butter. The cheeses are kept, until they are ready for shipment, in large iced cellars maintained at a regular temperature, where they will stay for a year or more without showing the slightest appearance of mould. It is about twenty-seven years since the factory-system was started, and it is now conducted in an admirable way both by private persons and in the way of mutual co-operative concerns. The object is to produce an article resembling English Cheddar, and the product is worth from 4*d.* to 5*d.* per lb. at the factory. The milk is supplied from all the farms within a radius of four miles round each factory, being paid for at the rate of 3½*d.* to 4*d.* per gallon throughout the year, a satisfactory price in a country where every farmer lives on his own land and has no need to dread a rent-audit.

The Experimental Farms which are found in several parts of Canada are excellent institutions by means of which the Government strives to improve both tillage and stock-breeding. The Head Experimental Farm at Ottawa is under the direct supervision of the Government Director who has charge of the five throughout the Dominion. The conception was due to Mr. John Carling, M.P., a former Minister of Agriculture, and the institutions are of the most practical character, regular farms where crops of

ordinary acreage, not mere plots, are taken off the land in the best scientific rotation. Annual reports of the results obtained on soils of varied character are distributed free to all farmers, and the work includes every branch of a farmer's occupation, from corn-growing to chicken-rearing, and from grass-culture to tree-raising. At the Ottawa farm, comprising 450 acres of mixed soils, all kinds of fodder-plants are tested, with many varieties of grapes, and the whole estate is surrounded by a large belt of forest and ornamental trees and shrubs, serving the double purpose of shelter from cold winds, and of testing their growth and adaptation to the different provinces of the Dominion. Returning for a brief space to the Canadian share in the Chicago Exhibition, we find that 65 prizes were won for fruit, including seven for grapes. In vegetables, it was admitted that the Canadian display was greatly superior to any other, and these articles, as well as the fruit, won the highest praise from the jurors for variety and quality combined. In live stock, the Dominion more than maintained the splendid record which she won in 1876 at Philadelphia. More than one-half of the live stock and poultry of Canadian exhibitors took prizes. In cattle, with 184 entries, Canada had 104 prizes, 17 medals, and 3 diplomas; the United States, with 532 entries, took 306 prizes and 13 medals. In horses, Canada had 96 entries, which obtained 44 prizes, 2 gold medals, 10 medals, and 3 diplomas. The States, with 446 entries, carried off 257 prizes, 6 gold medals, 12 medals, and 4 diplomas. In sheep, Canada, with 352 entries, took 250 prizes, 5 silver cups, and 8 diplomas; the States, with 478 entries, obtained but 193 prizes. In swine, the 68 Canadian entries were good for 64 prizes; the United States, with 96 entries, won 67. In poultry and pet stock, Canada was awarded 501 prizes among 1147 entries, easily beating, in proportion, the States with 671 prizes for 2453 entries. The grand totals were, Canada, 1847 entries and 963 prizes; the United States, 4005 entries and 1494 prizes.

The timber or "lumbering" industry of Canada is a very important element in her prosperity. The Government returns for 1891, giving only the quantity on which dues, exceeding £300,000, were paid, and excluding telegraph-poles, cordwood, shingles, and a large production in other forms, record nearly 5 million cubic feet, besides nearly 1250 million feet in other measurement, which

we may assume to mean length of sawn planks. Another account, giving the production for home use and export in 1881, shows nearly 41 million cubic feet of white pine, over $2\frac{3}{4}$ million of red pine, over $5\frac{1}{2}$ million of oak, above $4\frac{1}{2}$ million of tamarac, nearly $4\frac{1}{2}$ million of birch and maple, over 3 million of elm, above 800,000 of walnut, 387,000 of hickory, about 49 million cubic feet of all other timber, over 22 million pine logs, each furnishing 100 feet superficies of one inch thick, 26 million other logs, and nearly 11 million cords of firewood. These figures will enable us to form some faint idea of the resources of Canadian forests, and of the work done in the woods by the axemen, on the streams by the lumbermen in charge of logs, and at the saw-mills in various parts of the territory. The timber-trade of Canada with the British Isles assumed importance during the Napoleonic war, when the supply from the Baltic became uncertain and insufficient. Whereas in 1800, only about 2000 loads (each 50 cubic feet) of Canadian wood reached Great Britain, our import exceeded 125,000 loads in 1810, and that amount had become 308,000 loads ten years later, increased, in spite of the reduction of duty on European timber, to over 1 million loads in 1850, and to 1,310,000 tons in 1895. The Canadians have successfully competed with the lumbermen of Michigan and Wisconsin, and their export of timber to the United States equals in value that to the United Kingdom, while a large quantity is also sent to the West Indies, South America, and other parts. The timber of the Dominion now ranks in importance after agricultural produce, but it is to the lumber-industry that the farming-interests owe their development. The men who directed the use of the axe, in clearing the soil of its primeval forest-growth, were the farmer's pioneers and earliest customers, also affording regular and well-paid work to newly-arrived immigrants who, in many cases devoid of capital, earned in the service of the lumbermen the means of purchasing a share of the cleared land. His experience in the forest gave him handiness and skill to shift for himself amidst the surroundings that at first were strange and difficult. After building his log-hut or shanty and raising his first crops of hay, potatoes, and oats, he had a ready market for his surplus produce. When he became the proud owner of his first team of horses, he had work for them, during the winter-months, when the soil was frost-bound, in hauling logs. In no

small degree the lumbermen opened up and explored the vast territory that was to become the Canadian Dominion. When the banks of the chief rivers had been stripped of their forest-growth, they followed up the tributary streams that could float the logs, and then made their way into every nook of what was once a trackless country, laying down rude roads, bridging rivers, and establishing depôts for their timber which soon became villages that grew into towns. The revenue of the country was swelled by their payments, and to the timber-trade is mainly due the vast increase in the Canadian mercantile marine. In regard to the export to the United States, we may note that the protective duty of 20 per cent, while it operates as a stimulant for the destruction of the forests in the States, does not exclude the beautiful ornamental woods of Ontario and other provinces, bird's-eye maple, black birch, oak, basswood, black ash, and others, which are of great value for the best kinds of furniture and for interior decoration. The timber-lands of the Dominion are chiefly held by and under the control of the Government. In Ontario and Quebec, the two great lumber-producing provinces, the lands are divided into sections of a certain number of square miles, new sections or limits being sold by auction to the highest bidder for the right of cutting timber over that area. The purchaser also pays a small rental per square mile, and a duty on each cubic foot of squared timber and on every sawn log. In the winter-season, many of the young men forsake the farms and join bands of lumbermen in the backwoods. In Quebec province, the country around the upper waters of the Ottawa is rich in pines. When the felled trees have been lopped of their tops and branches, the largest specimens are squared with the axe, and the smaller ones are sawn into logs of from 12 to 20 feet long, all being rolled down the river-banks to rest on the ice. The spring-thaw carries the cargo on its flood down the stream, and then comes the most exciting and somewhat perilous time of the lumberman's life. The strongest, bravest, and most skilful men follow the logs and squared timber from their forest-home to the saw-mills, or the distant timber-ships at Montreal or Quebec. It is a stirring sight when the swollen stream is rushing madly down its narrow channel, carrying with it thousands of logs and huge cakes of grinding ice. When the timber becomes jammed at a gorge, the lumbermen jump into the water and mount the logs,

A LUMBER-RAFT BEING TOWED DOWN THE ST. LAWRENCE.

Ontario and Quebec are the two great lumber-producing provinces of Canada, the timber-bearing land there being divided into sections and the right of cutting the timber thereon sold by auction. When the trees are felled in winter by bands of lumbermen they are cleaned and squared with the axe, and then rolled down the banks of the various rivers to rest on the ice. In spring, when the thaw comes, the swollen river—say the Ottawa—sweeps along, carrying thousands of logs and great blocks of ice grinding over waterfalls and crashing through narrow gorges. When the logs become jammed, the daring lumbermen jump into the water, and, by pulling and pushing with a steel hook, set the mass free, at the risk of being caught and crushed by the rushing mass of timber. When the upper reaches of the river are passed the large squared logs are formed into huge rafts, on which huts are erected for the use of the raftsmen, who live there for weeks, guiding the unwieldy craft as it is being towed down the St. Lawrence to Quebec.



J. FINNEMORE.

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A LUMBER RAFT BEING TOWED DOWN THE ST. LAWRENCE.

armed with a pole bearing a steel hook at the end. By pushing here and pulling there, or by cutting through a log that holds back the mass, the jam is loosened, and the utmost agility is then needed to escape death by crushing or drowning as the freight again rushes on its way. Even at the very edge of a waterfall, these daring men will step, roped round the waist, and thus held by their comrades on the shore, on to an impeded mass of timber, and are saved from instant death, when the sudden loosening occurs, only by the jerk at the rope, made in the nick of time by the men on the bank. The shorter logs floated down the Ottawa are usually sawn at the mills of Ottawa city, while the large squared timber is there formed into rafts, sometimes several acres in area, with huts erected on them for the use of the raftsmen, who there live for weeks together as they guide the huge craft down the rapids to Montreal, or by the St. Lawrence to Quebec.

The next notable occupation of our Canadian cousins lies in the fisheries, which are by far the most valuable in the world. In 1895, the worth of the produce reached over 20 millions of dollars, or above 4 millions sterling. Somewhere about 65,000 men, and 31,000 small ships and boats are employed in this industry. The cod, valued in 1895 at above $3\frac{1}{2}$ million dollars (£700,000), is chiefly caught off Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the lower part of Quebec, the chief markets for the dried fish being in the Roman Catholic countries of Southern Europe, in Brazil, and the West Indies. The oil from the liver is exported to the British Isles for preparation as the well-known medicine for delicate people; the swimming-bladder furnishes isinglass, and the offal makes a valuable manure. The salmon, worth nearly 4 million dollars, are caught largely in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, whence fresh fish are sent to the United States, while vast numbers are canned in and exported from British Columbia. Herrings valued at over $2\frac{1}{2}$ million dollars are obtained in the same waters as the cod, and are sent both fresh and pickled (or smoked) to the United States, and in the latter condition to the West Indies and the British Isles. Mackerel to the value of over $\frac{1}{4}$ million sterling are caught in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the Bay of Fundy, and generally off the coasts of Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island. Lobsters, canned in one year to the amount of 12 million lbs. in weight, and chiefly sent to the States and to

the British Isles, are worth in all nearly 2 million dollars, and are chiefly obtained off Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, and New Brunswick. Nova Scotia, with fisheries annually worth over $1\frac{1}{4}$ million sterling, heads the list of the Canadian Provinces in this industry; next in order comes New Brunswick, with about two-thirds that value: British Columbia, with about $4\frac{1}{2}$ million dollars; Quebec, Ontario, Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, and the North-West ranging downwards from nearly 2 million dollars to about 1 million. The haddock and sardines of the sea-fishing and the trout of the rivers and lakes have also considerable value. The fishing-industry is encouraged by a Government-bounty divided according to amount of catch, and the fish-supply of the rivers and lakes is extended by stock hatched at twelve fish-breeding establishments in different parts of the Dominion. The sea-fisheries are regarded as inexhaustible owing to the vast and continuous food-supply brought down by the Arctic currents from the northern seas and rivers in the form of living slime composed of myriads of minute creatures that are thus deposited on the Canadian fishing-grounds.

The clear dry winter renders the furs which are produced in the Mackenzie River basin, one source of Canadian supply, unsurpassed in any region of the world. It is impossible to furnish a full account of the production of furs in the Dominion, but the return of the skins received at the Montreal warehouse of the Hudson Bay Company in one year gives a first idea of the variety and importance of the trapper's work. This contingent came from the deaths of 1900 bears, 20,000 beavers, 1000 ermine, 1900 foxes, 4400 lynxes, 17,000 martens, 7000 minks (of the ermine tribe, with valuable chestnut-brown fur), 72,000 musquashes (musk-rats, over a foot long, with short, downy, dark-brown skin), 3000 otters, and 600 skunks. That this large number represents but a small portion of the whole product seems clear from another return of the furs offered for sale in London, in 1887, by the Hudson Bay Company and another large importer. Thence we find a single year's catch raised to nearly 16,000 bears, 104,000 beavers, over 4000 ermine, over 105,000 foxes (including 2000 of the precious silver foxes), 14,500 lynxes, 98,000 martens, 376,000 minks, nearly $2\frac{1}{2}$ million musquash, 14,400 otters, 3700 badgers, 114,000 rabbits, 13,500 hair seals,

3500 sables, 31,600 gray foxes, 1580 wolverines, 7000 wolves, and 680,000 skunks. In the vast hunting-ground that includes many hundred thousand square miles of forest, lake, river, and mountain, the Indian or half-breed hunters and trappers have in the winter, their best season for work, an arduous and adventurous life. For days together the lonely trapper is away from his home, carrying with him a little store of food in pemmican, composed of strips of lean dried meat, pounded small and mixed with melted fat. It is a wholesome and nourishing diet, keeping fresh for a long time, and packed in a small space. The steel traps used are like rat-traps without teeth, provided with double springs, set in the snow, covered over, and fastened to a log, to prevent them being carried off by the animal caught. A tin kettle and cup, a little tea and salt, a blanket, gun, axe, and hunting-knife complete the man's equipment for his journey through the woods. The glutton or wolverine, a strong, fierce creature larger than a fox, has a knack of following the hunter's track, and stealing the bait from his traps, in many cases without being caught. When the trapper finds a wolf entangled in the steel, he has often a sharp fight before the foe is slain with the axe, powder and lead being always reserved for the chance of a shot at untrapped "fur".

It is within the last two decades that the manufactures of Canada have been greatly developed. In 1891, the woollen-mills produced goods to the value of over eight million dollars, or about £1,600,000, and the cotton-mills, in the same year, numbered twenty-two, with 8,500 hands employed, making goods worth £1,700,000. The paper-trade is in a flourishing condition, having at present mills at work producing annually to the value of over 5 million dollars. The making of agricultural implements is another important branch of industry, with a product worth over nine million dollars in 1896, and yearly growing in amount and quality. The leather-business turns out annually nearly four millions sterling value of boots and shoes. Fittings and foundry-work: locomotives; saddlery and harness; sashes, doors, and blinds; sugar-refining from the juice of the maple: tanning, tin and sheet iron, ship-building, cabinet- and furniture-work, engine-making, hosiery, iron-smelting, nail and tack making, tobacco-cutting, oil-refining, and food-preserving employ a very large amount of capital. The work of the cheese-factories has been noticed in

connection with agriculture; the output of the flour-mills, at present valued at nearly £11,000,000, belongs to the same department; and the saw-mills, now turning out over ten and a half millions sterling value, carry on the work of the lumber-trade. In regard to the Canadian machinery, we may observe, that at Chicago, in 1893, in a small exhibit, nearly every article shown took a prize, 43 gold medals and diplomas falling to the share of the Dominion. The chairman of that department stated that in design, finish, and smoothness of working, the machinery from Canadian workshops was equal to anything exhibited, and that, as compared with the show at Philadelphia in 1876, Canada had made more relative progress than any other nation that took part in the display. The progress made in textile manufactures also received the highest praise from the president of the jurors in that class of goods, a member of the Austrian Commission who was himself a manufacturer of high-grade cloths. We must not conclude this section without noting an instance of Canadian manufacturing skill which may possibly surprise some readers. It is a fact that the Dominion now not only makes her own pianos and organs for the greater part of her large home-demand, but for shipment to foreign countries, and organs of Canadian make are now sent, chiefly through Great Britain, to every part of the civilized world. The pianos have also been found to stand critical comparison with the best products of countries long renowned for musical taste and artistic skill. The advantage claimed for the instruments of Canadian make is their capability of resisting changes of temperature and climate. Musical instruments, chiefly pianos, are largely made in the 89 factories in Canada, and, in regard to organs, a firm which, about twenty years ago, started by making one instrument per month, now turns out many hundreds of highly-finished organs, of which a large number are sent to foreign countries.

Concerning the commerce of Canada, many particulars have been already given. The total exports have an annual value of nearly twenty-three millions sterling, while the imports reach 22 millions. Of these amounts, the exports to the United Kingdom are worth over £12,700,000; those to the United States exceed 8 millions. The West Indies (British, Spanish, and French), South America, Belgium, Germany, China, and Japan account for most of the residue. The imports from the

States annually amount in value to close upon 11 millions; from the British Isles to more than £6,000,000; from the West Indies to nearly one million; from other British possessions (in North America, Africa, and Australasia) to over £210,000; from Germany, £1,000,000; from France, £510,000; from the Spanish West Indies, close upon ½ million; from China and Japan, about as much; the rest from Belgium, Holland, Spain, Switzerland, and Italy. The chief imports into the British Isles from Canada are wheat, flour, maize, and pease (about two millions); wood and timber (3¼ millions); cheese (2½ millions); oxen, over 1½ million; fish, over £560,000; apples, £300,000; bacon and hams, ¾ million; skins and furs, £400,000. The principal articles of British export to Canada are iron, wrought and unwrought, 1 million; woollens, nearly 1½ millions; cottons, £650,000; apparel and drapery, ¾ million; flaxen, hempen, and jute goods, £260,000; and fancy goods, £195,000. Of the whole trade, above 16 millions in value, imports and exports, belongs to Montreal; nearly 5 millions to Toronto; nearly 3 millions to Halifax; 1½ millions to Quebec city; 1⅓ millions to St. John, New Brunswick; about 1 million to Ottawa; and over 1¼ millions to Victoria, British Columbia. The Dominion stands very high among ship-owning countries, coming next to Great Britain, the United States, and Norway, with 7260 registered vessels of nearly 1,000,000 tons, including 1800 steamers of 250,000 tons, at the present time. Her shipping-trade exceeds that of any other British possession outside the British Isles. During the year 1895 the ship-yards turned out 250 new vessels, with a total tonnage of 76,270 tons. The decimal system of coinage was established in 1871, the unit of account being the dollar of 100 cents, worth 4s. on the average rate of exchange. The coinage in circulation is all struck in England, the value of the sovereign being legally fixed at 4 dollars 86⅓ cents; the crown-piece at 1 dollar 20 cents, and the rest in proportion. The U.S. gold eagle of 10 dollars, with its multiples and halves, is legal gold besides the British sovereign. The lowest notes issued by banks are for 5 dollars or about £1; the Government issue notes or bank-bills for 4, 2, 1 dollar, 50 and 25 cents. The British weights and measures are in use, save that our hundred-weight is superseded by the U.S. 100 lbs. avoirdupois, and the ton, on the same principle, is 2000 lbs. The banking-system is

strictly regulated by statute, every bank being compelled to make its payments with a certain proportion in Government notes, and to hold in the same form at least 40 per cent of its cash reserve. In 1895 there were 38 incorporated banks making returns to the Government, and having many branches all over the Dominion. In 1867, Post-Office savings-banks were instituted, and Government savings-banks, controlled by the Finance Department, exist in the maritime provinces, Manitoba, and British Columbia.

In dealing with the important subject of communications, railways claim the foremost place. At the end of June, 1895, nearly 15,000 miles had been completed by companies with a paid-up capital of over 170 millions sterling, and large extensions are in progress or have been recently made. The Dominion ranks eighth in absolute mileage among the states of the world possessing railway-systems. The Government own and maintain about 1200 miles of line. The general gauge is one of 4 ft. 8½ inches, with exceptions of 5 ft. 6 in., 3 ft. 6 in., and 3 ft. on one line in the north-west. The traffic is not yet such as to make Canadian railways a financial success; the Government lines, which include the Intercolonial and some branches, and the Prince Edward Island railways, have been for some years worked at an absolute loss, the expenditure being at the present time in excess of the receipts. The assigned causes for this result are sparse population, the expense of keeping the lines open in winter, and the low rates charged for carrying the Nova Scotian coal into the provinces of Quebec and Ontario, in order to develop the mining industry. The three chief railway-lines of the Dominion are the Intercolonial, from Halifax to Quebec; the Grand Trunk, connecting the maritime provinces and the north-east of the United States with the western railways; and the Canadian Pacific Railway, from Montreal to Vancouver, on the western coast. The *Intercolonial Railway*, 1190 miles in length, may now be briefly traced from its starting-point opposite Quebec to its terminus at Halifax, as it runs down the southern shore of the St. Lawrence as far as Rimouski, turns south and follows the valley of the wild river Metapedia to its junction with the Restigouche; crosses that river into New Brunswick, and traverses that province and Nova Scotia. The road is excellently made and equipped, the cars on through express trains being lighted by electricity and warmed by steam from the loco-

motive; the charges are very moderate, and the tourist and resident are conveyed to some of the best fishing and shooting districts of the continent and among some very beautiful scenery. As the train proceeds from *Point Lévis*, the traveller has a last glimpse, beyond the St. Lawrence, of the Montmorency Falls. At *Trois Pistoles*, 142 miles from Quebec, the halt for refreshments enables him to taste, in the dining-hall of the station, delicious fresh-caught trout from the neighbouring stream. At *Bic*, some distance further, a summer-resort on a picturesque bay, the hills reach a height of 1300 feet, and out of their ravines two small rivers descend, in many cascades, to mingle their waters with those of the sea. Ten miles more and the train arrives at *Rimouski*, a municipal town with a large and growing trade, a favourite summer-resort, and a port of call for ocean-steamers on behalf of passengers and mails to or from the maritime provinces. At 227 miles from Quebec, the waters of *Lake Metapedia* are reached, where good trout-fishing may be enjoyed, in the winter-months through the ice, and again in June. At *Causapscaal*, as the train runs on, there is fine salmon-fishing in the *Metapedia River*, close by the station, and *Lakes Angus, Michaud, and Causapscaal* abound in large trout. At 290 miles from Quebec, the traveller enters, at *Metapedia*, the splendid valley of the *Restigouche*, the boundary between Quebec and New Brunswick, and in crossing railway-bridges he enjoys a fine view up and down from the car-windows. The word "Restigouche" means the "five-fingered river", from the great branching tributaries which spread like the fingers of an open hand through Quebec and New Brunswick. One of these rivers bears the fearful Indian name of "Quah-ta-wah-am-quah-davic", happily shortened by the lumberman into "Tom Kedgewick". The salmon-fisheries of the Restigouche have a world-wide fame, and are chiefly held by fishing-clubs composed of wealthy Canadian and United States anglers. The strong, full current, in a course nowhere broken by falls or dangerous rapids, affords a fine scope for the work of the canoe-man. The Scot is soon reminded of his native land at *Campbellton* and at *Dalhousie*, a lovely watering-place on the placid *Baie des Chaleurs*, with a deep sheltered harbour, a good trade in fish and lumber, and a summer-hotel styled the "Inch Arran". At *Bathurst*, the *Nepisiguit* ("foaming waters") *River*, coming next to the Restigouche and the Miramichi as a salmon-stream, enters

the sea. The *Grand Falls* are 20 miles above its mouth, the river plunging in four leaps to a depth of 140 feet. *Newcastle*, at the head of deep-water navigation on the Miramichi, has ship-building and a trade in lumber, and in canned and frozen fish; a branch-line leads to *Chatham*, 12 miles above the river-mouth, with like industries and a population exceeding 6000. The *Miramichi* ranks next to the *St. John* among the New Brunswick rivers. At *Moncton*, the head-quarters of the Intercolonial, a prosperous quickly-growing town of 8000 people, we reach a flat, wonderfully fertile farming region, where a tidal stream flows into the *Bay of Fundy*. The extreme variation between high and low water here sometimes amounts to 70 feet, and the "Bore" of the river consists of the flood-tide sweeping up the channel in a foaming wall of water from 4 ft. to 6 ft. in height. The shores of all these tidal rivers that empty their waters into the Bay of Fundy are lined with great breadths of salt meadows, composed of an alluvial deposit of great depth and richness, protected from the sea by a regular system of dikes, and producing hay-crops of enormous amount. From *Moncton* to *St. John*, about 90 miles, the railway runs mostly through a rich farming country, but this is a digression from the route to Halifax, or the main line of the Intercolonial Railway. After *Moncton* we cross the Great *Tantramar Marsh*, one of the salt meadows, 40 sq. miles in area, with bogs and pools rich in wild-fowl, and then we come to the *Isthmus of Chignecto*, 10 miles across, connecting New Brunswick with Nova Scotia. At *Amherst*, 49 miles from *Moncton* and 138 from Halifax, we see a busy fast-rising town of 7000 people, with handsome public and private buildings. A few miles further on, an eastern branch runs away along the north of Nova Scotia towards Cape Breton Island, while the main line turns south by way of *Truro*, a busy manufacturing town at the head of *Cobequid Bay*, an arm of *Minas Basin*. The Park, perhaps the most picturesque pleasure-ground in the maritime provinces, consists of a bold, well-wooded ravine traversed by a small stream, falling at one point by a beautiful cascade into a fairy-like chasm having its steep wall lined with winding steps, leading to nooks containing seats, and lighted by electric lamps placed among the foliage. Nothing of a striking nature in the way of scenery occurs until at *Bedford*, eight miles from Halifax, the railway reaches the head of the noble *Bedford Basin*, a great lake-

like expansion of Halifax Harbour. Here, amidst boating and bathing of the utmost excellence, in waters of the mildest summer temperature, many of the "Haligonians", as the Halifax people are styled, have summer abodes. The railroad skirts the water's edge, and presents the most charming "bits" of scenery to the artist's eye.

The *Grand Trunk Railway* and its connections form a system of nearly 4500 miles, steel-railed throughout, with about 800 engines and 20,000 cars, and a body of servants numbering over 20,000, the whole representing an expended capital of about 60 millions sterling. Main lines run from *Quebec* (Point Lévis) to *Detroit*, and by way of *Port Huron*, at the southern extremity of the lake, to *Chicago*, on the one hand; and on the other from *Montreal* to *Portland*, in the State of Maine. Communication with New York from the west is by the lines at the Niagara frontier. The system is thus connected with the American railways throughout the States, and with the steam-ship service to Liverpool, Glasgow, London, Bristol, and other European ports. One of the great engineering works of the world conveys the line across the St. Lawrence at Montreal. The *Victoria Railway Bridge*, constructed between 1854 and 1859, from the designs of Robert Stephenson and Alexander Ross, the engineers of the tubular bridge across the Menai Strait, described in a former section of this work, is an erection of the same class as that in North Wales, but is on a far larger scale. The river is crossed in 24 spans of 242 feet each, with a central span of 330 feet, the whole having a length of nearly $1\frac{3}{4}$ miles, and the tubes containing over 9000 tons of iron, presenting a total painted surface equal to 32 acres. The ice-breaking piers, made with large bows at the up-river ends to resist the enormous pressure of the ice on its break-up in spring and downward flow on a current running at seven miles an hour, form a remarkable feature of this gigantic undertaking. The rails run at 60 feet above the river-level, and the total cost was 6,300,000 dollars or about $1\frac{1}{4}$ millions sterling.

The *Canadian Pacific Railway* main line, from *Montreal* to *Vancouver*, is 2909 miles in length. One of the conditions upon which the province of British Columbia entered the Dominion in 1871 was the construction of such a railway to connect her people with the east of Canada, and so with Europe. After many difficul-

ties and delays, the line was completed, according to arrangement with the Canadian Government, by a syndicate of London, Paris, and American capitalists, and was opened for general traffic in June, 1886. The contract bound the performers of the work to finish the line only in 1891, and the remarkably rapid execution was due to Government aid, to zeal on the part of the engineers and workmen, and to the favourable nature of the ground on the prairies traversed by so large a portion of the railway. A mile and a half per day was the average rate of progress in that quarter, and the work was proceeding from both ends. The last spike was driven in November, 1885, at a little station called Craigellachie, beside the Eagle River in the Rocky Mountains, 2569 miles west of Montreal. The fact of the two portions meeting at a point so near the Pacific strikingly illustrates the different character of the work which had to be performed on the prairie portion and in the mountainous western region. The route taken is from *Montreal* to *Ottawa*; thence round the north of the great lakes to *Port Arthur*, at the head of *Lake Superior*; thence to *Winnipeg city*, in *Manitoba*; thence to *Stephen*, in the *Rocky Mountains*; and then across British Columbia to *Vancouver city*, on the Pacific shore. At the eastern end, a fine piece of engineering is seen in the aerial structure by which the road crosses the St. Lawrence at *Lachine*, near Montreal. This erection is a brilliant application of the cantilever principle most nobly displayed in the Forth Bridge described in dealing with British railways, the spans appearing like clusters of huge steel cobwebs, and combining the greatest strength with the least possible weight and resistance to the wind. By a gradual ascent, the line reaches *Winnipeg* at a height of 736 feet above the sea-level. Still ascending, at *Calgary*, near the eastern base of the Rockies, it has attained 3380 feet, and thence, following the valley of the *Bow River*, it crosses the mountains at an elevation of 5560 feet, after climbing 1900 feet from Calgary in the distance of 123 miles. The descent is much steeper, as between the summit and a point 61 miles nearer the Pacific the line has fallen above half-a-mile. In a cañon (Spanish for "tube", "funnel") or ravine of great steepness and depth along the *Kicking Horse River*, the wildest and most beautiful scenery is displayed, as the railway runs high above stupendous abysses, with mountains rising thousands of feet on one side and a torrent roaring over its rocky bed far

below on the other. The mountainous region altogether extends for about 600 miles before level country is again reached on nearing the Pacific, after the lower part of the *Selkirks* and of the *Coast Range*, as well as the main chain of the Rocky Mountains, has been traversed. The culminating peak of the *Selkirks* reaches 11,000 feet above sea-level, and it was near to this point that the engineers encountered the chief difficulties in their gigantic undertaking. The line runs in double loops for six miles, descending 600 feet in that distance along the side of a gorge, near an enormous glacier; crossing ravines and the river again and again by great trestle bridges, and with all its twistings it thus accomplishes, in the six miles distance, two miles only of actual progress. Such was the kind of achievement in railway-making, at this portion of the route, which was needed to bring London, 6000 miles away, within 14 days of British Columbia, and to make that country's ports into links of a vast chain of communication between East and West, one of vital importance as a military highway binding together the great masses of the British Empire. The sportsman and the tourist have been brought within easy reach of abundant game and fish, amid splendid scenery that includes hills and lakes, waterfalls and woods, in recesses of the mountains that no Indian hunter had ever visited. The Canadian Pacific Railway reaches the western ocean in 720 miles less distance than the route through the States by the Union and Central Pacific lines to San Francisco. The Company which completed this noble undertaking received from the Canadian Government, as a spur to its progress, the sum of 5 millions sterling, the grant of 25 million acres of land along the line between Winnipeg and the Rockies, the gift of 712 miles of railway finished before they took the work in hand, and a 20 years' monopoly of the territory lying between their lines and the States. The arrangements of the line for the comfort of travellers are beyond all praise. The dining-cars and sleeping-cars afford the most luxurious accommodation that has ever been seen on wheels, with very large double-glass windows to keep out dust; excellent gauze-screen ventilators; hot-water pipes for warmth; large beds instead of narrow berths; smoking-room, bath-room, and lavatory; while now and again, at the halting-places, the train is boarded by hawkers of newspapers and books, and of cheap and excellent fruit. The passage over the vast prairie is one of great novelty to the traveller

fresh from Europe, as he sees the country rolling away in endless billows of grass-grown wilderness, and, as he stands on the rear-platform of the train, watches the two rails gleaming out from under his feet in absolute straightness, drawing ever nearer as the perspective lengthens, and at last merging into one silver wire far away on the blue horizon. This part of the long journey is a good preparation, in the way of contrast, for the glorious Rockies, with their exhilarating air, scent of pine-forests, glancing and splashing waters, snow-clad summits, terrific gorges, and a combined sense, as the train dashes on, of freedom with attendant peril. Among the Selkirks, the wintry aspect of the scenery is marvellously beautiful with the spotless white of the frosted trees glistening in their crystal covering, and there the traveller sees the methods needful to encounter heavy falls of snow from the sky, or mighty avalanches from the mountain-side, in the huge snow-ploughs, sometimes driven by six or eight locomotives in a line; in the snow-sheds, often for scores and even hundreds of yards boxing up the train, great wooden structures, with a slanting roof designed to shoot the avalanche over the track into the valley below; and in the strongly-built guiding-fences on the mountain-sides, which divert the course of the sliding mass and steer it to a point where there is a shed ready for its reception.

The Dominion is so well provided with waterways by canal, river, and lake that in 1891 a steamer, starting from Duluth, in Minnesota (U.S.), at the south-western end of Lake Superior, with a large cargo of wheat, delivered the same at Liverpool without breaking bulk. Up to 1894 over 13 millions sterling had been spent on Canadian canals for construction alone, and in the same year over 25,000 vessels, of over four million tons burden, passed through these valuable communications, carrying many thousands of passengers and nearly 3 million tons of freight, mainly consisting of grain, timber, and coal. There is scarcely any inland water-system in the world to equal that which enterprise, energy, and skill have created in this region. The obstacles to be overcome lay in the want of depth in the St. Lawrence in its upper course, in the rapids of that great river, and in the cataract of Niagara. Dealing first with the St. Lawrence, we find that the channel has been deepened so as to allow ships of 6000 tons to reach Montreal, 700 miles distant from the Atlantic. The rapids between Montreal

and Kingston, on Lake Ontario, are avoided by a series of artificial waterways, with an aggregate length of over 70 miles. A connection between Lake Superior and Lake Huron, to begin at the western end, was constructed on the United States shore, in the shape of the Sault Ste. Marie Canal, one mile in length, avoiding the rapids on the Ste. Marie river. Over 8 million tons of freight annually pass through this canal, though it is only open, owing to frost, for an average of 215 days per year. The Dominion Government, in consequence of the rapid growth of traffic, have now made a passage with a depth of 18 feet on their side of the river. The Niagara Falls and rapids, at the outlet of Lake Erie, are evaded by the famous *Welland Canal*, constructed, and lately deepened and otherwise enlarged, from *Port Colborne* on *Lake Erie* to *Port Dalhousie* on *Lake Ontario*. This passage is about 27 miles in length, overcoming a difference in level, between the two lakes, of 328 feet by means of 25 lift-locks. The masonry-work, of a very durable gray limestone, is of grand and massive character. At Welland the canal crosses the *Chippewa River* by a costly aqueduct. The original modest excavation, of which the first sod was turned in 1824, was designed to be 4 feet deep, 7 feet wide at bottom, and 19 feet wide at the water surface, "to accommodate vessels not exceeding 40 tons burden". The present canal has a bottom-width of 100 feet, and allows the passage of vessels of 1500 tons. The *Ottawa Canal* joins Montreal with the river Ottawa near the Dominion capital, and the *Rideau Canal* connects *Ottawa* with *Kingston* on *Lake Ontario*. Communication with the eastern United States is obtained by the Richelieu River and Lake Champlain system, avoiding the rapids between Chambly and St. John's on the Richelieu, and affording a passage to the Hudson, thus reaching New York, 330 miles from the frontier.

Postal communication is well developed, the number of offices in the Dominion, in June, 1895, being about 8800, with free carriage for newspapers from the office of publication. The expenditure, with this liberal policy, and a uniform rate of postage at three cents, about 1½*d.*, throughout the Dominion, largely exceeds the revenue, and amounts to over £923,000 against about £763,000 received. In the winter season, the work of conveying letters and other matter to outlying districts involves much exposure and toil. The men in charge of the mail-boat to and from Prince Edward

Island have to force their way through intensely cold seas encumbered at times with masses of ice, and to endure the discomfort and peril of snow-storms and fogs. To some points the postman makes his way on snow-shoes along the trail through the woods, and distant trading-posts on Hudson Bay and in other quarters are only reached by a monthly mail dragged on a sledge by Eskimo dogs, whose conductor is wrapped in the warmest furs. The telegraph, in 1895, extended over nearly 32,000 miles of ground, with about 68,000 miles of wire, and 2566 offices, and there were also above 44,000 miles of telephone-wire, with some 500 offices at work. In telegraphic mileage the Dominion, in fact, ranks eighth among the countries of the world, and stands first in number of offices as compared with population. There is direct cable-communication with Great Britain by way of Newfoundland, and a deep-sea cable is laid between Vancouver Island and the United States. A cable to Bermuda has also recently come into operation. The chief lines of steamships running between Canada and the British Isles are the *Allan*, from *Liverpool* and *Glasgow* to *Halifax*, *Quebec*, and *Montreal*, during the summer; from *Liverpool* to *Halifax*, weekly, during the winter months; and from *London* to *Quebec* and *Montreal*, in the summer season; the *Dominion*, with vessels passing between *Liverpool* and *Montreal* and *Quebec*, in summer, and from *Liverpool* to *Halifax* and *Portland* (State of Maine) and back, in winter; the *Furness Line*, whose steamers run from *London* to the chief Canadian ports; the *Beaver Line*, weekly from *Liverpool* while the St. Lawrence is open; and the *Ross Line*, from *London* to *Quebec* and *Montreal*, during the summer months. The *Royal Mail Steam Packet Company* also convey passengers from *Southampton* to *Victoria*, British Columbia, by way of Panama.

CHAPTER V.

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, EDUCATION, FINANCE, CROWN-
LANDS, JUSTICE AND CRIME, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART,
SOCIAL CONDITIONS, PUBLIC DEFENCE.

System of local self-government—Religious denominations—Public instruction in the Dominion—Higher education in the various provinces—Work of Dr. Ryerson—Colleges—Elementary education in Quebec—in Ontario—in Nova Scotia—in New Brunswick—in Prince Edward Island—in Manitoba—in British Columbia—in the North-West Territories—Satisfactory state of the elementary schools—Financial affairs of the Dominion—Protective duties—Management of the public lands—Administration of justice—Social state of the people—Their material prosperity—Character of the youth—Amusements—Literature—Judge Haliburton and other writers—Eminent names in science—Dawson and Romanes—Scientific societies—Painting and music—National defence—Militia force—North-West Mounted Police.

In all the provinces of the Dominion, local self-government is well developed. Taking Ontario as a model in which the system is most regular and complete, we find that affairs are administered by reeves, deputy-reeves, mayors, and councillors, all of whom are yearly chosen by the ratepayers. Townships or rural districts of 8 to 10 square miles in area, with a population from 3000 to 6000, are controlled by a reeve and 4 councillors. Villages with at least 750 inhabitants have a like form of local rule to the township. Towns exceeding 2000 are divided into wards and governed by a mayor and by councillors elected for each ward. Above these minor communities comes the county council or municipality, composed of the mayors, reeves and deputy-reeves, presided over by one of the body styled "Warden". The "city", any town containing above 10,000 people, is governed by a mayor and ward-aldermen. The municipal councils are empowered to levy rates, to borrow money, to take measures for promoting trade, agriculture, manufactures, and means of communication; to control drainage, roads, paupers, cemeteries, markets, public schools, free libraries, the methods for extinguishing fire, police, and other matters closely connected with the well-being of the people.

The Dominion knows nothing of any "State Church", the only interference of the Government having consisted in protecting the privileges enjoyed by Roman Catholics under French possession. The members of the Anglican Church, numbering nearly 650,000

by the census of April, 1891, are in charge of the Archbishop of Ontario as Metropolitan, ruling 8 other prelates in his ecclesiastical "province of Canada"; of the Archbishop of Rupertsland as Metropolitan of that ecclesiastical province, having under his control 6 bishops; and of the Bishops of New Westminster (British Columbia) and British Columbia, ruling dioceses under the Archbishop of Canterbury. The Anglican clergy number about one thousand. The large French and the Irish elements in the population make the Roman Catholics number nearly 2 millions, with about 1500 clergy and a hierarchy composed of a cardinal, 6 archbishops, and 23 bishops. The Presbyterian Church in Canada, formed in 1875 by the union of two bodies, has about 760,000 adherents and 1000 ministers, being ruled, as in Scotland, by presbyteries, synods, and an annual General Assembly, and having nearly 2500 churches and mission-stations. The Methodists have about 1700 ministers for 850,000 lay-people, and the Baptists 500 ministers for somewhat over 300,000. The Lutherans number about 65,000, the Congregationalists 28,000, miscellaneous creeds 108,000, and all others, of no stated belief, or pagans, are returned at nearly 90,000. The Roman Catholics, as we may suppose, have a vast preponderance in the Province of Quebec; the bulk of the Anglicans are found in Ontario, as also of the Methodists and Presbyterians. The five most numerous bodies above given have one or more divinity colleges.

The condition of public instruction in Canada differs vastly from that which existed prior to the nineteenth century, and for many years after 1801. A report of 1824 states that in Lower Canada (Province of Quebec) "not above one-fourth of the entire population could read, and not above one-tenth of them could write even imperfectly". A law of that year, providing for the establishment by the *curé* (parish-priest) and church-wardens in every parish of a school for every 100 families laid a foundation of the present school-system of Quebec. On the union of Lower and Upper Canada, a measure was passed providing for a uniform system of public education in the two provinces, and appropriating £40,000 a-year for its maintenance. In 1846, another statute improved the system, and first embodied the principle of compulsory taxation. Three years later, the system was made permissive, but new energy was developed under the control of Dr.

Chauveau, who prepared Acts for the improvement of elementary and higher education, established normal schools at Montreal and Quebec, and in 1867 became Minister of Education in the government of that province. The *McGill College* at Montreal, founded by the will of Mr. Peter McGill, was chartered as a University in 1821, and has faculties of arts, law, medicine, and science. *Laval University and Seminary* at Quebec, founded in 1663 by Mgr. Laval, is a Roman Catholic institution, with faculties in arts, theology, and law. In 1853, *Bishop's College*, Lennoxville, was incorporated under the control of the Anglican Church. In Upper Canada (Ontario) an Act of 1816 started the germ of the present public-school system, with the sum of £6000 annually voted to aid in the payment of teachers and the purchase of books. In 1824, the system was developed and the grants were increased, and in 1839 the Government set aside 250,000 acres of land for the permanent endowment of grammar-schools, and aided the erection of school-buildings in each county. In 1844, the Act of three years previously was repealed so far as concerned Upper Canada, and the duty of reorganizing the common-school system in that province was intrusted to Dr. Ryerson, an eminent Methodist minister who played a great part in favour of sound principles of civil and religious freedom, as regarded the disestablishment of the Anglican Church in Canada and the secularization of the clergy reserves. As editor of the *Christian Guardian*, a religious weekly journal established by his communion in 1829, he did much to acquire for the Methodist Church the right of holding ecclesiastical property and solemnizing matrimony. After holding for three years the office of President of the University of Victoria College, founded in 1841, he became Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada and for more than thirty years, often crossing the Atlantic in order to inspect the educational systems of leading European countries, he devoted his energies to developing the school-system of his native province. He was greatly aided in his efforts by a Council of Public Instruction, and by the wise and liberal legislation of successive parliaments, and the result was that the public-school system of Ontario became one of the most efficient in the world, admired by European experts, and most conducive to national prosperity. For the training and practice of teachers, the *Provincial Normal School*, in

1857, was founded at Toronto, with a branch at Ottawa twenty years later. The above-named *Victoria College*, opened at Cobourg with faculties in arts, law, medicine, and divinity, has been affiliated with the University of Toronto, with which three theological colleges are also connected. *Queen's College*, Kingston, under the control of the Kirk of Scotland, possesses university powers received about 1841, and the *University of King's College* at Toronto, organized in 1842 under the management of the Anglican Church, was thrown open in 1849, as a Provincial institution, to all denominations as the above-named Toronto University. The Anglicans then established, as their own exclusive possession, *Trinity University* at Toronto, with faculties in divinity, medicine, and arts. The *McMaster University*, in the same city, is a Baptist institution. The Episcopal Methodists, in 1866, received a university charter, as Albert College, for their *Belleville Seminary*, and the Roman Catholics have *Regiopolis College*, at Kingston; *St. Joseph's College*, at Ottawa, and *St. Michael's College*, at Toronto. In 1844, *Knox College*, Toronto, was founded as a theological school under the Presbyterian Church of Canada. All the chief denominations have also colleges for the higher education of young ladies.

Passing to the other provinces of the Dominion, and dealing still with the subject of the higher education, we find that Nova Scotia possesses six universities, including that of Sackville, belonging jointly to Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. *King's College* at Windsor, founded in 1788, and by far the oldest Protestant college in the Dominion, received a university charter in 1802, and thus became the first colonial university of British origin. As this institution was solely Anglican, *Dalhousie College* was founded on the undenominational system in 1820, at Halifax, mainly through the efforts of the Presbyterian Church. *Acadia College*, founded in 1838 by the Baptists, received a charter two years later. In 1843, the Wesleyan Methodists of the maritime provinces founded an academy at Sackville, in New Brunswick, which received university powers in 1862, and the Roman Catholics, in 1840 and 1855 respectively, established *St. Mary's College* at Halifax and *St. François Xavier College* at Antigonish. All the above places of higher instruction receive yearly grants from the legislature. The *University of Halifax*, taking no part in the work of teaching,

but holding examinations in arts, medicine, and law, and conferring degrees, was established by Act in 1876. In New Brunswick, the *University of New Brunswick*, formerly styled King's College, received its charter in 1828, and took its present name in 1860. At first an Anglican institution, it became non-sectarian by legislation of 1858-59. The Presbyterians have colleges at Woodstock and Chatham. In Prince Edward Island, a school for higher education was founded at Charlottetown in 1836, and in 1861 the *Prince of Wales College* was established as a memorial of the royal visit in the previous year. Manitoba has now her own University, with powers to examine and confer degrees, and with Episcopal, Roman Catholic, Presbyterian, Wesleyan, and a medical college affiliated thereto.

It is one of the glories of the Canadian Dominion, in connection with education, that long before school-boards were established in Great Britain, the people of Canada had the advantage of free and unsectarian instruction. Nowhere in the world is good education more widely spread, and, through the public schools of a higher grade, along with many excellent private institutions, the highest prizes which the country offers are open to all, rich and poor alike, so far as intellectual equipment can conduce to success in the work of life. By the legislation of 1867, educational matters were left to the provincial parliaments of the Dominion, and there is no uniform system, though the principle of free education is generally admitted, and the expenditure is met by local taxation and by Government grants in aid. Taking the provinces in order, and dealing chiefly with elementary education, we find that in *Quebec* the central control is vested in a Superintendent of Public Instruction, assisted by a council of 35 members, divided into committees for the separate management of Protestant and Roman Catholic schools. Local control is in the hands either of the curé and church-wardens, or of local boards, and in 1896, there were about 5000 elementary schools, with over 200,000 scholars, and about 700 of the higher class, with 80,000 pupils, besides three normal schools maintained by the state. Religious teaching is, in this province, part of the educational system, the Bible being the text-book in the Protestant schools, and a special catechism in the Roman Catholic. In *Ontario*, the Minister of Education is a member of the Provincial cabinet. The public-school system is specially excellent.

providing for compulsory attendance, local assessment, thorough inspection, complete equipment, graded examinations, and "separate" schools for Roman Catholics and Protestants, the Protestant being undenominational. The Scriptures are read, without comment, in every elementary and high school; the clergy and the trustees of all religious bodies may make special arrangements for sectarian instruction. In 1896 there were 6190 schools with over half a million learners, taught by over 9500 men and women, all certificated. There are many high schools or colleges for girls, and ample care is taken of instruction for the deaf and dumb and the blind. Reformatory-schools strive to reclaim young criminals of both sexes. *Nova Scotia*, in respect to elementary education, long lagged behind as regards a well-organized school-system, but in 1865 a great impulse came in a law vesting the central control in a Council of Public Instruction, the members of which are identical with the Executive Council of the Province. Boards of trustees elected by the ratepayers have local management in country "sections" or districts; in towns, the Town-council, or a committee of that body, direct affairs. Taxation for the support of schools is compulsory and the schools are free. Religious instruction is permitted, but the attendance of children thereon is voluntary. In 1896, there were nearly 2330 schools in operation, with about 102,000 pupils on the books. In *New Brunswick*, where the system as regards religious instruction is the same as in *Nova Scotia*, an Act for establishing parish-schools was passed in 1823. Ten years later, another statute gave aid to the amount of £160 in each parish on condition of a like sum being locally raised, and by degrees the system was improved and extended until every parish was receiving £660 a-year. A normal and a model school were founded at St. John, and provincial and county superintendents of public (elementary) instruction were appointed. The organization became so efficient that, in 1865, 900 schools were being carried on, besides 50 superior and denominational institutions. In 1871, an Act modelled the system on that of Ontario, with a central Board of Education, local boards of trustees, and free education between the ages of 5 and 20. There was much trouble at the outset in reference to the non-sectarian system, as being compulsory in order for schools to receive aid from the public funds, but the Privy Council in England sustained the

action of the Dominion government, and the difficulty was afterwards met by modifications of the law. In 1896, there were over 1670 schools, with about 63,000 pupils on the books. In *Prince Edward Island*, having about 460 schools and 22,250 pupils in 1896, the legislature first made grants in aid, to a small amount, as early as 1808, but it was not until 1852 that free schools were well established; since 1867, the system has been fully organized under a Board of Education, with local management in the hands of a Chief Superintendent. Instruction at the elementary schools is free, unsectarian, and compulsory between the ages of 8 and 13 years. The reading of the Scriptures without comment is permitted but not enjoined. In *Manitoba*, in 1871, the first parliament, in its first session, placed the central control of education in the hands of a Board, with Protestant and Roman Catholic sections, local management being vested in trustees elected by the people. Instruction is free, unsectarian, and compulsory between the ages of 5 and 16. The several religious bodies have also their denominational schools. In 1895, there were over 1000 schools, with nearly 38,000 pupils. The educational system is in a very promising condition, normal schools being provided for the training of teachers, and arrangements made in 1887 for establishing three high and eight intermediate schools in connection with the elementary institutions, a plan which has lately been carried into effect. In every township, two sections of land, each of one sq. mile, or one eighteenth of the whole area, have been set aside for the endowment of education, the whole reserves for this purpose being estimated at $1\frac{1}{2}$ million acres. *British Columbia* had her school-system organized in 1872, that of Ontario being the chief model, and the legislature of the province having started the work with the liberal grant of 40,000 dollars (about £8000) annually. A Superintendent of Education, under the Provincial Secretary, has the chief control, the local management being, as usual, in the hands of elected trustees in every district. Instruction is free and compulsory between the ages of 7 and 12 years; as regards religious instruction, the law is that "the highest morality is to be inculcated, but no religious creed or dogma taught". In 1896, 205 schools contained nearly 13,500 pupils. The care of the Government for its younger subjects is well shown in the provision for the forming of a school-district wherever there are fifteen

prospective learners between the ages of six and sixteen. In the *North-West Territories*, a School Ordinance of 1888 established a Board of Education, and provided for the creation of school-districts in areas up to 25 sq. miles, each containing at least four heads of families and not less than ten children of school age. Liberal aids are given to the work, and in 1896 there were nearly 400 elementary schools with about 10,000 learners. To sum up, the total number of public (elementary) schools in the Dominion is nearly 17,000, with over 1100 higher institutions. The annual expenditure, including Government grants, exceeds 2 millions sterling. Well-qualified inspectors from the British Isles give an excellent report of the working of Canadian elementary schools. It is observed that, in comparison with British board-schools, the sexes are more mixed, an arrangement "which enforces better behaviour on the pupils through respect for themselves, thus lightening vastly the duties of teachers; that neither masters nor pupils are allowed to address each other, even in as large a class as 35 scholars, in a tone above that of ordinary conversation, a regulation which works admirably as regards good behaviour and strict attention on the part of pupils to the work in hand; and that the system of "payment by results" has long been given up as "most pernicious". The pupils are frequently examined by masters of other classes, and by inspectors at the term end, when they have to pass their respective standards, of which there are eight. On this plan, the teachers are not tempted to "cram" their scholars; the favouring of advanced children is discouraged; and the teachers aim at keeping the class evenly advancing, and encourage the learners to think before giving answers to questions. An excellent feature in all the schools is the orderly way of filling and clearing the class-rooms in marching order, boys and girls alike filing off with great precision. This training in discipline is also a preventive of panic in case of fire. Visitors to Winnipeg, after noting that the teachers are paid by the Government according to the class of certificate which they hold, describe the school-buildings as good, the sanitary and ventilating arrangements as excellent, the children as having a particularly intelligent, strong, and healthy appearance, as very clean in person, and well dressed, remarks which their experience enabled them to "apply generally throughout the whole Dominion".

Recent information concerning the financial affairs of the

Dominion shows a deficit of over 4,000,000 dollars (£800,000), in the year ending June 30th, 1895, on a revenue of nearly 34,000,000 dollars or £7,000,000. Of this amount Customs brought in about £3,520,000; Excise, about £1,560,000; Public Works, £718,000; and the Post-Office rather more than half a million. The largest items of expenditure are Interest on Public Debt (over 50 millions sterling, chiefly incurred for public works) to the amount of over 2 millions; Subsidies to Provinces, about £850,000; Legislation, Civil Government and Administration of Justice, nearly £620,000; Sinking Fund, over £400,000; Militia and Defence and Mounted Police in the N. W. Territories, nearly £450,000; Public Works, nearly £400,000; and Charges on Revenue, nearly £1,900,000. It may be observed that the expenditure includes grants to fisheries and to Indians, and charges for immigration and quarantine, geological survey and observatories, lighthouses and coast-service, experimental farm, and ocean and river steam-service, including mail-subsidies. The remarkable feature of the Canadian fiscal policy, as contrasted with that of the mother-country, lies in the protective duties on imports from the British Isles and foreign countries, varying in 1895 from 20 to 35 per cent of the value. At the same time, many reductions have been made, and at the present time the articles imported duty-free amount to 35 per cent of the total imports. Trade between the different provinces is wholly without fiscal restrictions.

The public lands in the various Provinces are generally under the control of the local governments, and in the older Provinces land, in limited areas, can still be obtained free by settlers who undertake to fulfil certain conditions as to clearing, residence, and improvement. In Manitoba and the North-West Territories the ungranted lands are chiefly administered by the Federal or Dominion authorities. The ground is laid out in quadrilateral townships, each containing 36 sections of about 1 sq. mile or 640 acres, with the townships numbered in regular sequence from south to north, and in ranges running from east to west. Each section of a sq. mile area is divided into quarter-sections of 160 acres. The even-numbered sections, except two allotted to the Hudson Bay Company, are open for "homestead entry" on a system whereby grants not exceeding 160 acres can be obtained by payment of 10 dollars (£2) at the office of the district-agent. Any

head of a family, male or female, or any male over eighteen years of age, is entitled to this privilege. At the end of three years, on having fulfilled certain conditions as to cultivation and residence, the holder receives, without further payment, a patent for the land, and becomes the owner of the soil or yeoman-farmer. Wood-lots may be purchased by settlers in need of timber to the amount of 20 acres at the cash-price of 5 dollars per acre, or such men may obtain for 25 cents (about 1s.) a permit to cut, free of dues, 30 cords of firewood, 1800 lineal feet of building-timber, 2000 poplar fence-rails, and 400 roof-poles. The odd-numbered sections of land, except two set aside as educational endowments for each township, are kept by the Government for sale and for grants in aid of railway construction. The Canadian Pacific Railway Company, who received, as already stated, the odd-numbered sections on each side of the line, excepting school-lands, for a width of 24 miles, have sold a large area to the Canadian North-West Land Company and to other purchasers, still having a great extent of soil for disposal at from 2½ dollars per acre. In British Columbia, any British subject who is head of a family or a male over eighteen years of age may obtain 320 acres of land north and east of the Cascade Range, or 160 acres elsewhere, at the price of 1 dollar per acre, payable by four yearly instalments, on the following conditions:—the personal residence of the settler or of his family or agent; and the making of improvements to the value of 10s. 6*d.* per acre. Lands from 160 to 640 acres may also be bought at 10s. 6*d.* per acre, without these conditions imposed on the purchaser. In all the Provinces, “improved farms”, or small estates on which buildings have been erected and a portion of the land tilled, may be bought at prices varying from £2 to £20 per acre.

In a region so prosperous and well-ordered as the Canadian Dominion, where education is so well developed, there is little need to dwell at any length on the subjects of Justice and Crime. The Supreme Court at Ottawa has appellate civil, and criminal jurisdiction throughout the Dominion, and an exchequer court also acts as a colonial admiralty-tribunal. Each Province has its Superior Court; most Provinces have county-courts, with jurisdiction limited as in the British Isles; all the judges in these being appointed by the Governor-General. The Provincial Governments appoint the local police-magistrates and justices of the peace.

In 1895, 5,474 persons were convicted of indictable offences, and of these 5 were sentenced to death, 499 were sent to the penitentiaries, and the rest were sentenced to various terms of imprisonment. The summary convictions numbered over 32,000, with the option of a fine in about 28,000 cases.

Those who best know Canada observe alike the lessening of the caste-distinctions that prevail in British society at home, and the careful maintenance of the "traditions of the elders" which are most strongly marked features in the social system of the mother-country. The ownership of land, in all the country-districts, gives a sense of freedom and independence to the great mass of the population that is little known in some European countries. We have already noticed the advanced state of Canadian ideas on the subject of education, and we may here advert to such signs of political and social development as the payment of members of parliament for their services; quinquennial parliaments; the absence of legalized pauperism; the legalization of marriage with a deceased wife's sister by an Act of the Dominion Parliament in 1882; and the prevalence of "local option" in regard to the traffic in alcoholic liquors. According to the report of the Tenant-Farmer Delegates who visited the Dominion in 1890, and, being men of the highest respectability in England who enjoyed ample opportunities of observation in Canada, the law concerning strong liquors has had an excellent effect. "I think it difficult", writes one of these gentlemen, "to find any country where there is less rowdyism and drunkenness than in Canada", and "taking them as a whole, the population is decidedly abstemious". In describing Toronto at a time when the great agricultural show and fair were being held, and the city of 200,000 people had many thousands of visitors devoted to the calls of business and pleasure, another Delegate refers to "the absence of all noise or drunkenness, no intoxicating liquor being allowed to be sold inside the show-yard, but every convenience afforded for refreshments of all kinds and non-intoxicating drinks". "Throughout Canada", he also states, "tea and coffee are served with every meal, which no doubt accounts in a great measure for the general sobriety of the people." Eulogy on other points is freely given by a third who states, "I never saw a beggar or was solicited for alms throughout the country", and "I never met with more civility, hospitality, and kindness than I did through-

out Canada at every point and from every class of her people". It is also pleasant to find, on the same authority, that "in Canada, laborious manual field-labour is really a passport to society. Wheresoever we went, the hard-working well-to-do settler (and the two things are usually found to follow each other) was received by every Canadian, no matter what his own position in life was, as a brother to whom they were ever ready to give honour and respect." A writer in *Macmillan's Magazine*, in some remarks on the Province of Ontario and its people, refers to "the stout North British yeomanry who have for the most part carved out Upper Canada and are its most distinctive social feature; and it is surely the rural districts of a mainly agricultural colony that tell its story best". In describing Western Ontario, the splendid country lying west of Toronto, and between lakes Erie and Huron and the Georgian Bay, he dispels the British notion of a Canadian farm as "a rude shanty surrounded by a waste of bristling stumps, and hemmed in by a belt of impenetrable forest where vast herds of deer and bear alone make life endurable by the facility with which they can be slain". The truth is that anywhere in settled Ontario the British visitor sees a country in every detail as civilized, as densely settled, and as well cultivated as an average rural neighbourhood in England. There are parts of the country which look as if they had been settled by the Pilgrim Fathers and cultivated ever since by East Lothian farmers. The crudeness of a new country has almost utterly vanished. The eye misses, indeed, the manor-house and park, the thorn-hedge and the labourer's cottage. The only habitations of man are the homesteads, but these lie much thicker on the land than the farmhouses do in any part of England where they are of the same substance and pretension. The farmer and his sons are generally their own gardeners, ploughmen, and grooms, while the wife and daughters do duty as cook and housemaids. The owner and his family, as a rule, work with their own hands in all the management of the homestead, which includes a good mansion of brick and stone and its surrounding clean, well-tilled fields. A fine economic spectacle is this of a whole province of 100- and 150-acre farms, all practically self-supporting, with no rent and little labour to pay, light taxation, and owners who are usually the second or third in descent from the poor immigrant who erected his log-hut upon a free grant, in the forest-

wilderness that then covered Western Ontario. Nearly every trace of these rude beginnings has been effaced, and the spectacle of perfect fitness and order, peace and plenty, evolved in so brief a space of time out of chaos, is a noble monument of British pluck, perseverance, stubbornness, fortitude, and valour in subduing and colonizing the world. There are those, on the other hand, who lament the change which has occurred in Canadian town-society through the loss of a military element caused by the withdrawal of the Imperial troops. "Tone" has departed with the British officers, many of them men of birth and breeding, men who had travelled, and were often accomplished and well-read, and with the wives and daughters who shone there in the last generation. The thrifty shopkeeper now, with some exceptions, rules socially as well as commercially in the country-towns of Upper Canada, with their pleasant bowery villas and maple-shaded side-walks. The new generation of young Canadians, it seems, have the purity of the English accent corrupted by Irish nurses, and by French, Scottish, and American servants, and have acquired a terrible twang in their speech. A compensation for this is found in the fact that the Canadian young man is one who excels in sport, knows not fear, and, if not fitted for a Mayfair boudoir, has made his mark in Africa. Within recent years, Stairs, Mackay, and Denison, all graduates of the Canadian Military College, have done good work as explorers and laid down their lives in African jungles. Early training makes the Canadian an ideal campaigner. For his own amusement he camps out in the bush, and, shooting rapids in his canoe and facing other forms of danger, he trains his nerves and muscles for the roughest work of life in other scenes. The Canadian girls enjoy abundant social freedom, and this is combined with a very high degree of propriety of conduct and self-respect. Before marriage she may and does dance, skate, flirt, and enjoy life to the full. After marriage, she is devoted to her husband, children, and household; she becomes an excellent and contented housekeeper of the German type. Undignified conduct among married ladies is very rare, and divorces are all but unknown. Canadian female beauty is rather American than English in its character; delicate and lovely features are common; the feet and hands are matchless; and the colouring is often striking in the combination of dark eyes with yellow hair or gray eyes with

black lashes and eyebrows—peculiarities largely due to mixture of races.

The social amusements of Canada are peculiar and delightful. Balls and dinner-parties are the same all the world over, but the people of the Dominion can offer to European guests attractions which are found in few other countries. In the summer-season, they have the finest forms of riding, driving, boating, canoeing, fishing, and camping-out in parties. The winter brings skating, sleighing, tobogganing, moonlight tramps on snow-shoes, picnics to frozen falls, and the hunting of moose (elk) and caribou (reindeer). The skaters, having abundant practice, often acquire great skill in their charming and graceful art; as regards speed, in 1897, J. Nilsson traversed five miles at Montreal in 14 minutes 47 seconds, an achievement which was a world's record for professionals up to the time of performance. Canadians are extremely social in their tastes. People of leisure pass much of their time in the houses of their friends, and in the larger towns "society" gathers at night in the beautiful, brilliantly-lit, well-warmed public or semi-public halls, for skating, to the music of a band, on ice of the finest quality, with a surface nightly renewed by flooding. The country-houses are rather like to villas than to the massive and stately "places" or mansions seen in Great Britain. In general, they have but two storeys, and are provided with wide verandahs which shade the living-rooms in the hot summer and are overgrown with beautiful creepers. Around the house is the shade of trees, with shrubberies, lawns, and pleasant gardens rich in the European flowers and native growths. There is little country-house life in the English sense, as the residences are not large enough for "house-parties", and in the months of June, July, and August all the fashionable and wealthy world goes off on the "salt-water visit" to the sea-side or the shores of the St. Lawrence estuary. The sleighs, vehicles which in Canada and the north of the United States are brought to great perfection, lightness, and beauty of construction, take the place of carriages in the winter-season, and afford much gaiety of sight and sound, drawn by spirited steeds caparisoned with bells of silvery tone. Tobogganing is a species of sleighing which takes the form of "coasting" or sliding down hills of frozen snow. A thin flat board curved upwards in front, or two boards joined together, with or without wooden "runners",

being drawn to the top of a snowy slope and started by a push in the rear, will carry one, two, and up to eight persons, according to the size of the machine, at great speed down the slope. The apparatus is then hauled up to the top by the cords attached to one end, and the sport is repeated until its chief devotees, the boys and girls, are tired of the fun. Ice-yachting is a delightful amusement, before the snow falls, on the smooth frozen surface of the lakes and bays. A three-cornered frame of wood, with an iron runner under each corner, has a mast fixed in the centre beam, bearing a sail which, in a good breeze, carries the yacht along at the medium speed of a railway-train. The machine is steered by the movable runner in the rear. The game of La Crosse, now much played at Cambridge University, and by some local clubs in the British Isles, but never popular in this country, was imported from Canada. An india-rubber ball is struck with a bat composed of a stick 5 or 6 feet in length, bent at the top like a bishop's crozier (*crosse*), and with this hooked portion traversed diagonally by strings of skin so as to form a network like that of a tennis-racquet, but less tightly stretched. Twelve or more players on each side aim at driving the ball between the opponents' goal-posts. The ball is scooped up from the ground and carried horizontally on the network towards the goal, being tossed in case of need towards one of the same team who may be in a better position to forward it to its destination. The ball must not be touched by any player's hand or foot, and no striking, tripping up, or grasping of a rival player is permitted, nor any touching of his *crosse* with the hand; it is allowable, however, to strike the ball off an opponent's *crosse* with one's own weapon. We must not forget that, in the graceful and athletic art of sculling, a Canadian, Edward (or Edmund) Hanlan, of Toronto, held the "World's Championship" from 1880 till 1884.

In regard to literary, scientific, and artistic achievement, it is still too early to expect very much from a country mainly occupied with material development. In literature, steady progress has been made, and good promise of better things has been afforded, while a few writers have obtained a reputation widely spread on both sides of the Atlantic. In the earlier Victorian period, countless readers were entertained by the humour of the writer whose popular name was "Sam Slick", as the author of works on the sayings and doings of "Samuel Slick of Slickville", a Yankee clockmaker and pedlar

full of quaint fun, rude wit, knowledge of character, and skill in "soft sawder". The writer of this and other humorous works, as well as of solid historical matter, was Thomas Chandler Haliburton, born at Windsor, Nova Scotia, in 1796, who became a barrister, a member of the House of Assembly, chief-justice of the common pleas (1829), and in 1840 judge of the Supreme Court. Two years later he retired from the bench, and came to reside in England. In 1858 the University of Oxford honoured Judge Haliburton with the degree of D.C.L., and in the following year he entered the House of Commons as Conservative M.P. for Launceston, dying at Isleworth in Middlesex in 1865. The well-known Charles Grant Allen, novelist and evolutionist, was born at Kingston, Ontario, in 1848, graduating at Oxford in 1870. Meritorious works on Canadian history and literature have been produced by Dr. Withrow and Mr. Adam. The contributions of Canadian writers in miscellaneous literature to the magazines both of the United States and of Great Britain are of growing number and value. The French-Canadian literature of Lower Canada, inspired by and modelled on that of the European founders of that portion of the Dominion, has valuable works on Canadian history and an interesting collection of essays, novels, and lyrics. In 1880, Mr. Fréchette of Quebec was crowned the poet of the year by the French Academy, and among his rivals in Canada are the Hon. Pierre Chauveau, Sheriff of Montreal, and once Premier of Quebec; Benjamin Sulte, and Pamphile Le May. Countless chansons of the *ancienne mère patrie* are still sung to the child in the cradle; by the *habitant* returning from his hayfield; on the timber-raft, and in the canoe. Many charming effusions in English verse have come from Bliss Carman, a native (1861) of Fredericton, New Brunswick, a very original lyric poet; Miss Isabella Crawford, a young lady of brilliant powers who died, yet unappreciated, at Toronto in 1887; Mr. Alexander M'Lachlan, styled "the Burns of Canada", who emigrated thither in 1840; Miss Agnes Maule Machar (pen-name *Fidclis*) of Kingston, Ontario, held by many excellent judges to be the chief Canadian poetess; Mr. C. G. D. Roberts, a foremost name in Canadian song, born in New Brunswick, 1860, greatly admired by Matthew Arnold for his *Orion and other Poems*, inspired by ancient Greek ideals, and also one "who has struck the supreme note of Canadian nationality in his *Canada* and his *Ode for the Canadian Confederacy*";

Charles Sangster, born near Kingston in 1822, the first important national poet of Canada, a Wordsworth in his love of nature; and from others whose names, with specimens of their poetical style, may be seen in Mr. Lighthall's *Songs of the Great Dominion*. In that volume we find stirring words on the new Canadian nationality; sketches of the Indian, the *habitant* and the *voyageur*; delineations of the rougher settlement-life; songs bearing on the summer and winter sports of the land; and charming descriptions of natural scenes and sounds—the humming-bird; the golden birch; the fir-woods, with “the wash of endless waves in their tops”; the “mellow pipes of myriad frogs” in the marsh; the “measured trill of the whip-poor-Will”; the fire-flies; the apple-harvest, the flaming wood-tints of the Indian summer; the first snow, the Aurora Borealis, the winter beauties of the jewelled trees, the flower-buds that peep in April, and the bobolink, styled by M'Lachlan the “merry mad-cap on the tree”.

In science, Canada has produced some eminent men. Sir William Edmond Logan, the geologist, was born, son of a Scottish baker, at Montreal in 1798. He was partly educated at the Edinburgh High School in his father's native land, and after a commercial life in London for ten years he went to Swansea, in South Wales, in chief financial charge of the affairs of a copper-smelting company. It was there that he turned his attention to the stratification of the earth's crust, and his geological mapping of the coal-basins in South Wales was incorporated in the 1-inch maps of the Geological Survey. For nearly thirty years (1842–1871) Logan was director of the like important work in Canada, receiving a knighthood for his services in 1856; his death occurred, in 1875, in Wales. Sir John William Dawson, the geologist and naturalist, born at Pictou, Nova Scotia, in 1820, studied at Edinburgh, and became assistant to Sir Charles Lyell in 1842 and 1852 during his geological researches in Nova Scotia. After serving as Superintendent of Education in his native province for some years, Dawson became in 1855 Principal of McGill University, Montreal. His eminence in his special subject is denoted by the award, in 1882, of the Lyell medal of the Geological Society of London, and his general distinction as a naturalist was recognized by the knighthood conferred in 1884, by the honorary membership of many learned societies, and by his Presidency of the British Association

at the Birmingham meeting in 1885, when he delivered an address on the geographical history of the Atlantic Ocean. In some of his works Sir William Dawson has shown himself an opponent of Darwin's views on the origin of species. In this respect this distinguished Nova Scotian is in strong contrast to the late lamented George John Romanes, born at Kingston, Ontario, in 1848, a graduate in natural science honours at Cambridge in 1870, and a devoted friend and disciple of Darwin, whose arguments he supported with consummate ability in his public lectures and in his works on evolution which appeared from 1881 onwards. In 1879, at thirty-one years of age, Romanes became F.R.S., and his reputation was ever growing until his death in 1894. Among the chief scientific societies of the Dominion are the Royal Society of Canada; the Natural History Societies of Montreal and New Brunswick; the Canadian Institute, at Toronto; the Nova Scotia Institute, and the Scientific and Historical Society at Winnipeg.

On Canadian art we have not much to state. There is a Royal Canadian Academy of Art, the President of which, Mr. L. R. O'Brien, has painted, amongst other works, a beautiful view of Quebec for his sovereign, Queen Victoria. The National Art Gallery of Canada, started in 1882, was afterwards established at Ottawa under Government aid and control, and yearly receives many donations of art-works. We may also record the fact that a portrait of Mr. Gladstone, presented to the National Liberal Club in London, in December, 1892 (with a speech from Mr. Blake, M.P., already noticed in our history of Canada as a former Premier), depicting the great Liberal leader as delivering an address, and deemed by good judges to be one of the finest representations of Gladstone, was due to the brush of Mr. John Colin Forbes, of the Royal Canadian Academy, Toronto, the leading portrait-painter of the Dominion, who has also executed successful portraits of Lord Dufferin, Mr. Blake, Sir John Macdonald, and other men eminent in Canadian history. In the musical art, the Dominion can boast of producing the famous Madame Albani, born at Chambly, near Montreal, her real name being Emma La Jeunesse, and her professional title derived from her appearing first at Albany, in New York State.

In this department of our subject, before proceeding to a brief descriptive account of the separate Provinces of the Dominion,

we come to deal, lastly, with the important matter of national defence. As regards naval affairs, maritime defence is at present the concern of the Imperial authorities, who have 12 men-of-war in the North American and West Indian squadrons and eight others on the Pacific station. The only fortified places in the Dominion are Halifax, an Imperial naval station, defended by strong works, which are garrisoned by 2000 men, and Esquimaux, in Vancouver Island, now an important, strongly-fortified coaling-station, garrisoned by Colonial artillery. In 1871 the Imperial troops were reduced to the number forming the Halifax garrison, and Canada thus relies almost solely, for immediate protection, on her two classes of militia, active and reserve, the latter including all male British subjects between 18 and 60 years of age. The active militia, serving for three years, and composed of voluntary enlistees and of men selected by ballot, numbers about 35,000 men, trained yearly for 12 days in the towns, at head-quarters, and in country-districts biennially for the same period, in camps of exercise. The force, now for some years commanded by a Lieutenant-General of the British army, includes 9 regiments, 1 squadron, and 3 troops of cavalry; 18 batteries of field-artillery; 45 batteries of garrison-artillery; 2 companies of engineers; and 92 battalions, 6 companies, of infantry. The permanent corps, just-exceeding 1000 officers and men, comprises 2 troops of Royal Canadian Dragoons, 3 batteries of R. C. artillery, and 4 companies of the R. C. Regiment of infantry, connected with royal schools of gunnery (3), cavalry (1), infantry (4) and mounted infantry (1). In 1875 a Royal Military College was founded at Kingston, in Ontario, as a school of scientific military instruction; from this establishment 85 cadets have been gazetted to commissions in the Imperial army. The Dominion is divided, for military purposes, into 11 districts, each under a permanent Deputy Adjutant-General, with a Brigade Staff as his assistants in the work. The Military College has also supplied between 30 and 40 officers to the permanent force known as the North-West Mounted Police, a body of 1000 men and officers patrolling portions of Manitoba and the N.W. Territories, to preserve order amongst rough characters in partially settled districts where roaming Indians are also found. There are ten troops of these men with duties extending over a region 700 miles in length by 350 broad. These scarlet-coated troopers

are a fine soldierly set of men of whom any nation might be proud, being mostly from the British Isles, English, Irish, and Scots, with a good number of French Canadians and a sprinkling of Norwegians and Swedes. The ranks include not a few younger sons who have been unable to obtain commissions in the British army. The reputation of this splendid force has a very powerful moral effect as a check upon disorderly elements in the vast region committed to their care, as malcontents can never be sure what such men are not capable of if occasion arise. The head-quarters, where the Chief Commissioner resides, are at Regina, in Assiniboia, on the Canadian Pacific Railway. The whole force is mounted on the steeds called "bronchos", raised on the prairies to the north, a good class of horse, with excellent feet and legs, and capital action, purchased at 3 and 4 years old for about £24 (120 dollars) as an average price.

CHAPTER VI.

THE PROVINCES: QUEBEC.

Boundaries, area, and population — The Côte de Beaupré — Its primitive French *habitans* — Scenery on the St. Lawrence below Quebec — The river Saguenay — Anticosti and the Magdalen Islands — The St. Lawrence above Quebec — River St. Maurice — Shawenigan Falls — Falls of Montmorency — Scenery of the country. Quebec city — Great fires of 1845 and 1865 — Its picturesque appearance — Streets and buildings — Churches — Suburbs — Trade. Trois Rivières, Hull, and Sherbrooke. Montreal city — Fire of 1852 — The Gavazzi and Orange riots — Favourable commercial position of the city — Its site and surroundings — Inhabitants — Churches and public buildings — The Winter Carnival — Summer resort of Lachine. Products, climate, divisions, and administration of the province.

The province of QUEBEC, running north-east in about 45 to 53 degrees north latitude, and from 57 to nearly 80 degrees west longitude, is bounded on the north by the vast wild region, sometimes called the North-East Territory, which lies between Hudson Bay and Labrador proper, and by this eastern part of the great Labrador peninsula; on the east and south by the Gulf of St. Lawrence and its inlet, Chaleur Bay; and by New Brunswick, and the States of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York; and on the west by the Province of Ontario. The total area, including the surface of the inland waters (*i.e.* the river and part of

the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the lakes) amounts to about 228,000 sq. miles, or more than $4\frac{1}{2}$ times the size of England. The land-surface is about 188,700 sq. miles, or nearly 121 millions of acres. The Notre Dame Mountains, on the south side of the great river, stretching from opposite Quebec to Gaspé, and the Laurentian Range, on the north side, have been already noticed. The population, in 1891, was 1,488,000, giving a density of 6.5 per sq. mile: the increase per cent, from 1881 to 1891, was 9.5. In religious belief, the Roman Catholics numbered 1,292,000; the Anglicans (Church of England), 75,500; the Presbyterians, 52,700; the Methodists, 39,500, and the Baptists about 8000. Deducting the Irish, who numbered about 124,000 in 1881, we see that the Roman Catholics nearly correspond to the French population, who may be estimated as at least 1,130,000. In 1763, at the time of the cession, the French Canadians did not exceed 70,000, so that a very remarkable increase in their numbers, an increase natural and not due to emigration, has taken place in the course of 130 years. The fact is in startling contrast to the condition of things in France, where the population barely holds its own in point of numbers, whereas amongst their Canadian kinsmen families of 12 children are far from uncommon. The rate of increase in this way much exceeds that of the British population, and is a phenomenon in our colonial affairs.

It is on the north side of the St. Lawrence, on the Côte de Beaupré, below the Montmorency Falls, that the French Canadians are seen in their most typical form, with many traditions and customs intact that have disappeared elsewhere during the last generation. There are families living on lands which their forefathers took in feudal tenure from the first *seigneurs* of "La Nouvelle France", and the *habitans* are veritable Normandy peasants of the days of Louis the Fourteenth. Under the Treaty of Paris (1763) and the Quebec Act (1774), their language, religion, and laws have been preserved, and rustic conservatism has done the rest for the maintenance of a French nationality in British North America. Their vitality as a distinct people, apart from more subtle causes, is partly due to the radical differences between French and English character, and to the physical condition derived from ancestors made up of hardy sailors of Normandy and Brittany; of sturdy farmers from Anjou, Poitou, and other western French provinces;

and of the soldiers of distinguished French regiments who came out to fight their country's battles on Canadian soil. The *habitans* represent by far the most successful French attempt at colonization, and the most French of them all are those of the Côte de Beaupré. The names in the district tell of the faith of the people, in parishes styled Sainte Anne de Beaupré and L'Ange Gardien, and in villages called Ste. Croix, L'Epiphanie, Notre Dame des Anges; just as here and in other parts of Canada and outside her boundary, history and legend are enshrined in beautiful and significant names such as Calumet, Carillon, Portage du Fort, La Lièvre, Rivière au Chien, Joliette, Champlain, Richelieu, Sorel, Varennes, Longueuil, Beauharnois and Point Lévis. The narrow farms, or *terres*, now subdivided into small plots under the system (*Coutume de Paris*) of intestate succession which assigns property in equal shares to all the children, run close to the river, in a belt from 2 to 10 miles wide, backed by a second range of settlements, among the foothills, mostly held by Irish and Scottish people. Farther inland come the *colons* or pioneers, driven to commence life again in the backwoods from excessive subdivision of their *patrimoine* or family inheritance. On the south shore of the St. Lawrence, the belt of settlement is much wider in the west of the Province, but narrows again towards Quebec, so that French Canada has been described as two continuous villages along the river, from the constant succession of white cottages on their plots of land, with straight parallel roads marking out the ranges of parishes and seignories. The longitudinal division of the soil on the original sections gives each farmer on the lowest range his strip of shore, marsh-land, plough-land, pasture, and wood. The memory of the old times when a raid of the Iroquois drove the settlers for refuge to the block-house of the *seigneur* is revived on hearing a *habitant* speak of going "au fort" when he resorts to a neighbouring village or little town. The old state of things is slowly vanishing under the influence of modern ideas as regards methods of cultivation, modes of conveyance and the like, but the European visitor may still see the blue-skirted women, with their huge shady caps, at work in the fields; the ox-drawn wagons for the heavier loads; the *charrette* or market-cart, half boat, half gig; and the *calèche*, a kind of cabriolet hung by leathern straps between two huge wheels. Nor will he fail to admire the kindly courtesy of the people; the picturesque little

shops and *auberges*; the houses with high roofs, broad eaves and tiny dormer windows; the masses of blooming flowers on the sills and in the little garden-plots, the best of which will adorn the altar of the parish church; the wayside crosses and tiny chapels, and the *châteaux* in their settings of foliage and green turf, some in ruins, some the dwellings of those who represent the families of the Old Régime. As regards the farming in this region, much of the tilling, sowing and reaping is still done by hand; the soil is merely scratched with a rude home-made plough dragged lazily along by a pair of oxen, led by a horse to keep them awake; the harrow is nothing but a rough wooden rake, or a mass of brush-wood fastened to a beam; the scythe and the sickle are in full play in laying low the grass and the corn; and the grain is threshed out by the old-time flail. The produce consists of wheat, barley and oats, maize and buckwheat, pease and beans; the hay is abundant and very good. Flax, hemp, and tobacco are also raised; vegetables, including delicious melons, and all garden-fruits, are of luxuriant growth. The sugar generally used by the *habitans* is made from the sap of the maples, or "sugar bushes", on the hill-sides, though beet-root, for which factories have now arisen, seems likely to supersede the older production. The scenery of the Côte de Beaupré includes, among dozens of fine waterfalls, the Falls of Ste. Anne and of St. Féréol, both on the Grande Rivière Ste. Anne, in a charming forest land, with the water tumbling from shelf to shelf over and amidst grand granitic rocks.

We must now take a glance at the noble St. Lawrence, and one or two of its chief tributaries, in its lower course between Quebec and the Gulf, referring readers who desire to fill the eye and the mind with ample details and delineations to that magnificent work, *Picturesque Canada*. Leaving Quebec by a steamer of the Ontario and Richelieu Navigation Co., in the transparency of morning light and the crispness of the morning air, the traveller passes the green *Ile d'Orléans*, elsewhere seen in this work, and notes, on the northern river-shore, the rocky rampart of the Laurentians, here naked, there forest-clad, and broken from time to time by huge chasms that reveal in the rear still greater mountain-walls leading the eye to fleecy clouds resting on yet more distant summits. At some points, where the sides are scarped into a little foothold at the base of rugged heights, a tiny French hamlet may

be discerned with its glittering chapel-spire. The scene on the southern shore is of a milder type, showing pastoral landscape of house and farm, village and spire, bridge and stream, now and again a fair-sized town, meadows and trees, windmills and convents, all backed by woods and hills. On the northern side, below Ile d'Orléans, *Cap Tourmente* rises grandly from the water's edge to a height of nearly 2000 feet, and the granitic masses of *Cap Rouge* and *Cap Gribaune* somewhat exceed that measure. The river receives hundreds of streams on both banks, those on the south sending turbid floods winding through rich loamy soil, while the northern tributaries, some from districts far away where wild fowl and animals and Indians alone dwell, dash with clear waters down rapids and cascades, or rush along over gravelly beds, loitering at times in deep rock-edged pools rich in salmon and sea-trout. Islands of all sizes and shapes dot the surface of the noble waterway, some green and fertile like the *Ile aux Coudres* and the *Ile Verte*, others rugged reefs or rocky pillars. The view includes, as the steamer hurries on, the sweep of bays with sea-weed-clad rocks, white sandy beaches and broad flats; lighthouses on capes and shoals; buoys marking the channel in their bright red hue or warning from danger with clanging bell; semaphores that signal the passage of ships with swelling sails or with trail of smoke; and, after passing the dark mass of *Mt. Eboulement*, rising to half a mile in height from the water, where the St. Lawrence is 15 miles across, it is not uncommon to see "schools" of white whales, from 15 to over 20 feet in length, gambolling amid the waves. Then we arrive at *Murray Bay* (called properly, by the French, *Malbaie*, a name given by Champlain himself as *Malle Baie* from "the tide that there marvellously runs"), the most popular of summer-resorts on the northern shore of the estuary. The *Murray River* and some adjacent lakes are rich in trout, and the scenery is of grand character, with precipice and gorge, and cloud-clad peaks of mountains haunted by bear and caribou, and by the royal eagle and other birds of prey. Thence the steamer crosses, by a diagonal run of 30 miles, to *Rivière du Loup* (deriving its name from the droves of seals or *loups-marins* that frequented its shoals in early days), a thriving town of 6000 people on the Intercolonial Railway. The *Rivière du Loup Falls* make a plunge of 80 feet into a deep basin in the rocks. Six miles away is *Cacouna*, one of the foremost Canadian

summer-resorts, on a rocky peninsula nearly 400 feet high, with fine beaches at its foot, and a very cool bracing air in the hottest summer months.

Then the voyager, again taking a diagonal course, reaches *Tadousac*, on the northern shore, at the mouth of the famous *Saguenay*. The place lies in a semicircular hollow among rounded knobs of granite and huge *mamelons* or mounds of sand, rising in tiers to the height of above 1000 feet above the *Saguenay*. This river is one of the greatest natural wonders of the Dominion. In the ordinary sense of the word "river", it appears to the tourist a complete misnomer for water passing through a monstrous chasm, from one to over two miles in width, cleft for 65 miles through the high Laurentian plateau, with walls in an almost unbroken line of naked cliffs composed of syenite and gneiss. The waters of this most grand and gloomy region are as black as pitch from their vast depth, many hundred feet greater than that of the *St. Lawrence*, and the scenery is indescribable in its sublimity and desolation. We can only here refer to the twin *Capes Trinity* and *Eternity*, 1600 and 1800 feet in height, facing each other across a black gulf, where the sounding-line touches the bottom at 1000 feet. Cape Trinity has its name from being formed of three great precipices, each about 600 feet in height, piled on each other and fringed at the top with gust-blown pines. Cape Eternity is less terrific in aspect, sloping slightly back from the water's edge and being clothed in rich foliage of woods. The echoes aroused by a 68-pounder gun fired near Cape Trinity on the vessel which conveyed the Prince of Wales, in his youth, up the *Saguenay*, had a marvellous effect in the crash upon crash that came storming down upon the deck, as if every crag were firing a cannon of its own in wrath, till at last the sharp volleys grew hoarser in tone, and the sound slowly retreated bellowing from hill to hill until the distant mountains seemed to groan at the profane intrusion. The vast scale of the Dominion comes home to the traveller who, at the head of the great *Saguenay* cleft, drives for 150 miles over a score of rivers past the south-west shore of *Lake St. John*, amid little settlements waiting for railways and markets that they may grow into towns; and then, turning due north, passes up the 220 miles of rapid and cascade over which the *River Mistassini* drains the waters of *Lake Mistassini*, not far beyond the border of Quebec Province—a

sheet of water nearly as large as Lake Ontario. Returning now to the St. Lawrence estuary, at the mouth of the Saguenay, we pass great Labradorian rivers on the northern shore, the lighthouse at *Cape Chatte* on the southern, and come lastly to the vast promontory of *Cape Gaspé*, on the open Gulf, a towering mass of sandstone reaching to nearly 700 feet above sea-level. Beyond this, to the south, lies the huge islet called *Percé Rock*, now having one arch about 50 feet high near one end. The mass is 300 feet in height, and being worn to a wedge like a vessel's stem at the western end, it resembles an ironclad 1500 feet in length and 300 feet broad. The face of this grand mass shows a wonderful variety of hues in red and brown sandstone, bright olive and gray limestone, green of agate, purple of jasper, white quartz, and the deep orange of iron ore, displayed against the bright blue of the sky and a sea of emerald green.

Being here in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, we may notice *Anticosti* and the *Magdalen Islands*. Anticosti, an island 140 miles in length, and 30 miles broad in the centre, runs from north-west to south-east, dividing the outer estuary of the St. Lawrence into two channels. The surface of this dreary region, with a dangerous coast, a cruel climate, and a barren soil, is an alternation of swamps and rocks, with hills inland rising to about 600 feet. The former inhabitants, about one thousand in number, striving vainly to win sustenance from the sea and soil, were within recent years removed by the Government to the mainland, and the only permanent dwellers are now a few officials and the keepers of the lighthouses that mark different points of the coast. There are fisheries of salmon, trout, herring and cod, and seals and bears are also hunted by people resorting thither from the mainland. About 130 miles south of the eastern end of Anticosti, between Prince Edward Island and the west coast of Newfoundland, lies the archipelago called the Magdalen Islands, a group of thirteen, mostly connected by spits of sand that are bare at low water. The chief island, *Amherst*, and three others, partly enclose a roadstead of some service as a refuge to vessels caught by gales in the St. Lawrence Gulf. The danger of the coasts, ill-famed for wrecks, is marked in one case by the name *Deadman's Isle*, off the west of Amherst. An important central island of the group, *Coffin Island*, derives its name from Admiral Sir Isaac Coffin, to whom the islands were granted by the Crown in 1798, and whose heir, another Admiral Coffin, is the present

owner. On one of the two desolate *Bird Rocks*, to the north, where a landing can only be effected by means of a huge crane projecting from the cliff, on which visitors are hoisted in a cradle, a powerful light, placed there at great expense and some peril, is maintained by the Canadian Government. The fine woods of fir and spruce which were found there by Jacques Cartier, when he discovered the group in 1534, have long since disappeared through the demand for their excellent building-timber, and the inhabitants, about 6000, mostly Acadian French, have to import Nova Scotian coal as fuel. Imposing cliffs, rising steep from the sea to a height of from 200 to 400 feet, their base ever swathed in the seething foam of the long Atlantic rollers, confront the summer-tourists who come to enjoy sea-trout fishing on the coast, and to catch the splendid trout of the inland streams. The waters around are thronged in the season by American and Canadian fishing-fleets in search of mackerel and cod, and are patrolled by the Dominion cutter *La Canadienne* to prevent foreign vessels from fishing within the three-mile limit. In the winter, some of the people, with profit and peril, hunt the seals swept down upon the shores from the north on floating fields of ice, which sometimes, under a change of wind, drift away again before the hunters can reach the land. The tillers of the soil and tradesmen of the Magdalens are mostly found among the five or six hundred English-Canadians and settlers from Jersey; the French are chiefly fishers and merchants engaged in the large business of canning lobsters, there obtained in great plenty. Hay-crops are abundant from rich old grass-lands, and tillage produces potatoes and oats. The primitive mode of life among the honest, uneducated, poor but not pauperized, industrious people is finely shown in the toils of the women who help in the fishing and in the garden, mend the nets, plough the fields, spin the wool of the sheep, weave it into cloth, make the family-clothes, and fill up spare time with washing, knitting, and cooking. The life-saving appliances are extensive and well-planned, consisting of lighthouses on several points and many rocket-stations, all united by telegraphic wires.

When we pass to the St. Lawrence above Quebec, we find another fine tributary in the *St. Maurice*, rising far to the north in a like maze of lakes and streams to that whence spring the Saguenay and Ottawa, in a wild region visited only by Indians, trappers, Hudson Bay fur-traders and lumbermen. The St. Maurice

discharges its waters into the St. Lawrence at the town of *Trois Rivières* (Three Rivers). About seven miles above this, on the right bank of the tributary, are the St. Maurice Forges, the oldest smelting-furnaces in the Dominion, dealing with deposits of the bog-ore very early known to the Jesuits, here brought in by the *habitans*, who find it on land useless for tillage between two beds of sand. The works are still in full operation, producing iron for car-wheels manufactured at Three Rivers. The St. Maurice is a noble stream, a raging flood in spring and early summer from the melted snow and the profuse rains in its upper course, but navigable in the hottest summer and nearly a quarter of a mile wide for a long distance above its mouth. At 24 miles above Three Rivers are the magnificent *Shawenegan Falls*, almost unrivalled in the world for combined beauty and grandeur of effect. The river, narrowed between two projecting points, is divided by a rocky island into two channels of equal volume. After a brief space of quiet water, the bed suddenly lowers and the tawny water rushes on in foam. The right branch plunges down so steeply as to fling up white fountains perpendicularly into the air, while the left branch, sweeping round the island in successive phases of mirror-like stream and rapids over steps of shelving rock, meets its fellow again almost at right angles. The reunited torrent here has its way blocked by a rugged point, and, flung back upon itself, goes roaring down a rocky trough into a spacious basin entered by the river Shawenegan. This Indian word signifies "needlework", and is believed to have been suggested by the lovely play of colour from seal-brown to snowy white produced in the water's passage over its rocky bed. The canoeist who ascends the Shawenegan river for a little distance between meadows dotted by elms will be enchanted by the view of the *Little Shawenegan Falls*, a double cascade divided by a stretch of steep rapids, the whole presenting, amidst woods of spruce and birch, one of the loveliest and most romantic scenes. The whole of this region is full of charm, including, in the more quiet parts of the river, many islands clothed with beautiful woods; mountain-walls that here and there overshadow the waters; deep, gloomy gorges where tributary streams come in from the distant hills, and, in the country at large, an infinite variety of lakes and streams, rapids and cascades, wild rocks, densely-wooded heights and forest glades.

Before turning to some account of the towns of the Province,

TOBOGGANING IN CANADA.

One of the most popular out-door pastimes in Canada during winter consists in sliding down an ice-covered slope or hill in a toboggan. The toboggan generally used is made of two boards joined together, about $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch thick, curved backward in front, and with two leather thongs attached to the front on either side for steering purposes. Sleighs of a light build, the seat being mounted on runners, are sometimes used; as also long sleds, with a platform on runners capable of accommodating as many as forty people. In this huge "toboggan" the steering is managed by ropes attached to a pair of runners in front that turn on a pivot. In the clear and bracing air of Canada this exercise is most healthy and exhilarating.



WAL PAGE.

A TOBOGGANING-SLOPE IN CANADA.

we must note another famous cascade, and then look into the country between the St. Lawrence and the States, the region watered by the Richelieu, the Chaudière, and other goodly rivers, besides innumerable streams. The *Falls of Montmorency*, at the mouth of a small river so named, joining the St. Lawrence on the north side, between 8 and 9 miles below Quebec, are among the most renowned and finest cataracts of the world. Flanked by slender, snowy streams of foam, as beautiful as many boasted Swiss cascades, descending the face of a dark rocky precipice whose top is fringed with shrubs and trees, the main fall, about 50 feet in width, consists of the stream plunging sheer down for 250 feet, always a splendid sight, but most imposing when the river has been swollen by spring floods or autumnal rains. The spectacle can be approached with safety from below, along the river-bank, till the visitor finds himself in the midst of tumult and spray, with a gorgeous rainbow, so close that he can almost touch its beams with outstretched hand, flashing its glories into his enraptured eyes. A mile and a half above the cascade the river rushes wildly for about 230 yards over a series of natural steps, each three or four yards in depth, between dark perpendicular walls of cliff fringed at the top with pines. The massive stone piers on each bank at the head of the great fall are the remains of an ill-constructed bridge, on the suspension principle, which broke down nearly 50 years ago while a *habitant* and his wife, in their market-cart, were driving across. In winter the Montmorency Falls present a sight of singular beauty and grandeur. At the foot of the cataract, the freezing of the spray gradually forms a huge mound of ice and snow, irregularly conical in shape, used as a tobogganing-slope by the people of Quebec who drive out on their sleighs. The district between the St. Lawrence and the New England States, about 10,000 square miles in area, is one of the finest regions of Old Canada—lake and valley, mountain and tarn, river and plain. It is a land which even in modern times, notably in 1663 and 1732, has been shaken by severe earthquakes, mild repetitions of enormous convulsions in a geological past of which the result is seen in lovely winding glens where the streams come down in rapids and cascades; in the uplifting of mountains with towering peaks; and in a confusion of the earth's crust that has brought within easy reach a number of useful and ornamental minerals and earths, lime-

stone and granite, clay and sand, magnesite and slate, serpentine and verd-antique, iron and manganese, copper and gold. Among the finer cascades are the *Chaudière Falls*, on the river of the same name, which on nearing the St. Lawrence, about 12 miles above Quebec, on the southern shore, after a wild course of 100 miles, plunges down for about 100 feet in a cataract famous for its picturesque grandeur of effect. Among the most noted inland waters is *Lake Memphremagog*, having on its shores the noble mountains *Owl's Head*, *Elephantis* and *Mount Orford*, the last reaching a height of 4500 feet. The choicer scenes of this beautiful region include *Bolton Pass*, one of the approaches to Lake Memphremagog and *Lake Massawippi* with its valley.

Quebec city, constantly and fondly called among its people by the ancient Indian name "Stadacona", the favourite style for any new enterprise, from a steamship company to a skating-rink, is a place of great historical interest, as our previous record has shown, and of rarely beautiful position and surroundings. Her history since 1801 includes some disastrous events in the form of fires. Twice, with a month's interval, in the spring of 1845, was the city ravaged by a conflagration which destroyed the homes, in the conjoint result, of 24,000 people, and rendered needful large contributions from the general Canadian people, and from Great Britain. The United States sent a large amount in dollars, after the prompt and generous dispatch of a shipload of provisions and clothing for the foodless and unsheltered sufferers. In June of the year 1865 the crowded wood-built suburbs were swept by another fire which destroyed property to the value of a million dollars and left 3000 people without a roof to cover them. A year had scarcely elapsed when the ancient capital of Canada was visited by another fire which destroyed above 2000 houses, the homes of twenty thousand people, in the suburbs called St. Roche and St. Sauveur, and did great and lasting injury in scattering the industrial population, especially those engaged in ship-building. From this time forward, owing also to the improvement of navigation in the St. Lawrence and to the substitution of steam for sails in the larger vessels of the mercantile marine, Quebec fell into the rear as compared with Montreal, which fast acquired commercial supremacy on the St. Lawrence.

No city in the New World is more grandly placed, more romantic in associations, more picturesque and distinctive in details,

than this sentinel city, this noble portal to the upper St. Lawrence. The view of Quebec displays to the approaching voyager, on the mile-wide strait, the green heights of Lévis on his left hand, fronting the bold, abrupt outlines of *Cape Diamond*, crowned by its fortress. From the blue-green flood of the St. Lawrence—with ships anchored thickly in mid-channel, the surface furrowed by busy tugs and lofty two-decker ferry-steamers passing to and from Point Lévis, while the water-front of the city is thronged with vessels whose masts and funnels partly screen the warehouses from view—the eye directs its glance over tier upon tier of steep-roofed houses and quaint, precipitous streets; up the gray cliff-face decked here and there with masses of foliage; across roofs of shining tin and gilded steeples; along the massive lines of the city walls; beyond the guns of the Grand Battery frowning from a natural terrace midway up the steep; until it rests at last on the ancient citadel dominating all the beauty and grandeur of the scene. The Scot bethinks him of Edinburgh and Stirling; the German recalls Heidelberg and Ehrenbreitstein. The base of the citadel is 333 feet above the water, and its fortifications extend over 40 acres. As the visitor ascends through the Lower Town, the business-quarter of Quebec, with its short, crooked streets diverging at angles of all degrees, he finds in little *Notre Dame Place* a small quaint church with high-peaked roof and antique belfry, one of the oldest buildings in the city, with walls that rose above two centuries ago. In *Champlain Market*, on a business-day in summer, he will see a rare display of flowers and fruit, with light French calèches and the old-style carts of the market-folk, and long-robed priests and jaunty French clerks, and in the costumes and manners that he beholds, and in the tones that fall from the busy throng, he will find it hard to believe that he is making his way among most loyal subjects of the Queen of Greater Britain. When he has toiled up the ascent of *Break-neck Steps*, or made a circuit round *Mountain Hill*, or risen, as his easiest method, by the elevator, he comes out, at 200 feet above the river, on one of the finest promenades in the world, the grand *Dufferin Terrace*, stretching above two furlongs by the edge of the cliff, and dotted with gay light pavilions for bands of music or for shelter from the sun. This noble place of recreation and point of view, opened to the public in June, 1870, by the Marquis of Lorne and Princess Louise, occupies the site of

the old Château de St. Louis, erected by Champlain in 1620, and destroyed by fire in 1834. The prospect includes, across the river, the picturesque heights of Point Lévis, resounding all day with the shrieks of locomotives, and displaying tier upon tier of villages glittering with spires, and convents embosomed among turf and trees, rising up from the busy town of South Quebec and the buildings of the Grand Trunk and Intercolonial Railways. Lower down the river, the Ile d'Orléans shows its richly-wooded, hamlet-specked expanse, and to the north are seen the light mist of the Montmorency Falls veiling the view of distant woods, and the grand outlines of the Laurentian Range. The terrace is bounded on the right by the steep slope of the *Citadel* with its ramparts, bastions, and cannon atop, and behind lie the shady walks of the *Governor's Garden* containing the pillar, already described in these pages, dedicated to the joint-memory of Montcalm and Wolfe. Space forbids any detailed account of the many important buildings of Quebec. Ecclesiastical establishments meet the eye at every turn. Among the churches, five times as numerous as in most cities of like size, the chief are the *Basilica*, a plain building of cut stone, with a richly-decorated interior that seats 4000 worshippers; the *Methodist Church*, in flamboyant Gothic style; *St. Andrew's* (Presbyterian), a spacious stone Gothic building; *St. Patrick's* (Roman Catholic) and *St. Matthew's* (Episcopal). The *Laval University* occupies three fine buildings, 576 feet long, 5 stories in height, and containing valuable scientific museums, a library of 100,000 volumes, and one of the richest picture-galleries in Canada. The *Ursuline Convent*, already mentioned in connection with Montcalm, has beautiful gardens. The *Hôtel Dieu*, with its convent and hospital, is yearly serviceable, through its charitable sisters, to many thousands of poor patients. The *Custom-House*, on the height above the confluence of the St. Charles and the St. Lawrence, is a fine Doric structure, domed, and with a façade of noble columns, approached by a long flight of steps. The suburbs of *St. John*, *St. Louis*, and *St. Roche* lie towards the west, the latter being now commercially important with great warehouses and stores. The docks and tidal basins are fine specimens of engineering skill, and at Point Lévis is a large graving-dock. In 1889, the suburb of *St. Sauveur*, with a population of 15,000, was annexed to the city proper, the population of which, by

the census of 1891, just exceeded 63,000. Quebec is provided with eight daily newspapers, five in the French language; with a good continuous supply of water from Lake St. Charles; with gas, and with the electric-light, the power for the latter being furnished by the Montmorency Falls. There are manufactures of worsted, cast-iron, cartridges, machinery, cutlery, nails, musical instruments, leather, boots and shoes, paper and tobacco.

Before dealing with the commercial capital, Montreal, we may note the town of *Trois Rivières* (Three Rivers), third among the cities of the province, with a population of about 12,000, at the junction of the St. Maurice, as we have seen, with the St. Lawrence. The place is the centre of a great trade in lumber and iron, and has an imposing cathedral, as the see of a Roman Catholic Bishop. *Hull*, on the river opposite Ottawa, has a population (1891) of 11,260, with lumber-mills and manufactures of axes, matches, and wooden wares. *Sherbrooke*, in the south, at the junction of the rivers Magog and St. Francis, had over 10,000 people at the census of 1891, with large factories whose machinery is driven by the boundless water-power; a cathedral, a college, beautiful suburbs, and a most fertile and charming country around.

Some exciting incidents have diversified the history of *Montreal* since 1801. The destruction of the Parliament-buildings by fire, through the incendiary violence of a mob, in 1849, has been already given. In the summer of 1852, an accidental conflagration laid waste a large portion of the city, that chiefly composed of the wooden abodes of the French population. Ten thousand people were thus deprived of their homes and household effects, a calamity which was relieved by generous contributions from all the North American provinces. In the following year, some trouble arose from religious differences between the Roman Catholics and Protestants who had hitherto, for the most part, dwelt side by side in peace. The break in this harmonious condition of affairs was caused by the presence of the once-famous Alessandro Gavazzi, an eloquent ex-monk of Bologna who, after leaving the Catholic Church, delivered in the British Isles fervid anti-papal addresses. After a somewhat cold reception in the United States, Gavazzi appeared at Quebec in June, 1853, but the congregation assembled in one of the churches was violently dispersed by a Catholic attack during his discourse. Three days later, he arrived in Montreal, where the authorities

held in readiness a strong force of police, with a company of the 26th Regiment lately arrived from Gibraltar. A body of Irish Catholics broke through the police and forced their way into the church where Gavazzi was lecturing on the points at issue between the rival faiths. A formidable riot, including the free exchange of pistol-shots, then took place, and the orator barely escaped from the building. The church was cleared, but fighting was resumed in the streets; the Riot Act was read by the Mayor, and the military were bidden to fire on the crowd, according to one statement positively denied by that official. An accidental discharge may have occurred from one musket, and the firing was not stopped until the officers struck up the pointed weapons at their personal risk. Five persons killed and forty wounded were the results of the volley, and a very bitter feeling was aroused which caused the regiment to be transferred to Bermuda. In July, 1877, another unfortunate collision occurred between the Roman Catholics and the Orangemen, or more bigoted Protestants, of the city. The day was the famous Twelfth of the month, on so many occasions a source of trouble in the north of Ireland from the Orange demonstrations to commemorate the victory of Aughrim, in 1691, over the Irish Catholics and their French allies. The Orangemen at Montreal had given up their purpose of walking in procession, but, on their return from church, they were attacked by a Catholic mob, and one of the Protestants was shot dead in the street. A public funeral was accorded to the victim, with a strong force of troops under arms to keep the peace. A bitter feeling, sometimes breaking out into riots attended by bloodshed, existed for some years, and in 1878, on July 12th, the peace was only preserved by the presence of 3000 soldiers, the swearing-in of 500 special constables, and the arrest of several Orange leaders who had avowed the intent of reviving the procession to church on the anniversary.

Montreal is justly described as "a microcosm of Canada, in which the Old Canada is side by side with the New". In other words, French and British Canada are here in close contact, having their individuality but little impaired. The great importance of the city is shown in her being the largest of the whole Dominion, the centre of Canadian commerce and finance, and of the chief systems both of railways and canals, and the possessor, through her commercial position, of a vast political influence on Canadian

affairs. From May to November, Montreal is the chief maritime port of the whole vast territory, the head-quarters of a dozen transatlantic steamship companies. A thousand miles from the open Atlantic to the east, she is the source also, to the west, of direct communication, by the Canadian Pacific Railway, with the waters of the other ocean, and, as we have seen, across those waters, with China and Japan, with Pacific islands and with Australasian ports. She is the outlet of all the resources of the North-west; she deals with the trade of Duluth on Lake Superior, of Chicago on Lake Michigan, of Collingwood and Goderich on Lake Huron, of Buffalo and Cleveland on Lake Erie, of Hamilton, Toronto, Oswego, and Kingston on Lake Ontario. The Grand Trunk, the South-Eastern, and the Central Vermont railways give her connections with the whole of the United States and the Dominion. The merchants of Montreal receive and distribute the natural and artificial products of every quarter of the world, furs and lumber, and cattle and grain being the staples of their American trade. The commerce grew from imports worth nearly five millions sterling and exports whose value exceeded two millions, in 1870, to imports of over eight millions value and exports worth nearly eight and a quarter millions, in 1895.

The city lies near the junction of the Ottawa and the St. Lawrence, on the south-east side of a large island, 172 miles west of Quebec, and 338 miles east of Toronto. The people, in 1891, numbered 216,550, in proportions, as regards both nationality and religion, which are nearly indicated by the previous decennial census, showing nearly $\frac{4}{7}$ ths to be of French descent, over $\frac{1}{3}$ th Irish, over $\frac{1}{4}$ th English, and over $\frac{1}{12}$ th Scottish people. The streets, in a succession of terraces, climb the side of the mountain from which Montreal derives her name, one slope and the summit being reserved for the splendid *Mountain Park*, laid out at a cost of about £100,000, and commanding a superb panoramic view that embraces the valley of the Richelieu and Lake Champlain and the waving line of the Green Mountains in Vermont. The *Island Park*, on *St. Helen's Island* in the middle of the river, is another charming spot of public resort. The city extends over 4 miles in length and 2 in width, with 3 miles of river-frontage turned into wharves backed by long lines of warehouses. There is an eastern portion that is nearly all French, and a western that is

mostly British, with Englishmen and Scots who make and display abundance of wealth. The equipages of *Sherbrooke Street* in the winter season form an almost unsurpassed show of sumptuous sleighs, drawn by costly high-steppers, and containing lovely women clad in the richest furs. The better class of the French have plenty of hoarded wealth, but, with all their hospitality and fondness for society, and no small amount of culture and grace, they do not expend in outward show, on dwellings and sleighs, on dinner-parties and balls, the lavish amounts devoted to these by the leaders of the British section. In the extreme south-west is found an almost exclusively Irish quarter of factories and shops, asylums, churches, and schools. Many prominent citizens in business, politics and society, and in the learned professions, are of Irish descent. The island of Montreal, about 30 miles long and 10 broad, studded with prosperous villages and farms, has the most fertile land in the Province of Quebec, and is famous for its growth of apples of superior flavour. The city presents a rare mingling of the modern and the antique, of poverty and wealth, of squalor and grandeur. There are frame-houses like the Irish hovels of the "ould counthry", and noble streets of palaces in fine-cut stone. Families descended from the old French *noblesse* have social rivals in the less refined representatives of wealth won in trade. Thousands of people can speak and understand only French; thousands more know nothing but the English tongue. There are faces in the streets that tell of undoubted Iroquois descent, and costumes, manners, and talk that recall the peasantry of the older France. The fashionable folk of London, Paris, and New York are reproduced in many of the strollers or drivers on public promenades. On a market-day, the *Bonsecours Market*, Jacques Cartier Square, and adjacent streets are crowded with the primitive carts of the *habitants* from the country around. Move a little westward, and you are in streets where all reminds you of the best commercial quarters of Manchester, Liverpool, or Leeds.

The *Place d'Armes*, once a burying-ground of the earliest settlers, is a railed, tree-planted space, having on the south side the church of *Notre Dame*, one of the largest ecclesiastical buildings on the American continent, which has held 15,000 people within its walls. It displays two towers each 227 feet in height, with a splendid chime of 11 bells, one of which, the largest in America,

weighs over 11 tons. The entire cost of the structure has much exceeded a million sterling. The *Seminary of St. Sulpice*, a theological college with about 300 students, is above two centuries old. *Dominion Square* contains the huge Windsor Hotel, and the Roman Catholic Cathedral, really dedicated to St. James, but called "St. Peter's", because it is a reduced *facsimile* of the great edifice at Rome, being 333 feet in length, and 222 feet in breadth, 258 feet in height, with a dome of nearly 80 feet diameter. The Anglican Cathedral, *Christ Church*, is a gem of Gothic architecture, only rivalled in America by Grace Church in New York, and by the cathedral at Fredericton, New Brunswick. The Methodists and the Presbyterians have also some noble churches, and, among the three Jewish synagogues, one is a fine structure somewhat resembling an old Egyptian temple. The *Champ de Mars*, the largest public square in Montreal, is a historic parade-ground which has witnessed, in succession, reviews of old blue-coated French regiments, in and before the days of Montcalm and Lévis; of British red-coats under Murray and Carleton, and, in modern days, of the Victoria Rifles and other Canadian volunteers. Among the benevolent institutions, the *Hôtel Dieu*, the *Grey Nunnery* (a hospital, not a convent) and the *Royal Victoria Hospital*, are conspicuous. Educational buildings, the *McGill University*, mentioned above, and colleges of the various denominations, are numerous, and art-galleries, museums, and fine libraries are not wanting. The new station of the Canadian Pacific Railway is a really palatial structure; the Victoria Bridge has been already described. The water-supply is brought by an aqueduct from the St. Lawrence above the Lachine Rapids, and is stored, to the amount of 36½ million gallons at a time, in a great reservoir hewn from the solid rock far up the mountain side. The amusements include excellent matches at various Lacrosse grounds, and the Montreal Hunt Club affords the best sport of its kind in America. In February of each year, in the mid-winter season, the Winter Carnival furnishes spectacles unequalled in the world for picturesque beauty. A great castle of transparent ice is formed, and the city is made gay by skating tournaments and masquerades, and by parades of the best snow-shoers, perhaps, to be found on the continent. At the close of the festival, the ice castle, illuminated within by electric light, and flaming with white unearthly radiance,

is stormed by lines of assailants winding, torch in hand, down the mountain-side, clad in strange costumes, and rushing against the walls amid a storm of rockets, a glow of coloured fires, and the most gorgeous forms of the pyrotechnic art. Turning to matters of more serious import, we find in Montreal large manufactures of boots and shoes, textile clothing, tobacco, and railway apparatus, with rubber-factories, saw-mills, the making of tools, the weaving of cotton and silk, and a great variety of small industries. About fifty newspapers are published in the city, including six French and five English dailies, and ten French and eight English weekly papers. Eight miles away, the pretty quiet old town of *Lachine*, with houses of steep gables and dormer-windows, nestling amid the green of ancient trees, supplies a place of summer residence for Montreal citizens. The running of the famous Lachine Rapids in the steamer is an exciting and perfectly safe experience for the traveller from Europe.

To sum up our account of Quebec Province, we remark that this fine agricultural territory, with an excellent climate, grows in perfection all the usual cereals, with grasses and maize, and is rich in cattle and their produce. Fever, ague, and malaria are unknown. The air in winter is very cold, but always dry and clear, and the snow which covers the ground from November to April is readily formed by the pressure of traffic into excellent roads for the conveyance of all burdens by sleighs. The province is divided into 63 counties, and, being administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, has a Legislative Council or Upper House, of 24 members, holding their seats for life after nomination by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, and a Legislative Assembly of 73 members, elected by manhood suffrage every four years, or at shorter intervals, with no property qualification.

CHAPTER VII.

ONTARIO, MANITOBA, KEEWATIN.

Boundaries, area, population, and physical features of ONTARIO—Niagara River and Falls—The Thousand Islands—Brockville—Ottawa River—The lumber industry—Lake Ontario—Number of thriving towns—Georgian Bay—The Muskoka lakes—Hunting and fishing—Manitoulin Islands—District of the Upper Lakes—Lake Superior—Ottawa city—Toronto—Hamilton—London—Kingston—Brantford—Guelph—Galt—St. Thomas—Windsor—General progress of the province—Boundaries, area, and population of MANITOBA—Its early history—Lord Selkirk's Highland colony—Its difficulties and sufferings—Becomes finally established—Policy of the Hudson Bay Company—Progress of the province—The Red River rebellion—Expedition under Colonel Wolseley—Natural features of the country—Climate—Agriculture—Winnipeg city—Brandon—Portage-la-Prairie—Tradereturns—District of KEEWATIN—Extent and population—The Nelson and Churchill rivers—Arrival at York Factory of the annual ship from England.

The history of the PROVINCE OF ONTARIO has been already sufficiently noticed. This most populous part of the Dominion, very irregular in shape, lies mainly between 45 and 52 degrees of north latitude, and 75 to 95 degrees of west longitude. Bounded on the east and north-east by the North-East Territory and Quebec, on the north and north-west by James Bay (an inlet of Hudson Bay), Keewatin, and Manitoba, and on the south-east and south by the St. Lawrence, Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, and Superior, and by the State of Minnesota, Ontario has an area of about 220,000 square miles or nearly $4\frac{1}{2}$ times the area of England, and a population, in 1891, numbered by census at 2,114,000, giving an average density of about 10 per square mile, and an increase of nearly 10 per cent since 1881. The inhabitants, in point of religious belief, are divided into Anglicans, 386,000; Roman Catholics, 358,000; Presbyterians, 453,000; Methodists, 654,000; and Baptists, 105,000; an enumeration in which we observe the vast preponderance of Protestants, especially of Nonconformists and members of the Scottish churches, and the small number of Roman Catholics as contrasted with those of Quebec Province. The British element is therefore very strong in numbers, and the French and the Irish, by comparison, of insignificant amount. There is the high ground of the Laurentians in the south-east, passing westwards round Lakes Simcoe and part of Huron, and the central district contains the watershed between the basins of the Great Lakes and of the

St. Lawrence and Ottawa. The chief rivers of Ontario are the tributaries of the Ottawa, which forms a part of the north-eastern boundary.

A detailed description of the scenery of this beautiful country is quite beyond our limits, and would merely repeat much of what has been already given concerning Quebec Province, in the way of lakes and rivers, woods and cascades, trout-teeming brooks and other scenes invested with natural charms. Of *Niagara Falls*, the much-described in word-painting and every kind of pictorial art, we must here shun all account beyond reminding readers that the river Niagara ("Thunder of Waters" is the meaning of its Indian name) runs a course of 36 miles northwards from Lake Erie to Lake Ontario, and forms a boundary between New York State and Canada; that in the 36 miles the river has a total descent of 325 feet—about 50 feet in the rapids above the Falls, about 165 in the Falls themselves, and 110 in the rapids below the Falls; that *Grand Island*, 4 miles above the Falls, is nearly 10 miles long; that *Goat Island* divides the straight-fronted *American Fall*, 1100 feet wide, from the *Horseshoe* or *Canadian Fall*, with an outline of 2640 feet or half a mile in extent; that they are the most famous falls in the world, carrying down 15 million cubic feet of water per minute; and that, as a far more important fact to British subjects in general and to Canadians in particular and to visitors most of all, the Canadian side of the river has been formed into the *Queen Victoria Niagara Falls Park*, about 154 acres in extent, including *Dufferin Island* and *Cedar Island*, in the *White Horse Rapids*, above the Horse Shoe cataract.

The Falls occur about 14 miles from Lake Ontario, and for 7 miles of this lower course of the Niagara river, the stream is shut in between steep walls of rock, from 200 to 350 feet in height. It is remarkable that, for some distance below the cataract, still water prevails, and a near approach can be safely made in a boat. The fact is that the prodigious weight of the descending water causes it to sink, only to reappear, 2 miles below, in the form of the famous and terrific *Whirlpool Rapids*, where the waters rush along with such swift tumult that the middle of the current is 30 feet higher than the sides. About a furlong below the Falls, a new suspension-bridge, replacing that which was carried away by a gale on January 10th, 1889, takes carriages and foot-passengers across

the river, and two railway-bridges, one on the cantilever principle, about 100 yards apart, are carried over it $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles further down. At the end of the seven-mile gorge the river comes foaming down into an expansion of its bed which forms a beautiful bay, whence the water, now becoming mirror-smooth, glides on towards Lake Ontario. The Niagara district is rich in varied interest. The little town of *Niagara*, at the river-mouth on the Canadian side, was the first capital of Upper Canada, as we have seen in previous historical narrative which has also dealt with the death of the heroic General Brock on Queenston Heights and with other incidents of war between Canada and the United States. The climate of the region is among the finest in North America, and the eye is delighted by the cultivated beauty of a fertile and richly-wooded soil. No part of the Dominion is so rich in fruit—peaches that are annually shipped to an amount far exceeding a million baskets; apples and pears; cherries and plums; melons and grapes; walnuts and chestnuts; quinces and even figs. The beauty of the peach-orchards, estimated to contain nearly half a million trees in the district, either in their blooms of spring, or under their summer loads of pink and white and gold-tinted globes, is beyond description.

The *Thousand Islands*, as they are called, being in reality about 1800 in number, large and small, extend for about 40 miles down the St. Lawrence, beginning at its issue from Lake Ontario, and afford a succession of exquisite little views in their rockwork of gray gneiss, their variety of size and foliage and height and form, some low-lying amidst a fringe of water-lilies; others rising high and steep, topped with pine and fir; some bare of vegetation, others clad in shrubbery and vines. The water displays diverse charms in foaming torrents and in glassy pools. Some of the islands have cottages thereon; others, in summer, show the tents of parties camping out; some are built over with fanciful structures of pagoda-style, and connected with adjacent islets by tiny bridges. In this paradise of canoeists, one of the largest islands contains the *Thousand Island Park*, with a post-office, public buildings, shops and boat-houses, a swarming resort of summer visitors. In passing down the St. Lawrence, the traveller, after the Thousand Islands, comes to beautiful *Brockville*, named from him who fell at Queenston Heights, a little place bright with gilded spires and

turrets rising above the masses of foliage that shade the streets. The *Long Sault Rapid*, the finest in the St. Lawrence, tosses a large steamer as if it were a tiny boat, at a point where the river-channel is divided by a gloomy-looking, thickly-wooded island.

The lower course of the *Ottawa River*, between the St. Lawrence and the political capital of the Dominion, displays pretty scenery of woods and hills, rapids and fine lakes formed by the expansion of the stream, lumber-laden barges and great timber-rafts. Above the city, in the *Upper Ottawa*, we have a continuous panorama of natural beauties not surpassed on the American continent. Here may be seen the quiet charm of pastures and wheat-fields, villages and farmsteads, bordering on waters unruffled by aught but a breeze; an archipelago of some hundreds of little isles; torrents that make toys of the largest trees; cascades coming down from dizzy heights; mountains arrayed in ancient woods. The *Grande Chute* of the *Calumet*, finest of the Upper Ottawa cascades, has a sublimity and a beauty of peculiar effect in its background of dark cliffs, gloomy with pines; its fall of 60 feet, divided into three, two of vast volume, and one a single silvery thread, all meeting in snowy foam, with a veil of mist above, in a huge basin where the waters rush madly to and fro. One stretch of the Ottawa, 20 miles long, dark and navigable, with mountains close to its northern edge, is known as *Deep River*, marked at one point by the tall, precipitous, cave-dotted *Oiseau Rock*, a mountain-bluff of gloomy grandeur. It is in this region that the lumber-industry is seen in perfection, with its exploring parties "prospecting" for new scenes of profitable work; its groups of log-huts for a party of fellers; the supply-trains of provisions arriving through the snow; the roll-ways to carry down logs from the hills to the stream; the timber-slides, or artificial channels for the avoidance of the more violent cascades; the saw-mill in the backwood-wilds.

In passing westwards along the northern shore of *Lake Ontario*, the traveller by the Grand Trunk Railway goes through or near a number of flourishing towns, the larger of which will be hereafter separately described—Kingston, Belleville (population over 12,000, on the lovely *Quinté Bay*), Picton, Cobourg, Port Hope, Bowmanville, Oshawa, Whitby, Hamilton, and St. Catharine's, away to the east, on the south side of the lake, near Niagara Falls. Natural beauties, tillage, and busy trade by water and land, manufactures

and admirable sport with fishing-rod and gun, are all commingled in this delightful region. West from Toronto, in the great peninsula that lies between Lake Ontario on the east, Georgian Bay (the spacious inlet of Lake Huron) on the north, Lake Huron on the west, and Lake Erie on the south, we find Guelph and Galt, Brantford and Woodstock, London, Simcoe, and St. Thomas, Stratford and Peterborough, Windsor and Chatham; Sarnia, near the mouth of the St. Clair River as it joins Lake Huron; Goderich and Kincardine on that great inland water's south-eastern shore. *Goderich* is a charming summer resort, on the western border of a rising and most fertile agricultural district. *Kincardine*, chief market-town of Bruce County, has large and valuable fisheries, along with *Southampton*, on the coast to the north, both partly peopled by the descendants of hardy Scottish Highlanders who migrated thither above a generation ago. The town of *Owen Sound*, on an inlet of Georgian Bay, has ship-building and a growing trade in the apples which, with plums and pears, strawberries and other fruits, are abundantly raised in this fertile Huron territory. On the eastern shore of Georgian Bay, we arrive at the glorious country known as that of the *Muskoka lakes*. This region of countless inland waters, varying in size from many square miles to a few acres, retaining some of the Indian names as in Muskoka and Couchiching, or with appellations due to early French and British times in Lakes Rosseau, Simcoe and Joseph, or with titles derived from natural objects in Sparrow and Bass, Deer and Pine and Garter Snake Lakes, was of old inhabited by Indians of the great Huron tribe. A railroad now traverses the district as far north as Lake Nipissing; the lakes and streams are dotted with villages and summer-hotels, and steamboats ply upon the larger lakes, whose waters, like those of the smaller specimens, numbering in all about 1000, are deep and clear, and cool in the hottest season, swarming with trout and bass and perch, while the covers and reed-beds abound in game-birds, and the woods are the haunt of many a deer. In the south, *Lake Simcoe*, a noble sheet of water 30 miles long by 16 broad, named from the first Lieutenant-Governor of Upper Canada, has on its western shore the town of *Barric*, with a population of 5000, a delightful summer resort for fishing, canoeing, and yachting-parties. At the head of Simcoe a passage called the Narrows leads into Couchiching or the "Lake

of Many Winds", with the pretty town of *Orillia* lying in very clear pure air in the highest settled district of the Province, 750 feet above Toronto. At a point on this lake is a village of Ojibway Indians, the last remnants of the powerful tribe that once dwelt in this region. Proceeding still northwards, we reach *Lake Muskoka*, the largest of the series, near to the delightful *Lakes Rosseau* and *Joseph*, the former having many beautiful inhabited islands, the latter marked by bolder scenery than many of its fellows. Of waterfalls and rapids, islets and bays, woods and rocks, and every kind of natural attraction short of the sublime, it is useless to attempt to give details here. We can only excite the sportsman's desires by a reference to a writer who, knowing the district well, declares that "if a man can stand outdoor life and live on venison, trout, bass, partridges, ducks, pork, tea, and crackers, there is no better place to go to in America that is as accessible. A man can go there in July, August, September, or October with comfort, and shoot deer and catch trout to his heart's content." Another writer tells of that splendid fish, the maskinonge, a dweller in some of the Muskoka Lakes. This fiercest of the prey of the troller's hook and line and rod, with an average weight of 12 pounds, will often give an hour's fight to his captor; the natives haul him in, after hooking, by main strength applied to tackle like a small clothes-line.

At the northern end of Lake Huron, the *Manitoulin Islands* stretch eastwards for about 120 miles to the entrance of Georgian Bay. The most westerly, Drummond Island, belongs to the State of Michigan, the rest to the Province of Ontario. *Grand Manitoulin*, the largest of the group, is 80 miles long and 28 wide, this and Cockburn, an island to the west, being to a large extent covered with pine-woods. All the group, with a population of about 2000, have striking natural features, deep inlets and large lakes being those most prominent in the chief island. The district of the Upper Lakes, in the north-east of Ontario, is another region remarkable for natural beauties. It lies between the Muskoka country and the Province of Quebec, and along the northern coast of Huron. In the centre, *Lake Nipissing*, connected by French River with Georgian Bay, is a great mass of water 50 miles long by 20 in its greatest breadth, amidst country excellent for farming, with ample water-power, noble timber in forests that abound in moose, caribou

(American reindeer), red-deer, and bears, and with rivers, lakes, and coverts that supply the sportsman and trapper with fish, hares, swans, geese, ducks, wild turkeys, partridges, quail, silver-gray, red, and black foxes, otters, martens, beavers, and minks. The Laurentian hills in this region display fir-crowned crags of every shape, streams running between walls of bright green bushes, or foaming over stony beds, and islet-strewn lakes of countless number and diverse form and size. At the western end of the Northern Channel, in Lake Huron, above the Manitoulin archipelago, we reach the town and rapids called *Sault Ste. Marie* and pass into Lake Superior. The northern shore, between the Sault (pronounced "Soo") and the river Nepigon, is a desolate country, traversed at some distance inland by the Canadian Pacific Railway. "Nepigon" is the name of a strait, a bay, a river, and a lake, the river being one of the most famous trout-streams in America. The characteristic rock of this country is trap, thrust up from the earth's interior in a molten state, and cooled in perpendicular columns forming a lofty, abrupt, indented wall on the northern edge of Lake Superior, and dividing Nepigon Bay from the Lake by a mass 15 miles in length, sometimes attaining a height of 1000 feet. Exquisite scenery of foliage and falls, and rocks of varied and vivid hues, are found on the *Nepigon River* and some of the smaller lakes. The canoeist has perilous sport among rapids, and the angler revels in trout, of which 6 and 7 lbs. are ordinary weights. On the shore of Lake Superior, *Thunder Cape* rises in grandeur to the height of 1350 feet, overlooking *Thunder Bay* with an island at its entrance like a vast monitor at anchor. We are reminded again of the vastness of the Dominion when we learn that at Prince Arthur's Landing, still within the limits of Ontario Province, we are above 700 miles from Ottawa westwards, while 80 miles of Ontario Province yet lie eastwards of that city. The Kamanistiquia River, entering Thunder Bay by three mouths a little south of Prince Arthur's Landing, attracts tourists by the grand and beautiful *Kakabeka Falls*, above a hundred feet in depth over rocks of slate, in transparent amber-hued water fronted by creamy fleecy foam. The cataract descends upon a hard bed of rock with the roar of successive explosions, shooting out the spray into the air swiftly at a sharp angle, instead of rising slowly, as at Niagara, in a veil of mist. Our last stage westwards in Ontario

brings us to the eastern shore of the lovely *Lake of the Woods*, whose further side belongs to Manitoba. The Ontario portion is so covered with islands that the canoeist, gliding over the smooth water, might well believe himself to be among the Thousand Islands on the St. Lawrence.

The city of *Ottawa*, as the capital of the Canadian Dominion, claims the post of honour in our notice of Ontario towns. This beautiful place lies on the south side of the Ottawa River, 120 miles above its junction with the St. Lawrence. Nearly opposite is the mouth of the *Gatineau*, flowing south through Quebec Province, with the town of Hull, a place of 12,000 people, mostly French-Canadians engaged in the lumber-trade, on its right bank at the junction with the Ottawa. In 1823, Colonel By, an officer of the Royal Engineers, was sent into this district to survey and choose a line for the canal, the Rideau, which was intended to join the tidal waters of the St. Lawrence with the great lakes. The village of Bytown, erected on a spot then surrounded by grassy dells, forest-trees wreathed with wild vines, and hills clothed with the noble white-pine, became in due course the town of Ottawa, a name adopted in 1854, when the place was created a "city". Four years later, as we have seen, the city became the administrative capital of Canada. No site in the Dominion, save that of Quebec, is more grandly picturesque than that of Ottawa, at a point where the Rideau joins the Ottawa by two 40-foot cascades of marvellous beauty whose shifting folds gave the river its French name, equivalent to "curtain". The Ottawa River also goes down over the magnificent *Chaudière Falls*, 40 feet high and 200 yards wide, below which a fine suspension-bridge is flung across the stream. The *Rideau Canal*, on its way to Kingston (Lake Ontario), passes through the centre of the city, but is now little used, as other waterways have been made to avoid the St. Lawrence rapids. The chief open spaces of the city are the beautiful *Public Gardens* (above the deep gorge through which the canal passes, while beyond the locks rise the steep wooded slopes of *Parliament Hill*), and *Cartier Square*, a great piece of ground for military reviews, popular gatherings, and football and lacrosse matches, containing the vast red-brick drill-shed and armoury of the militia and volunteers, and the very extensive and comely stone-built Normal School. The rifle range is important as the

scene, not only of practice, but of the yearly meetings of the Dominion Rifle Association, representing all the Provinces, when the choicest shots of the country compete for the honour of selection into the team sent across the Atlantic to contend, no longer at Wimbledon, but at Bisley, in west Surrey, against their fellow-subjects in the British Isles. Ottawa is at this time alive with uniforms red, dark-green and gray; with the crack of rifles, the music of bands, with Canadian ladies in their brightest array, and with the martial feeling that stirs the city. The public buildings are in general handsome and are all of stone; the churches are of no remarkable merit; the educational structures are numerous and well equipped. The *Parliament Buildings* are justly famed. Placed high on the bank of the Ottawa, built in Italian or twelfth century Gothic of cream-coloured sandstone improved in hue by time and weather, these noble erections combine simplicity, grace, and strength. The central block, containing the two chambers for the Commons and the Senate, is surmounted by a pinnaced and steepled tower 220 feet in height. Behind them lies the Parliamentary Library, a structure of much grace with flying buttresses and a lofty dome, beneath which the central interior shows Marshall Wood's marble statue of the Queen. Another block, containing the offices of the Governor-General and the rooms of the Privy Council, is marked by a tall and beautiful tower, and a third structure includes the Departmental government-offices. By a bridge across the Ottawa, the city is connected with the Canadian Pacific Railway running along the northern bank, while the Grand Trunk and the Canada Atlantic communicate with the Intercolonial Railway on the east and with the Canada Pacific Transcontinental line.

Ottawa, like Quebec, has an Upper and a Lower Town in a certain sense—the official and fashionable quarter, and the business locality. French and English life and language, and the Roman Catholic and Protestant faiths here, as in Quebec, dwell side by side. The population, in 1891, was 44,150, of whom perhaps one-half were French and Irish Catholics. The main industries of the city are connected with the vast lumber trade of the Ottawa and the Gatineau and the great back-country whence those rivers flow. These industries are gathered in the quarter round the Chaudière Falls where artificial structures in the form of embankments and piles have been made to intercept and use the enormous water-

power for the numerous saw-mills. The air is full of the scent of saw-dust from pine and fir; the scream of the instruments is deafening, and the sight of the operations—continued day and night in the season—is wonderful after dark to a stranger's eye as the electric-light throws its intensity of lustre, relieved by the blackness of its shadows, on the busy crowd of workers, on the dark logs hauled up from the water to the mills, and on the steel as it dashes up and down, tearing the logs into planks. Circular-saws, on every side, seeming motionless in the speed which hides their teeth from the gaze, rend their shrieking way through the wood that is forced against the humming disc. The visitor to Ottawa in the lumber season may have a novel and exciting experience in shooting a lumber-slide—a long, flat-bottomed, sharply-sloping channel, massively made of timber and stone work—on a raft composed of a score of squared logs that exactly fit into the passage-way. Amid a shower of spray as the raft drops down at the end of each slide, the tiro is conducted, by shoot after shoot, to the floating platform of wood at the bottom. At *Rideau Hall*, a plain, old-fashioned, comfortable building, a mile from the city, which forms the residence of the Governor-General, the people in winter have one of the best toboggan-slides in Canada, from a stout timber structure at the top of a high mound, whence a huge boarded trough to receive the snow runs at a steep angle to the foot of the hill.

Toronto, named from an Indian (Huron) word signifying “place of meeting”, is the second city of the Dominion in size and wealth, and the commercial as well as administrative capital of Ontario. As regards the history of this great Canadian city, we have seen that it was founded in 1793, with the name of York, by Governor Simcoe; that it was twice taken, plundered, and burned by the United States forces in 1812; that in 1834 it became a “city” under its present name; and that, three years later, the place saw trouble at the time of the Mackenzie rebellion. In 1850, Toronto was made the seat of government for Canada, as again in 1856, two years before the Queen's choice finally settled Ottawa as the capital. Since that date the history of the place has been almost wholly one of peaceful and remarkably rapid progress. Taking her whole career, in 1793 Governor Simcoe, when he crossed Lake Ontario from Niagara town to choose a site for a new capital that should be removed from United States' hostility, found the huts of

two Indian families on the ground. In 1834, the population did not reach 10,000; in 1861, it was about 45,000; in 1871, 56,000; ten years later, 86,500; and in 1891 that number had risen to over 181,000, including the people of some annexed suburbs. The extension of trade with the interior and the growth of the railway system were marked in Toronto by the construction of huge blocks of wholesale stores, and of the noble edifice in richly-carved stone, with many medallion busts of great explorers and navigators, that forms the Custom-house of this flourishing emporium. *Osgoode Hall*, the seat of the chief law-courts, in the Italian style, and the Lieutenant-Governor's residence, are also very handsome buildings. The approach by water to the city that lies on the north-western shore of Lake Ontario discloses a beautiful panorama of dome and turret, arch and spire, with a fringe of trees on a spit of land in front, and a cliff-like eminence on the right. This peninsula, a kind of natural breakwater for the harbour, has been now reduced by Lake Ontario's waves into islands that form a favourite water-side suburb and marine resort, with water-meadows, promenades, hotels, and picturesque villas scattered here and there; on the east lies the fine building of the Royal Canadian Yacht Club. The harbour, which in summer, besides the constant commercial activity, often witnesses rowing contests, becomes in winter a 4000-acre sheet of gleaming ice, traversed by ice-boats with their frosted sails. For nearly eight miles along the rim of the lake the city extends, from the mouth of the Don on the east to the Humber on the west, her roofs interspersed with the green crowns of the countless horse-chestnuts and elms which delightfully shade the streets in summer, and with the ground sloping gently upwards to the wooded line of the Davenport Hills. The principal thoroughfares are *King Street* and *Yonge Street*, at right angles to each other in the business-heart of the town. Among the chief ecclesiastical edifices of Toronto, which contains above 120 churches and chapels, and is marked by a reverential and quiet observance of the seventh day of rest, we may note the *Anglican Cathedral, St. James*, a noble perpendicular Gothic structure, with a spire 316 feet in height; the *Presbyterian St. Andrew's*, a stately building in the Norman style; the *Metropolitan Methodist Church*, containing the greatest organ in Canada, with 53 stops and over 3300 pipes; and the *Roman Catholic Cathedral, St. Andrew's*. Like Quebec, though not to

the same extent, Toronto has at times suffered from accidental fires. Three churches occupying the present site of the Anglican Cathedral were thus destroyed, and in 1890 the buildings of Toronto University, the main structure of which was the finest piece of college-architecture in the New World, perished in the same way. The grand and very valuable library was lost with the buildings, but both have now been restored in a fashion well worthy of the Canadian Dominion's energetic, patriotic, and prosperous sons, and of the originals whose loss they had to deplore. The chief pleasure-grounds of the city are the *Queen's Park*, with a noble avenue of horse-chestnuts and elms a mile in length and 120 feet broad; and the *Horticultural Gardens* of 10 acres. The chief educational establishments have been noticed in the general account of the Dominion; there are several fine libraries, a large Opera-house, a high-class Music Hall, and good buildings of every kind for the purposes of an advanced and progressive civilization. The aristocratic suburb of *Rosedale* has a lovely ravine of grass, streamlet, and trees, crossed by a lofty iron bridge, and Lacrosse Grounds where the finest players in Canada may be seen. As contrasted with French Quebec, and Anglo-French Montreal, Toronto is a thoroughly English city in appearance and in social character. *Jarvis Street* is described by a recent traveller as "one of the very prettiest roadways in the world; an avenue of well-to-do dwelling-houses all standing back a long way from the road, with the sweetest of English gardens and lawns in front, no two houses being alike, and all vying with each other in quaintness and picturesqueness of design. On a blazing day . . . it was a real treat to walk down this shady street for a mile or so, and gaze at the refreshing green lawns and bright flower-beds, from among which often came the tinkling splash of a little fountain, while from lattice and verandah dense masses of cool, feathery climbing plants hung in festoons, lighted up here and there by brilliant clusters of blossom." With a vast lake-trade in lumber, fruit, grain, coal, and cattle; with shipping entering her harbour, in 1890, to the amount of over 300,000 tons during the open-water season; and connected by railway-lines with all the east and west and north and south, Toronto had, in 1895, imports to the value of nearly 4 millions sterling, and exports worth over £800,000.

To the south-west at the western extremity of Lake Ontario,

on the harbour called Burlington Bay, inside Burlington Beach, a great sand-bar several miles long and 1000 feet in width, with a canal cut through to the outer waters, lies the prosperous city of *Hamilton*. Founded in 1812, when a settler named George Hamilton cut up his farm into "town-lots"; rising into some note with the cutting of the Burlington Canal, in 1824, through the sand-beach; ravaged by cholera and fire in 1832, and at one time threatening to outstrip Toronto, Hamilton had, in 1891, a population of 49,000. It is a cathedral city of the Anglicans (diocese, Niagara) and of the Roman Catholic bishop of Hamilton. The public buildings are handsome and substantial, and on the steep hill behind, called the *Mountain*, a part of the Niagara escarpment, are many stately private residences. The town lies in a splendid amphitheatre with a broad plain at its base sloping to Burlington Bay, and possesses a novel and charming feature in *The Gore*, a spacious and lovely triangular public garden in the heart of the place, with rich flowers and shrubbery, and a fine fountain to spread coolness around on sultry days. Some of the chief factories of iron, cotton, and woollen goods that are found in the Dominion, and the making of sewing-machines, glass-ware, and boots, contribute to the prosperity of the people of Hamilton. The agricultural district around is very flourishing, and the city possesses the finest draught-horses in the Dominion, belonging to Mr. Hendry, "the Pickford of Canada", who owns here and elsewhere about 5000 horses, bred from Canadian mares and Shire, Clydesdale, or "Suffolk Punch" sires. These animals, often exceeding 17 hands in height, fetch £80 for an ordinary pair, and two of them can draw 9 tons' weight on wheels.

About midway between Hamilton and the St. Clair river, in the peninsula between Lakes Erie and Huron, we find *London*, with a population, in 1891, of 32,000. The figures may make a British Londoner smile, but the Canadian town at least resembles its original in being situated in the county of Middlesex, on the river Thames, which, in its upper course, hums its way over pebbles through the Oxford glens of a beautiful valley, and has the city at the junction of its two branches. There are many fine buildings in streets named after the best-known thoroughfares of the British metropolis; and the bridges ("Blackfriars" and "Westminster"), the market ("Covent Garden"), the two parks ("Hyde"

and "Victoria") and the cathedral, follow the same fashion. Petroleum refineries, tanneries, foundries, mills, and other hives of industry, are sources of material wealth, and several colleges, a convent, a hospital, and Anglican and Roman Catholic bishops and their clergy, provide for other needs. The advanced condition of Ontario stock-farming is seen at Mr. Gibson's Belvoir estate, a few miles away, where a farm of 300 acres showed the British delegates in 1890 a splendid Durham bull ("8th Duke of Leicester"), about 70 pure-bred shorthorns, 60 pure-bred South Downs, 40 or 50 pedigree Berkshire pigs, and 100 beautiful turkeys. We learn from the same authority that the owner, a Lincolnshire man, "began with nothing"; that his farm is worth many thousands of dollars; and that on part of his land he grew, in 1890, 42 bushels ($5\frac{1}{4}$ quarters) of wheat per acre.

Kingston, at the north-east end of Lake Ontario, and near the southern entrance of the Rideau Canal, by which it is connected with Ottawa, had a population, in 1891, a little exceeding 19,000. We have seen that from 1840 to 1844 the city was the seat of government for Canada. A temporary decline was followed by renewed prosperity due to excellent railway and water communications, the possession of a good harbour screened by islands from the storms of the Lake, ship-building, and the manufacture of locomotive and other engines, machinery, leather and boots and shoes, agricultural implements and other matters. Standing on the site of Frontenac's fort, which was first placed in charge of the famous Cavalier de la Salle, Kingston dates from the days when the Iroquois were the masters of the land. The stone-batteries and martello-towers give a warlike air to the place as viewed from the water. The educational institutions include the Royal Military College already named, the Royal College of Physicians and Surgeons founded in 1854, and the Women's Medical College (1883) therewith connected. There are sees of Anglican and Roman Catholic bishops. *Brantford* (population 12,750) lies on the Grand River, about 24 miles s.w. of Hamilton by rail. The place derives its name from the famous Mohawk chief, whose native name Thayendinaga, was changed on Christian baptism to Joseph Brant. This "brave warrior and sagacious leader, loyal to his friends, and merciful to his captives" was an ally of the British in the Indian and Revolutionary wars. The oldest Episcopal

church in Upper Canada is at the former Mohawk settlement near Brantford, and was erected by means of funds which the chief raised in England, before he translated the Gospel of St. Mark and the English Prayer-book into the language of his people. The quaint little building sheltering Brant's remains (he died in 1807) is still used for public worship in the Mohawk dialect, and possesses a fine communion-service of beaten silver, presented by Queen Anne to the Indian chapel on the Mohawk River. A colossal bronze statue, unveiled in 1886 at the town we are dealing with, commemorates the services and fine character of this excellent specimen of the race whose modern representatives are settled on two reservations to the north of Lakes Erie and Ontario. There are manufactures at Brantford of engines and boilers, machinery and agricultural implements, cotton and stoneware, with the usual good schools and, in the neighbourhood, an Indian Institute and the Ontario Institution for the Blind, under government administration. The *Lorne Bridge*, a fine iron structure, was opened by the Marquis when he was Governor-General.

The town of *Guelph* (population 10,540) is situated on the river Speed, nearly 50 miles west of Toronto, owing its foundation to the Scottish novelist John Galt, whom we have met before in these pages. He became superintendent to the Canada Company early in the nineteenth century, and on St. George's Day (April 23rd), 1827, he selected the site, and had the first tree, a large maple, felled as a beginning, the name being given in compliment to the reigning British dynasty. The town, finely placed on hills, overlooks a choice agricultural district having alluvial valleys, pastoral streams, and abundant water-power coming down from the heights. The Provincial College of Agriculture and Experimental Farm near Guelph have been already noticed. The fair little town of *Galt*, 15 miles south of Guelph, was named after the energetic Scottish author and pioneer by the founder of the place, Mr. William Dickson, a native of Dumfries, and a schoolmate of Galt's in early days at Edinburgh. The place is a prosperous centre of industry, with flour-mills, machine-works, factories, and foundries, whose engines are driven by water-power or steam, doing work in wood and iron, wool and leather. Galt, like so many other Canadian towns, wood-built in their earlier days, has suffered at times severely from fire. In 1851 and 1856 large portions of the place

were thus destroyed, but wood was replaced by limestone and granite, and the town has now a fine Presbyterian Church whose tall, elegant spire throws its shadow over the Grand River. *St. Thomas* (population 10,370) lies about 12 miles due south of London, on the peninsula between Lakes Erie and Huron, and commands a noble prospect westwards over a district dotted with country villas and neat farmsteads, amid wild woodland, plantations of ornamental trees, meadows and corn-fields. The Canada Southern Railway crosses a deep ravine and its river by a long wooden viaduct. The industry of the place lies mainly in the workshops for constructing the railway-cars, adjoining which is the station, one of the finest in the Dominion. The town is a great railway-centre for communication to the north and east and west, while 8 miles south by rail lies Port Stanley, the chief harbour on the northern shore of Lake Erie. *St. Thomas*, swiftly growing in material prosperity, has an excellent Collegiate Institute, and the Methodist Episcopal Church, in Alma College, a fine pile of Gothic buildings in the centre of the city, amid 6 acres of ground, affords to young ladies an artistic, musical, and literary training. *Windsor* (population 10,322) on the Detroit River, a short distance before it enters Lake St. Clair, has passed through the phases of virgin prairie, river-side farm, trading post of the North-West Company, and ambitious village, into its existing condition as a prosperous town with a great trade in corn and other produce.

Sufficient matter has now been afforded to convey a general conception of the great and flourishing Province of Ontario, one of the finest in the British Empire. Her main resource is in the admirable climate and soil and the skilful and energetic tillage which produce, in addition to the usual British crops, maize and grapes and peaches and other articles needing a genial air and abundant sunshine to reach maturity. The best-settled part of the Province more closely resembles England than any other colony. About 6000 miles of railway have greatly served to develop the manufacturing, mining, and agricultural industries, and in the summer-season there is excellent transport by steamers on the Lakes and canals. The revenue exceeds £700,000 sterling, chiefly derived from subsidies paid by the Dominion treasury, land and lumber sales, licenses and stamps. The expenditure is about equal to the income, and financial matters are thoroughly sound. The imports

have an annual value of about 9 millions sterling, including 5 millions from the United States and 3 millions from Great Britain, while the exports, worth about 7 millions yearly, comprise 5 millions to the States and 1 million to Great Britain. Of the whole amount of exports, nearly 4 millions sterling in value is made up of agricultural products, animals and their produce in meat and hides, butter and cheese. The provincial rule is administered by a Lieutenant-Governor and six cabinet ministers. The Legislative Assembly consists of 90 members elected for four years by manhood suffrage without property qualification.

The present condition of Ontario is an excellent proof of what a hundred years of human effort can effect. Before an acre could be tilled, the forest had to be cleared from the surface of the soil. The wilderness has, in central and eastern Ontario especially, where nearly all was rough and primeval not half a century ago, been turned into a highly civilized region, with railways in every part; bright-looking farms with dwellings of brick or stone; barns built against the hillside to hold in winter the cattle and horses on the basement, and so arranged that the one or two upper stories can be entered by wagons on the level, or up an inclined plane, bringing fodder for winter-use; vast orchards growing apples, in dozens of varieties, with pears and peaches, cherries and plums; waving fields of Indian corn 10 to 16 feet in height; vineyards and root-crops of every kind; the best cheese-dairies and factories in the world; the finest of stock in cattle, sheep, and pigs. In a recent year, out of $11\frac{1}{2}$ million acres of cleared land, above $7\frac{1}{2}$ million acres were under crop, and the value of the land, with the live stock, implements, and buildings thereon, was fairly estimated at much above 200 millions sterling. Above $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions of acres were under pasture, and nearly 200,000 acres were laid out in orchards and gardens. The 737 cheese-factories used, in the same year, 665 million pounds weight of milk in producing over 64 million pounds of cheese. The live stock included nearly 600,000 horses, nearly 2 million horned cattle, about 1,400,000 sheep, 820,000 pigs, and above 6 million head of poultry. After this, it is superfluous to recount the many tens of millions of bushels of corn in various kinds, the two million tons of hay and clover, the fourscore million bushels, and more, of potatoes, mangold-wurzels, carrots, and turnips, won from the soil once uselessly owned and

roamed over by the much-bepraised and really ignoble "red man" now happily and for ever displaced by British colonization, rich in all the resources of science, and sustained by boundless stubbornness of energy and will.

The province of MANITOBA, formerly known as "Red River Settlement", is bounded on the north-west and north by the districts of Saskatchewan and Keewatin; on the east by Ontario and part of Keewatin; on the west by Assiniboia; and on the south, on the line of 49 degrees north latitude, by the United States (Minnesota and North Dakota). The territory has an area of 64,000 square miles, and the population, in 1891, was about 153,000, showing a density of 2.4 per square mile, and an increase of 145 per cent since 1881. In religion, there were 20,600 Roman Catholics; 30,800 Anglicans; 39,000 Presbyterians; 28,500 Methodists, and 16,000 Baptists. In 1886, of nearly 109,000 people, about 26,000 were of English origin, nearly 26,000 Scottish, over 21,000 Irish, about 5600 Indians, 8000 half-breeds, mostly of French extraction, nearly 7000 French, 11,000 Germans, and about 2500 were Icelanders. The increase since that date is mainly due to British emigration, as the above religious statistics indicate. We have now arrived, in our account of the Dominion, at what may be fairly styled New Canada, a region never settled by the old French possessors and claimants of North America, and long supposed to be the abode of eternal frost and snow, or at the most a suitable domain only for furred and feathered creatures. Modern exploration and effort have proved the existence of immense areas of plain and prairie, wonderfully fertile from the animal deposits and decayed vegetable matter of past ages, and capable of sustaining, under tillage and stock-farming, hundreds of millions of human beings, when the whole north-west region is taken into account.

The history of Manitoba is a subject which causes us to revert to that of the Hudson Bay Company, an account of whose territory and proceedings down to the close of the eighteenth century has been given in a former section of this work. It was there noted that the Company was then finding a formidable rival in the North-West Fur Company established in 1783 at Montreal. It was that rivalry which led to the first settlement in the country now called Manitoba. This "Red River territory" forms a part of

the vast region formerly known as "Rupert's Land", named from the dashing Cavalier prince, a nephew of Charles the First, and one of the chief founders of the Hudson Bay Company. That region included the present Manitoba and Keewatin, and the North-western districts Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Athabasca. The North-West Company had its head-quarters at Fort William, on Lake Superior, where *M'Kay's Mountain* rears its massive form. At that point business was in charge of a band of keen-witted clerks, mostly young Scots of good family, thrifty and faithful, and with perseverance and energy heightened by a share in the profits of the fur-trade. The higher officials of the Company were like feudal chiefs on the scene of its operations, travelling with a retinue of boatmen and servants obedient as clansmen, and holding council and banquet in the state-chamber at the Fort, where great occasions saw above a thousand factors, *voyageurs*, trappers, clerks, and other dependents of the Company gathered for business relieved by festivity made more attractive in the remembrance of past and the prospect of coming hardship and toil. Early in the nineteenth century, the feud between the two Companies, each coveting a continent as its hunting-ground for furry game, rose to its height. At this time an energetic, benevolent, and enterprising Scottish noble, Thomas Douglas, Earl of Selkirk, one of the great house so renowned in his country's story, was Governor of the Hudson Bay Company, holding a large portion of the stock. The earl was eager on behalf of his Company, and he sought to obtain control of the Red River, and to secure a strong base for future proceedings against the rival body, by erecting a fort at its junction with the Assiniboine. He felt pity for the suffering which at that time prevailed among some of the people in the north of Scotland, and his ambition aimed at creating a great Highland province in North America. This object was not attained, but the name of the earl is justly commemorated in that of the metropolitan "Selkirk county" of Manitoba; in the noble "Selkirk Mountains", with their enormous glaciers, of British Columbia; and in "Point Douglas", a locality in the town of Winnipeg, the name of which retains that of the "Fort Douglas" that once occupied its site. In pursuance of his enterprise, Lord Selkirk received from the Company the grant of 16,000 square miles, or over 10 million acres of land, in the vicinity of the Red

River. By the offer of free farms and special privileges as settlers, a considerable number of hardy Highlanders were induced to undertake the then formidable journey to the distant west. It was in 1811 that the first body of these colonists set sail from the fishing-village of Helmsdale, in the county of Sutherland. The place is well known to tourists in the north of Scotland as a station on the Highland Railway, a few miles beyond the Duke of Sutherland's splendid seaside residence, Dunrobin Castle. The Highlanders passed round the northern coast of Scotland in small vessels manned by Orkney sailors, and, after touching at Sligo on the west coast of Ireland, they made their way across the Atlantic and among the floating ice of Davis and Hudson Straits, and entered Hudson Bay in the autumn of the year. They landed and wintered at Fort York, the Company's trading-port; and in the spring of 1812 they journeyed southwards along the valley of the Nelson River to the south of Lake Winnipeg. There they were met by foes in the shape of an armed band prepared by the rival Company of fur-traders, the Nor'-Westers, plumed and painted like the wild Indians of the woods. Their numbers were too great for the emigrants to resist, and the Highlanders were forced to take refuge at a Hudson Bay Company's post within the United States border, leaving behind, in the hands of their cruel and rapacious opponents, the guns which their forefathers had held at Culloden, and the wedding-rings of their wives. In the spring of 1813 they returned, and began to form settlements at the spots now called Selkirk and Kildonan, the latter being named from a stream and valley in their former Highland home, lying north-west from Helmsdale. Log-houses were built, and some wheat was sown, and for that year the emigrants were left undisturbed.

In 1814, the North-West Company, having decreed the destruction of the little colony, made an attack which, after some bloodshed, ended in the reducing of the settlers' homes to ashes, and their renewed exile in another part of the wilderness. A new band of Highlanders arrived from Scotland, and reinforced by these fellow-countrymen and by a hundred old Canadian settlers, the emigrants returned to the same Red River district, only to encounter difficulties and hardships in which they lived on fish, roots, berries, nettles, and other natural products of the region.

Some of the body then gave up the enterprise and made their way to Canadian soil. The main body of settlers, in June, 1816, were attacked by 300 mounted Nor'-Westers, again in Indian array, and thoroughly armed. A volley from these foes slew the greater part of twenty-eight colonists who went forward to a parley, and the little town was then sacked and burned, the dwellers being again driven to take refuge at one of the Hudson Bay Company's forts. At this time, Lord Selkirk, on his way to Rupert's Land, heard of the outrage when he had reached New York. With the just wrath of a Douglas, he took instant measures for redress. Gathering about 100 Swiss, German, and French soldiers who had been disbanded on the close of the war with the States, and having a few Glengarry men who had come out with him as settlers, he marched, taking two small field-guns with his force, along the northern shores of Lakes Huron and Superior to Fort William, one of the North-West Company's posts, and, seizing the fort, he sent a number of prisoners to trial at York (Toronto) on charges of "larceny, riot, and murder" made by the sufferers. The men were acquitted for lack of complete evidence, but Selkirk retained possession of the fort in pursuance of his plans. A fresh attempt at tillage on the Red River prairies failed for that year, and the Highlanders were again driven by approaching winter to take shelter at Pembina, a Hudson Bay Company's post in the United States.

After very severe suffering, they returned, in the spring of 1817, to their former dwellings, and the crops were in a promising condition when July brought a cloud of grasshoppers which devoured all vegetation. The stoutest-hearted men were broken down by this calamity, and tears were shed for their wives and children's sake as they started for another winter's exile at Pembina. The spring of 1818 saw the settlers back at their homes, but their hopes were again frustrated by the plague of grasshoppers that filled the air, smothered the fires kindled for their destruction, polluted the water, and finally drove the hapless people back for another hard winter at Pembina. Nothing but the resolute philanthropy of Lord Selkirk could have coped with such a succession of disasters in the attempt to found a colony in the wilds. Again and again his resources had provided seed-grain and stock for his countrymen, and in the spring of 1819, resolved to succeed, he had 250

bushels of seed-wheat brought 1200 miles, at the cost of £1000, from a town on the Mississippi, and this time, at last, a good harvest was reaped, and the Red River settlement was finally established in the year of Queen Victoria's birth. For some years the colony grew in numbers and resources, reinforced by emigrants from Scotland, Switzerland and Germany. The winter of 1825-26 caused many deaths, both of persons and cattle, from extreme severity of cold, and the succeeding spring, on the thawing of the snow, brought a river-flood that swept away houses and barns, fences and tillage, into the waters of Lake Winnipeg. After some luckless attempts at the manufacture of cloth from buffalo-hair, promoted by the Hudson Bay Company; and the failure of stock-farming and flax-culture and tallow-trading in schemes which cost Lord Selkirk £100,000, the colony, increased by many half-breed descendants of the early French and English fur-traders and trappers, took a firm hold. The rivalry of the two companies was brought to an end in 1821 by an amalgamation of their interests, followed by a grant, from the Imperial Parliament, of the monopoly of trade from Labrador across to the Pacific. In 1836, the land granted to Lord Selkirk, except that assigned by him to settlers, was purchased for the sum of £84,000, and a form of government was organized in a "Council of Assiniboia", consisting of the Company's chief officer and persons selected from the most influential settlers. This body held jurisdiction for fifty miles around Fort Garry, the trading-post which has become the city of Winnipeg. The rest of the vast territory was under the direct control of the Company, who exercised a rule fairly wise and beneficial, promoting the welfare of the Indians and others through the general exclusion of intoxicating liquors. Before we part with Lord Selkirk's original settlers, it is a pleasing duty to record that, with true Highland loyalty to the church of their fathers, the great majority, unvisited by any Presbyterian minister for nearly forty years, declined to become Anglicans on the arrival of Church of England missionaries. In 1851, the Rev. John Black, despatched by the Canada Presbyterian Church, arrived amongst the Highlanders after a journey of eight weeks from Toronto. Lacking only one gift, the power of addressing them in their native Gaelic, he was warmly welcomed, and a church in the wilderness was quickly organized, with a manse and a school-house, and a kirk of

stone at Kildonan, where the steeple long remained the chief sign of Christian civilization on the expanse of the prairie.

Returning now to the later days of the Company's power in the North-West, we observe that their policy was generally adverse to colonization. At their various lonely "factories" or settlements, Fort York and Moose Factory on Hudson Bay, Fort Chipewyan on the Slave River, Forts Providence and Resolution on Slave Lake, and at other posts in the Saskatchewan valley, and in the Lake Winnipeg district, the Company's agents were devoted to the retention of the fur-trade and the sale of goods of every kind needed in that region, and the increase of population by settlement was regarded as likely to interfere with the monopoly. The Red River settlement, in 1858, had grown to a population of about 8000, and ten years more elapsed before it reached 12,000. In 1838, the Company had acquired from Parliament, for twenty-one years, the retention of the sole right of trading; in 1859 the fur-trade in British North America was thrown open to the world, and in 1869, two years after the formation of the Dominion, the Company formally ceded its territorial claims for the sum of £300,000, retaining all its "forts", with 50,000 acres of land around them, and one-twentieth of the land lying within the "fertile belt" from the Red River to the Rocky Mountains. On this basis the Hudson Bay Company still exists, collecting and dealing in furs, and deriving a large income from the sale of lands. On the annexation of the North-West Territory to the Dominion, the natives were placed on Prairie Reserves, along with the concession of a great area to the half-breeds.

In the following year, 1870, as we have seen, Manitoba was created a Province of the Dominion, and this measure was attended by trouble on the Red River. The passing of the Act by the Dominion Parliament in April, 1869, aroused the apprehensions of many of the settlers lest the change of government should interfere with their title to their lands. Among the 12,000 people of the settlements, there were rivalries of race and creed. They included about 2000 whites, English-speaking Protestants; 5000 English half-breeds of the same faith, and about the same number of French half-breed Catholics. There were American residents who longed for annexation with the States; Fenians who wished to set up a republic; a "Quebec" party aiming at the predominance

of French and Catholic interests, and an "Ontario" party eager for Protestant and British ascendancy. Amidst these elements of dissatisfaction and disorder, action was taken, on behalf of the French half-breeds, by Louis Riel, a native of Manitoba, who raised an armed force, and meeting the new Governor of the North-West Territory, Mr. Macdougall, near the frontier, on October 20th, 1869, forced him to retire to Pembina, on United States territory. The insurgents then seized and held Fort Garry, with the Hudson Bay Company's valuable stores, several cannon, a number of small-arms and a large supply of ammunition. Colonel Dennis, a Canadian militia officer, engaged on land-surveys in the district, raised a small body of the loyal inhabitants, but they were taken prisoners and kept for some months in Fort Garry. Riel then pillaged the Company's money-safe and stores, and seized property of the Canadian government, and, encouraged by success and impunity, he established, in February, 1870, a provisional government with himself as president, and drew up a "bill of rights", demanding local self-government, representation in the Dominion legislature, and an amnesty for the leaders of the revolt. At the head of about 600 armed men, he carried matters with a high hand, confiscating public and private property, and arresting and banishing opponents of his cause. A party of loyalists, who had gathered near Fort Garry, were seized to the number of forty-eight, and their leader, Major Boulton, of the Canadian militia, was put in irons, tried by a rebel tribunal, and sentenced to be shot. His life was spared on the earnest intercession of some of the chief British settlers. The chief crime of the rebels was the shooting, in March, after a mock-trial by their "court-martial", of a brave and loyal subject, Thomas Scott, who had shown zeal in asserting the authority of the Queen. The utmost indignation was excited throughout Canada, and the Ontario government offered a reward of 5000 dollars for the arrest of Riel. In May, the new province of Manitoba was formally constituted by an Act, with representation in the Senate and the House of Commons, an annual subsidy of 30,000 dollars, and a local legislature. The "provisional government" accepted this measure, and on June 23rd, the Queen's proclamation for the admission of the new province into the Dominion was issued. At the same time, a force of 1200 picked men, including 100 of the 60th Regiment of the Line, and volun-

teer Canadian militia, was marching by way of Fort William to Fort Garry, under the command of Colonel (afterwards Sir Garnet and Viscount) Wolseley. For 400 miles the little army, with great labour in the transport of military stores and provisions, and of large and heavy boats over long, steep, and rugged "portages" amidst a labyrinth of lakes and streams, made their way to their destination, and there found that, in default of an amnesty, Riel and his associates had fled. Thus ended the "Red River rebellion", with the banishment of Lepine, one of the leaders, and the outlawry of Riel. In 1874 he was elected to the Dominion House of Commons by a Manitoban constituency, but he was not permitted to take his seat. We shall meet him again in a later stage of this narrative.

The construction of railways connecting the province with British Columbia on the west, and with the St. Lawrence and the maritime provinces on the east, was a chief agency in the rapid development of Manitoba. This mode of communication has been now much extended towards the north and west and to the frontier of the United States. The prairies, devoid of obstruction to railway engineers, are easily supplied with rails, while the nature of the deep soil renders difficult the maintenance of macadamized roads for the transport of heavy goods. The country presents some beautiful natural features. *Lake of the Woods*, with its western shore in Manitoba, has been already mentioned. At *Rat Portage*, on the northern shore, the river Winnipeg issues from the lake in two streams, on its way to Lake Winnipeg, and passes down many cataracts and rapids, with intervals marked by charming green islets. The great sea of prairie that rolls away towards the Rockies has a beauty of its own at all seasons of the year—in the vast expanse of winter-snows, in the bleached dead grasses of earliest spring, in the pale-blue or delicate white of the first anemones, in the tender green of the new growth of grass, with a great variety of flowering plants bending in the breeze as far as eye can reach; in the marvellous wealth of roses in June, and in the lovely hues of autumn changing the tints of grasses and sedge, vetches and reeds, and of the innumerable flowers as they die away. Nor must it be supposed that the prairie is everywhere devoid of trees to break the monotonous expanse. The rivers and the smaller streams, or "creeks", are usually marked by lines of

growing timber—elm and oak, poplar and maple—and the country round about Selkirk, where the Canada Pacific Railway first strikes the Red River, has a beautiful park-like aspect. The chief lakes, Winnipeg, Manitoba, and Winnipegosis, have been referred to in our general account of the Dominion. Among the rivers which traverse the province, besides the lower course of the Red River, is the Assiniboine, with its tributaries the Souris and the Pembina.

The mean summer-temperature is about 66 degrees; the thermometer, in winter, sometimes falls to 30 below zero, but the brightness and dryness of the atmosphere cause the cold to be much more tolerable than in a moist climate. The chief drawbacks are occasional summer-frosts, injurious to cereals, and terrible blizzards, an experience not to be forgotten during life by the traveller who has survived long exposure in a driving storm of snow which flies level through the air, with the keenness of a steel edge, and intensity of cold which freezes hands and feet, while the furious wind snaps off branches and lays low the trees. The main industry is agriculture, often conducted on a very large scale, with the most modern machinery for tillage, and for reaping and threshing the produce. The deep, black, clayey mould or loam, with a deep clay subsoil, admirably suited for wheat, is one of the very richest in the world, in many places needing no manure for years, and in some spots of inexhaustible natural fertility. Of late years, stock-farming has been introduced with success, and dairy-produce has so well succeeded that Manitoba, importing cheese in 1886, now exports it to a considerable value. Root-crops, and the small fruits of the British Isles, give good returns. In the least settled parts of the country there are moose, and bears, and deer, with plenty of feathered game, and the usual abundance of fish in the rivers and lakes.

The rapidity of rise in the chief town and seat of government, *Winnipeg*, is one of the marvels of the Dominion. In 1870, as Fort Garry, the place was a wretched-looking village whose whole belongings, with itself, might have been carried away in a few Red River boats. Standing at the confluence of that river with the Assiniboine, over 1400 miles from Montreal, and incorporated as a "city" in 1873, it is now a fine substantial town of stone and brick, with tram-cars traversing spacious streets, and lit by the electric light. The settler will there find all the resources of

Christianity and culture in churches, colleges, and schools, and the elements of material wealth in busy factories, great flour-mills and towering "grain-elevators". In 1871 the population was 241; in 1881, nearly 8000; in 1891, it had reached 25,600. St. Boniface is a quaint French suburb on the opposite side of the river, connected with Winnipeg by a steam-ferry. The streets of the city present an incongruous mixture of semi-savage and civilized life in half-breeds and Indians contrasted with visitors from almost every part of the world and with townspeople who, in numbers unequalled for the size of the place, are graduates of the University of Manitoba. Fine carriages drawn by noble steeds run side by side with rude ox-carts, and wooden houses are seen along with fine public buildings. *Brandon*, a town founded in 1881, lies on the Canadian Pacific Railway, below the junction of the Assiniboine and Little Saskatchewan rivers, in a rich wheat-growing district, and has now a population of about 6000, with grain-elevators, a flour-mill, and well-built houses. *Portage-la-Prairie*, west of Winnipeg, is a town about the size of Brandon, and derives its name from being formerly, as the nearest point on the Assiniboine River to Lake Manitoba, the place whence goods were carried or "portaged" from one to the other. *Gladstone*, *Minnedosa*, and *Emerson* are other small Manitoban towns. In a recent year, the exports in agricultural produce, stock, and cheese, chiefly to the States and the British Isles, had a value of over £350,000, while the imports from the same countries in 1896 were worth over £540,000. A large intercolonial trade is also carried on. The Lieutenant-Governor is assisted by an Executive Council, and the one Legislative assembly of 38 members is chosen by the people.

KEEWATIN, a territory stretching northwards from Manitoba and Ontario along the western shore of James Bay and Hudson Bay, was created as a separate district in 1876 out of the North-West Territories, and placed in charge of the Lieutenant-Governor of Manitoba; in October, 1883, a portion of that province was added, and Keewatin, more a geographical area than a political entity, is now estimated at 282,000 square miles, of which 15,000 square miles are comprised in the surface of rivers and lakes. The population is about 5000, Indians, whites, and, in the extreme north, Eskimos, the only settlements being Norway House, Port

Nelson, Fort Churchill, and one or two other posts of the Hudson Bay Company. The country, well-timbered in some places, is little adapted for cultivation, and is mainly given up to the hunters and trappers of the abundant large and small game and fur-bearing animals. The great *Nelson River*, draining a larger area than the St. Lawrence, issues from the northern end of Lake Winnipeg, and traverses Keewatin in a north-easterly course of about 400 miles, during which it passes through various lakes, to its outlet in Hudson Bay. In the upper course, there are rapids and cascades; in the lower part, the river is navigable for about 130 miles, of which 70 or 80 are open to large steamers. Forests of spruce are found on the shore of some of the lakes, and here and there the wigwams and canoes of Indians may be seen. The *Wa-sitch-e-wan* or *White Falls* form a beautiful scene in a steep double cascade over rocky ground between woodland of firs, where a stream comes down from the heights on the right bank of the river. The *Churchill*, flowing in the same direction as the Nelson, has a course of about 1000 miles, of which the lower part is in Keewatin. Bearing in its upper waters the names of the *Beaver* and then the *Mississippi*, it passes through many lakes, and has many rapids which are avoided by the usual "portage" of boats and their burdens during the considerable summer-traffic. This limpid river, larger than the Rhine, flows between steep alluvial banks in its lower course, only navigable for 8 miles from the sea, owing to its swift current and shallow broken bed in that part. Inside the mouth is a fine harbour, well sheltered by a rocky ridge, and capable of floating the largest vessels at low tide. A picturesque sight is here afforded by the massive ruins of Fort Prince of Wales, which mounted, above a century ago, forty heavy guns of that age, defending the stores of the Hudson Bay Company. The event of the year in this sparsely-peopled region of island-dotted lakes, of rivers full of rapids and "chutes", and of forests of spruce-fir, is the arrival of the annual ship from England at *York Factory* or *Fort York*, near the mouth of the Nelson River. The place is of rectangular shape, surrounded by high palisades, with a large storehouse or "factory" in the centre, and streets of wooden buildings on three sides of the enclosure. A mission-church stands outside on the north. The vessel whose white sails bring thoughts of their distant kinsfolk to the British exiles at the Factory is

THE ARRIVAL OF THE ANNUAL SHIP AT FORT YORK, HUDSON BAY.

One of the most striking natural features of British North America is Hudson's Bay—an immense navigable inland sea, bounding upon the north the settled provinces of the Dominion of Canada. Various rivers empty themselves into this basin or bay, such as the Churchill and the Nelson, and at suitable points along the coast the Hudson Bay Company have established trading-posts; the most important of these being York Factory or Fort on the Hayes river, near the mouth of the Nelson river. All the merchandise collected by the Company's traders and trappers is stored at these posts, and as the Bay is only navigable, owing to the ice, for a short period in the summer, a ship is sent out annually from England with supplies in exchange for the native products. The great event of the year, therefore, is the arrival at the Fort of the Annual Ship, which brings these lonely traders into touch with the outside world.



W. RAINEY, R.I.

THE ARRIVAL OF THE ANNUAL SHIP AT FORT YORK,
HUDSON BAY.

W. W. P. 111

received with a salute from the battery ashore, answered before she drops her anchor in the river opposite the Fort. Quickly unladen of her welcome stores, she makes an immediate start for home, leaving the "factors" and trappers to face the lengthy coming winter, when the charms of the Indian summer have passed away.

CHAPTER VIII.

NEW BRUNSWICK, NOVA SCOTIA, CAPE BRETON ISLAND, PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

Boundaries, area, and population of NEW BRUNSWICK—Its early mis-government—Disastrous conflagrations—Reform contests—Financial depression and riots—Responsible government established—Physical features and scenery of the province—Grand Falls of St. John—Fisheries—Climate—Agriculture—Trade—St. John city—Fredericton—The Chignecto Ship-railway. Boundaries, area, and population of NOVA SCOTIA—Struggles for constitutional government—Joseph Howe—Distinguished natives—Physical geography—Apple culture—Yarmouth city—The Tusket lakes—Cape Sable—Lunenburg—Cape Canso—Antigonish, New Glasgow, Pictou, and Windsor towns—Halifax—Its fortifications—Interior of the province—Climate—Agriculture and timber trade—Fisheries—Mining-trade and shipping—Revenue—Administration. Cape Breton Island—Louisbourg—Bras d'Or Lake—Sydney towns. Sable Island, the "ocean graveyard"—Story of its plagues. Boundaries, area, and population of PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND—Lord Selkirk's colony—Tyranny of Governor Smith—Difficulties with the land question—Later progress of the province—Its geographical features—Agriculture and fisheries—Game birds—Manufactures—Revenue—Administration—Charlottetown—Summerside—Georgetown.

NEW BRUNSWICK is bounded on the north by Chaleur Bay, a great inlet of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and by the province of Quebec; on the west, by Quebec and the State of Maine; on the south, by the Bay of Fundy and Nova Scotia; and on the east by the Gulf of St. Lawrence and by Northumberland Strait, the latter dividing it from Prince Edward Island. With an area of nearly 28,000 square miles, it is larger than Belgium and Holland united, and only a little smaller than Scotland. The population, which was the same in 1891 as ten years previously, was by the census 321,260, showing a density of 11.4 per square mile. In religious profession, the Roman Catholics numbered 116,000; the Anglicans, 43,000; the Presbyterians, 40,640; the Methodists, 35,500; and the Baptists, 79,600, figures from which easy conclusions may be drawn as to nationalities. About 95,000 are of English origin:

nearly 50,000 are Scottish in blood; the Roman Catholics are, in about half their number, Irish; there are nearly 60,000 people of French extraction; about 7000 Germans and a few hundreds of Indians are found in the province. As in 1881 the census showed over 100,000 people of Irish origin, we may assume that a large proportion of these were Protestants, since the French must have been almost wholly Roman Catholics.

The history down to the opening years of the nineteenth century having been already given, we may note that the trade of the colony was stimulated during the war with the United States in 1812-1815, and that the growing demand for shipping, and the heavy duty on Baltic pine, were specially profitable to New Brunswick. The loyalty of the people was shown in the mustering of the King's Regiment for service in Upper Canada with the regular army, the men marching on snow-shoes through the wintry woods, and displaying much courage in the field of war. In the earlier decades of the century, government was in the hands of military men who had little sympathy with desires for the development of popular rule, and there were the usual conflicts on the subject of revenue-control between two houses of legislature. Sir Howard Douglas, a Peninsular hero, and a notable author on naval gunnery, was Governor from 1823 to 1829, and rendered great service to the colonists in promoting internal development by the construction of roads and the encouragement of tillage among a people hitherto almost exclusively devoted to lumbering and ship-building. He was also founder of the University of Fredericton, of which he became the first chancellor. The year 1825 was marked by terrible disaster in the shape of fire. After a long drought which had rendered all timber, when the autumn came, highly inflammable, and reduced rivers to mere trickling brooks, woods and farms were laid waste by accidental conflagration, and Government House at Fredericton was burned. This, however, was a mere prelude to calamity on a far vaster scale. On October 7th, the valley of the river Miramichi was swept for 60 miles by flame which spread northwards to the Bay of Chaleur. For two preceding days, the air had been intensely close and a dead calm prevailed. The towns of Newcastle and Douglas were almost destroyed, and three million acres of forest were burnt up; 160 human beings perished, many hundreds were maimed for life, and thousands only escaped by fling-

ing themselves into lakes and rivers. Houses, barns, live stock, crops, and several ships lying on the stocks, were the material losses added to the destruction of growing trees in the awful disaster which made a blackened desolation of 5000 square miles of territory. Prompt and abundant help was forthcoming from Great Britain and the United States, and the province rose by degrees from this overwhelming trouble. We pass over the border-troubles which for some years preceded the adjustment, already mentioned, of the boundary-line between New Brunswick and the State of Maine.

The struggle for responsible government in New Brunswick did not assume so serious a form as in Upper and Lower Canada. The prerogatives of the crown, as against the popular aspirations for self-government, were strongly maintained by Major-General Sir Alexander Campbell, who became Lieutenant-Governor in 1831. In the following year, the Legislative Council was separated from the Executive Council, but the latter was still an exclusive oligarchical body, indifferent and irresponsible to public opinion. The Assembly had no control, through financial matters, over an administration possessed of funds, in "casual and territorial revenue", sufficient for civil expenses. In 1837, however, the Colonial Office in England caused the Governor and Executive Council to surrender this revenue in return for a liberal permanent civil-list granted by the Assembly, and Sir John Harvey, who became Governor in that year, exercised a conciliatory and constitutional rule. The chief leader of the party of reform had been Mr. Lemuel Allan Wilmot, a descendant of "United Empire Loyalist" ancestors. It was he who, on a mission to England, gained from the Home Government the concession that the control of the revenues should be vested, as above, in the representatives of the people. The year 1842 was one of varied troubles. Financial depression was caused by temporary stagnation in the timber trade and by the reckless voting of moneys in the popular Assembly. A Conservative reaction showed itself at the general election and serious rioting had to be suppressed by military force. There were destructive fires in the city of St. John, and on July 12th a desperate contest, in which several persons were killed and many wounded, occurred between the Roman Catholic and Orange factions.

In 1848, through the influence of Earl Grey, the Colonial

Secretary, who had laid down the principle that the Executive Councillors in our North American provinces should hold office only while they retained the confidence of the Legislative Assembly, and with the united vote of both parties in New Brunswick, responsible government was fully and finally established. The first representative of the Queen under the new system was Sir Edmund Walker Head, who held office as Lieutenant-Governor for six years, until he succeeded Lord Elgin, as we have seen, in 1854 as Governor-General of Canada. The period of his rule was one of general prosperity through the development of the country's internal resources and the extension of her foreign trade. The growth of the Anglican religious body in the province was recognized in 1845 by the separation of New Brunswick from the diocese of Nova Scotia, which had originally included all the British possessions in North America, and had afterwards been divided by the establishment of episcopal sees at Quebec, at Toronto, and in Newfoundland. The bishopric of Fredericton was founded in the above year, and in 1853 Christ Church Cathedral was consecrated in that city. In the remaining years that preceded the formation of the Dominion there were few occurrences of interest in New Brunswick. An attempt at trade-protection policy was defeated through the united influence of the Colonial Secretary at home and the local Legislative Council; the Prince of Wales received a loyal welcome in 1860; and in 1864 the scheme for confederation was condemned by popular vote at a general election, an expression of opinion which, as has been already recorded, was not long afterwards reversed, and New Brunswick became one of the first members of the Canadian Dominion.

Much of the scenery of New Brunswick has been already mentioned in our account of the Intercolonial Railway. Along the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the surface is generally level, while along the Bay of Fundy there is a rocky, uneven district rising into a plateau. Dense forests of valuable timber still cover a large area, displaying special beauty of tints, in the decline of the year, on the great variety of trees. On the coast-line, 500 miles in length, there are many fine harbours. The *St. John*, the *Miramichi*, the *Restigouche*, and the *Tobique* are the best-known rivers in this land of streams and lakes. Most of the latter are of small dimensions, but *Grand Lake*, connected with the St. John about 50 miles from its

mouth, is 30 miles in length and from 3 to 7 in width. Among the picturesque scenery the most notable is found at the *Grand Falls of St. John*, which are far up the river, on the north-west border of the province, close to the State of Maine. Vastly inferior in magnitude to Niagara, this noble cataract, from its character and surroundings, produces a great impression on all who behold it in its terrible grandeur and force. Above the falls, the river suddenly narrows from a quarter of a mile to 300 feet and then plunges over, by a perpendicular descent of about 80 feet, into a gloomy gorge of about a mile in length, walled in by dark slate cliffs of twisted strata, interspersed with white veins of quartz, and rising to heights of from 100 to 250 feet. The body of water comes down, at its centre, upon a conical black rock above 40 feet high, and is dashed off thence with a force that sends huge masses of water into the air, descending in snow-white foam. Great waves are thrown far up against the walls of the chasm, and at times the river, in a seeming effort to escape from its imprisonment, is heaped on one side so as to bare for a moment the very bed of the enormous trough. The awful tumult continues throughout the gorge. The special sight is that afforded by the lumbermen's logs coming down over the cataract, when they are sometimes shot out into the air for their full length to a distance of 40 or 50 yards from the base. A fine view is obtained from the suspension-bridge crossing the chasm from crag to crag about 200 yards below the falls. The sportsman, amongst other attractions, has the trout-fishing on the Tobique and other streams, and the spearing of salmon by night on the Restigouche. The Indians of the Millicete and Micmac tribes, chiefly dwelling on the coast, are excellent guides and assistants for adventurous tourists in search of salmon, trout, the striped bass, waterfowl or deer. The wild animals include otters, lynxes, musk-rats and a few beavers. The sea-fisheries, estimated at above a million sterling in value, rank in the Dominion next to those of Nova Scotia. The climate is extremely healthy, with the wide range of from 10 degrees below zero Fahrenheit to 82 above, and a mean temperature, at St. John, just above 40. The great cold, as we have had occasion to observe concerning other parts of the Dominion, is alleviated by the extreme dryness of the air, and the people of New Brunswick are remarkable for their vigorous frames and length of life.

The fertile soil produces all the grains, roots, vegetables, and fruits of the British Isles, and, with about $1\frac{1}{4}$ millions of acres under cultivation, there are many millions more ready, at a cheap rate, for settlers to occupy. Improved land may also be had on reasonable terms, as many Scottish and other colonists have left the country for Manitoba and the North-West Territories. The chief industry is agriculture, with an increase in the breeding of superior stock; ship-building is still largely carried on, in spite of the competition of iron and steel in recent years. There are some manufactures of leather, woollen and cotton goods, mill machinery, iron castings, railway-stock, and nails, and the mining of iron, manganese, copper, and antimony is successfully pursued. In the year 1896 the exports of New Brunswick were valued at about 7,855,000 dollars or £1,572,000. Of this amount, mining accounted for over 100,000 dollars; fisheries, nearly 800,000; the forests, 5,543,600; animals and their produce, 580,000; agricultural products, 391,000; and manufactures, 433,000. About four-fifths of this trade belonged to New Brunswick. In 1892, St. John had imports and exports of nearly equal value, the latter somewhat the higher, worth nearly £700,000. The revenue, made up chiefly of subsidies from the Dominion government, and from land and timber sales, was 613,000 dollars (over £120,000) in 1890, with an expenditure of 678,000 dollars and a debt of nearly 1,900,000 or nearly £400,000.

Besides the towns already mentioned, we must now deal with St. John and Fredericton. *St. John*, the largest town, the commercial capital, and the railway centre of New Brunswick, stands on the north or left bank of the estuary of the St. John River, rising with its many spires and buildings of gray stone, or red brick, or brown-painted wood, up the side of a steep and rocky peninsula, with a background of heights. In the season, the harbour is busy with large and small craft—fine-lined yachts, broad-browed wood-boats, steam-tugs, coasters and ocean-going ships. With the adjacent *Portland*, connected by a populous street running through a deep ravine, and now forming a part of the larger place, St. John contains about 60,000 people. A battery of heavy guns, on Fort Howe Hill, in Portland, commands the harbour, and affords a fine view of the whole city with its steep streets climbing up three valleys running diverse ways. The chief industries are ship-build-

ing and the timber-trade, besides the manufactures already mentioned. The modern history of this thriving city includes one terrible episode in the conflagration of June 20th, 1877, which destroyed over 1600 houses, or two-fifths of the place, including the best private and public buildings. Many of the ships in the harbour were consumed, and hot ashes, carried by the wind, were rained down upon villages lying miles away. At Fredericton, 84 miles distant, the sky to the south-east glowed until daybreak like a wall of hot copper. Prompt and liberal relief was afforded by the other Canadian provinces, Great Britain, and the United States, and a new St. John arose in even more substantial and elegant form. The chief thoroughfare, King Street, climbing up a steep hill from the harbour, is of very spacious breadth lined by fine shops. The Custom-house, of rich-toned sandstone, is a noble structure, and the public and commercial buildings—Post Office, City Hall, the New Brunswick and the Montreal Banks, the Union Club, and Trinity Church—are very handsome. The chief open space, *King Square*, comprises three acres planted with trees, and with a fountain in the midst. The Roman Catholic Cathedral is a beautiful structure of freestone and marble, in pointed Gothic, with a splendid spire and good stained windows. The city presents a remarkable appearance in having many of its streets blasted and hewn out of the solid rock which towers high and black above the house roofs. The port is amply supplied with steam communication along the coast of the United States, with the other maritime provinces, across the Atlantic, and up the river St. John.

At one point, above the city wharves, the river, after expanding, at some distance above St. John, to a width of four or five miles, passes through a deep ravine less than 200 yards across, spanned by a suspension bridge, and by a fine railway bridge on the cantilever principle. A remarkable phenomenon is here presented, twice in every 24 hours, in the form of a reversible cataract or steep rapid. At low ebb-tide, the river-waters dash downwards through the ravine towards the sea in a boiling surge of waves. At mid-tide there is a placid surface on which vessels passing up or down safely float. The change is caused by the strength of the very high tide which prevails in the Bay of Fundy, gradually checking the river-waters, and then overcoming them so as to rush with tremendous force through the ravine, and fill the upper basin

with the salt water at its flood-level. A picturesque voyage up the St. John takes the traveller past the junction with that river of the *Kennebecasis*, a noble stream with an average breadth of two miles in the lower eighteen miles of its course. It is on the beautiful expanse of its lower waters that the yachting, sculling, and water-parties of this region of New Brunswick take place, and that her most famous oarsmen are trained for their competitions, and it was here that Renforth, the stroke of a Tyneside crew racing against New Brunswickers many years ago, fell dead in the boat as his mighty efforts urged it along.

At 84 miles, as the river runs, up from St. John, lies the seat of government, *Fredericton*. This little city of about 8000 people lies embedded in foliage opposite the junction of the Nashwaak with the larger river. Her chief importance lies in being a political, judicial, educational, and ecclesiastical centre, with a military element, and in the particular social character which belongs to such a place. Fredericton is also the meeting-point of four railways, and has much business as the distributing depôt for a rich agricultural district, and in connection with lumbering, the manufacture of cotton and leather, and fish-canning. The streets are broad and level, generally shaded with noble elms, and the handsome public buildings include the beautiful little Anglican cathedral in pure Gothic style, and fine stone churches of the Presbyterians and Baptists. A line of wooded heights rises at the back of the city, displaying good private residences, and the massive old structure of the New Brunswick University, crowning a succession of terraces. The river is crossed by a long white bridge for foot-passengers and carriages and by a splendid steel erection for railway lines.

Before quitting New Brunswick, we must notice further the advantages of her land-system. The farmers of the province are almost without exception the owners of the lands which they cultivate. If a man rents a farm, he only does so for a short period, and for the purpose of employing his time until he can do better. Every man can become a land-owner if he wishes, and the relations of landlord and tenant, so far as they apply to farmers, are almost unknown. In 1887 the free-grant system of settlement was introduced, and it soon attained great success. There are now about fifty free-grant settlements, occupied by thousands of industrious

men who had no means of purchasing farms, but who will soon be in prosperous circumstances. The aggregate value of the improvements in those settlements which have been carved out of the forest in ten years is not much less than one million dollars. Land is not now given under the Free Grants Act, but the Labour Act virtually makes a free grant, as work done on the roads in payment for the land is done near the applicant's own lot, and is greatly to his own benefit. Next to agriculture, the industry which employs the largest number of men, and yields the largest returns, is the timber-trade. Some figures above given show that the products of the woods, which originally covered the whole surface of the province, form by far the largest item in the exports of this pleasant and prosperous territory of the British colonial empire.

It only remains to state that the government of New Brunswick is administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, an executive Council or ministry, a Legislative Council of 18 members, and a Legislative Assembly of 41 members chosen under a liberal franchise.

NOVA SCOTIA, a long narrow peninsula, is bounded on the north by Northumberland Strait, dividing it from Prince Edward Island, and by the Gulf of St. Lawrence; on the north-east by the Strait of Canso; on the south and south-east by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the west by the Bay of Fundy and New Brunswick. With a length of 300 miles, and a maximum breadth of 100, and a coast-line about 1000 miles in length, abounding in good harbours, the Province has an area (with Cape Breton Island) of about 21,000 sq. miles, one-fifth of which is estimated to consist of lakes, rivers, and sea-inlets. Of above 10 million acres of land, only half can be regarded as fit for tillage, the rest being of a rocky, barren character. In 1891, the census showed a population of 450,000, with a density of about 22 per sq. mile, and an increase of 2 $\frac{1}{5}$ th per cent since 1881. With our recollections of *Acadie* or French Nova Scotia, we are prepared to find that there were, of the above total, 122,500 Roman Catholics, while the Presbyterians numbered 109,000, the Anglicans 64,400, the Baptists 83,000, and the Methodists 54,000.

Taking up the history of this province in the nineteenth century, we find that the people derived benefit, during the war of 1812-1814, from the greatly augmented naval and military expen-

diture at Halifax, whose harbour was enlivened by the presence of British fleets, the arrival of prizes captured by British cruisers, and the sending forth of expeditions to assail the coast of the United States. A reaction came with the close of the war, and Nova Scotian prosperity had a period of ebb, in the decline of revenue and trade, the reduction of work at Halifax dockyard, and the choice of Bermuda in place of Halifax as the chief British naval station in North American waters. The Governorship of the Earl of Dalhousie, an accomplished gentleman and brave soldier, from 1816 to 1820, when he became Governor-General of Canada, was marked by the formation of a Provincial Agricultural Society at Halifax, under the earl's presidency, and an impetus to scientific farming was given by the exertions of a "canny" Scot, Mr. John Young, who held the post of secretary. As in New Brunswick and the two Canadas, a constitutional struggle took place against an irresponsible Executive Council, dominated by a "Family Compact" party who disregarded the popular interests and claims. The people's champion in this matter was Mr. Joseph Howe, son of a former "United Loyalist". He was a ready and eloquent speaker, a shrewd and vigorous wielder of the journalist's pen, and he dealt tremendous blows, in and outside of the Assembly, against the ruling oligarchy. Some strong resolutions were, in 1837, carried in the Assembly through the influence of Howe, and the King, soon to be succeeded by a Queen, was prayed to grant an elective Legislative Council, and to exclude the Bishop and the Chief Justice from the body. A part of the requests made was granted in the Executive Council being compelled to hold public sittings, and in the granting of control, over the casual and territorial revenue, to the Legislative Assembly, but the Legislative Council remained a nominated body. Strong party feeling was aroused, reformers being denounced as "rebels" and "republicans", supporters of Papineau and Mackenzie in Canada. Early in 1840, Mr. Howe carried resolutions, by 30 votes to 12, in the Legislative Assembly, condemning the policy of the government and expressing want of confidence in the Executive Council. The acting Governor, Sir Colin Campbell, the future hero of Crimean and East Indian warfare, a staunch upholder of prerogative, declined to make any changes to meet the popular views, but his successor, in 1840, Lord Falkland, conceded an enlargement of the Legisla-

tive Council to 20 members, nine of whom were representative of rural districts. Mr. Howe and another prominent reformer, Mr. M'Nab, became members of the Executive Council, and six of the ten members of that body were also members of the Legislative Assembly and thus made directly answerable to their constituents. The principle of responsible government was thus largely recognized. After a period of Conservative reaction concerning the question of higher education, which Howe and his followers wished to make of an undenominational character, and a fierce contest between Lord Falkland and the newspaper press controlled by Howe, the Governor was recalled in 1846, and under the new ruler, Sir John Harvey, in 1848, responsible government was fully and finally established when the Executive Council or ministry resigned office in deference to a direct vote of want of confidence carried in the Legislative Assembly. During succeeding years, the railway-system was developed and the coal-mines of the province were freely worked. In 1864, the school-system was re-organized with great improvements in the way of assessments for education, grants in aid, and the development of elementary instruction. Three years later, Nova Scotia became a province of the new Dominion. Among distinguished natives of Nova Scotia we may note Captain Parker and Major Welsford, killed before Sebastopol at the final assault in September, 1855, and honoured by a monument erected five years later at Halifax, and especially Sir William Fenwick Williams of Kars, renowned for the part which he played in the defence of that Asiatic fortress against a great Russian host in the same Crimean or Russian War. Born at Halifax in 1800, son of the commissary-general and barrack-master, and early entering military life, he served as an engineer in Ceylon, and as a diplomatist in Asiatic Turkey, before he rose to fame at Kars and won a baronetcy, a pension of £1000 voted by the Commons, and a costly sword of honour from the Legislature of his native country, and became, in 1858, Commander-in-chief of the British forces in North America.

The most remarkable feature in the physical geography of Nova Scotia is the number of sea-inlets. On the south-west, *St. Mary Bay* and *Annapolis Basin* run up for many miles, each separated from the Bay of Fundy by a narrow strip of land. Annapolis Basin is entered from the Bay of Fundy by a strait called

Digby Gut, about 2 miles long and only 80 yards in width, running between cliffs from 400 to 650 feet in height. Three miles to the south lies the little town of *Digby*, on a pleasant hillside with its white houses embowered among apple-orchards, and cherry-trees famous for red and black fruit that brings summer-visitors from Halifax and St. John, and from Portland and Boston in the States. The Basin is begirt with hills at the base of which are ranges of white cottages and lines of orchards, gardens, and cultivated fields. The *Annapolis Valley*, which is the western half of the district styled "the garden of Nova Scotia", between the long ranges of hills called North Mountain and South Mountain, is a region of apple-orchards that extend along the roadside with scarcely a break for 50 miles, presenting a sight of marvellous beauty in the pink and white blossoms of spring and the ripe ruddy, brown, and yellow crop of autumn. The French Acadians in early days introduced some of the finest sorts, ribston pippins, golden russets, pomme grise, nonpareils, and other varieties, to which many more have now been added, and with such success that the annual export certainly exceeds 300,000 barrels. The historical town of *Annapolis*, seen in former pages of this work, has a population of about 3000, and commands a noble view of the Basin to which it gives its name. The *Cornwallis Valley*, the eastern half of the district, is watered by four rivers, and has a deep alluvial soil of wonderful fertility in the production of apples and other fruits. Further to the north, the Bay of Fundy has a spacious eastern offset called *Minas Channel*, at the head of which the voyager, passing round the fine promontory *Cape Split*, with its outer cliff, 400 feet in height, detached from the chief mass, passes into the grand *Minas* or *Mines Basin*, which penetrates 60 miles inland and ends in *Cobequid Bay*. Another fine headland on a line with Cape Split is *Cape Blomidon*, composed of sandstone rising for about 500 feet. We come next to the flat district, defended by dikes from the inroads of the Fundy tide, and known from Longfellow's poem as the "Land of Evangeline", the *Grand Pré* or Great Meadow, rich in crops of hay. On the north of Cobequid Bay, in the rugged region of the Cobequid hills, lie the Acadia Mines, rich in iron-ore worked by a motley population of Cornishmen, Nova Scotians, Swedes, Irishmen, and Scots, smelted on the spot at blast-furnaces, and worked up into bars and sheets, wheels and axles, and other forms.

On the low rocky west coast lies the flourishing town of *Yarmouth*, with a population of about 7000. She ranks fourth—next to St. John (New Brunswick), Montreal, and Windsor—among the ship-owning ports of the Dominion, and her citizens have lately shown their enterprising spirit in establishing a line of large Clyde-built steamers to Boston. The place is made beautiful by handsome villas, in many cases the abodes of retired ship-captains; by the verdure of the lawns, trees, and shrubs, and by the bright red, purple, and white blossoms of the flowers, all kept fresh in the heat of summer by the soft Atlantic mists. Fishing, woollen-mills, foundries and a canvas-factory are the chief industries of this charming little city. A short distance inland is the singular region of the *Tusket lakes*, about 80 in number, clustered about the course of the Tusket river. These tiny, rock-bound, inland waters are overshadowed by maple and beech, birch and spruce, and afford excellent fishing for salmon and trout. Passing southwards from Yarmouth along the coast, we round *Cape Sable*, the most southerly point of Nova Scotia, at the south-western extremity of an island of the same name. The designation, bestowed by the French, is derived from the white sands at the foot of the headland. The island, 7 miles long by 3 in extreme width, has about 1700 people, chiefly descendants of New England loyalists who occupied it some time after the deportation to Halifax, in 1758, of the French Acadians. Cape Sable, from its currents, fogs, and rock-ledges, is carefully avoided by prudent mariners, dreading the scene of numerous wrecks thereby caused. The whole southern or south-eastern coast of the peninsula has been indented like a very irregular saw through the action, for many ages, of the Atlantic waves, and it is from the towns and villages on the numerous harbours and river-estuaries in this part of Nova Scotia that the extensive fishing-industry is chiefly carried on. At the mouth of the Mersey river, on a fine natural harbour, half-way between Cape Sable and Halifax, lies the thriving little *Liverpool*, with about 5000 people whose earnings are chiefly due to fishing, lumbering, and ship-building. The river flows out of the largest Nova Scotian lake, the beautiful *Lake Rossignol*, 20 miles in length by 8 in average width. Passing the mouth of the fine estuary of the La Have river, 13 miles up which lies the rising little *Bridge-water*, with its lumbering and saw-mills, we arrive, in a fair and

sheltered haven, at the wharves of *Lunenburg*, a prosperous ship-building and mining town of 5000 people, Germans in blood and language and way of life. Leaving Halifax for the time, we pass a coast where inland lies the noble lake called *Ship Harbour*, 15 miles in length, and *Sherbrooke*, on a bay at the mouth of the St. Mary's river, a fine stream for salmon and trout, like the neighbouring waters of the Gaspereaux and Indian Rivers.

At the south-eastern extremity of the province we reach *Cape Canso*, to the north of which, south of the entrance to Chedabucto Bay, lies the little town of Canso, the landing-place of several Atlantic cables. Passing thence north-west through the *Gut* or *Strait of Canso*, we reach the northern shore of Nova Scotia, on which lie the towns of Antigonish, New Glasgow, and Pictou. *Antigonish*, a charming little place of about 2000 inhabitants, amid trees and shrubs, meadows and tilled fields, lies in a district peopled by Scots from the Highlands, and trades largely in agricultural produce exported to Newfoundland. It is the see of a Roman Catholic bishop, and the new cathedral, St. Ninian's, a fine building of blue limestone dressed with brick, bears on its front the words, "Tighe Dhe", or "House of God" in Gaelic, in which tongue discourses are often delivered. St. François Xavier College is a thriving Roman Catholic institution. Near at hand, amid crags dear to geologists for the story which they tell of past eras in the earth's formation, is the romantic Highland village of Arisaig, and Celts of the Highlands rejoice in possessing a Lochaber Lake, with banks overgrown by maples, beeches, and elms whose autumn tints are a glorious sight. *New Glasgow*, a town of 5000 people, or "thereby", is worthy of her distinguished name as an energetic and thriving place which lies in a great coal-mining district, and has a large interest in ship-building, iron-works, glass-works and steel-works. *Pictou*, with about 5000 people, is situated on a noble haven, having high, picturesque, well-populated shores, and receiving the waters of three rivers flowing through thickly-settled prosperous agricultural valleys. The land-locked harbour, with excellent anchorage, is the best on the northern coast of the province. In winter, its thickly-frozen surface presents a lively spectacle in the sport of curlers, skaters, and sleighing parties. The town, whose Indian name is of uncertain meaning, was founded in 1788, and the district, once the arena of fierce battles

between the Micmacs and the Mohawks, owed its first prosperity to the arrival, in 1773, of a body of nearly 200 Scots from the Highlands, who were followed, after some years of hard struggle ending in success, by others of their race. We read that the Indians prepared to depart on learning that the new-comers were like the men who had taken Quebec, and fairly fled to their forests, to trouble settlers no more, when they saw the Highland costumes and heard the bagpipes' unearthly yell. Pictou is a pleasant summer-resort, with good boating, sea-bathing, and lawn-tennis, and, among the hills, some scenery that recalls the Trossachs. The Academy, with a fine library and museum, has had among its graduates many eminent men of the Dominion, including Sir William Dawson and Dr. Grant, Principal of Queen's University.

Windsor, a town of about 6000 inhabitants, lies nearly in the centre of the province, about midway between Halifax and the Bay of Fundy. This third ship-owning port in the Dominion, surpassed only by St. John (N.B.) and Montreal, sends out large quantities of gypsum to Boston, Philadelphia, and New York. It is situated on the river Avon, filled to the brim of its estuary's lofty banks by the enormous tide of the Bay of Fundy, pouring in by way of Minas Basin. The industries are in iron-founding, cotton, furniture, and leather. After the banishment of the Acadians in 1755, the place was settled by retired British officers, and became a social centre in the province. King's College, the oldest of our colonial universities, has been already mentioned, numbering among her graduates Sir Fenwick Williams, Judge Haliburton ("Sam Slick"), and many other distinguished Canadians.

Halifax, the capital of the province, and the chief Atlantic seaport of the Dominion, lies nearer to the British Isles than any city on the American continent, being distant only 2180 miles from Cape Clear, in Ireland. The foundation and early history have been already given. The census of 1891 showed a population of 38,500 in this important place which, down to 1815, was little more than a military and naval port and arsenal, but has now become also a commercial city. The place presents a superb appearance with its climbing streets, soaring spires, and crowning fortifications to the voyager approaching it over the waters of the magnificent harbour, lying six miles long nearly north and south, with room for the navies of the world to repose in safety. The

town extends for about three miles along the western side of the harbour, with well-planned streets lighted by electricity and, in the business quarters, chiefly built of freestone. The public buildings are generally handsome, and there is a most creditable profusion of ecclesiastical, charitable, and educational institutions, worthy of a city which is both the see of the Roman Catholic archbishop presiding over Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland, and of the Anglican bishop of Nova Scotia. The water supply is excellent, and Halifax is proved by figures to be one of the healthiest places in all America. In its commercial aspect, its importance is shown by lines of steamers to London, Glasgow, Havre, Liverpool, Newfoundland, the West Indies, to various ports in the Canadian maritime provinces, and to Boston, Massachusetts; by the possession of the largest graving-dock in America, 613 feet long, 102 feet broad, with 30 feet of water on the sills, built of granite and concrete, and completed in 1889 at the cost of £200,000; and by imports which, in 1895, reached a value of nearly 1½ millions sterling, with exports to a somewhat larger amount. The places of public resort include the noble *Point Pleasant Park*, an imperial property leased to the city, practically for ever, at a nominal payment, and open to the public, with its 160 acres of turf and trees, rock and brackens, wild-wood scenery and secluded dells; with broad and smooth carriage roads, winding footpaths, and drives that extend in all for 15 miles. In this charming and spacious pleasure-ground, commanding the finest sea-views, the wanderer among tall pines and wild flowers comes from time to time upon a strong redoubt or ambushed battery for the defence of this position on the peninsula between Halifax Harbour and the reach called the North-west Arm, 4 miles long and ½ mile wide, extending up towards Bedford Basin, described in our account of the Intercolonial Railway. The *Public Gardens* of 18 acres are among the finest in Canada for natural beauty improved by art, and are rendered more attractive weekly by the music of a military band, and on many summer evenings by concerts and brilliant illuminations. The *Green Market*, on Wednesdays and Saturdays, is worth a traveller's visit for its quaint display of country folk, Dutch, German, French, Scottish, Negro, and Indian in race, with their diversities of feature, costume, and twang of speech. The fish-market is notable, all the year

round, for a variety obtained from sea, and lake, and stream beyond all that can be seen elsewhere in America.

It is as a place of strength, however—as a naval fortress of the first class—that Halifax commands the attention of those who pay heed to the interests of the British Empire in the widest sense. Its defences are designed to protect the haven which is the headquarters of our North American fleet and which contains the convenient and valuable coaling station supplied from the coal-fields of Nova Scotia and Cape Breton Island. At the entrance to the harbour, *Sambro Island*, with a lighthouse, has guns and artillerymen to give the alarm on the approach of a foe. Three miles from the city, *MacNab's Island*, with a beacon-light to warn ships from some neighbouring shoals, has stone batteries, of which the chief is called Sherbrooke Tower. On entering the harbour, hostile ships would be exposed to a cross-fire of heavy guns from the batteries of Point Pleasant and *Fort Ogilvie* on the western side, *Fort Clarence* on the east, and *Fort Charlotte* on St. George's isle, a small green spot in the middle of the harbour. The armament of this last fortress is of strength unknown to all save a few favoured or official persons, but it is certain that the place is full of troops, bomb-proof galleries, casemates and big guns. On a hill overlooking the town, at about 250 feet above sea-level, stands the impregnable citadel, *Fort George*, a huge earthwork armed chiefly with very heavy modern muzzle-loaders firing conical Palliser chilled-iron shot. This place is most jealously guarded from all intrusion that might reveal its secrets, and shows to the world outside little beyond a grass-covered roof to the casemates fronting a wide dry moat, and a narrow entrance-gate behind a swinging bridge, defended by eleven guns in a semicircular battery. A grand view of the city, harbour, and surrounding country is afforded from this point of vantage and security for Halifax and its harbour. Towards the upper end of the city, the royal dockyard, thoroughly equipped for naval needs, and cut off from the town buildings by a high stone wall, extends for half a mile along the harbour front, with men-of-war anchored off the shore. On the North-west Arm, almost opposite Point Pleasant Park, another strong work, *York Redoubt*, is prepared to give a warm reception to those who come on mischief bent.

The interior of Nova Scotia presents a surface diversified by

long parallel ranges of hills and valleys running east and west, with abundant woodland, many streams, and hundreds of small lakes. The thermometer has a range from above 90 degrees in summer to 20 below zero in winter, but this degree of cold is only found in the north and east, and the climate is remarkably healthy, and very temperate for such a latitude in America ($43^{\circ} 25'$ to 47° north), owing to various circumstances. The effects of the icy current from Baffin's Bay are not felt on the southern and western sides. The waters of the Gulf Stream flow close along the southern shore. The hills of the interior guard the peninsula to a large extent from the cold winds of the north. When winter has passed away, vegetation makes very rapid progress, and autumn, for Nova Scotians, is a truly delightful time. Of the 5 millions of acres fit for tillage, about 2 million acres are under crop and pasture, and above 20,000 acres are given to fruit culture, with results, as already partly noticed, which prove the soil and climate to be equal to those of the best regions in Ontario. The most important product of the farms is hay, the annual crop of which, now largely sent in pressed bales to the English market, exceeds 600,000 tons. Little is done in dairy work, but large profits are made from cattle reared for the butcher. A great timber trade is carried on in exports to Europe, the United States, and the West Indies, of scantling and staves obtained from the forests that contain oaks and elms, maples and birches, larches and poplars, ash-trees and pines of good growth.

The fisheries, among the finest in the world, have a total value, from sea, river, and lake, approaching $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling a-year, giving employment to nearly 30,000 men on board 14,000 vessels of all sizes. Herring and mackerel are probably the most important items in an industry which also includes haddock and cod, halibut and hake, shad and salmon-trout, grayling and eels, lobsters and shell-fish of all edible kinds, with the trout and other fish of the rivers and lakes. The cured fish are exported to Brazil, the West Indies, and the Catholic countries of southern Europe. Manufactures have been noted in connection with the towns. Among the diverse forms of wealth in this highly favoured country, mining has an important place. In 1896, gold to the value of £100,000 was obtained, mainly in veins of quartz on the southern shore to the east of Halifax, and at some central points. Marble and stone are worked in many quarries, but the most valuable of Nova

Scotian minerals is the coal obtained, to the annual amount (including Cape Breton Island) of about 2 million tons, the chief workings in Nova Scotia proper lying about Pictou, Stellarton, and New Glasgow on the north coast, and at Springhill, near the isthmus of Chignecto. The internal trade of the province and communication with the rest of the Dominion are aided by above 800 miles of railway, with new lines in prospect. The annual imports have a value of about 2 millions sterling, two-fifths of the amount coming from the British Isles, and the largest other share from the United States. The exports of fish, minerals, lumber, agricultural products and manufactured goods have nearly an equal value, more than half the trade being done with the above-named countries. The shipping of Nova Scotia, which exceeds in tonnage, according to population, that of any other country in the world, does a large proportion of the carrying trade in modern commerce, and her vessels may be found in numerous ports loading and discharging cargoes. For the sportsman and the trapper, the hunting regions afford bears and foxes; moose and caribou (American reindeer); otter, mink, and sable; hares, squirrels, and raccoons; with abundance of winged game in woodcock and snipe, plover and partridge, geese, curlew and wild ducks. The revenue in 1895, derived chiefly from the Dominion treasury, mining-royalties, and receipts from crown-lands, exceeded 835,000 dollars (about £166,000), while the expenditure was 831,000 dollars, and the debt 1,988,000, or nearly £400,000. The province, represented in the Dominion parliament by 10 members of the Senate and 21 in the House of Commons, is administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, aided by a responsible Executive Council of 9 members, a Legislative Council of 21 members, appointed for a term of years by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, and a House of Assembly of 38 representatives, elected for an extreme term of four years by manhood suffrage.

Cape Breton Island, now politically a part of Nova Scotia, has been repeatedly under our historical notice in connection with the great fortress and little town of Louisbourg, on the south-east coast, now represented only by the lines of the earthworks, the great slope of the glacis, and the arches of the casemates and magazines, with a fishing-village of about 1000 people at some little distance from the ruins, the place being used in summer as a

coaling-station. Beneath the waters of the spacious harbour lie the hulks of sunken war-ships, while the only monument of the gallant New England militia who died for Great Britain in the first successful siege is the low green slope where their remains were interred. The reunion with Nova Scotia, in 1820, was a propitious event for the little colony, which had sunk, since its existence as a separate province in 1784, into a poor condition, due to misrule and to exhaustion of revenue by the expense of superfluous officials. The island, an irregular triangle, lies east of Nova Scotia, divided from it by the Gut or Strait of Canso, a mile in breadth. With extreme length and breadth respectively of 100 and 85 miles, the rocky surface, rising at North Cape to 1800 feet above sea-level, has an area of 3120 sq. miles, and a population of about 85,000. The island is split almost in two by the deep inlet from the east called the *Bras d'Or Lake*, 50 miles long and 20 broad, affording access by water to most parts of the country, and united with the sea on the south-west coast by a ship-canal, half a mile in length, coming out at St. Peter's Bay. The area of this inland sea is about 500 sq. miles, with a depth from 12 to 60 fathoms. The scenery of the island has the diversity afforded by forest-clad crags and hills of gentle slope, lakes and streams, arms of the sea, fertile vales and plains. The climate is moist and milder than that of the mainland, being in summer of a very delightful and invigorating character. Nothing can be more charming than the trip at that season through the *Bras d'Or*, with its far-running branches, headlands of every form, and shores decked with hills and woods and glades, in an infinite variety of foliage and shape, with a sprinkling of Indian villages and of hamlets inhabited by Scots from the Highlands and their descendants, who form, with French Acadians of Breton origin, an almost wholly Celtic population. Those who are acquainted with the outer Hebrides will be interested in learning that the channel, two miles long and about a mile in width, by which the steamer passes from Great to Little *Bras d'Or*, has, for one name, that of *Barra Strait*, in a district peopled by immigrants from the island beaten by Atlantic waves on the British side of the ocean. The little town of *Baddeck*, on the north-western shore of the inland sea, with a population of 2000, is a delightful summer-resort in a region of streams that abound in trout, and of noble scenery in divers

forms. To the north, before reaching the open Atlantic, the voyager passes, to right or left, according to the channel chosen, Boularderie Island, 35 miles in length by 8 in extreme width, with romantic scenery on each of its coasts.

About 15 miles from the open sea to the east of the entrance to the Bras d'Or, at the head of an inlet running due south, lies *Sydney*, with a population of about 4000. This place, the seat of government when Cape Breton Island was a separate province, has an excellent harbour, closed indeed by ice in winter, but a busy scene in summer with steamers from the southern ports of the United States, and from the St. Lawrence, on their way to Europe, lying at the wharves to take in coals. The town of *North Sydney*, 8 miles away, is the centre of a district that produces some of the best coal in the world from deposits of vast wealth, making Cape Breton Island the most valuable portion, for mineral production, of the province of Nova Scotia. The population of North Sydney, which has some manufactures in leather, and large ship-yards, is about 6000. The only other towns are *Arichat*, in a district mainly peopled by French Acadians, and *Port Hood*, the only safe harbour on the west coast north of the Strait of Canso. The island produces a little maize and other grain, not sufficing for home-consumption, and exports fish, timber, and some iron ore, in addition to its main trade in coal.

About 90 miles south-east of Nova Scotia, in 60° w. long. and 44° n. lat., in a part of the Atlantic severely subject to both fogs and storms, lies the ill-famed crescent-shaped bank of sand, a deposit of the drift of meeting currents, which bears the name of *Sable Island*. This most inhospitable place, whose only vegetation consists of scrubby grass, cranberry bushes and the like small growths, has been noticed in the early history of French voyages to North America, and is to be carefully distinguished from the Cape Sable Island above described, off the south-west coast of Nova Scotia. The low-lying parallel ridges of sand, parted for eight miles of their length by a lagoon, have been the scene of so many wrecks as to earn the various names of the "Charnel-house of North America", "The Sailor's Grave", and "The Ocean Graveyard". On a cloudy day, the place has almost the exact colour of the surrounding sea, thus leading mariners to the doom of predecessors whose fate is often recalled, after a gale,

by the exposure of skeletons and of the timbers of long-buried ships. The island, with its loose soil, is constantly altering in form, so that fathoms of water now lie over the spot where a house once stood, and a conical hill above 100 feet high has been lately raised above the surface. Early in the nineteenth century, the island was 40 miles long; in 1890 this had been reduced by one-half, affording a hope that the whole may ere long utterly vanish, but new shoals and banks are being constantly formed by the action of wind and sea, and at each end a dangerous sand-bar raises continuous lines of breakers in a storm, giving altogether nearly fifty miles of surf. The waves beat on the shore with an appalling thunderous roar and with a force that makes the whole mass quiver as if about to break up under the blows. Since 1873 the Canadian Government have erected three successive lighthouses, two of which were swept away, and the third is now in a precarious undermined condition. An establishment of about 20 persons is maintained, under a superintendent of the island, in charge of the lights, and for the relief of shipwrecked mariners, in whose behalf a hut stands at each end of the lake or lagoon, furnished with provisions and with written directions how to find the house of the superintendent. Animal life on this dreary spot consists of abundant rabbits and of a breed of strong hardy ponies like our "Shetlands". In the summer-months, the prevailing wind is south-west, usually attended by fog. At that season, great flocks of sea-birds resort to the place, and shoals of the hair-seal come thither for breeding. The walrus or sea-horse, once so plentiful, along with seals, as to attract numerous French and English sea-hunters, no longer visits the Sable Island shores. In times prior to the nineteenth century, this island was the abode or resort of an abominable crew of wreckers and pirates who committed crimes of unknown number and atrocity. The establishment of a place of refuge and of human aid for wrecked persons was due to the loss, in 1801, of the transport *Princess Amelia*, carrying above 200 officers, recruits, and crew, every one of whom perished. A gunboat sent out to search for possible survivors was also wrecked on the sand-banks, but not with serious loss of life. Five look-out stations, besides the chief post in the centre of the island, are now maintained, with signal-arrangements for communicating with each other, with headquarters, and with vessels; and life-boats, surf-boats, rocket-

apparatus, life-buoys, and horses to drag boats to a suitable point for attempted rescue, are kept in constant readiness. In regard to the history of animal life on Sable Island, we may note a curious succession of plagues and remedies. The place had become overrun with rabbits when an old Norwegian vessel cast ashore brought a colony of rats. The rats so increased as to kill off nearly all the rabbits, and also to become destructive to the Government stores. An importation of cats from the mainland made an end of all the rats and the surviving rabbits. Then the cats, from their numbers, became a nuisance, and dogs were brought to put them down. The history of the dogs is not forthcoming, but a few years ago rabbits were again introduced as a source of food-supply; rats came ashore again from a wreck, overcame the rabbits, and began to be a new plague when, in 1890, a supply of cats was brought from Halifax, and the cats and the rats, for all we can tell our readers, are still at war. No person is allowed to reside without express permission from the Government. This is freely accorded to victims of strong drink who desire to be reformed, as no alcoholic liquors can be obtained, and the dismal scene of so many disasters is at last serving a good purpose as an asylum for Nova Scotian drunkards.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND, the smallest of the Dominion provinces, lies in the south-west of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and is an irregular crescent in shape, with its upper half to the east of New Brunswick, and its lower half due north of Nova Scotia. From both those provinces the island is separated by Northumberland Strait, varying in width from 10 to 20 miles. With an extreme length of about 145 miles and a breadth varying from 4 to 34 miles, it has an area of about 2100 square miles or 1,344,000 acres. In 1891, the population, having increased very little (0·17 per cent only) since 1881, amounted to 109,000, giving a density of 54 per square mile. In race, the people are largely English, Irish, and Scottish, with many French, Scandinavians, and Germans. In religious faith, there were in 1891 about 48,000 Roman Catholics; 6700 Anglicans; 33,000 Presbyterians; 13,600 Methodists, and 6300 Baptists. The history down to 1801 having been already traced, we may resume by stating that the progress of the colony was retarded by the proprietary system under which absentee owners, holding the land only for speculation, prevented

settlement on reasonable terms. By the year 1806, about one-third of the land had become open to colonists by an arrangement which the government made with the owners. The Earl of Selkirk, whom we have seen as the energetic founder of the Red River settlement, was one of the proprietors, and in the earlier years of the nineteenth century that wise and beneficent land-owner transferred to this fertile country about 4000 hardy Highlanders from Scottish estates, and greatly promoted agricultural development. From 1813 till 1823 a tyrannical governor, Mr. C. D. Smith, virtually ruled without a parliament, summoning no popular assembly from 1814 till 1817, and promptly dismissing three which dared to oppose his views. Quit-rents due to proprietors were collected by seizure and forced sales, to the ruin of many farmers, and matters reached such a point that, after ten years of misrule, a petition to the home-government, carried to England by Mr. Steward, a champion of popular rights who barely escaped seizure and imprisonment on the eve of his departure, caused the immediate recall of the obnoxious Governor Smith. After this petty revival of Stuart methods of administration, Colonel Ready took office until 1831, and Prince Edward Island made good progress in road-construction, improved tillage, and consequent trade. A liberal legislature, in 1830, swept away Roman Catholic disabilities only one year after "emancipation" in the British Isles.

In 1837, under Sir Charles Fitzroy as a new Governor, an attempt was made to deal fully with the land-question by forcing the absentee English landlords who were leaving territory, in large areas, unlet and unimproved, to pay a heavy tax or forfeit their estates to the Crown, but the Colonial Secretary in London thwarted the good purpose of the Governor and the Legislature. For some years prior to 1850, the popular Assembly strove for responsible government and the control of the public revenues, a change of constitution which, with the consent of the Colonial Office, was brought about in 1851 under the rule of Sir Alexander Bannerman. The revenue and postal service were reformed, and in 1853 universal suffrage was established. In the following year, under Sir Dominick Daly, trade and prosperity were greatly stimulated by a reciprocity-treaty with the United States. The land question remained as a difficult and engrossing subject, and

several vain attempts were made at a settlement on equitable terms for all concerned. The entrance of the province, in 1873, into the Dominion, brought a long-delayed relief in the raising of a loan to purchase and re-allot proprietary estates, and the good work was completed when, in 1875, after due valuation by commissioners, the government acquired about 844,000 acres of land, of which, up to 1889, all but 97,000 acres had been disposed of in a way satisfactory to all parties. Going back for a moment from this anticipation of events, we find the colonists giving a most loyal reception to the Prince of Wales in 1860, and, a year later, when war with the United States appeared to threaten, raising a volunteer force of 1000 men. In 1873, the accomplishment of confederation relieved Prince Edward Island from a burden of debt, and assigned to her an annual subsidy of 30,000 dollars and a payment of 80 cents (about 3s. 3*d.*) per head on a population then estimated at 94,000, in addition to the deliverance, just recorded, from the incubus of greedy absentee land-owners.

The many inlets of the sea give a great extent of coast-line, and the island is divided into three peninsulas by the deep indentations of the southern coast at Hillsboro and Egmont Bays. The undulating surface of the beautiful country, styled by its people "The Garden of Canada", or "The Island", nowhere rises over 500 feet from sea-level, and presents the appearance of a well-tilled land of thriving farms and hamlets, very home-like to a traveller from England. The centre is still fairly wooded with birch and maple, beech and pine, and the summer-green of lawn and meadow rivals the brightest verdure of Ireland. From creek and cove, in every part, comes the bracing air of the sea, and the country is rich in springs and streams of the purest water. The climate, milder than that of the neighbouring mainland, is very healthy in its freedom from undue moisture and in the rarity of fog. Nearly all the rich red loamy soil is fit for tillage, partly resting on red sandstone, partly of alluvial formation. A fine natural manure, largely used by the farmers, is provided in the famous "mussel-mud", found in most of the rivers and bays as a deposit, from 5 to 20 feet in depth, composed of decayed oyster, clam, and mussel shells, raised through the ice in winter by machinery worked by horse-power. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the sober, religious and industrious people, who raise wheat, oats, and barley.

turnips and potatoes, largely exporting the potatoes and oats. The crops of oats are of finer quality than any others in the Dominion, and potatoes, which are here of special excellence, are often raised to the large amount of 250 bushels per acre. The horses have taken high places at Canadian exhibitions, and much heed is now paid to the rearing of horned cattle and sheep, the island mutton, fed on grass of admirable quality for the purpose, commanding good prices in the colonial markets. The fisheries of mackerel, herring, cod, hake, oysters, and lobsters are of great value, but are not so much regarded by the people as agriculture, the chief export in this line consisting of canned lobsters to the weight of about 5 million lbs. The oysters have now become also an important article of trade. The sportsman may find abundant trout in the streams, and specially good recreation in catching the sea-trout of the bays and inlets, "game" fish from 3 to 5 lbs. in weight, taken with a fly by casting from side to side in running before a light breeze. For gunners Prince Edward Island affords admirable sport, not with native game, but with the countless migratory birds which arrive on the shores—Canada and brent geese, black duck and teal, widgeon and woodcock, snipe and golden plover, and many other varieties, including great flocks of curlew. The wild geese come early in March, and are shot in the pools, amid fissures in the ice, from "goose-boats" made to resemble floating lumps of ice, the game being attracted by means of decoys. In the autumn, still better sport is given by the same birds as they return, in a wilder state, from the breeding-grounds in Greenland and Labrador. Brent geese arrive early in May, and these excellent birds for the table command a high price in the Boston and other markets. Black ducks, as good table-birds as the brent geese, breed in the island, and are fit for the sportsman from early in August until the middle of November, when they take their flight, to come again from the south in June. Plovers are found all over the island, and snipe and woodcock, in September, haunt the marshes and wood-covers. The native grouse, good birds for the table, are becoming rarer from the price which they fetch.

The manufactures, of no great importance, are chiefly concerned with butter and cheese, soap and starch, tanning and woollen goods, meat and fish preserving, grinding corn and sawing wood. A railway of 3 feet 6 in. gauge, belonging to and worked by the

Dominion Government, traverses the island from end to end, and the telegraph secures constant communication with the outer world, the steam-traffic with the mails across Northumberland Strait being sometimes delayed in winter by the ice. The revenue, in 1895, amounted to 277,000 dollars or nearly £56,000, with an expenditure of 279,800. The island has no public debt. The provincial government is in charge of a lieutenant-governor appointed by the Governor-General in council, with an Executive Council (cabinet or ministry) of nine, a Legislative Council of 13, and a House of Assembly of 30 members, both houses being chosen by the people, the latter for a maximum of four years. The capital, *Charlottetown*, with a population, in 1891, of 11,370, is a mostly wood-built town of very spacious streets, on a good harbour at the centre of the island, on the northern shore of the Hillsboro estuary. The Parliament House is a handsome stone structure and there are some good churches, a Roman Catholic Cathedral, a large convent, Wesleyan and R.C. Colleges, a fine new stone Post-Office, and a charming Park, with adjacent grounds famous for lawn-tennis and football. *Summerside*, a prosperous ship-building town of about 3000 people, with a large export trade in agricultural produce, lies at the head of Bedeque Bay on the south coast, and *Georgetown*, another ship-building place, beautifully situated on an east-coast peninsula, has an excellent harbour whence steamers ply to Pictou, in Nova Scotia, and to the Magdalen Islands.

CHAPTER IX.

NORTH-WESTERN TERRITORIES, BRITISH COLUMBIA.

Early explorations in the vast North-West—Franklin, Back, and Richardson—Expedition of Sir John Rae in 1846. Area and population of the NORTH-WESTERN TERRITORIES—Rebellion of 1885 under Riel—Its suppression by Canadian troops—The four districts between Manitoba and the Rocky Mountains: District of Assiniboia. District of Saskatchewan. District of Alberta—Its ranches—Timber and mineral resources—Climate—Calgary city—Mineral springs of Banff—District of Athabasca. Boundaries, area, and population of BRITISH COLUMBIA—Early voyages of discovery—Difficulties with the Spaniards—Vancouver Island—Physical features of the mainland—Its scenery—Climate—Fauna—Mineral wealth, timber, and fisheries—Agriculture—Vancouver city—Its destruction and speedy restoration—New Westminster. Area and population of Vancouver Island—Its fine climate and scenery—Fruit culture—The seal trade—Mineral resources—Victoria city and Esquimalt—Trade. Smaller islands on the coast.

Some account of British exploration in the vast North-West of America, down to the beginning of the nineteenth century, has appeared in a former part of this work. The history, after that date, belongs chiefly to that of Arctic adventure and research, a passion for which was revived in England in the later Georgian days, receiving encouragement and aid, from time to time, both from the Admiralty and from the Hudson's Bay Company. The great names of Franklin and Back are prominent in this matter. We have already seen Sir John Franklin in his distinguished career prior to 1819 and subsequent to 1845. Sir George Back, knighted in 1839, made admiral in 1857, and living till 1878, was born at Stockport in 1796, entered the navy at an early age, and in 1819 undertook, along with Franklin, Dr. Richardson, Robert Hood, and John Hepburn, a "noble specimen of a British seaman", a voyage and journey of discovery in the country west of Hudson Bay and to the coast of the Polar Sea eastwards from the Coppermine River. Under instructions from Earl Bathurst, Secretary for War and the Colonies, the party made their way from York Factory (Fort York), on Hudson Bay, by Nelson River and Lake Winnipeg to Cumberland House, on the Saskatchewan, noting, on this portion of their long and arduous travel, ten rivers and nine lakes. Thence they journeyed to the head-waters of the Athabasca (or Elk) and Missinippi (or Churchill) Rivers, and northwards to Fort Chippewyan, on Lake Athabasca. Up to this point Franklin and his comrades had covered nearly 1600 miles,

and then, passing down Slave River and across Great Slave Lake, they wintered at Fort Enterprise, 550 miles away, a "factory" or station of the Company about midway between Great Slave and Great Bear Lakes. In 1820 the route was down the Coppermine River to the sea, where the shore of Coronation Gulf was explored. In 1825-27, Franklin and Richardson, with two separate parties, after passing down the Mackenzie River to the sea, first made known much of the coast between Icy Cape, in about 162° west longitude and the mouth of the Coppermine; each body of intrepid travellers covered in these expeditions about 2000 miles. In February, 1833, Lieutenant Back, having volunteered a search for Captain Ross, who was supposed to have been lost in an attempt at the traditional long-sought north-west passage, left London for the North American wilds, and on June 28th started from Fort Reliance, a station of the Hudson Bay Company on the eastern arm of Great Slave Lake, discovered (in 1834) Artillery Lake and the Great Fish, or Back's, River, descending which he arrived at the Polar Sea, and returned by the river, reaching England in the autumn of 1835, when he received the rare honour of captain's rank conferred by Order in Council. In 1837-39, Dease and Simpson, two officers of the Company, made exploration of parts of the coast left unvisited by Franklin and Back, so as to complete a fair knowledge of the shore of the Polar Sea between 94° and 165° west longitude. We must now turn to the work of that athletic, enthusiastic, and daring Scot, Sir John Rae, F.R.S., who ended his distinguished career so lately as July 1893. We have seen him elsewhere as a searcher for the lost Franklin. In July 1846, under the auspices of Sir George Simpson, Governor-in-Chief of the Hudson Bay Company's territories, Rae started from Fort Churchill on the west side of the bay, with a party of thirteen persons, including two Eskimo (Esquimaux) as interpreters. By boat and sledge more than 1200 miles were accomplished, and during that year and 1847 much coast was explored on the main shore and islands of the Polar Sea. During part of the journey the leader of the explorers, whose skill with the gun and rifle was afterwards well known on his native country's moors and at Volunteer meetings, supplied his party with food by shooting deer and hares and partridges, and by catching plenty of salmon and trout.

Turning now to the *North-Western Territories* as a political

and colonial region, we may estimate the area at about 1,250,000 sq. miles, with a population of 100,000, an increase of 75 per cent between 1881 and 1891. In religious faith, there were then about 13,000 Roman Catholics, 14,000 Anglicans, 12,500 Presbyterians, 8000 Methodists, and 1550 Baptists, the residue being returned as "Pagans". The only notable event in the history of this region since settlement began is the rebellion of 1885, caused by discontent among the half-breeds after the creation, in 1882, of the four districts to be hereafter described. These people, in the Saskatchewan and Assiniboia territories, complained of the proceedings of the Dominion land-surveyors in re-arranging farms in their occupation, and also dreaded actual dispossession at the hands of land-companies whose grants appeared to overlap their holdings. It seems that their complaints did not obtain effective notice from departmental authorities, and Louis Riel, the former leader of the Red River rebellion, was invited to become their champion. His "Bill of Rights", making large demands on behalf of the half-breeds and the Indians, either never reached the government at Ottawa, or was disregarded, and in March, 1885, an armed revolt took place. The government-stores at Duck Lake, near Fort Carleton, on the north branch of the Saskatchewan, were seized, the Indian agent was made prisoner, the telegraph-wires were cut, and messengers were sent to obtain the help of the Indian tribes. Riel was supported by a few hundreds of the half-breeds and a small number of Indians, when on March 26th a detachment of his forces, about 200 men, under his "Adjutant-General", Gabriel Dumont, gave a check to a body of sixty of the North-West Mounted Police, and forty volunteers, under Major Crozier. After a fierce fight, in which the rebels had the advantage of good cover, the troops were obliged to retreat, leaving eleven volunteers and three of the police dead on the snow, and carrying off nine men severely wounded. Fort Carleton, a rude stockaded post, commanded from neighbouring heights, was abandoned and accidentally burned. Many more Indians took up the cause of Riel, and a large body of loyal settlers was soon beleaguered by savages in the barracks near Battleford, about 90 miles west of Duck Lake. A serious effort was needed, and, when the news arrived at Ottawa, the volunteers promptly responded to the call of the Minister of Militia. A regular spring-campaign was organized

and carried out with consummate skill, good discipline, steadiness and courage on the part of those chiefly concerned. About 4000 men from divers Provinces, including 280 "regulars", and several batteries of artillery, were placed under the command of Major-General Middleton, a veteran of good service in New Zealand and during the Indian Mutiny. The troops, horses, guns, and stores were conveyed in a few days, by the Canadian Pacific Railway, to Qu'Appelle, in Assiniboia, within 200 miles of the scene of rebellion in Saskatchewan. This operation had been one of considerable difficulty and hardship, as there were several gaps in the incomplete line, north of Lake Superior, amounting in all to above 90 miles, over which distance men were conveyed in sledges, or marched through snow and slush, at the cost of frost-bite and snow-blindness to many sufferers. Meanwhile, in the far west, a band of Indians, under "Big Bear", massacred two priests and several other settlers, and then, excited by this atrocity, hurried to attack Fort Pitt, a small stockaded barrack, about 120 miles west of Battleford, held by about twenty Mounted Police, under Captain Dickens, a son of the great author. The place, which was a Hudson Bay Company's "factory" or post, was surrounded by hundreds of savages, who shot one of the Police, and threatened death to the civilian settlers. "Big Bear" then offered protection for the score or so of civilians, if the Police would surrender the post, under penalty of its destruction by fire. Having no means of resisting such a force, Captain Dickens withdrew his men down the river to Battleford with great risk in a "cranky" boat encumbered by floating ice on a rapid stream. A change came over the scene when Middleton and his men appeared. The little army was formed in two columns, under the general and Colonel Otter, and between the last week of April and the middle of May, in a series of operations involving enormous labour for the carriage of supplies, the enemy were, after sharp fighting and with considerable loss to the victors, driven from Battleford and defeated in a two-days' battle at Batoche, ending in a general bayonet-charge of the Canadian troops against lines of rifle-pits. Riel surrendered on May 15th, while Dumont escaped over the border into Montana. Before the close of June, fighting in other parts, and the surrender of Riel, caused most of the Indians and half-breeds to ask for terms, and a close pursuit of "Big Bear" broke up his

forces and compelled him to give himself up as a deserted starving man. The brave campaigners had a grand reception at Winnipeg, Toronto, London, Ottawa, Montreal, Halifax and other leading towns of the Dominion, and Riel, tried, convicted, and sentenced to death at Regina (in Assiniboia) in July, appealed in vain, first to the Queen's Bench in Manitoba, and then to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in England, and was hanged on November 15th. Eight Indians guilty of the massacre were executed, and many Indians and half-breeds were sentenced to imprisonment for various terms.

In the summer of 1897 intense excitement was caused in the Canadian Dominion, the United States, and in other parts of the world, by phenomenal discoveries of gold in a remote region of the North-West Territories of Canada. A rush of husbands leaving wives; of policemen deserting their beats; of clerks, lawyers, doctors, merchants, shopkeepers, and men of every class of workers and adventurers set in for the new El-Dorado on the Klondike (or Deer) River, a tributary of the Yukon from the east in about 63° north latitude. Goldfields on the Yukon were discovered in 1887, and were described in that year by Dr. Dawson, of the Canadian Geological Survey. They were situated at a spot called Forty Mile Creek, on 141° west longitude, forming the boundary between the Dominion and Alaska. About 200 miles up stream from Forty Mile Creek, and from thirty to forty miles within British territory, lies the new goldfield of Klondike, in an auriferous region as large as France. The first discoveries of gold were made there by Mr. Cormack, of the Canadian Geological Survey, in August, 1896, and within a fortnight 200 large "claims" had been marked off. The extreme richness of the district in gold is proved by the fact that Mr. Mackintosh, Lieutenant-governor of the N. W. Provinces, estimates the yield in the winter of 1896-97 as amounting in value to 3,000,000 dollars or £600,000. The workings on the Klondike are of the alluvial or *placer* class, meaning that the earth is dug up and washed with sluices. For some time after the first discovery of the precious metal in the Yukon region, work was only carried on during the three or four months of summer, but the miners now collect the earth all winter, from October to June, clad in furs. Great fires are built, and when a few feet of earth are thawed beneath them, this is dug up

and another fire made until the bed rock is reached. The accumulation of earth is washed out when the thaw releases the frost-bound waters. The excitement that arose in 1897 was mainly due to the arrival at San Francisco, on July 14th, of forty men from the Klondike mines, bringing with them over 500,000 dollars' value (£100,000) in gold-dust. A man and his wife, working since April, 1896, had made 60,000 dollars (£12,000). The climate is of extreme severity in winter, and the region was in 1897 very difficult of access for travellers either by land or by the sea-route.

The vast territory between Manitoba and the Rocky Mountains is that included in the four districts Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Athabasca. The general geography has been already given, and we need only remind readers that the ground, going westwards, rises from Manitoba, which is about 700 feet above sea-level, first into a steppe (Assiniboia and Saskatchewan) having a mean altitude of about 1600 feet, and then, in a third prairie plateau (Alberta and Athabasca) reaching a height of between 3000 and 4000 feet, arrives at the base of the Rockies. About 90 per cent of Assiniboia and Saskatchewan consists of farming land of the very best quality, while the country to the westward is of more broken character, diversified by rolling hills, salt lakes and ponds, alkaline flats, deep ravines, and rivers flowing in deep channels, and is better suited for pasturage than for the plough. For a full description we must refer to *Picturesque Canada*, with its excellent account and engravings illustrating the life and scenery of these rising colonies, with the trains of emigrants' wagons; half-breed and Indian camps; troopers of the North-West Mounted Police, the terror of any unruly Indians, and of the whisky-traders whom they sternly oust over the border-line into the States; and an endless succession of lakes and streams, forest and grass, until the traveller reaches the treeless prairies, cleared of the timber by recurring fires due to careless or wantonly wasteful "campers", and beholds, in the west of Alberta, the grand spectacle of the Rockies towering over foot-hills and plains and valleys once blackened by herds of buffalo that are being replaced by Herefords, polled Angus, and other breeds of domestic cattle.

Assiniboia, bounded on the east by Manitoba, extends westwards to 111° w. long., and between 49° and 52° n. lat., with an

area of about 90,000 square miles. To the north lies Saskatchewan, to the west, Alberta, and the southern boundary is the State of Montana. Along the Canadian Pacific Railway little towns have arisen, Qu'Appelle and Broadview, Indian Head and Moose Jaw, Medicine Hat and Moosomin, Maple View and Swift Current. At and around these queerly-named centres is found a remarkable variety of emigrants in point of race. Near Moosomin are settlements of Scottish "crofters", partly sent out by Lady Gordon Cathcart, one being known as the Benbecula Colony, from the island in the Outer Hebrides. To the north lies a settlement of Russian Jews, and the colonists include people sent out by the Church and East-End (of London) Emigration Societies, with Bohemians, Hungarians, Scandinavians, Icelanders, French Canadians, Germans, Roumanians, French settlers direct from France, and Indians on reserve-lands near Qu'Appelle. The soil is generally a rich loam, easily tilled by hand-labour, and the Dominion Government has established an experimental farm, for the instruction of settlers, at Indian Head, 44 miles east of Regina, the capital of the district, head-quarters of the Mounted Police, and seat of government for the North-West Territories, with a population of about 4000. The cattle thrive in winter on the hay cut from the prairies, which reaches a length of from 60 to 70 inches. The peculiar effect of the long winter on the rapidity of vegetation in spring and summer is that the soil, becoming frozen to a depth of 6 or 7 feet, has its upper layer thawed first so as to permit seeding, and the successive thawing of the lower strata, as the solar heat increases, provides a reservoir of ascending moisture which, as it meets the upper heat, forms a natural hot-bed producing wonderful results in the brief space of time allowed for growth.

Saskatchewan, bounded on the east by Manitoba and Keewatin; on the north by the region called North-West Territory or the "Great Reserve" of the Dominion, stretching to Alaska and the Polar Sea; on the south by Assiniboia, and on the west by Alberta, has an area of about 107,000 square miles, less settled than Assiniboia, owing to its distance from the Canadian Pacific Railway, with which connection by branches is being made. From west to east the territory is watered by the North and South Saskatchewan and their tributaries, and includes hundreds of lakes varying in size, mostly well supplied with fish. The chief towns are Prince

Albert and Battleford, the latter being situated on the south bank of the Battle River, near its confluence with the North Saskatchewan. On the opposite bank are the quarters of a detachment of the North-West Mounted Police.

The important district of *Alberta*, bounded on the east by Assiniboia and Saskatchewan, on the south by Montana (U.S.), on the north by Athabasca, and on the west by British Columbia, has also an area of about 107,000 square miles. This splendid territory, richly endowed by nature with various forms of wealth, has magnificent scenery on the western frontier, and many streams flowing down from the mountains with waters clear and cold, reflecting the blue sky above, and abounding with fine trout. As regards resources, the region may, in the first place, be described as the chief dairy-district, in its possibilities, of North America. The richness and luxuriance of the grass, and the excellent supply of purest water, make it an abode of ideal fitness for cattle. The country is one of grazing-farms or "ranches", a term derived from the Spanish word *rancho*, a "mess" or "mess-room", used in Mexico for a herdsman's hut, and then transferred to the land in charge of him and his fellow-ranchmen or "cowboys". The cattle on such an estate are kept in a half-wild condition, with little or no provision of shelter and no artificial feeding. In 1893 the ranching grounds in the territory covered an area of 1,500,000 acres, distributed among 148 lessees. The system of granting large areas of land on lease for ranching has ceased. One of the British delegates who visited the country in 1890 describes a ranch covering 17 square miles, with good buildings and cattle-yards, stocked with 1200 horses, including 12 stallions and 200 imported Irish mares, and with about 3000 head of cattle. Of all these animals, the stallions alone receive any oats as fodder, and the mares foal unaided in the open, the whole great establishment being in charge of but eight men. At another ranch of 60,000 acres, the yearly product of foals was 250. A third estate, that of the North-West Cattle Company, consists of about 240,000 acres, leased at the rate of one cent ($\frac{1}{2}d.$) per acre a year, and feeding 10,000 cattle and 800 horses. In 1890, 2000 calves were born, and many hundreds of steers were sold at an average price of 50 dollars or £10. The Cochrane Ranch, named from its owner, the famous Lower Canada breeder of shorthorns, contains about 200,000 acres, running up in

undulating plains towards the Rockies, and up the lower spurs, where the best grass is found. There are 12,000 head of cattle, including many Herefords, and 100 horses. In the summer of 1890, 1000 head of cattle, despatched to England from this estate, fetched £17 a head at Liverpool. The calves of the year numbered 2000, and we read that many are devoured by the wolves. Alberta, however, is not only admirably suited for stock and dairy farming, but is proved to produce excellent crops of wheat, barley, oats, roots, and vegetables. Immense supplies of timber exist in the valleys flowing through the foot-hills of the Rockies towards the Saskatchewan, and in a position so favourable for water-transport, lumbering should become an important industry. The mineral resources of the country are remarkable in the way of petroleum deposits, and especially in coal, the extent of the coal-fields being the greatest yet known in the world. In 4 square miles, four seams with an aggregate amount of 25 million tons have been discovered, and enormous beds of anthracite and bituminous coal exist, some of which are now being profitably worked. The Galt mine at Lethbridge, connected with the Canadian Pacific Railway by a line 109 miles long, is supplying the Montana market as well as various places in the Dominion.

The climate of Alberta has peculiar features in the winter season. With the wind from the west, its prevailing quarter, the weather is mild, and the snow on the ground quickly vanishes from view. A wind from the icy plains of the north may send the thermometer down to 30° below zero, an extreme point reached in November, 1883. The chief town, *Calgary*, with a population of about 6000, is named from a bay on the north-west coast of the Scottish island of Mull, in the Inner Hebrides, and lies in a beautiful position at the confluence of the Bow and Elbow rivers, commanding a fine view of the Rockies, and having a station on the Pacific Railway. *Fort Edmonton* is a thriving settlement on the north bank of the North Saskatchewan. The place lies in a country of splendid farming-land, rich forests, coal, lakes and streams full of white fish and sturgeon, and has every prospect of becoming one of the chief distributing centres of the North-West. *Lethbridge*, the head-quarters of the chief coal district now worked, is a neat and busy town. *Fort McLeod*, in the south, is a ranching centre, and *Banff*, on the Canadian Pacific line north-west of Cal-

gary, as the line proceeds towards Kicking Horse Pass, has hot mineral springs, containing much sulphate, of great value for many forms of disease. The town, with a growing population of 1000, has thousands of yearly visitors, and lies in a tract of 260 square miles or 166,400 acres, laid out by the Dominion Government as a National Park. The district thus selected around the springs rising in Sulphur Mountain near Banff station, at a point about 4500 feet above the sea, near the confluence of the Bow and Spray rivers, includes some peaks of the Rocky Mountains, and a striking combination of mountain and valley, river and lake, glen, waterfall, and wild forest that make it one of the finest recreation-grounds of its class in the world. The curative effects of the mineral waters are greatly aided by the clear, pure, and bracing mountain-air. The lover of romantic views may see the Bow river breaking in some places through perpendicular walls of rock 200 feet high, and with rapids or successive cascades of 60 feet total fall in the space of 150 yards. From many snow-crowned peaks the streams pour down in wonderful profusion, to form rivers and lakes in the valleys, and the sportsman has at his disposal the abundant fish, with a rich variety of game animals and birds in the woods. A nursery is formed for the cultivation of the indigenous trees, shrubs, and flowers, and the chief lakes are connected by roads with the town and the hotels erected round the springs.

Athabasca, lying between Alberta and the "Great Reserve", with British Columbia as its western boundary, has an area of about 106,000 sq. miles, watered by the Peace and Athabasca rivers and their tributaries. The region lies far north from the line of railway, and is at present little colonized or even explored. Great deposits of coal, petroleum, gypsum and other minerals are known to exist, and the mild climate and fertile soil afford prospect of a great development in this region.

BRITISH COLUMBIA is bounded on the north, at the parallel of 60° north latitude, by the North-West Territory or Great Reserve; on the east, by the Rocky Mountains, separating it from Athabasca and Alberta; on the south, at the parallel of 49° north latitude, by the State of Washington (U.S.); and on the west by Alaska and the Pacific Ocean. The area of this great territory, more than three times as large as the whole British Isles, is estimated at 390,000 sq. miles, including Vancouver Island, the Queen Charlotte

Isles, and others off the coast. The census of 1891 gave the population at 98,000, showing a density of 0·3 per sq. mile, and an increase of 98·5 per cent since 1881. In religious faith, there were 20,400 Roman Catholics; 23,600 Anglicans; 15,300 Presbyterians; 14,300 Methodists, and 3100 Baptists. The residue were Pagans, chiefly Indian and Chinese in race.

The real history of this colony begins with the close of the eighteenth century. Vancouver Island was discovered in 1592 by a Greek navigator in the employ of the Spanish viceroy of Mexico. His name was Apostolos Valerianos, but he is better known by his Spanish name of Juan de Fuca, remaining in that of the strait which separates Vancouver Island from the State of Washington, and connects the Pacific Ocean with the Gulf of Georgia. The coast was not visited by any notable Englishman until 1778, when Captain Cook, sailing along the shores which Drake, two centuries before, had styled "New Albion", failed to see the strait, and, voyaging up the west coast of the great island, put in at the inlet which he named King George's Sound, now known by its Indian name "Nootka" Sound. On his charts the island was represented as part of the mainland. His interesting and accurate notes on the forests and fish, the fur-bearing creatures, and other resources of the region, caused the beginnings of trade with China. British merchants residing in the East Indies placed two ships in charge of Lieutenant Meares, of the royal navy, with instructions to take measures to promote commerce with the north-west American coast. Some land was bought from the Indian chief at Nootka, and a fortified "factory" or trading-post was built. The Spanish government, resenting this interference with what they held to be their rights, sent some ships of war in 1789. The British vessels and station were seized, but when Meares, by petition, brought the matter before the House of Commons, and a prospect of war arose, Spain consented to make restitution. It was this transaction which led to the discovery that the territory at Nootka was on an island. Captain George Vancouver, of the royal navy, who had served as a midshipman under Captain Cook in his Pacific voyages, was sent out with the *Discovery* sloop of war to receive the formal surrender of the territory and buildings at Nootka. Passing up the Strait of Fuca, he took possession, with the usual formalities, of the coast on the south; then, passing northwards, he gave the

name of "Gulf of Georgia" to the inner sea, and, making his way again into the open Pacific by the waters which he styled "Queen Charlotte Sound", he proved that the region treated by Cook as mainland was insular, and the fine territory justly received the name of "Vancouver Island". At Nootka he discharged his special duty, and was then engaged, for several years, in the careful examination of about 2000 miles of coast in the north-west of America. No attempt at colonization was made, though the mainland of what became British Columbia, and some of the islands, were visited by adventurous persons connected with the fur-trade of the Hudson Bay Company and its rival, the North-West Fur Company. In 1843, the Hudson Bay authorities obtained from the Crown a lease of Vancouver Island and the adjacent mainland, and built a trading-post and fort at the spot where the city of Victoria now stands. In 1849, Vancouver Island became a Crown colony. A few years later, the discovery of gold in the valley of the Fraser River, on the mainland, brought a rush of immigration, and in 1858 between 20,000 and 30,000 men were digging on the terraced slopes of the Fraser and its tributaries. Firm local rule was then needed, and British Columbia was in that year made a separate Crown colony. In 1866, the two were united, and in July, 1871, as above recorded, British Columbia became a province of the Dominion of Canada.

We deal first, in the way of description, with British Columbia proper, or the mainland thus called. The country has been styled "a sea of mountains", and consists of the succession of ranges already mentioned, with countless streams rushing down to join the Fraser, 800 miles long, and 600 yards wide at its chief outlet in the Gulf of Georgia; the Columbia, whose upper course is within the province; the North and South Thompson, the Eagle, the Finlay, the Skeena, the Kootenay, and other rivers. There are many small lakes westwards of the Eagle Pass on the Gold Range, all being on the Eagle River, falling into Lake Shuswap. Between the Rocky Mountains and the coast, there is nothing in the way of prairie or plain, and the Pacific slope, on the west of the Cascade Range, consists of a series of table-lands, or natural terraces, descending to the shore of the ocean with rugged and scarped sides. Grand and varied scenery abounds in such a region. The coast-line is seamed by fiords that cut their way through snow-

capped mountains into the heart of the Cascade Range, and at the head of Bute Inlet, "great mountains, curtained with glaciers, rise almost perpendicularly into the region of eternal snow. The only sound heard is the muffled roar of cataracts leaping from bluff to bluff, or washing down the slippery rocks in broad white bands". The scenery on the Pacific Railway has been already noted, and we may here mention, both as a piece of engineering, and for its picturesque views, the wagon-road connecting the Cariboo mines on the Fraser with the settlements by the sea. The road was hewn by the early gold-diggers sideways, for miles in length, out of rocks rising almost perpendicularly from the river to a height, at some points, of 1000 feet, or was cut through projecting spurs of the hills, or built up with timber supports or "crib-work". The largest area fit for tillage is found in the valley of the lower Fraser, or New Westminster district, and on the upper part of that river, and along some of its chief tributaries, there are considerable tracts of alluvial soil.

As regards the coast scenery, Lord Dufferin, in 1876, described it as not paralleled by any country in the world. "Day after day for a whole week, in a vessel of nearly 2000 tons, we threaded an interminable labyrinth of watery lanes and reaches that wound endlessly in and out of a network of islands, promontories, and peninsulas, for thousands of miles, unruffled by the slightest swell from the adjoining ocean, and presenting at every turn an ever-shifting combination of rock, verdure, forest, glacier, and snow-capped mountain of unrivalled grandeur and beauty." He then noted the "wonderful system of navigation, equally well adapted to the largest line-of-battle ship and the frailest canoe, thus fringing the entire seaboard of the province, and communicating at points, sometimes more than a hundred miles from the coast, with a multitude of valleys stretching eastward into the interior, while at the same time it is furnished with innumerable harbours on either hand", as providing the most admirable "facilities of inter-communication for the future inhabitants of this wonderful region". Another Governor-General, the Marquis of Lorne, dwells with delight on the forest scenery of these ocean inlets—the Douglas firs and cypresses, rising to heights of 150 and 250 feet, and with girths of 25 to 30 feet, growing in "tremendous aisles where the great shafts rise from the thickets of glossy-leaved shrubs, to be

lost to sight in the dark green gloom above". "I do not think there is any scenery more solemn and beautiful than the interior of such a grove. It wants, of course, the intense colour and the sunlit glory of the liana-hung woods of the South, and the undergrowth is not so varied or bright. But the russets and browns, the greys and sombre greens, the purple tints on the straight stems varied by the vivid hues of the moss, which provides a compass for the wanderer, because it grows most abundantly on the side which feels the western sea-moisture—all are most delicious to the eye. And overhanging the sea-margins in crannies of the rocky bays or covering the promontories, are the beautiful madrona-trees, the large-leaved arbutus, with the trunks as red as coral. All this forest is evergreen. Winter strips the scattered maples of their autumnal fire, but makes little change on the steep slopes of these deep lochs."

The climate presents many varieties. In the coast region it greatly resembles that of the south of England, except that the summers are much less moist. In the south there is little rain or snow, so that arable land needs irrigation. The middle zone, from 51° to 53° north latitude, has a considerable rainfall. In no part of the interior are the extremes of heat and cold so great as to the east of the Rockies, and the climate is for the most part drier. The average temperature is about 10 degrees warmer than on the corresponding portion of the Atlantic coast. The *fauna* of the country providing sport for the gun includes black and grizzly bears, caribou (American reindeer), mountain-sheep, several kinds of grouse, and abundant varieties of water-fowl. The streams are rich in charr, trout, salmon and other fish. The mosquitos are described by travellers as a worse plague in some wild parts than those of any other country visited in the course of extensive wanderings. The mineral resources are very great. Nearly every stream has traces of gold, and mines paying a dividend are at work in many parts. The chief gold-producing rocks occur just west of the Rockies, and in the valleys of the Fraser and Anderson rivers. Rich silver ore has been found on the Fraser, and coal, lignite, iron, copper, galena, mercury, platinum, bismuth, antimony, plumbago and other minerals and metals have been discovered in various parts of the province. The lumber trade is becoming important in its product of Douglas pine, fir, yellow

cypress, and maple, which are shipped to South America, Australia, China, and the Cape. The fisheries, on the rivers and the coast, are of great value in salmon, trout, sturgeon, smelt, and herring. The abundance of salmon, of the finest quality, is almost beyond conception. The Fraser is sometimes packed with shoals at various points, and the catch on the coast, as far north as Alaska, is very great. Of over two dozen "canneries", or stations for packing the salmon for exportation, about one-half are on the Fraser. A very large capital, and about 6000 people, are engaged in providing fresh, smoked, and dried fish of various kinds, salmon being exported to the amount of nearly 10,000 tons annually to the British Isles, Canada, Australia, South America, and the Pacific islands. Returning for a moment to the mineral wealth, we note that between 1862 and 1896 inclusive gold to the value of over 10 millions sterling was found, mostly from the alluvial deposits, as the auriferous quartz, up to that date, had scarcely been touched. British Columbia is never likely to become a great agricultural country, but there are large tracts of arable land that produces, in some parts, from 30 to 40 bushels of wheat per acre. The hills and valleys have abundance of most nutritious grass, furnishing food for horses and horned cattle throughout the winter, during which shelter is needed only for sheep. All the fruits of the temperate zone, in fine quality and size, can be grown, and an industry in this line is being developed with the best prospects. In addition to the far-penetrating waterways from the sea, and the rivers of the province, communication is now to be furnished by a railway joining New Westminster with the American Pacific coast system, and thus completing the connection between the Dominion and Mexico, and by other lines opening up the country in agricultural and mining districts.

The chief towns are Vancouver and New Westminster. *Vancouver*, with a population (1891) of 14,000, is the terminus of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and stands on Burrard Inlet, at the head of which lies Port Moody, the former terminus, with a population of about 4000. Vancouver is a remarkable instance of rapid rise in colonial towns. In 1885 the site was covered by dense forest. The position, on one of the finest possible harbours, and the progress westwards of the Canadian Pacific Railway, suggested great advantages for a commercial town, and buildings

arose as the line drew ever nearer to the coast. By June, 1886, a little "city", mainly wooden, stood amidst the stumps and logs of a clearing in the primeval woods. On June 13th, Pentecost or Whit Sunday, when the people had returned from morning service, in a hot time with a pleasant breeze, fire from the neighbouring bush, with a wind of rising strength, swept down upon the place, drove out the inhabitants in flight to the water's edge, bearing such scraps of property as could be hastily snatched and carried, and reduced nearly all the town to ashes, with the loss of a few lives and serious burns to a large number of sufferers. Colonial energy was soon at work to repair this grievous disaster and loss. On Sunday evening, the town lay in ruins, and the people had been deprived of tools, clothing, stores of provisions, nearly all, in fact, of their household goods. At six o'clock on Monday morning, teams were at work bringing fresh lumber for rebuilding. On Tuesday morning many houses and stores were roofed, and were occupied at night. A little help from outside, within a week of the fire, had enabled a new Vancouver to arise, and on Saturday night a traveller could find hotel accommodation and procure most of the necessaries of life. In June, 1887, there was a flourishing town, connected by railway and ship with the rest of the world, and possessing wharves and docks, warehouses, foundries, factories, public institutions, excellent stores or shops, good hotels and private houses, miles of good roads and sidewalks. In June, 1888, "every appliance of the most advanced civilization", according to a traveller's testimony, "could be found there". There were 18 miles of streets, 24 miles of good sidewalks; complete sewerage, nearly complete preparations for an inexhaustible supply of the purest water; gas and electric light; a perfect telephone system, and a population of over 8000. The outskirts had many miles of excellent roads, giving charming drives around the end of the peninsula on which the city is built, and round the Government Reserve or Public Park, and along English Bay, in the beautiful district called Stanley Park. The work of building went on apace, and in 1891 there were handsome churches, schools, and hotels; two newspapers and electric trams. In 1895, the city possessed a fine opera-house, many good buildings of granite and brick, smelting-works, and steamship service to San Francisco and Alaska, China and Japan. *Nev*

Westminster, with a population of 7000 (1891), was formerly the capital of British Columbia, and stands on the north bank of the Fraser, 10 miles from its mouth. This thriving place has extensive saw-mills and salmon canneries. One of the latter establishments employs 400 hands in the factory, and as many more in providing the fish, and in a recent year turned out 25,000 cases of salmon, with 48 one-pound tins in each case. The fish are all taken by net between the second week in July and the end of August.

Vancouver Island, 278 miles in length, and from 50 to 65 miles wide, has an area of about 16,000 square miles, and a population (1891) of 30,000. The bold and beautiful coast has, on the west, fiords running far inland, with steep rocky banks, while other parts display abrupt rocky headlands and cliffs, fine harbours, pebbly beaches, and sheltered coves. The densely-wooded mountainous country has no navigable rivers, but only streams that, nearly dry in the summer, are torrents used for working mills in the season. The climate on the south-east is one of the most delightful in the world. The cold in winter is tempered by the influence of the great ocean stream of warm water known as the "Japan Current", which flows southwards along the coast and brings perpetual summer to the regions within reach of its full effects. Far less rain falls in this part of Vancouver Island than farther north, or on the mainland, because much of the moisture is taken from the atmosphere by the mountains lying between Victoria and the open Pacific, and a second precipitation does not occur until the winds strike the high lands of the opposite coast. Snow seldom falls and never lies long. At the same time, the climate is invigorating, with an annual mean temperature of 55° F., and an average rainfall of 25 inches in the year. In scenery, this fine colonial possession is most diversified, and one of the loveliest countries in the world. The mountains rise to 7000 or 8000 feet, and the interior has many charming lakes. The gardens contain the British shrubs and flowers—ivy and laurel, holly and hawthorn, and roses of surprising beauty. In country walks and drives, the roadside is seen adorned by masses of bracken, and by wild roses of marvellous size and perfume. The English yellow broom grows profusely, and British daisies deck the lawns. Society there, and on the mainland, includes many full-blooded or half-breed Indians, British in dress, demeanour, and conduct. Some of the most

NETTING SALMON ON THE FRASER RIVER,
BRITISH COLUMBIA.

The Fraser river is one of the chief physical features of British Columbia. It is at first a turbulent mountain stream, but after it bursts through the great cañons of the Coast Range it becomes a broad river, navigable for 80 miles from Yale to the sea. The fisheries, on this river and along the coast, are of great value, especially in salmon. The abundance of these at certain points and at certain seasons is almost beyond belief, the river being literally packed with solid shoals of struggling fish. A very large capital and about 6000 people are engaged in the "canneries" or stations, about 10,000 tons of salmon—fresh, smoked, dried, and tinned—being exported annually.



W. RAINEY, R.I.

NETTING SALMON ON THE FRASER RIVER, BRITISH COLUMBIA.

charming ladies are of Indian race, and one of the judges—a good classical scholar, a capital public speaker, and an admirable converser—is a nearly full-blooded Indian.

Vancouver Island is not, in surface, well suited for agriculture, but about a million acres are very fit for tillage, chiefly on the eastern and southern coasts, where the principal settlements lie. The growing of fruit is becoming an important industry, very fine apples being a chief product. In addition to sea-fisheries like those on the mainland coast, schooners from Victoria obtain seals in great numbers, during the summer and early autumn, in the Behring and Arctic Seas, and it is from this source that the seal-skins in the London market are chiefly supplied. Indian seal-hunters also frequent the west coast of Vancouver Island and the north-west shores of the mainland. The wild mountainous country of the north and west of the island, where the higher peaks are crested with eternal snow, and dense forests of fir and cedar are found, with great lonely lakes and almost impenetrable jungle, has black bears and wolves, elks and eagles among its fauna. The coast in this region shows here and there a great mountain sloping steeply into the sea, clothed to the water-line with the dark green of pines and firs, while at intervals are beautiful bays, with stretches of golden sand ever fringed with snowy surf. From the vast Pacific stretching away to the west and north and south, great glassy swells, sometimes nearly a mile in length, come rolling in, round and smooth until they reach the shoal-water of the beach, when they rise up into great green walls, partly transparent where the sunlight strikes, and then, with a fringe of pure white foam, break in thunder on the shingle or sand. In this delightful region, three-fourths of the year has little else than soft warm breezes and a sky of unchanging blue, lit up at night by brilliant stars or an almost daylight radiance of the moon.

The mineral resources include some gold found on the Leech River and in other parts, but by far the most important product of this class is the excellent coal already mentioned in our general account of the Dominion. The chief mines are at Nanaimo, 70 miles north of Victoria, at the terminus of a railway running thither from the capital. This busy place has a population of over 5000, and the output of all the mines in 1896 was 846,235 tons, of the value of 2,327,000 dollars. There are large

exports of timber to Australia and China, and this trade is now one of rapid growth. *Victoria*, the capital, is beautifully situated near the south-eastern extremity of the island, with a population of about 22,000. It has some characteristics of an American city, with types of character resembling those of San Francisco, a large Chinese element, and U.S. money in general use. It is described by some as the most charming little city in America for its views of glorious mountain ranges, its atmosphere and climate, boating and bathing, country drives past cottages embowered in roses and honeysuckle, and, for the epicure, producing at the "Driard House" Hotel the best dinner served on the Pacific coast north of San Francisco. This "garden and sanitarium of the Pacific slope" lies on low ever-verdant hills overlooking the bay. Nothing can be more delightful than the month of May in "the freshness of the air, the warble of birds, the clearness of the sky, the profusion and fragrance of wild roses, the hues of buttercups and daisies, the islets and inlets, with distant snow-peaks bursting on the view as the visitor ascends some adjacent height". In autumn the trees are loaded with apples and pears, grapes and plums. The chief edifices include the government buildings, a cathedral, hospitals, and a public library, and the city has the advantages of electric lighting and trams, and a fine public park on Beacon Hill. The Chinese are most useful in the duties of chambermaids and cooks, nurses and laundresses, gardeners and grooms; in the sawing of wood, running of errands, and countless other kinds of work, and have earned the esteem of all unprejudiced persons by honesty, industry, and sobriety which rarely fail. The suburb, *Esquimalt*, has a beautiful landlocked harbour, with excellent anchorage, and possesses a great graving-dock, constructed by the Imperial and Canadian governments at great cost, for the repairing and fitting-out of ships of war on the Pacific station. This is the head-quarters of our fleet in these waters, and is a fortified coaling-place, connected by railway, as mentioned above, with the mines at Nanaimo. In 1895, the imports of Victoria amounted to a value of nearly $\frac{1}{2}$ million sterling, with exports worth over £630,000, the chief trade being carried on with Great Britain and the United States. The revenue in 1895 was nearly £180,000, with an expenditure of about double that amount, and a debt of nearly £700,000. Provincial rule is administered, on the system of

“responsible government”, by a Lieutenant-Governor and a Legislative Assembly. This body, composed of 33 members, is elected for a four-years term, on a franchise giving a vote to every male adult after twelve months’ residence in the province.

Between Vancouver Island and the mainland are numerous islands, forming a peculiar and interesting feature of the coast in this part of the Dominion. They are very mountainous, intersected by lovely fertile vales, and studded with lakes. One of the largest, best known, and longest settled is Salt Spring Island, about 20 miles in length and from 2 to 8 wide, divided by mountains into three separate districts or settlements, connected among themselves inland merely by trails, but accessible from the sea, and having steamboat traffic with Victoria. The usual English crops grow abundantly in these valleys, and our fruits reach almost unrivalled excellence in apples, pears, cherries, plums, raspberries, currants, and strawberries unsurpassed for size, profusion, and flavour. The Douglas pine, cypress, and maple abound, and the open country feeds cattle and sheep. Venison from the plentiful deer forms a large part of the settlers’ fare, the little bays have plenty of fish, and the lakelets furnish many trout. The Queen Charlotte group, lying north of Vancouver Island, have a total area of 5100 sq. miles, the two chief islands, Graham and Moresby, being 160 miles long, with an extreme breadth of nearly 70. The climate is very moist, but healthy; the people, about 2000 Indians, are chiefly engaged in fishing.

CHAPTER X.

NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR.

Extent and population of NEWFOUNDLAND—Her “historic misfortunes”—Geographical features of the coast—Interior of the island—Rivers and lakes—Products—Fauna—Minerals—Climate—The cod, seal, and other fisheries—Recent development of agriculture—Mining—Commercial statistics—St. John’s city—Its disastrous fires—Riot of 1860—Industries—Harbour Grace, &c.—The Newfoundland dog—Administration of the island—Education—The portion of LABRADOR politically connected with Newfoundland.

Newfoundland, the oldest of British colonies, ranks tenth in size among all the islands of the world. Lying at the entrance

of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, between $46\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ and $51\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ north latitude, and $52\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ and $59\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ west longitude, and separated from Labrador, on the north, by the Strait of Belle Isle, 11 miles in width, the country has an area of 40,200 square miles, being thus about one-fifth less than England. An irregular equilateral triangle in shape, with a long peninsula extending to the north, the island has an extreme length of nearly 400 miles from south-east to north, and a breadth of over 300 miles at the base, between Cape Ray at the south-western angle, and Cape Race on the south-east. It is the nearest to the British Isles of all parts of America, being distant only 1640 miles, or less than three days' steaming for the swiftest Atlantic liners, from the south-west coast of Ireland. In 1891, the population, including a few thousands in Labrador, numbered 202,000, of whom about 195,500 were natives of Newfoundland, and a few hundreds were Indians, chiefly Micmacs from Nova Scotia and Cape Breton Island. In religious faith, about 73,000 are Roman Catholics, mainly of Irish origin, under the spiritual rule of two bishops (St. John's and Harbour Grace) and a "Prefect Apostolic"; about 70,000 are adherents of the Anglican Church, ruled by the Bishop of Newfoundland; and over 53,000 are Methodists; with about 1500 Presbyterians, and nearly 5000 of other denominations.

The history of the country up to the beginning of the nineteenth century having been given in a former part of this work, we may note that Newfoundland has, compared with most of our other colonies, but a dull and sombre record during the past hundred years. In the spring of 1895 she was suffering most severely from a financial crisis due partly to a fall, in the European markets, in the price of products from her fisheries, representing nine-tenths of the wealth and exports of the colony. She has relied, almost exclusively, upon a single industry, a collapse of which means temporary ruin. She has obstinately declined to abandon her isolated political position by entering the Dominion of Canada, and she has reaped the disastrous consequences of devotion to one pursuit, depressed by severe French competition which is sustained by bounties, and of a loss of credit due to over-trading and, in part, to the exposure, in her Supreme Court, of bribery and corruption on a large scale with public moneys. Newfoundland's "historic misfortunes", as a British statesman has called

them, began with the insane arrangements of the Treaty of Utrecht, assigning rights to the French fishermen which have greatly hampered the development of mineral and agricultural resources on one of the best parts of the coast. It became an axiom with British political and commercial authorities that the island was good for nothing but fisheries and as a nursery-ground for British seamen. The government on the spot strongly discouraged agricultural settlement by only granting land in small plots, at high rents, on leases renewable only on payment of heavy fines. Large fortunes were, indeed, made in the fisheries, but next to nothing was spent in the country or on its improvement by the acquirers of this wealth, and the capitalists, both local and absentee, eager to retain labour in their own special pursuit, represented the island as of barren soil, and maligned the climate in a way that produced an impression in the British Isles which is even now largely prevalent. The backward condition of all affairs, apart from fish, is shown by the facts that, until 1805, there was no post-office, and, until 1806, no newspaper. Only in 1813 were grants of land, on the above hard conditions, made at all. There was no representative government until 1832, and it was not until 1855 that responsible government was conceded. A few years later, a geological survey led to mining as a new source of profit. In 1873 direct steam communication with England and America was established.

The island, particularly on the south and east, where it is exposed to the full force of Atlantic waves, has its rocky coast, with cliffs from 200 to 300 feet in height, broken by splendid bays that penetrate for many miles. On the south-east, the peninsula of Avalon is formed by Trinity Bay, on the north, and the great Placentia Bay, on the south, running inland so as to leave an isthmus but three miles across. East of Trinity Bay is the fine Conception Bay. On the south coast, Burin peninsula is formed by Placentia Bay, to the east, and the deep-running Fortune Bay to the west. The harbour of Burin is the best of all Newfoundland's many excellent havens, being landlocked by cliffs 200 feet in height, and the neighbouring coast scenery is very fine, dominated by the tower of Burin lighthouse from a point 430 feet above sea-level. On the east coast, to the north of Trinity Bay, comes Bonavista Bay, nearly 40 miles wide across the mouth, and running

far inland, with many inlets, whose shores are dotted with fishing hamlets. Many miles to the north again, after passing Fogo Island and a whole archipelago of picturesque islets, we come to the grand Notre Dame Bay, with an entrance at least 40 miles in width, between which and Cape Bauld, the northern extremity of Newfoundland, are the deep-running White Bay and some minor indentations. On the south coast, between Fortune Bay and Cape Ray, are Hermitage Bay and countless smaller inlets. On the west coast, bounding the Gulf of St. Lawrence, St. George's Bay runs many miles inland, with the Bay of Islands to the north of the peninsula which it helps to form. The usual conception of the Newfoundland shores is, we believe, a dreary spectacle of rock-bound coast shrouded, for most of the year, in fog. The fact is very different from this prejudiced view. At many parts of the more than 2000 miles of coast-line the voyager sees dark green forests coming down to the water's edge, from the summit of lofty hills, with picturesque effect, and he who penetrates the depths of the bays enjoys the sight of countless islands on a vast expanse of water, and of hilly shores clothed in perpetual green. Here and there, a wall of cliff is broken by a little cove, at the head of which, beyond the fishing-boats at anchor, a brown trout-brook tumbles in from the heights, with the fishermen's cottages clustering round in a scene of ideal seclusion. On the Avalon coast, a rare phenomenon is presented, with the name of the "Spout", in a deep sea-cavern with a vaulted roof, through a hole in which, in a stormy time at high tides, the surge is hurled in a fountain visible for miles around. The northern shore is low and grassy, and is a great resort of seals. In the Strait of Belle Isle, 80 miles long by 12 in width, dividing Newfoundland from Labrador, a desolate scene meets the voyager's eye on the islets and coasts, with great fleets of icebergs dragging slowly, at times, along the waters. The great rock, 9 miles long by 3 in breadth, ironically styled "Belle Isle" by French discoverers, lies at the eastern entrance to the strait. At only one point can a landing be made, and it is here that, twice in the year, the lonely lighthouse-keeper receives his supplies of stores. On this desolate isle not a bush is found, and the man has vainly tried to form a garden-ground with soil from the mainland, only to have it swept away by the violent winds.

It is only within recent years that the interior has been fully explored, to the refutation of calumnies concerning "a dreary wilderness", spread by the fishing interest. The Exploits River, over 150 miles long, has its rise in a lake on the south-west, and flows in a north-easterly course, having its "Grand Falls", 145 feet in height, and forming several large lakes, into Notre Dame Bay. The Gander, to the east of the Exploits, running in the same direction, and the Humber, 150 miles long, discharging into the Bay of Islands, on the west coast, are the other chief rivers. The number of lakes is so great, and the extent of some so large, as to occupy a really considerable proportion of the whole surface of the island. Grand Lake or Pond, near the western coast, is 56 miles long, with an area of nearly 200 square miles, and it contains an island 22 miles in length and 5 in breadth. Around the heads of the bays are large tracts of excellent land, with much fine timber, and most suitable for tillage and grass-farming. The interior of the country is an undulating plateau, crossed at various places by ranges of low hills, and with a number of isolated sharply-peaked summits rising abruptly from the level to the height, in one instance, of nearly 1800 feet. Along much of the west coast is a continuous range of hills, of which Mt. Erskine attains 2000 feet. The river-valleys and the west coast have the best soil and the finest timber, the latter including pine and spruce, birch, juniper, and larch, affording ample materials for the lumber trade which has recently been started in the pine-forests of the north. There is a great abundance of evergreen shrubs, flowering plants and ferns, wild clover and grasses, and garden vegetables of all kinds, with strawberries, gooseberries, raspberries, and currants, are successfully grown. The fauna include noble herds of reindeer or caribou; black bears and wolves; foxes black and silver and red and gray; otters and beavers; weasels and hares, rats and mice, musquashes or musk-rats. Among the 300 species of birds, mostly migratory, are the eagle and hawk, owl, woodpecker, swallow, kingfisher, golden plover, fly-catchers and thrushes, ravens and jays, finches and many birds of song. The sportsman may rejoice in the abundance of ptarmigan, grouse, wild ducks and geese, curlew, snipe and other fowl, and the lakes swarm with splendid trout for the fisherman's fly. The marine birds are in countless numbers, once including the great auk whose eggs now

command prices so enormous from enthusiasts richer in money than in brains. There are no venomous reptiles, frogs, or toads. The marine creatures include the cephalopod known as the calamary or common squid, a mollusc 6 or 7 inches in length, most valuable as bait for the cod-fishery. The mineral resources of the island, in addition to the copper ore found round Notre Dame Bay, include lead, coal, marbles of many hues, limestone, roofing slate, building stone, gypsum, and granite of the finest quality.

We shall now deal with the climate, and strive to redeem its character from past reproach. That it is generally healthy is proved by the robust appearance of the people. The fog seen by the voyager does not go inland, but generally lies off the coast. The cold effect of the Arctic current, with its ice-fields and icebergs, is modified by the Gulf Stream which causes the fogs. In winter, generally lasting from the beginning of December to the middle of April, there are no extremes of cold like those occurring in Canada and the United States. The thermometer rarely falls below zero, and the frost, with snow covering the ground, does not usually penetrate the soil for more than a few inches. With scarcely any spring, as we understand the season, the weather, early in May, rushes into a summer that brings wonderful rapidity of vegetation. Here again, there is not the great heat of Canada and the States, the thermometer rarely rising much above 80 degrees Fahrenheit. The average annual rainfall is 51 inches, evenly spread over the year. The autumn, prolonged into November, has its beautiful "Indian summer", and the winter, once more, has charming effects in the "silver thaw", or congelation of rain as it descends, depositing a layer of ice on the branches and twigs of trees, with the dazzling beauty of a chandelier of crystals lighted up by the sun's rays; and in the magnificence of the Aurora Borealis, transcending that of Arctic regions. Thunder-storms are of rare occurrence, and hurricanes are unknown.

The chief industry is fishing, in which the census of 1891 showed that nearly 55,000 people were engaged as catchers or curers, and the chief product in this line is, as all the world knows, the invaluable cod. No sign of exhaustion, after the lapse of above three centuries of continuous catching, has yet appeared in this main element of wealth for the people of Newfoundland. The sources of supply are three—the shores of Newfoundland,

the coast of Labrador, and the "Banks" to the south of Newfoundland, being submarine plateaus extending for 600 miles in length and 200 in breadth, with a depth of water above them varying from 100 to 600 feet. The shore fishery off the island is prosecuted by those who are unable from various causes to resort to the more distant waters, or who combine tillage with the other occupation. The thousand miles of fishing on the Labrador coast are visited by Newfoundlanders, between June and October, to the number of about 30,000, manning from 1200 to 1500 vessels. The whole annual value of the catch exceeds a million sterling, the home consumption amounting to about 8 millions of fish, while nearly 30 millions are exported. The bait used, in successive parts of the season, is a small fish called caplin; the small squid or cuttle-fish; and the herring. Every part of the cod has its use for man. Besides the consumption as most palatable and nutritious food, the bones and offal make excellent manure. The refined oil has great medicinal value for delicate persons, and the common oil is used for tanning. The bladder produces the substance called isinglass, and the roe is exported to France as bait for catching sardines. In addition to the single hook and line, nets, seines, trawl-lines, and cod-traps are employed in catching this treasure of the deep. The seal-fishery, which might more properly be called "seal-hunting", is next in importance, being followed in the spring by those who, in summer, are engaged in the cod-fishery. The vessels now used are chiefly steamers of between 300 and 600 tons, stoutly constructed to resist the impact of ice, and each costing from £12,000 to £20,000. The young seals, born on the ice before the end of February, are ready for the hunters at about six weeks of age, and, being brought down on floating fields of ice by the Arctic current from Baffin and Hudson Bays, they are killed by a blow on the nose with a club. The skin, with the fat adhering, is taken from the carcass, which is left on the ice. On return to shore, the oil is extracted from the fat, and sold for lubricating and other purposes, while the skins, to the number of between a quarter and half a million according to the success of the season, are salted down and exported to the British Isles and elsewhere for conversion into leather. We must observe that the animals we are now mentioning are not the fur-seals, but the harp-seal and other varieties covered by hair instead of fur.

The whole annual value, in skins and oil, may amount to half a million sterling in a good year. The herring-fishery, carried on, in the autumn and winter, by the same men as are engaged with seals and cod, has an annual value of over £100,000, the Labrador fish being specially valuable for their size and nutritious character. The salmon of the Newfoundland coasts, and the very fine fish of the same class taken off Labrador, are caught in June and July, chiefly for the American market. The canning of lobsters, a new industry since 1880, produces an annual return of over £100,000. The export of fish to the Catholic countries Brazil, Portugal, Italy, and Spain, had a value, in 1895, of over three million dollars.

The number of persons engaged in the tillage of the soil, in 1891, was returned at "1547 farmers", cultivating about 65,000 acres of land. Recent research having shown that about 5 millions of acres well fitted for cultivation exist, encouragement to agriculture has been given which has brought a considerable development of this industry. Fifty years ago, the only crops raised in Newfoundland were oats and hay. Of late years, a large import of grain, vegetable, and garden seeds has led to the growth of carrots and turnips, barley and clover, and, better still, to a production of potatoes which has reached the annual amount of 1 million bushels. The mineral resources, except in copper and nickel, have not been much developed. The chief seat of mining in these ores is around the coast of Notre Dame Bay. The value of the export, up to 1879, had reached about 1 million sterling since the opening of the first copper-mine in 1864. By the census of 1891, nearly 1300 miners were at work. The country is provided with admirable roads around the coast, and St. John's is connected with Harbour Grace (84 miles distant), and with Placentia, by railways. A line northward to Exploits, in the copper-mining district, and one to the west of the island have been constructed in recent years. Above 1300 miles of internal telegraph are open, and cables for Europe start from the east coast (Heart's Content), and to the American mainland from Placentia. There is a fortnightly mail-service, except in February, March, and April, to Liverpool, Halifax, New York, Montreal, and Prince Edward Island, and bi-weekly mails to the American mainland from April to December. Steamers run regularly to Halifax and round Newfoundland, and to Labrador

during the summer. The inland postage is 3 cents or about $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ for letters up to 1 oz., and 5 cents for same weight to Europe and the States. The exports, in 1895, had a value of about $6\frac{1}{4}$ million dollars or $1\frac{1}{4}$ million sterling, of which fish (chiefly cod) made up £640,000; cod and seal oil £135,000; lobsters £84,000, sealskins £76,000, and copper ore and iron pyrites, £71,000. The imports, chiefly of flour, textile goods, hardware, cordage, meat, molasses, salt, coal, and groceries, were worth over £1,244,000. The revenue, mainly from customs-duties, was in 1895 about £325,000, with an expenditure of about £281,000. The public debt was then about $2\frac{3}{4}$ millions.

The towns of Newfoundland are confined to the coast-line, a large part of the population being found in the chief commercial district, the south-eastern peninsula called Avalon. On the east coast of Avalon lies the capital, *St. John's*, with a population of about 30,000. The harbour, for its size, is one of the best in the world, being perfectly landlocked, with 15 fathoms of water in the centre, and from 5 to 10 fathoms elsewhere. It is a mile and a half in length, and half a mile broad, and is entered by a passage called the Narrows, half a mile long and from 1400 feet at the entrance to 600 feet in width, cleft in the sea-wall of the island between grand rugged hills from 600 to 700 feet in height. A graving-dock, constructed in 1884, 600 feet long, 132 feet wide, and 26 feet deep, can receive the largest ocean-steamers. Nearer to Europe than any other port of North America, St. John's is but 1730 miles from Cork. The history of the place in the nineteenth century is one of progress diversified by disastrous fires, largely due to wood-construction. Severe loss was thus caused in 1816 and 1817. In 1846, two-thirds of the city was destroyed, and was then rebuilt on an improved plan. The worst of these events occurred on July 8th, 1892, when a conflagration swept away fully one-half of the buildings, including the Anglican cathedral, a very substantial unfinished Gothic structure of great beauty, designed by Sir Gilbert Scott, with St. Andrew's Presbyterian Church, and the massive warehouses of Water Street. About 11,000 people were thus left homeless, and property worth nearly three millions sterling was destroyed. Contributions were freely made from Canada, the British Isles, and the United States, and the people set to work with great energy to rebuild the place in an

improved fashion. Religious bigotry has from time to time caused disturbances in the island, and in 1860 a serious riot took place at St. John's, when a mob of Irish Catholics took possession of the town and began to pillage the stores. There is no Imperial garrison, and the "Royal Newfoundland Companies" of militia, posted before the Market-House, after enduring for hours the verbal insults of the rioters, at last, as night fell on the scene, replied with a destructive volley to shots that were fired from the mob. The tumult ended with the ringing of the bells at the Roman Catholic cathedral, whither the rioters flocked and were induced by the bishop to keep the peace under threat of a general excommunication. The Parliament Building is a massive stone edifice, with a fine Doric portico, and there is the usual array of public institutions. There is an excellent supply of water from lakes about 5 miles away, and the city is furnished with gas and electric-lighting in the streets and factories, warehouses and shops. On Signal Hill, whose crest is covered with fine soft grass, lies a deep lake 360 feet above the sea, and a fine view is thence obtained of the city and harbour below. The chief trade, as we may suppose, is in fish and fish-products, the manufactures including the refining of seal-oil, along with tanneries, boot and shoe factories, soap-works, iron-foundries, candle-works, a furniture-factory, biscuit-making, tobacco-making from American leaf, and a woollen-mill. The merchants do a large trade in imported goods which they supply to the "out-harbours", as the other towns are called. For about a month in summer the city is thronged with people from the north and west coasts, selling the product of their fisheries, and purchasing stores for winter-use. Both British and United States currency is employed, and much of the trade is carried on by barter. The Roman Catholic cathedral, crowning the ridge which overlooks the city and harbour, is a huge stone structure with two towers, a very long cloister, and no aisles; much of the material was brought from Ireland, at the cost of the Irish Catholics who form a large majority of the citizens.

Harbour Grace, on the west side of Conception Bay, is the second town in importance, with a population of about 7000, a Catholic bishop's see, a large harbour, and considerable trade. Eight miles north lies *Carbonière* (or, *Carbonear*) a fishing-centre with 4000 people. *Trinity*, on the bay of that name, is a county-

town of about 2000 inhabitants, 115 miles from St. John's. Northwards again, we come to *Bona Vista* (pop. 3600) on the bay so called, a place of growing commerce. On approaching Notre Dame Bay, the voyager reaches *Twillingate*, a town of about 3500 people, capital of the northern division of Newfoundland, and built on two islands joined by a bridge. The neighbourhood is famous for the choicest specimens of the Newfoundland dogs, now rare and costly in the pure black colour with a white cross on the breast. These powerful animals are still used for the conveyance, on sledges over snowy forest-tracks, of the monthly mail in some of the wilder regions of the island.

The administration of affairs, established in its present form in 1855, is in the hands of a Governor appointed by the Crown, with a responsible Executive Council or Ministry of 6 members (not to exceed seven), a Legislative Council of 16 nominated members, and a House of Assembly of 36 representatives, elected by ballot under manhood suffrage, with the proviso that voters must be British subjects, of full legal age, and resident for at least two years in the colony. The members of the Legislative Council and the Assembly are paid for their expenses during a three-months' session. St. John's has a municipal council of seven members, two appointed by the government, and five elected by the city-ratepayers. Justice is administered by a Supreme Court of Judicature, re-constituted in 1824, with a Chief Justice and two assistant-judges, having civil and criminal jurisdiction over the whole island and the colony's Labrador territory. The educational system is of the separate or denominational character, except in the grammar-school at Harbour Grace, with payment of fees, and grants in aid of secondary schools. Primary education, based upon an Act of 1887, is centrally administered by three superintendents—Roman Catholic, Anglican, and Methodist—with local management by appointed boards. The elementary schools receive aid from the public funds in proportion to their numbers. In 1894, the total number of aided schools was 605, with over 35,500 pupils, and government-grants amounting to nearly £30,000.

The portion of *Labrador* politically connected with Newfoundland since 1876 is on the east side of that vast peninsula, and has an estimated area of 120,000 sq. miles. The permanent inhabitants of this bleak region may number 4000, Eskimo (*Esquimaux*), half-

breeds, and a few pure whites, chiefly engaged in fishing and trapping. The Atlantic coast is bordered by cliffs from 1000 to 4000 feet in height, devoid of vegetation, indented by narrow fiords, and fringed by chains of rocky islands. The interior, little explored, is chiefly a table-land about 2000 feet above sea-level, with extensive forests of fir, and birch and other hardy trees; rivers rich in white-fish and salmon, many lakes, and fauna including bears and wolves, caribou or reindeer, martens, foxes, beavers, otters, and lynxes. The coast-fisheries have been already mentioned. The chief port is *Battle Harbour*, on the Strait of Belle Isle, the other villages being Moravian Mission stations at Hopedale, Hebron, Okkak, and Nain. This work was begun in 1770; the Anglican Church now has one or two posts of the same class. There is no regular administration; the collector of customs, who is also a magistrate, visits the country every summer in a revenue-cruiser. A nine-months' winter, dry and frosty, forbids the ripening of corn, but potatoes and a few other vegetables can be grown during the short hot summer, when mosquitoes and black flies make life burdensome to the people.

CHAPTER XI.

WEST INDIES.

Extent and population of the British West Indian islands—Effects of negro emancipation—Decline of the sugar trade—Growth of new products. The Bahamas—Barbados—Jamaica, and its dependencies the Turks and Caicos Islands, Cayman Islands, and the Morant and Pedro Cays. The Leeward Islands: Antigua, with Barbuda and Redonda—St. Christopher or St. Kitts—Nevis—Anguilla—Dominica—Montserrat. The Virgin Islands: Tortola, Virgin Gorda—Anegada. Sombrero. The Windward Islands: Grenada—Grenadines—St. Vincent—St. Lucia. Trinidad—Tobago.

Before dealing in detail with our West Indian colonies, of which we have already given the history from the date of discovery down to 1801, it may be well to make a few general statements concerning these British possessions. Their importance is not dependent upon area or population. The whole of the British West Indies together make up only 12,175 square miles, or less than one-fourth of England. The whole population is only about 1,400,000, or

one-fourth of "Greater London", the district within 15 miles radius from Charing Cross. Of these, apart from Trinidad, with her large French element, not five per cent are whites, the vast majority being people of negro race, pure or mixed, with many thousands of Asiatic coolies, and a few thousands of mixed non-negro blood. The islands have greatly suffered for many years from various causes, the chief of which have been dependence upon a single staple product—the sugar-cane and its derivatives, molasses and rum; a lack of labour, and a want of enterprise and energy in the landed proprietors. The negro-emancipation of 1834, which took complete effect four years later, was a serious blow to the sugar-interest. The blacks, to a large extent, declined to work steadily and regularly for wages received, preferring to depend, for the trifling needs of a "loafer's" life in such a climate, upon the natural products that required no toil, combined with what they could gain from the earth by one or two days' work per week. The next blow came from the promoters of free trade when they equalized the duties on slave-grown sugar with those on the article produced by free labour. Another step towards the ruin of West Indian sugar-capitalists was made in the enormous increase of manufacture in Europe from the beet-root. The land in our tropical colonies beyond the Atlantic was, to a large extent, thrown out of cultivation. Worst of all, the estate-owners, in most cases, until recent years, failed to accept the inevitable in a becoming spirit, and to set themselves to the production, from soils that are well suited for many growths besides the sugar-cane, of articles that would bring a profit when their staple had failed them. From these and other causes we had, in our West Indian colonies, the unwonted and unwelcome spectacle, for many years, of degeneration and decay in commercial prosperity. Of late, a good prospect has arisen for the islands in the growth of new products, with tillage carried on by labour imported from other tropical or sub-tropical regions. We shall see that sugar has been largely replaced by cacao (cocoa) and other articles of commercial value, and that in the West Indies, as elsewhere, energy and enterprise may have their due reward. In another way, these islands are worthy of our notice as presenting a striking political contrast to our American and Australasian territories. Instead of advance, there has been actual political retrogression, due to the emancipation which,

in course of time, conferred rights of citizenship on the negroes. These men, emotional and uninstructed, were unfit for the use of representative institutions, and in some of the islands the legislative assemblies formerly chosen by the white population have given way to bodies wholly or partially nominated by the Crown.

The *Bahamas* were formerly called *Lucayos* from the Spanish *Los Cayos*, *The Islets* or *Rocks*, the term appearing also in *Caicos* or *The Keys*, one of the island-groups geographically, not now politically, connected with them. These most northerly of our West Indian possessions extend for nearly 600 miles, from about $21\frac{1}{2}$ to $27\frac{1}{2}$ degrees north latitude, in a north-westerly direction, between the eastern extremity of Cuba and the south-east of Florida. Lying from about $72\frac{1}{2}$ to 79 degrees west longitude, and composed of coral and of shell hardened into limestone, the group rests mainly on two shoals—the Great Bank to the south and the Little Bank to the north—and comprises about 20 inhabited islands; over 650 islets or *cays* (keys), which are rocky and sandy spots, some having a few trees, and many but a few feet above sea-level; and nearly 2400 mere reefs or rocks. The total area is about 5450 square miles, chiefly in the larger islands Great (or Grand) Bahama and Abaco; Andros, New Providence, and Eleuthera; Exuma, St. Salvador, Watling Island, and Rum Cay; Long, Crooked, and Acklin Islands; Mayaguana and Great Inagua, coming in this order from north to south. The coralline and shelly surface, thinly covered with vegetable mould, has much fertility from the retention of moisture by the porous rock. The temperature has a range from 57 to about 110 degrees Fahrenheit, with a mean of 75, and the winter or least rainy season, from October to May, affords a climate so healthy and agreeable that the islands are then much frequented by visitors from Canada and the United States, many of whom are seeking relief in pulmonary disease. The annual rainfall of about 45 inches comes chiefly between June and October. There have been, at long intervals, notably in October, 1866, and September, 1883, destructive cyclones. During the nineteenth century, the only historical events have been the emancipation, some tropical incidents of the above character, and the sudden rise of commercial prosperity during the American Civil War, connected with the “blockade-running” which has been elsewhere described. The islands, long,

narrow, reef-like formations, nowhere rising above 230 feet from sea-level, are devoid of any natural charms of scenery save what are supplied by rich tropical vegetation, a brilliant atmosphere, colouring of rare beauty, walks in flower-decked woods, and boating-trips from isle to isle through waters of a transparency revealing endless submarine attractions.

The population, in 1891, was 47,565, of whom about one-fourth were of European descent, and three-fourths of negro race. In religion, the Wesleyans and Baptists nearly double the adherents of the Church of England, disestablished in 1869, and now in charge of the Bishop of Nassau and about a score of clergy, some of whom are supported by the S. P. G., or Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. There are few Presbyterians, and still fewer Roman Catholics, the latter being ministered to by a priest of the Order of St. Benedict. The vegetable productions of the Bahamas, with or without tillage, include excellent pasture, Guinea-corn (a kind of millet), maize, pine-apples, oranges, lemons, tamarinds, pimento, and coco-nuts. The sugar-cane, as a commercial product, and cotton, are almost things of the past, though in 1891 a few hundred pounds' worth of the latter was exported. The chief products of the soil, in commercial importance, are fruit and the fibre of a plant called sisal. In 1895, pine-apples, fresh and tinned, were exported to a value of over £60,000, and oranges, lemons and other fruit had a value, in 1895, of over £6000. Sisal hemp derives its name from Sisal, a port on the north-west coast of Yucatan, the native home, in Central America, of this valuable material for ship-cables, from its power of resisting the action of sea-water. Of long natural growth in the Bahamas, where the people regarded it as a mere weed, it has now become an object of cultivation and of export to the United States in the form of fibre admirably suited for the manufacture of sacking. This culture promises to become, under a government-bounty of $\frac{1}{2}d.$ per lb. on exportation in bulk, a staple industry of the islands. The plant ripens in the third year, and produces from 15 to 20 annual crops on the same stock. More than 20,000 acres are now under this growth, with many millions of plants. The encouragement of this tillage is mainly due to Sir Henry Blake, Governor from 1884 to 1887, and to his successor Sir Ambrose Shea. The breeding of cattle, once flourishing, has greatly declined, meat being now imported from the States;

and the formerly important industry of salt-making, largely carried on by evaporation in works at Inagua, Exuma, and other islands, has been crippled by the high American import-duty. The sponge-fishery is of some importance, the value of the produce in 1895 having exceeded £67,500; shells, pearls, and ambergris are also obtained. This last substance, much used in perfumery, being a morbid secretion from the intestinal canal of the spermaceti whale, is found floating on the seas near the coast in lumps of from half an ounce to 100 lbs. in weight, or is picked up from the shore. The value of this fatty ashen-gray product much exceeds that of gold, fetching as it does about £6 per ounce.

The capital, *Nassau*, on New Providence island, is the centre of trade, with a population of 11,000. In the winter season, there is abundant social gaiety, taking the form of private theatricals and dinner-parties, dances and lawn-tennis, rides and drives, fishing and boating-trips. An excellent hotel is maintained by the colonial government, and the atmosphere of the place has a marvellous effect upon delicate people, especially on those who are suffering from nervous diseases, so that patients who have been carefully carried ashore to the hotel or to lodgings may be seen, within a few weeks, walking about unaided in full enjoyment of life. The place is, in fact, a paradise of tranquillity and balmy air. A joint-stock bank was opened in 1889, and a Post Office Savings Bank is also in operation. The islands have no railway or internal telegraph, and there are few good roads except in New Providence. In 1892, a cable from Nassau to Florida opened communication by wire with the outside world. With a penny internal postage, the charge for half-ounce letters to the British Isles is $2\frac{1}{2}d.$, and $4d.$ to all other parts, and a parcel-post has been established with Great Britain and Ireland and with the United States. A good mail-service runs fortnightly from Nassau to New York ($3\frac{1}{2}$ days' voyage) in winter, and there are monthly mail-steamers in summer to Liverpool and New York, with regular steamers throughout the year to Florida and Cuba. Lighthouses are kept up on several of the islands by the Imperial Government, at an annual charge of about £10,000. The revenue of the Bahamas, in 1895, amounted to nearly £64,000, chiefly derived from rather high customs-duties on some imported goods; from export-duties on the guano obtained in some of the islets; and from an *ad valorem* export-charge of $1\frac{1}{2}$

per cent levied on articles imported free of duty. The expenditure, in 1895, was £62,100, including the charge on a public debt somewhat exceeding £114,000 in that year. The exports, in 1893, had the value of £122,540, and the imports, in the same year, were worth £196,512. Executive rule is conducted by a Governor and a Council of 9 members, and the Legislature consists of the Governor, a Legislative Council of 8 members nominated by the Crown, and a House of Assembly of 29 members chosen by electors under a small property-qualification for the franchise. In 1895, the educational system, controlled by a board of the Governor's appointment, with compulsory attendance for pupils in the town of Nassau, showed 32 Church of England schools, with over 1700 learners; 29 private schools, with nearly 1100; 41 Government schools, free and unsectarian, with over 5400 learners on the rolls, and 9 aided schools with an attendance of 820 pupils, the government-grant amounting to £4800. A School of Art, which is making good progress, was established at Nassau in 1883, chiefly for the purpose of encouraging and teaching several industries connected with the natural products of the islands.

From the Bahamas we pass to *Barbados*, the most easterly of the West Indian Islands, lying at $59\frac{1}{2}$ degrees west longitude and about 13 degrees north latitude. The island is 21 miles long from north to south, and about $14\frac{1}{2}$ miles in extreme breadth, diminishing towards the north so as to assume the shape of a pear. With an area of 166 square miles, or 106,470 acres, and a present population of over 188,000 inhabitants, or 1130 to the square mile, and having no less than 100,000 acres under cultivation, Barbados is by far the most densely populated and best tilled island in the West Indies. The natural rate of increase is rapid, showing about 7400 births in 1895 to about 4560 deaths. Since 1851 the number of people has grown from 136,000 to its present total, in spite of a visitation of cholera (1854), which is believed to have carried off 20,000, and of a large migration of labouring people to other islands. In 1881, there were about 16,000 whites to 156,000 coloured people, and 100 females to every 82 males. In religious faith, the vast majority (156,500) are adherents of the Anglican Church, with about 14,500 Wesleyans (Methodists), 6800 Moravians, 800 Roman Catholics, and a score of Jews. Grants of £11,600 are made by the Government to these denomi-

nations in proportion to numbers. Taking up the history of the island in the nineteenth century, we first note the hurricane of October 21st, 1817, which smote Barbados at the same time as it was severely felt at St. Lucia, Dominica, Martinique, and St. Vincent. Several vessels were driven ashore at Bridgetown, Barbados, without loss of life, by the southerly wind, but the effects were not comparable to those of the great storm in 1780 which destroyed the lives of over 4000 persons and property exceeding one million sterling in value. In April of the following year, 1818, a serious negro-rising occurred at the south-west of the island, the slaves beginning, in large numbers, to plunder houses and to burn the sugar-plantations. Martial law was proclaimed, and the garrison-troops, with the island militia, attacked the insurgents, many of whom were killed on the spot, and more still executed after trial, to the total number of nearly 1000. In one parish, twenty estates had been laid waste. A large part of the negroes supported the masters, and aided in subduing the disaffected portion of the slaves, who had been stirred to action by interference of the Home-Government with the colonial legislature, and by false reports that freedom had been granted by the king and Parliament of Great Britain, and was being withheld by the slave-owners. Five years more passed away, and trouble arose from the opposite quarter of the social system, the slave-holding party. The emancipationists in the House of Commons, led by Mr. Thomas Fowell Buxton, were becoming very active, and though Mr. Canning, who was then in charge of the Foreign Office, opposed abolition, the Home-Government sent out a circular to the authorities in the West Indies, ordering the immediate stoppage of the flogging of slave-women, and of the use of the whip in the field. The slaveholders read the doom of slavery in this document, and their apprehensions of a negro-rising were stirred. The only tumult that came, however, was caused by a low class of white freemen who attacked and destroyed the chapel of a missionary named Shrewsbury, and caused him to quit the island in fear for his life. His alleged offence consisted in having sent home to his employers the true statement that the lowest class of whites in Barbados was composed of ignorant and depraved men. The Governor issued a proclamation offering a reward for the apprehension of any of the rioters, to which the

slave-owning party responded by threats of vengeance on informers, and by a warning that no missionaries must set foot in Barbados.

When the long-threatened emancipation came, in 1834, upon the slave-owners of our West Indian colonies, the effects in Barbados upon the staple industry of sugar-making were very different from those in most other islands. During the succeeding half-century, the revenue rose from £21,000 to about £158,000; the imports increased from £481,000 to £1,156,000, and the exports from £408,000 to £1,319,000. The result was mainly due to abundance of population combined with scarcity of land. The negroes could not become "squatters" on unreclaimed lands, and were, to their great advantage, compelled to work with diligence for wages or to starve. The natural consequence is seen in the present condition of the Barbadian coloured people as an industrious, prudent, thrifty, and prosperous race, in favourable contrast to some of the whites. The people, as a whole, are shrewd and clever, and, as regards the negro-population we may observe that a pure-blooded black has risen to be first Attorney-General and then Chief Justice, proving the want of any original or congenital difference of capacity between the blacks and the whites. Returning for a moment to the subject of hurricanes, the West Indian plague of man and his works, we find that in 1831 a storm of extreme violence killed nearly 1600 people in Barbados, and destroyed property to the value of over £1,600,000. The riots of 1876 were caused by the proposed confederation of the Windward Islands. Several lives were lost in the tumult, and considerable damage to property occurred. The jealous feeling aroused in Barbadian hearts by the prospect of amalgamation with the group of which their island had been the head and the seat of government, was finally dispelled in 1885, when Barbados was separated from the other Windward Islands, and made a distinct colony.

The coast of Barbados is little broken, being guarded from the full effect of the sea's violence by an almost complete barrier of coral reefs, extending in some parts, with great danger to shipping, for nearly 3 miles from the land. The only harbour is at Carlisle Bay, on the south-west, and this is an open roadstead, much exposed to winds from that quarter. An inner haven is protected by the Mole Head. Inside the reefs, the coast, except at two points, shows a long line of sandy beach. Much of the

land is coralline in structure, with sandstones, clays, and infusorial earths (a flinty deposit) in the north-east. Much of the interior is hilly, having ranges sweeping inland from the east coast, with the highest summit, Mount Hillaby, attaining 1104 feet above sea-level. A lower range runs down the western coast. The climate is of a remarkably equable character, with a temperature rarely sinking below 70 degrees or reaching higher than 90. The average rainfall, spread over the year, with the later months as those of most moisture, is about 60 inches. Shocks of earthquake are sometimes felt, and the thunder-storms are frequent and severe. Yellow-fever is not unknown, but the island, on the whole, is healthy, the heat being tempered by the breezes from the sea. There are no special fauna or flora in this thickly-peopled land, now devoid of forests and tilled to the resemblance of a great well-tended garden. A fine water-supply, obtained mostly from springs by boring, favours both cleanliness and cultivation, and the advancement of civilization in this happy region, where the labourer can do well for himself and family on wages of one shilling per day, with tenpence for any of his women-folk, is proved by the institution of life and fire insurance, railroads and tramways, water and gas companies, and by the common use of the telephone in and near the capital.

The prosperity of Barbados has of late years suffered from the low price of sugar, the chief product, for which about 25,000 acres are yearly planted with canes. In 1895, the yield from some hundreds of sugar-works was only 36,450 hogsheads, as against over 85,000 in 1890. In this latter year, about 52,000 puncheons of molasses, mostly sent to Canada, were also made, and there is a considerable distillation of rum. The only other industry of any importance is the fisheries which employ over 370 boats and 1000 men and boys. Lobsters and crayfish are plentiful among the coral-reefs, and a rich food-supply is obtained in the eggs or roe of sea-urchins. The chief catch is, however, that of the delicious and very abundant flying-fish, systematically taken at Barbados alone. From 6 to 12 inches in length, with a nearly quadrangular body, and making a favourite haunt of the blue depths of sea off the steep shore-line reefs of the island, this fish, the most popular food of Barbados, is caught in enormous numbers, with shallow nets suspended from a wooden hoop a yard

in diameter, from shoals attracted by bait. A boat-load of 7000 to 8000 fish is often quickly obtained from a single "school" of flying-fish, and a glut in the market makes prices fall to a penny per dozen.

The island has of late years taken the place of the Danish island, St. Thomas, as the centre of West Indian steamer-traffic, and is the chief port of call for sailing-vessels in search of freight in the Caribbean Sea. The imports, with a value, in 1895, of £956,920, consist chiefly of breadstuffs and other provisions from the United States; dried fish and timber from Canada and Newfoundland; and manufactured goods of all kinds from the British Isles. The exports, worth £587,298 in 1895, were chiefly composed of raw sugar to the value of about £261,000, molasses £97,850, and re-exported flour, rice, and dried fish. Besides the Colonial Bank, with 13 branches in the West Indies, and deposits exceeding 2 millions sterling, there is a Government savings-bank with nearly 11,300 depositors to the amount of £180,580. There are nearly 500 miles of roads in the island, and a railway of 24 miles runs from the capital, Bridgetown, through the southern districts and along the east coast. The fortnightly Royal Mail steamers from Southampton, and weekly steamers from Liverpool by the West Indian and Pacific or the Harrison line afford ready communication with Europe, and fortnightly steamers arrive from New York. There is direct cable communication viâ St. Vincent with the other West Indies, America, and Europe. *Bridgetown*, occupying much of the shore of Carlisle Bay, on the south-west coast, has a population of about 21,000, with the usual public buildings, and with barracks and arsenal for the garrison of 30 officers and about 750 non-commissioned officers and men, in this head-quarters for our European troops in the West Indies. A police-force of 320 officers and men provides for the internal peace of the colony. There are several large villages or little towns, of which Speightstown, on the north-west coast, contains about 1500 inhabitants.

The ruling power consists of a Governor, an "Executive Committee" composed of the officer commanding the troops, the Colonial Secretary, the Attorney-General, and other persons nominated by the Crown, with one member of the Legislative Council, and four members of the House of Assembly, nominated by the

Governor. The duties of this body include the preparation of estimates, and the introduction of Government-bills and of all money-votes. The Legislative Council of 9 members is appointed by the Crown, and the House of Assembly, of 24 members, is chosen yearly by about 4500 voters with a moderate franchise. Barbados thus possesses representative institutions, with the "Chartist" point of annual parliaments, but not the "responsible government" of our greater colonies. The revenue, in 1895, amounted to £146,315, mainly obtained from customs-duties, against an expenditure over £152,000 and a public debt of about £405,000. A very satisfactory feature in this colony is the state of education, which is, for elementary instruction, under Government control through a central Board appointed by the Governor, with local School Committees assisting the clergyman of the district. In 1895, 190 primary schools had nearly 14,500 pupils in average attendance, with public grants of over £10,400, and the work of these institutions is supplemented by several second-grade and first-grade schools for boys and girls. Among these latter we find Harrison College, Bridgetown, an old foundation supported by the legislature, with a good staff of graduates as masters, and a Professor of Chemistry and Agricultural Science. Four "Barbados Scholarships", each annually worth £175, established by the Education Board, and endowed by the colonial funds, are tenable for four years at Oxford or Cambridge. Queen's College, a first-grade girls' school with over 100 pupils, was opened in 1883. The foundation of the famous Codrington College has been noticed in our early history of the island. At this excellent institution, affiliated to Durham University in 1875, and administered by the S. P. G., as trustees of General Codrington's will, a large proportion of the clergy in the Windward Isles, under the rule of the Bishop of Barbados (whose see was created in 1824) have received their education. It is the only place in the West Indies which provides a university training, and is endowed with several theological scholarships (of £30 annual value) from the College funds, and with four "Island Scholarships" of £40 each per annum, paid by the Colonial Treasury, and confined to natives or sons of native Barbadians. The buildings are situated below the bold escarpment of a hill on the eastern coast rising about 800 feet above sea-level, being themselves at an altitude of 300 feet on

a level plateau, within a mile of the shore, in a secluded, restful, healthy spot which faces the trade-winds borne over 3000 miles of ocean. More than once a hurricane has laid the estate in ruins, and the flooring of the college-chapel still bears marks of the storm which, in 1831, hurled roof and cupola crashing down upon the slabs of black and white marble. Since 1830, Codrington College has been the Alma Mater of most youths in the best West Indian families. A long avenue of palms, the finest of which, over 80 feet high, survived the hurricane of 1831, leads up to the grey-stone college-buildings of the Georgian period, surrounded by the tennis-lawns and by the cricket-ground, beyond a grove of mahogany-trees, where the students play matches against "elevens" of the island or of the garrison. The interior, with its chapel and hall, and its library scented with old books, and the students' life and garb, have a peculiar charm, in a tropical region, for the visitor whose early manhood was passed in one of the ancient universities of the home-country.

JAMAICA, the largest, most populous, and most important of our West Indian colonies, is situated about 90 miles south of the eastern end of Cuba, between $17^{\circ} 43'$ and $18^{\circ} 32'$ north latitude, and from $76^{\circ} 11'$ to $78^{\circ} 20'$ west longitude. Extending east and west for 144 miles, and with breadth varying from 21 to 50 miles, the island has an area of about 4200 sq. miles, and a population, by the census of 1891, of 639,500, of whom 306,000 were males. The whites, at that time, numbered 14,700; the coloured people or half-breeds were 122,000; and over 488,000 were blacks. The remainder were composed of above 10,000 East Indians (coolies), a few hundred Chinese, and over 3600 "not specified" persons. Natural increase and immigration have now brought the numbers to over 660,000. In religious faith, about 40,400 were, in 1892, returned as adherents of the Anglican Church; 1500 as members of the Church of Scotland; 9300 as Roman Catholics; 23,000 as Methodists; 35,000 as Baptists, nearly 10,000 as "Presbyterian Church"; and 16,000 as Moravians. In all the above cases, except as regards the Church of England, the families of the "members" must be added. The natural rate of increase is indicated by the births and deaths for 1891-92, the former having numbered 24,744, the latter 14,711.

Jamaican history during the nineteenth century includes much matter of considerable interest and importance. In the earlier years

of this period, prior to the abolition, in 1807, of the slave-trade to the British dominions abroad, the planters largely imported negroes from West Africa, the number of slaves thus obtained having amounted to nearly 87,000 for the last eight years of the iniquitous traffic, and at the date of the stoppage of importation the island contained about 324,000 slaves. From that time forward, the planters felt themselves overshadowed by coming emancipation, and restlessness quickly developed into fierce opposition to all steps in that direction. In 1823, the Legislative Assembly, when it was required by the Home-government to take measures for improving the condition of the slaves, repudiated the right of the Imperial Parliament to interfere in the internal affairs of the island. Six years later, we find the Imperial authorities, through Lord Belmore, the Governor, demanding amendment of the Slave Code from the Legislative Assembly, and in 1830, when further urgency was used in this behalf, one member of the Jamaican Legislature moved that the Imperial proposals should be burned by the common hangman, while another, bidding his fellows disregard the recommendations sent from London, asserted that the colonial militia was quite equal to coping with the forces of Great Britain. A year more passed away, and, with slave-emancipation in full view, many planters were threatening to transfer their allegiance to the United States. Language of this kind, coupled with an eager desire for the freedom which was now almost within their grasp, was quite sufficient to stir the negroes to action, and at the close of 1831 there was a servile insurrection, causing the loss of many lives and the destruction of property to an amount exceeding £600,000. When the blow at last fell upon the planters, they were in no wise appeased by the sum of about 6 millions sterling received as their share of compensation for the loss of property in the negroes to be freed by the Act of 1833. The original term of apprenticeship, a modified emancipation, was shortened, and on August 1st, 1838, the whole of the negroes became absolutely their own masters. Then came to pass that which had been confidently predicted by opponents of the great philanthropic measure. The planting interest was practically ruined through lack of labour. The free negroes, as already mentioned, would not work regularly for pay. The community was plunged into a disorderly and dangerous condition of affairs. The proprietors of land, with the agents, managers or overseers, and

middlemen, were greatly reduced in means, and the negroes had been turned from well-fed and, as a rule, well-treated slave-labourers, into ignorant, idle, and impoverished freemen. It was the height of absurdity to concede representative and constitutional rights to such persons. The experiment failed, and the negroes were soon complaining that offices in the magistracy were not more frequently conferred upon them. From 1839 to 1842 the government of Jamaica was held by Sir Charles, afterwards Lord, Metcalfe, whom we have already seen both in British India and Canada. His friend Macaulay, in the epitaph composed in 1847, claims for Metcalfe that "in Jamaica, still convulsed by a social revolution, his prudence calmed the evil passions which long suffering had engendered in one class and long domination in another". This good service did not prevent his successor, Lord Elgin, who was Governor from 1842 till the spring of 1846, from being confronted by great difficulties. That eminent statesman and colonial ruler, whom we have met in Canada, China, and India, found himself called upon to deal with a mockery of representative government, in which the local Legislature was a democratic oligarchy, chiefly composed of the overseers of estates, men who had no abiding pecuniary interest in the country. It was Lord Elgin's hard task to restore hope in a sorely depressed community, and to strive at once for the moral improvement of the population, and for a revival of economical prosperity. A well-devised system of duties did much to redress the financial balance, and the Governor aimed at moral and social progress for the emancipated blacks through the action of the planters who had lately been their owners. Under his auspices, in 1845, the first body of coolies arrived from India to work on the estates, and machinery was, for the first time, applied to the production of sugar. The Governor's object in promoting this improvement was to create a demand for skilled labour which might induce the negroes to acquire much-needed education. On leaving Jamaica early in 1846, Lord Elgin had at least pointed out a way towards the renewal of prosperous days for the "Land of Springs".

Another blow fell on the sugar-planters when, in 1846, Lord John Russell's government equalized the duties on colonial and foreign produce, whether it were raised by free- or by slave-labour, and forced Jamaican planters to compete on equal terms with those of Brazil. Renewed depression, at the very moment of revival,

postponed prosperity for many years. The coffee and sugar plantations relapsed into mere jungle; the bridges were broken down for lack of due repairs; many of the roads became almost impassable. The largest town, Kingston, presented the discreditable and deplorable spectacle of a place once prosperous gone to decay. From 1847 to 1853 a legislative deadlock existed through the rejection, by the Council, of the Bills which, session after session, were passed by the Assembly for financial retrenchment, and under the rule of Sir Henry Barkly, who was Governor from 1853 to 1857, a modified form of responsible government was introduced. The negro-population, meanwhile, had yearly become more troublesome to the whites. The blacks were rapidly growing in numbers; the white population, at the best, was stationary. The self-assertive spirit of the majority wished to suppress coolie-immigration as tending to keep down the wages for which they, the West Indian blacks, could by no means be depended on to work. They sought to become landholders without payment of rent; they were beginning to obtain ascendancy in the official life of the island; the more violent of their agitators clamoured for the expulsion of all the white people.

After many disturbances, partly due to disputes concerning the possession of "back lands" which the owners of some large estates had allowed to run waste, a crisis occurred in 1865. Three years previously, Mr. Edward John Eyre had been appointed Governor. This gentleman, a native of Yorkshire, born in 1815, emigrated to Sydney in 1833, and became Resident Magistrate and "Protector of the Aborigines" in the Lower Murray district. He then won distinction as an Australian explorer, and, after spending some time in England, was appointed Lieutenant-Governor, in 1847, of South Island, New Zealand. In 1853, Mr. Eyre became Governor of St. Vincent, and afterwards Lieutenant-Governor of the Leeward Islands. He had always borne a character for justice and humanity in his treatment of native races, but was now to earn a reputation for cruel and lawless severity in punishing the negroes of Jamaica for the part played by some of their class in what was rather a riot than an insurrection, much less an organized and general rebellion. It was early in October, 1865, that serious trouble arose. Negro agitators had taken up the cause of real or supposed wrongs, and one of these men, named Paul Bogle, was charged with promoting disturbances in behalf of a negro brought to trial before the magis-

NEGROES AT WORK IN A SUGAR-CANE PLANTATION IN JAMAICA

The sugar of commerce is obtained, to a large extent at least, from a tall broad-leaved plant, the stem of which is filled with a spongy tissue containing the juice. In the West Indies this plant is propagated by cuttings from the stem, these cuttings being planted in trenches. The young plants send up shoots, which, when they are about 10 feet high, are cut down by the negroes (as in the illustration) and taken to the factory, where the stems are crushed and the juice boiled. This juice is so nutritive, that during the sugar harvest every creature, whether man or beast, who partakes freely of it attains the highest degree of health and vigour.



J. FINIMORE.

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NEGROES AT WORK IN A SUGAR-CANE PLANTATION
IN JAMAICA.

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trates at Morant Bay, a small town on the south-east coast. An attempt to arrest Bogle was met by forcible resistance from the blacks, who overpowered the police. Three days later, a large number of negroes assembled in front of the court-house where the magistrates were sitting. The local volunteers were there drawn up; the Riot Act was read; some stones were thrown, and then some negroes fell under the bullets of the troops. A fierce attack made by the mob overcame the small force, and the court-house was set on fire; eighteen persons, including the chief magistrate, were killed, while thirty or more were wounded. An attempt at insurrection was promptly crushed by the arrival of 100 regular soldiers despatched by the Governor. Then the county of Surrey, the eastern of the three, with Middlesex in the centre, and Cornwall on the west, into which Jamaica is divided, was placed under martial law, with the exception of the city of Kingston, and for some weeks British troops were employed in the work of indiscriminate hanging, flogging men and women, and burning the houses of coloured people. Between 400 and 500 persons were put to death, and more than 600 were cruelly flogged. A thousand houses were burned during this reign of terror. The most prominent victim of the Governor's vengeance was Mr. Gordon, a mulatto member of the House of Assembly. He was a Baptist minister of fair education, ability, and means, a strong supporter of the cause of the negroes, a thorn in the side of the British authorities, a leader of the Opposition in the Assembly, ever contending for the blacks against the whites. A warrant was issued for Gordon's arrest at his place of business in Kingston, and, learning this fact, he surrendered himself to the commander of the troops. At Kingston he was safe from martial law, and the Governor placed him on board a man-of-war which transported the prisoner to Morant Bay. He was there tried for high treason by a court composed of two young naval lieutenants and an ensign in one of the Queen's West India regiments. Found guilty by this tribunal and sentenced to death, Mr. Gordon was hanged on October 23rd, after approval of the decision by the commanding officer at Morant Bay, and confirmation of all the proceedings by the Governor. This judicial murder was in all points worthy of the Stuart age in the British Isles. The removal of the prisoner from Kingston to Morant Bay was illegal; his trial before a court composed of both naval and

military officers was illegal; and, according to the expressed view of Lord Chief-Justice Cockburn, presiding at the Central Criminal Court in 1867, there was no evidence to connect the prisoner with conspiracy or insurrection. Public opinion in Great Britain was much divided, philanthropists, headed by John Stuart Mill, vainly prosecuting Eyre for "murder", and the admirers of forcible and energetic measures, led by Thomas Carlyle, contending that he had saved Jamaica from ruin at the hands of "negro rebels".

The Colonial Secretary, Mr., afterwards Lord, Cardwell, suspended the Governor from his functions, and sent out a commission of inquiry to Jamaica. The president was Sir Henry Storks, Governor of Malta, and the other members were Mr. Russell Gurney, Recorder of the City of London, and Mr. Maule, Recorder of Leeds. In April, 1866, these gentlemen reported that the punishments inflicted were excessive; that death had been inflicted with needless frequency; that some of the floggings were barbarously cruel; and that the burning of houses was wanton and cruel. As concerned Mr. Eyre's own action, the commissioners held that though he had displayed vigour and skill in staying insurrection at the outset, yet that martial law was too long maintained, and that no proof of Gordon's complicity existed. Hereupon Mr. Eyre was removed from his post, and retired into private life. In 1872, a vote of the House of Commons, carried by a large majority, repaid to him the expenses incurred in defending himself against the several prosecutions instituted by the "Jamaica Committee" of Mill and his supporters. Thus ended what we may well hope will prove the last of more than thirty recorded negro troubles or outbreaks in Jamaica.

A speedy result of the proceedings in 1865 was the abolition of the representative form of rule in the colony, after an existence of two hundred years. Along with the Governor, the Jamaican constitution had been suspended, and it was afterwards abolished by an Act of its own Legislature which received the assent of the Crown. An Order in Council of June, 1866, established a Legislative Council of six official and six non-official members, each increased to eight in 1878, and to nine in 1881. Three years later, by Order in Council of May, 1884, an amount of representative rule was infused into the "Crown colony" system. The Legislative Council, with the Governor and four official members, and not

more than five nominated by the Crown or its representative, now includes nine elected members representing as many electoral districts, chosen on a property qualification for the franchise. A Privy Council, with the usual powers and functions of an executive council, assists the Governor. The Legislative Council must be dissolved, at latest, at the end of five years from the last election. We may observe that in 1888 the register showed 22,660 voters out of a population exceeding 600,000. It is pleasant to be able to record that an age of improvement for Jamaica began soon after the establishment of the new system of rule. Crime has lessened; education has advanced among the ever-growing black population, many of whom, having acquired small holdings, are profitably engaged in fruit-culture. Irrigation has brought new land into cultivation, and in 1876 Jamaica products made a good show at the Philadelphia Exhibition, as they did ten years later at the Colonial and Indian Exhibition in London. New roads have been made, harbours have been constructed, and some of the forsaken sugar-estates have been taken in hand by the capitalist-refugees from Cuba. The negroes are now described as a fairly industrious and law-abiding community, among whom extreme poverty is a thing unknown.

Volcanic in origin, and largely formed of limestone, Jamaica presents, on the coast and inland, scenes of bold and picturesque beauty, rich in all the varied charms of nature at her brightest and her best. The shores have, at many points, mountains rising abruptly from the sea, here in the terrific grandeur of bare rocky surface, there richly clad in vegetation from base to summit. There are excellent harbours on every side of the island, the finest of which is the deep, capacious, almost landlocked haven of Kingston, on the south-east. The interior is very mountainous, with a main ridge running east and west, and many minor chains, some parallel to the chief range, and others jutting out to north-west and south-east, so that the greater part of the island is composed of hills and valleys. The eastern end is almost filled by the grand Blue Mountains, the highest part of the main ridge, varying in height from 5000 to 6000 feet, and having a peak of about 7400. The name of the island is well earned by the many mineral springs, and by nearly 120 rivers and streams that come down from the mountains to the sea, being mostly useless for traffic from their

brief, steep, and broken course, though Black River, on the southwest, admits small craft for a distance of thirty miles. In the centre of the island, to the north of the chief range, Roaring River has its name from its numerous beautiful waterfalls. There are many grand caverns and deep natural excavations in the limestone rock, and the traveller from any less picturesque country is delighted by the infinitely varied beauty and grandeur of woods and streams, mountain-glens and fertile vales, rich-hued rocks and countless cascades, tropical vegetation with its gorgeous flowers and stately palms, vividly set forth in the clearest air, beneath a sky of the deepest blue that the heavens display. On the southern shore, the plain of Liguanea extends for about thirty miles, with an average breadth of four or five, and to the north of this, with a range of low hills between, is the plain of Vere. The most fertile parts of Jamaica, where the chief sugar-estates lie, are the valleys at the foot of the Blue Mountains. The climate, on the whole, is healthy, but, from the nature of the region, cannot be described as if it were uniform. There are many varieties due to insular position, in which a tropical sun is tempered by the sea-breezes, and to differences of level from the moist hot coast to inland plateaus and the higher mountains whither invalids come from the United States to enjoy the cool salubrious air. At Kingston, the temperature has a mean of 80° for the year, varying little from 90° in the day to 70° at night. For each 300 feet of ascent from the sea-level, the thermometer falls about 1° , so that a speedy change can be obtained by an upland ride. At the height of nearly 5000 feet, in one hill-station, the mean for February, the coolest month, is about 55° , while for June it is nearly 75° , these figures giving the extreme range. A great variety is seen in the rainfall at different points. The average for all Jamaica, as taken at about forty stations, is nearly 67 inches, but the extremes vary from about 31 inches to nearly 200 inches at Blue Mountain Peak, while the average at Kingston is about 38 inches. Epidemics have become very rare since improved sanitation existed in the towns. There are two chief wet seasons. The spring rains, from the middle of April into May, are generally in the form of showers, and then the weather is dry for some weeks. The heavy summer-rains come in June or July, and last for about two months, during which the enormous downpour of a storm is heralded by great

and sultry heat, with perfect stillness of the air, until clouds rapidly form over the sky, and, giving forth a terrific thunder-peal, discharge, when a few hours have elapsed, torrents accompanied by almost ceaseless thunder and lightning. Day by day, for a space of two to three hours, and sometimes without a break for some days and nights, the same effort of nature occurs. The autumn has its rainy time, in October and November, but the downfall is not very great, and thunder and lightning are usually absent. The rains in the mountain-region are earlier, heavier, and more frequent than in the valleys and on the coast.

The fauna includes no dangerous animals or poisonous snakes. There is an abundant show of harmless serpents, and several species of lizards are found, of which the "great Iguana" is used for food. Land-crabs and tortoises are also eaten. Parrots, pigeons, guinea-fowl, and many kinds of aquatic birds and song-birds charm the eye with brilliant hues or the ear with tuneful sounds, or furnish sport for the gun. The dwellers in the lowlands have to contend with ants, mosquitoes, sand-flies, and the detestable ticks. These insect-plagues have much increased through the destruction of lizards, harmless snakes, and small birds by the ichneumon or mongoose, a long-bodied digitigrade carnivorous creature. The animal was introduced by the planters to clear away the rats that infested the sugar-fields, but, after excellent service in that direction, it became a pest in destroying poultry, and the reptiles and birds that were doing good work in an island too richly abounding in specimens for the entomologist. The vegetation is of a very luxuriant and varied character. The timber of the primeval forests, quickly vanishing under cutting which makes conservation and re-planting very desirable, includes many valuable trees, some producing rare cabinet woods. Logwood and mahogany, fustic, lignum vitæ, and ebony, with coco-nut and other palms, are found. The chief wild growths are cactuses of various kinds, countless varieties of orchids and ferns, spices and dye-woods, medicinal plants, roots, and seeds, Guinea grass, and flowers valuable for the distillation of essential oils used in perfumery. This natural wealth, still little used in many cases, comprises ginger and pimento, spikenard and cochineal, liquorice and arrowroot, castor-oil nuts and vanilla, pepper of many kinds, jalap and ipecacuanha, cassia and senna. Among the vast abund-

ance of tropical or sub-tropical fruits are the pine-apple and mango, shaddock and custard-apple, banana and tamarind, orange and lemon, coco-nut and date, bread-fruit and plantain, mulberry and olive. Melons, plums, grapes, figs, and pears; and, in suitable spots among the mountains, cherries, peaches, and strawberries are grown. Peas and beans, potatoes and yams, cassava and many kinds of salad, are of ready growth, with maize more luxuriant than that of the southern United States. The mineral resources of Jamaica, yet almost wholly undeveloped, include silver and gold, tin and lead, copper and cobalt, platinum, porphyry, granite, white and coloured marbles, beautiful crystals, agates, and a few emeralds and sapphires. The coast-waters teem with excellent fish, some of which might well replace as food the large amount of salted cod and herring now imported from Nova Scotia.

Passing on to the chief and almost sole industry, the tillage of the soil, we find that, whereas the island contains about 2,700,000 acres, above 365,000 acres are useless for agriculture, as consisting of swamps, rocks, and inaccessible territory. Of the more than 2,300,000 acres open to tillage, about 183,000 were being cultivated in 1895, with an increase of acreage since the previous year. In the south and east the land is chiefly devoted to sugar-cane, coffee, vegetables, and fruits. Cane is grown on about 31,000 acres, coffee on 23,600; bananas have 19,000 acres, coco-nut palms, nearly 11,000, ground provisions, 95,000, and about 1700 acres are given to the cacao-tree. In the north and west, the ground under human care chiefly produces Guinea grass (126,900 acres), a very valuable pasture-forage, or consists of common pasture (342,000 acres) or of common pasture interspersed with pimento-trees (40,400 acres). The sugar-production of the island is somewhat increasing after a decline, and the coffee-trade is flourishing. The finest rum in the world, in diminished quantity, still comes from Jamaica, and ginger and pimento are of growing importance in her commerce. One of the most remarkable products is pimento, exported for the year ending March 31st, 1896, to the amount of nearly 11 million lbs., with a value of £90,000. Otherwise known as "allspice", from a supposed resemblance in flavour to mingled nutmeg, cinnamon, and cloves, and also as "Jamaica pepper", the pimento of commerce, valuable both in cookery and medicine, and furnished to the world by Jamaica alone, is the dried berry of a

very beautiful tree. Growing to the height of 20 to 30 feet, with straight white trunk and a much-branching head of deep-green shining oval leaves about 4 inches long, the tree is wreathed in April with masses of pale white flowers, diffusing a rich aromatic odour far and wide, with thousands of small wood-bees humming around, and with countless tiny insects, a rich feast for the birds, crawling among the petals. In August the berries are gathered green, by breaking off the branches and dropping them to the ground, where women and children strip the spice from the stem. The tree thus roughly treated soon puts forth new shoots, and bears a better crop for the more extensive breakage. The harvest of pimento presents a picturesque scene in its gangs of negro-pickers, the women and girls in turbans of red and white stuff, with the black iron pot for cooking the family meal, and calabashes or gourds for carrying water from the owner's house into the plantation. The berries are dried by the sun on the "barbecues" or great stone terraces of the estate, being turned over from time to time with rakes or brooms of the fan-palm, until six or seven days' heat has completed the "curing".

The most notable and satisfactory recent development in Jamaican history is the revived prosperity due to the production of fruit. In bananas, a minor industry has now attained the rank of a staple product. In 1874, the export value of this delicious and wholesome article was almost nothing; in 1879, the banana-trade was producing nearly £33,000 a-year; for the year ending March 31st, 1896, it had the value of £316,560, showing a nearly tenfold growth. In the same period, the value of exported coconuts rose from £13,000 to nearly £38,000. Oranges and pineapples to considerable value are raised. In connection with the banana-growing, we have the gratifying and, for the inward peace and prosperity of the island, the important fact that it puts ready money to the amount of at least £200,000 annually into the possession of small cultivators, the negro heads of families chiefly engaged in the culture. All classes of the community have felt the benefit of the banana-trade, and increased imports have improved the resources of the Government for public works and other undertakings. In 1897, there were nearly 73,000 holdings of land below 5 acres in area, against about 17,000 holdings between 5 and 50 acres, while all estates or rented holdings between 50

and 1500 acres or upwards numbered about 3000. The total exports (year ending March 31st, 1896) of this grandly fertile colony had the value of £1,873,105, about 28 per cent going to the British Isles, and 40 per cent to the United States. In order of value, the chief exports were bananas, as above given; logwood, £359,000; coffee, £284,820; raw sugar, £195,450; rum, £164,000; pimento, as above stated; ginger, £50,328; and coco-nuts, as above. In the same year the imports from all countries were worth £2,288,940, of which goods to the value of £1,106,177 came from the United Kingdom; the next largest amounts being from the United States and British North America. The chief items of expenditure were about £277,600 for cotton manufactures; £291,000 for corn (rice, &c.), flour and bread; £166,000 for fish, wet and dried; £131,000 for drapery; £58,800 for boots and shoes; £62,000 for ale and beer; £63,500 for lumber; £40,000 for butter; £39,850 for hardware and cutlery; £46,840 for woollen goods; £31,000 for pork; £35,000 for soap, and £50,400 for coals and coke.

The chief towns of Jamaica are Kingston, Spanish Town, Montego Bay, Port Maria, Falmouth, Savanna-la-Mar, and Port Royal. *Kingston*, the capital, being by far the largest place in the island, as well as the seat of government, has been already mentioned as lying in a fine haven on the south-east coast. Distant six miles from Port Royal, which is on the tongue of land to the south, the commercial centre of Jamaica is approached thence by a well-buoyed channel from 6 to 9 fathoms in depth, and has good anchoring-ground in from 5 to 10 fathoms for any number of ships, with from 12 to 24 feet of water at the wharves. The city replaced Spanish Town as capital in 1872; in 1880 the place suffered much from a violent hurricane, and two years later it was almost destroyed by fire. In the Old Church, the public building of most interest, Benbow lies buried. With a good water-supply and drainage, Kingston also has gas-lighted streets and tramcars. The population is about 48,500. *Spanish Town* (5700 people) is about sixteen miles west of the capital, lying inland; *Montego Bay*, on the north-west coast, contains about 5000 inhabitants; *Port Maria*, on the north-east coast, has nearly 7000; *Falmouth*, east of Montego Bay, about 3000; *Savanna-la-Mar*, on south-west coast, 3000; the now decayed *Port Royal*, ruined by the

earthquake of 1692, as already recorded, is a naval station of some 1200 inhabitants. For local government, there are Parochial Boards, elected by those who vote for members of the Legislative Council, in the town of Kingston and thirteen other parishes. These bodies have the control of roads, markets, sanitation, poor relief, and water-works, expending a revenue received from the direct taxation on land, houses, horses, carriages, and other matters in their several parishes. The colonial revenue, mainly obtained from import-duties on food-stuffs, alcohol, and manufactured goods, from a heavy excise on rum, and from licences and stamps, amounted to £814,300 in 1896, with an expenditure of £836,500, and a public debt of £2,174,000, of which above half has been incurred for railways. The means of communication comprise about 120 miles of railway in the centre and south; 1420 miles of inland telegraph; mail-coaches between the chief points not yet connected by steam-traffic, and weekly steamers to the chief ports round the island. Daily posts, or a service three times a week, convey half-ounce letters at a penny rate. Foreign communication is maintained by the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company's boats to Southampton, the "West India and Pacific" steamers to Liverpool, the boats of the "London Line", those of the Clyde Line to Glasgow, steamers to the United States, other West India isles, Halifax, and Demerara; and by cables to Europe, Cuba, and Central America. There is a parcels-post to the British Isles, the United States, and the other British West Indies. Education is not in a very advanced condition. For higher instruction the colonists are mainly dependent on the Barbados college above described, and on a "high school" near Kingston. In 1896, the 932 Government elementary schools had an average attendance of about 60,000 among 170,000 children of school age, between 5 and 15 years. The grant amounts to about £48,000, and there are two training-colleges, for male and female teachers. There are also some free schools, denominational high schools, and industrial establishments. The financial system includes the Colonial Bank, the Bank of Nova Scotia, and a Government Savings Bank with deposits, at 3 per cent interest, exceeding £464,000; the currency is British gold and silver, United States and Spanish gold, and Jamaica nickel pence. There is no "established church": Anglicans are in charge of the Bishop of Jamaica, Roman Catholics of a

“Vicar Apostolic” as prelate. Public health is supervised by an “island medical service” of district-officers paid by the Government to attend sick paupers, parochial hospitals and alms-houses, the constabulary force, and the prisoners (975 at the end of 1895) in jail. The judicial establishment comprises a High Court of Justice, circuit-courts, and petty-sessions of resident magistrates throughout the island. Public defence is intrusted to an Imperial garrison (West India regiments) of about 1570 officers and men, with fortifications and batteries at various points, and to a “volunteer militia” numbering about 530 officers and men. The police force is composed of about 2300 officers and men. Returning for a moment to the intellectual condition of the negroes, we find that, by the census of 1891, out of the whole population of about 640,000, under 178,000 could read and write, and 114,500 could read only; in other words, more than half the people were wholly illiterate.

The *Turks and Caicos Islands*, two south-easterly groups in the Bahamas, have been since 1874 a political dependency of Jamaica, governed by a Commissioner and a Legislative Board of five members appointed by the Crown. Of about 30 “cays” or islands, with a total area of 170 sq. miles, the largest, *Grand Caicos*, is 20 miles long by 6 miles broad; the most important and populous, having the seat of government at a town of 1900 people, is *Grand Turk*, 7 miles in length by 2 in breadth. The population, 4750 in 1891 for the whole of the groups, is of mixed European and African descent, mainly connected with the Bermudas, and all of English speech. Only six of the islands have inhabitants, and all are uninhabited by such appliances of civilization as railways, telegraphs, paper currency, public debt, and internal postage. The very mixed currency includes coinage of Great Britain, the United States, Spanish America, Mexico, Colombia, and the Jamaica nickel. The equable and healthy climate is one in which the tropical heat is tempered by sea-breezes; the chief wants are those of fresh provisions and good water, the soil lying low and being usually barren. The rain-fall, occurring between October and February, was 23 inches in 1895. Seven elementary, free, unsectarian schools have an average attendance of 364 children; Grand Turk possesses a public library and reading-room, with a weekly newspaper. Communication with the outer world is obtained through sailing-vessels from Grand Turk, a port of registry with 48 ships of a total tonnage

of 6000 tons; by monthly steamers to Jamaica and Halifax, and every three weeks to New York and Hayti. The nearest telegraph-cable is at Hayti, 165 miles away. Sponges collected on the Caicos Bank are sent to Nassau, and a recent cultivation of *pita*, or sisal hemp, has a prospect of success. The only industry of any importance at present, however, is the "salt-raking" mentioned in a previous section of this work as undertaken from Bermuda early in the eighteenth century. The salt has excellent "curing" properties for meat and fish, and is yearly exported, to the United States, Canada, and Newfoundland, to the amount of 2 million bushels, worth about £31,000.

Other dependencies of Jamaica are the Cayman Islands, and the little groups styled the Morant Cays and Pedro Cays. The *Caymans* consist of three fertile coral islands to the north-west of Jamaica, with a total area of 225 sq. miles and a population of over 4300. *Grand Cayman*, 17 miles long, and from 4 to 7 miles in breadth, sends coco-nuts and turtle to Jamaica in schooners which bring back flour and other necessaries. The soil produces sugarcane and ground-foods apart from corn, and has good pasturage for the cattle which are reared. The group, discovered by Columbus, and by him called "Tortugas" from the abundance of turtle, the present chief product, was occupied by the British shortly after the conquest of Jamaica. Little Cayman and Cayman Brac, the other two islands, adjoining each other at about 70 miles north-east of Grand Cayman, are each 9 or 10 miles long by 1 in breadth, with a few hundreds of people, mostly whites. Affairs in the group are managed by the "Justices and Vestry", composed of magistrates appointed by the Governor of Jamaica, and vestrymen elected by the people. The *Morant Cays* and *Pedro Cays*, annexed by Great Britain in 1862 and 1863, and attached to Jamaica in 1882, are groups, respectively of three and four small islands, the former lying about 33 miles south-east of Morant Point, the eastern extremity of Jamaica, and the latter nearly 50 miles south-west of Portland Point, the southern extremity of the island. Both are rented for the collection of guano and sea-birds' eggs and for the catching of turtle.

The LEEWARD ISLANDS belonging to Great Britain comprise Antigua (with Barbuda and Redonda); St. Christopher (or St. Kitts), with Nevis and Anguilla; Dominica; Montserrat; and

some of the Virgin Islands, with Sombrero. By an act of 1871, the whole were made into one federal colony, divided into five Presidencies as given above. Each Presidency has its local Legislative and Executive Councils, and the federation is ruled by a Governor, aided by an Executive Council nominated by the Crown, and a Legislative Council of twenty members, ten nominated by the Crown and ten elected by the local Councils. The nominated members consist of the Colonial Secretary, the Attorney-General, the Auditor-General, and the President of St. Kitts-Nevis, with five unofficial members, one from each of the island-councils, and another President chosen by the Governor. The Council, constituted for not more than three years, meets once a year at St. John, in Antigua, for a session of two to four weeks' duration. The expenses of the federal establishments are shared by the Presidencies in amounts proportioned to population. Dealing first with the colony as a whole, we observe that in 1891 the population was nearly 128,000, of whom about 5000 were whites, over 23,000 coloured people, and nearly 100,000 were blacks. In 1881, the population of nearly 123,000 included 33,000 Anglicans, under the Bishop of Antigua and a "Co-adjutor Bishop"; 29,000 Roman Catholics, 30,000 Wesleyans, and 17,000 Moravians. Elementary education is given in denominational schools, with grants in aid from the local revenues of the several islands. In 1892, besides private schools, grammar-schools in Antigua, St. Kitts and Dominica, and a technical school in Montserrat, there were 131 aided schools, with 21,500 pupils. The climate of the islands varies, but is usually dry and fairly salubrious. The average rainfall of Antigua is 30 inches, the other islands having about double this amount in the rainy season from August to December. In regard to financial matters, the Colonial Bank has branches in Antigua, Dominica, and St. Kitts, and the Virgin Islands use the notes of the Danish Bank of St. Thomas. Government savings-banks have deposits of nearly £60,000. The usual currency is British silver, with some British, United States, and Spanish gold. There are no railways or internal telegraphs, but Antigua and St. Kitts have complete telephone systems. Steam-communication with the British Isles and the other West Indies is carried on by the vessels of the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company to and from Southampton, and there are fortnightly steamers of other lines to

the United States and British North America. A fast steamer, with good accommodation for passengers, and supported by the colonial government, runs between the various islands of the federation. Dominica, St. Kitts, and Antigua are connected by telegraph-cables with the Windward Islands, the United States, and Europe. There is local penny-postage for half-ounce letters, and the Postal Union charge of $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ for the same weight to the British Isles. No Imperial garrison is stationed on the islands, but small local forces (yeomanry cavalry and artillery) exist at Antigua and St. Kitts. The whole area of the colony is 701 sq. miles.

Antigua, with an area of 108 sq. miles, and a population, along with its dependencies Barbuda and Redonda (together $62\frac{1}{2}$ sq. miles), of about 37,000, of whom about 1800 are whites, lies in $61^{\circ} 45'$ west longitude, and just above 17° north latitude, at about the middle of the Leeward Islands, before they sweep round from a northerly to a north-westerly course. The island has a circuit of 54 miles, and the coast, deeply indented at many points by bays and creeks, is rendered dangerous to navigators by a border of islets, rocks, and shoals. With a length of 28 miles and about half that width, the surface is generally low-lying, though one hill attains a height of 1330 feet. A total lack of rivers and a scarcity of springs cause frequent droughts, a disadvantage which the government now seeks to meet by the conservation of supplies derived from the very variable rainfall. The olden forest has been almost cleared away, a fact to which the want of moisture is partly due. Historical events, in the nineteenth century, are confined to the decay of the sugar-industry, as in other islands, caused by the emancipation of the slaves, and to destructive earthquakes occurring in 1843 and 1874. Antigua has also had her full share of the hurricanes which, from time to time, ravage that region of the tropical world. The negroes are fairly industrious in field-labour, but, being very unthrifty, seldom rise to a higher position, as has been the case with recent Portuguese immigrants who, beginning as labourers, became in numerous cases small shop-keepers, and in some instances very wealthy men. The blacks, as a class, are orderly and quiet, but ignorant and very troublesome under the influence of alcoholic drink. The 20,000 acres now under tillage, comprised in about 100 estates, are chiefly devoted

to sugar-cane and pine-apples. In 1895 the exports, mainly of sugar and molasses, had a total value of £87,000, of which nearly all went to the United States and the Canadian Dominion. The imports of provisions and manufactured goods, worth nearly £145,000, were to the extent of £57,540 from the British Isles. In 1895, a revenue of £44,348, chiefly from import duties, faced an expenditure of £70,221 and a public debt of £138,000 (in 1890). Much of the land, under depression of the sugar-industry, lapsed into "bush", but enterprise and capital devoted to the rich volcanic soil, with areas of clay and marl, might raise profitable crops of cotton and fibrous plants. The capital, both of the island and of the federal colony, *St. John*, is a place of 10,000 people on the north-west coast, picturesquely situated on a slope towards a safe and capacious bay, with water only deep enough for vessels of moderate tonnage. English Harbour, with the small town of *Falmouth*, has deeper water with an excellent dockyard. The haven is really an extinct crater, entered through a narrow passage between low cliffs composed of ash and volcanic boulder, with the inner shore presenting caves eaten out of gray lava and ash, and rock of black lava dipping sheer into water several fathoms in depth. Ironclads can anchor close to the cliffs, which have an abundant growth of aloes in their arid clefts and crannies. A Governor or President, a Crown-appointed Executive Council and a Legislative Council of 24 members, half official and nominated, half elected, on a fairly high property or tenancy franchise, by about 350 voters in 11 electoral districts, form the ruling body of Antigua. *Barbuda*, lying 23 miles north of Antigua, is a coral-formed island, beset by reefs, and is 10 miles long by 8 broad, with an area of 62 sq. miles, and a population of 600. The place is very flat, with a large lagoon on the west, separated from the sea by a spit of sand; most of the surface is covered with dense forest, containing some of the wild deer now rare in the West Indies. The fertile soil produces good pasture for cattle which are sent to Antigua; the mineral products are salt and phosphates of lime worked by a private firm who lease the island from the Crown. Poultry are also reared for sale in neighbouring islands, and some corn, pepper, and tobacco are grown. *Redonda*, 25 miles south-west of Antigua, is a mere rock, 1 mile long by half a mile broad, rising to the height of 1000 feet, but has lately proved com-

mercially valuable for its mines of phosphate of alumina, worked by a company paying a royalty of 6*d.* per ton, and exporting about 7000 tons yearly to the United States.

The Presidency of St. Christopher (St. Kitts), Nevis, and Anguilla, had in 1891 a total population of nearly 48,000. *St. Christopher* or *St. Kitts*, lying about 25 miles north-west of Antigua, is 23 miles long by 5½ miles in greatest width, with an area of 68 sq. miles, and about 31,000 inhabitants. The appearance of the island is very picturesque, as the land sweeps up from the shore, first slowly, then rapidly and steeply, into a range of lofty rugged mountains, traversing the greater part of the oval surface from south-east to north-west, and culminating in Mount Misery, over 4000 feet above sea-level. On the south-west, between the mountains and the sea, the isolated conical Brimstone Hill towers up for 750 feet. The higher slopes of the mountains are grass-clad, and the summits are crowned with ironwood, Spanish ash, white box and other trees. The only wild creatures are the agouti, a small brownish-yellow rodent allied to the guinea-pig; the tortoise, and a breed of small monkeys in the hills and woods, which do mischief to the higher plantations. Horned cattle, sheep, and pigs, bred in the island, furnish meat of a fair quality, and there is an abundant supply of excellent fish. At the south-east of St. Kitts is a long neck of untilled land, rising into conical hills covered with grass, cacti, and mimosa; below them lie salt-ponds about 2 miles in circumference, from which about 14,000 barrels of salt are annually obtained. The island is of volcanic origin, Mount Misery being a pyramid of black lava, below which lies a deep hollow, walled in by precipices whose fissures emit steam and sulphur fumes. The whole soils of the island have been formed by the lava and ash ejected from this volcanic focus, carried down to the lowland by tropical rains, and of great fertility and easily worked by the hoe and plough. The climate is very healthy and agreeable, with a range of 78 to 84 degrees. The occasional droughts, severely felt by so porous a soil, are the only drawback to the very advanced, scientific, and industrious tillage of the land by people who, using the hoe wherever a foothold may be had on the slopes, push their cane-fields up the sides of the hills, and liberally use native and foreign manures. About 16,000 acres are given to the sugar-cane, the making of the sugar being now per-

formed by the steam-power that has replaced the old wind and cattle mills. Sweet-potatoes, arrowroot, cassava or manioc, ground-nuts, coffee, tobacco, and various fruits are also grown. One main macadamized road, 30 miles long, runs round the island, which possesses no harbours, commerce being conducted at two roadsteads for large vessels. The capital, *Basseterre*, with about 7000 people, lies on the seaboard of a spacious and fertile plain below the semicircular chief range of mountains. The other towns are Old Road and Sandy Point. In 1895, the value of all exports in sugar, molasses, and rum, from St. Kitts and Nevis, was about £140,500, of which the British Isles had only £9350 worth, most of the sugar going to the United States. On the whole imports, provisions and manufactured goods worth £172,280, the British share was £65,538. With a public debt of £74,650, the revenue of the three islands in 1895 was £43,200, mostly from import-duties, against an expenditure of about £56,000. The Presidency, with a Governor, has an Executive Council nominated by the Crown, and a Legislative Council of 10 official and 10 nominated unofficial members.

Nevis, a round island with an area of 50 sq. miles, and a population (1891) just exceeding 13,000, lies 2 miles south-east of St. Christopher. A large part of the surface is occupied by a mountain of volcanic origin, with a wooded ancient crater rising in a conical peak to 3200 feet, and by two lower hills to right and left. The lava and ash, sliding down in concave slopes of fertile soil, have made about 16,000 acres, or half the whole area, fit for tillage. The slave-emancipation dealt more severely with this island than with any other of our West Indian colonies. A complete collapse of credit was followed by drought and pestilence, and for many years Nevis was a ruined spot of British territory. About 1865 the introduction of fresh capital, well employed, brought a revival of prosperity. All labour is engaged at good wages (2s. 8d. per day) for that region; many former paid-workmen have become small proprietors; and the island, where the soil is chiefly devoted to the sugar-cane, with some small growth of delicious tangerine oranges and of limes, is a model of modest prosperity in both public and private finance. Communication with St. Kitts is carried on between Basseterre, 12 miles distant, and *Charlestown*, the capital of Nevis, situated on a wide bay in

the north-west, at the foot of the mountain. The population is 1600; this little "port of registry", in 1891, possessed one vessel, of 136 tons register. Drought is the chief foe of the island-planters, who mainly depend for supplies of necessary moisture on the mountain-springs.

Anguilla ("little snake", from its long winding shape) lies about 60 miles north of St. Kitts, from which it is separated by the French island, St. Bartholomew, and the Dutch-French island, St. Martin, near to its southern shore. Sixteen miles long, and from three to one and a half in breadth, Anguilla has an area of 35 sq. miles and 3700 inhabitants, including about 100 whites. The surface is very flat, and has extensive pasture for the ponies and cattle. Phosphate of lime, and salt obtained from a lake in the centre of the island, are exported. Garden-stock is raised, and sold at the Danish island of St. Thomas, about 120 miles to the west. The place is very healthy; tillage is hampered by a deficiency of water. The revenue of about £550, derived from import-duties and licences, just balances the expenditure. A stipendiary magistrate, appointed by the Crown, and a vestry of four nominated members (including the magistrate, who presides) and three elected members, exercise rule; justice in criminal and civil affairs is administered at the magistrate's court and a small debt court, subject to the Supreme Court of the Leeward Islands. The place has been in British possession since 1650, and has no history save certain inroads of the French during the great war. To the north-west lie Anguilla's dependencies *The Dogs*, and off the north-east coast is another islet, Anguilletta, or "little Anguilla".

Dominica, the largest and most southerly of the British Leeward Islands, lies between $15^{\circ} 20'$ and $15^{\circ} 45'$ north latitude, and $61^{\circ} 13'$ and $61^{\circ} 30'$ west longitude, midway between the French islands Guadeloupe, due north, and Martinique, south-east. Running north and south, with a central bend to north-west, the island, about 29 miles long, and 16 in extreme width, has an area of 291 sq. miles, and a population of nearly 27,000, mostly negroes. The three or four hundred whites are chiefly of French origin, and two-thirds of the people speak a French *patois*. There are also about 300 Caribs, rapidly being absorbed by the black element. The religion is mainly Roman Catholic; the Anglicans are under

the Bishop of Antigua. The low death-rate of under 16 per thousand as annual average proves the healthiness of the climate, with a yearly mean of 79 degrees on the coast, and a rainfall, distributed throughout the year, of 83 inches. In the early years of the nineteenth century, Dominica saw some stirring events. In 1805, the French, under Villeneuve as admiral, and General La Grange, landed in force on each flank of Roseau, the capital. A brave defence was made by the regular troops and the island-militia, but the town was accidentally burned, and the inhabitants were forced to surrender, paying £12,000 to the invaders as ransom, while the soldiers retreated to a strong position on the other side of the island. The enemy then abandoned their conquest. This disaster was followed in 1806 by a hurricane of most destructive violence. The subsequent history of the island, after a course of peaceful development, has been marked by a decline of prosperity in strong contrast to the condition of her flourishing neighbours Martinique and Guadeloupe. In the later Georgian period, there were large exports of coffee, sugar, molasses and rum, but the decline of price in sugar, and the lack of the capital, enterprise, energy, and skill needful to make new products pay, have made Dominica a comparative failure among our West Indian isles. Long political unrest preceded a change in the constitution of the local Legislature in 1866. After the federal union of 1872, little improvement occurred, and in October, 1894, on the grounds that the island had long ceased to be prosperous or the people contented, the Colonial Secretary, the Marquis of Ripon, conferred a larger measure of autonomy in local affairs. A resident officer was appointed as "Administrator", and the Legislative Assembly was re-constituted as one composed of 7 elected members, 4 nominated unofficial, and 3 nominated official members. At the same time, the sum of £30,000 was to be raised by loan to pay off the floating debt, and other reforms were made in the system of rule.

Volcanic origin is abundantly shown by the existence of many "solfataras", or craters emitting sulphureous gases, steam, and other vapours, with large accumulations of sulphur lying around. In 1880 there was a great eruption of volcanic ash from the "Boiling Lake", of unknown depth, at the southern end of the island, and the lake was thereby almost destroyed, along with 6 square miles

of forest. The appearance of Dominica is truly magnificent to the eye of a voyager approaching any part of its hundred miles of coast. A dark irregular mass of mountains, in a chain that extends over the whole length of the island, covering nearly half the surface, and attaining at one point a height exceeding 6000 feet, presents deep ravines with overhanging cliffs, noble forests and luxuriant vegetation of the tropical class, with shining vales and clear running streams in the narrow region between the hills and the sea. From the shore to the mountain-tops, at most points, nearly all is verdure of diverse hues. Deep bays here and there indent the bold rocky coast, and high ranges of cliffs, on the north-eastern or windward side, broken by valleys and ravines, rise steeply from the water's edge. Beautiful to the traveller and the artist, the rugged character of the country has been a great impediment to the settlers in so warm a climate, confining tillage generally to the coast-line and the lower slopes of the hills. Of late years, something has been done to remedy the want of inland-communications, especially in the centre of the island, where a break in the mountain-system affords a fine tract of well-watered land above 30 square miles in extent. It is remarkable that the forest-clad interior, supplying a rich field of investigation for the botanist, remains almost as unknown ground as when Columbus first sighted the island. There is an abundance of valuable timber for useful and ornamental purposes, of which logwood, various hard woods, satin and other cabinet woods, are exported to some extent. Game exists in plenty, and the many rivers and streams have a wealth of fish. Wild bees, of European origin, furnish large supplies of honey and wax. Most of the peasants are breeders of poultry, and the ample supply of fresh meat and vegetables renders living cheap.

The fertile soil, alluvial in the bottoms of the larger valleys, and a clayey loam of decomposed rock in other parts, is the material of the chief industry—the tillage which produces sugar, cacao, fruit, coffee, limes, and some ginger, cloves, cinnamon, nutmegs, arrowroot and cassava, the flour of this last being largely used for food by all classes in Dominica, Guadeloupe, and Martinique. Cacao presents a good prospect as an article of commerce, and the export of lime-juice is increasing. The chief export in 1801 was coffee, but great havoc was wrought by insects, and it is only of late years that the more vigorous Liberian species has been found

capable of resisting the plague. There is an export of oranges to New York, and a luxuriant growth of bananas, pine-apples, coconuts, and other tropical fruits. Some essential oils are made in the island, and sent to the States and the British Isles, and the bayrum now so much used by perfumers and hairdressers as exported from the Danish island of St. Thomas, is mostly made in Dominica by distillation from the leaves of the pimento or allspice. There are handicrafts in basket-work and making of canoes by hollowing out trees, both derived from the Caribs; in making sacks from the fan-palm and in coarse pottery. The chief town is *Roseau*, on the south-west coast, with a population of about 4500. The revenue, in 1895, was £22,859, against an expenditure of £27,100. The exports, in 1895, had a value of £39,470, an improvement since 1891; of the whole amount, about one-half went to the British Isles. The imports, in the same year, with a steadily increasing value, reached £69,790, of which goods worth £30,000 went out from the United Kingdom.

Montserrat, the most charming, as many aver, and probably the most healthy island of the Antilles, lies 27 miles south-west of Antigua. With a length of 11 miles, and a breadth of 7, the island has an area of 32 sq. miles, and a population (1891) of 11,762. Most of the people are of the Anglican Church, with a few hundred Roman Catholics, and about 2500 Wesleyans. The only historical note for Montserrat in the nineteenth century is the very satisfactory progress made since 1870, when an enlightened and enterprising firm of Quaker gentlemen, the Messrs. Sturge, established a large plantation of limes and a manufactory of lime-juice. From that time the island entered on a new course of improvement and prosperity. The zigzag roads, up hill and down glen, of the mountainous land, have been macadamized, and drained by masonry culverts and surface-work. The sugar-works have, on most estates, had the old windmills and cattle-mills replaced by steam-machinery. The population has grown from the proved salubrity of the climate and the establishment of a class of small freeholders of land. The Government have shown a wise liberality in providing free medical attendance and medicines for all labourers' children under ten years of age, and for all needy persons above sixty, and in founding a very good system of elementary education with liberal grants from the public funds.

This rugged little territory mainly consists of a cluster of volcanic mountain-tops rising to a height of 3000 feet in Souffrière Hill at the south. There are several peaks above 2500 feet among the chain which displays dense primeval forest on the upper slopes and summit, and landscape of rare charm in the varied greens of the cultivated slopes, chiefly on the western and south-eastern sides of the island, covered with sugar-canes, Guinea grass, and limes. At some points, variety is given to the view by precipitous sides and deep ravines. The temperature has an annual range from 72 to 84 degrees; the rainfall is about 56 inches up to 500 feet, increasing to 80 inches at higher levels. No hurricane has ever done much damage. The deep fertile soil, varying from light sandy loam to stiff clay, contains a large element of iron, and, tilled equally by the hoe and plough with care and skill, produces, in addition to the canes and limes, all the chief West Indian fruits and vegetables. The palm which produces the "mountain cabbage", a rival of asparagus in delicate flavour, grows freely on the hills, and the forests afford valuable drugs such as sarsaparilla, quassia, and cascarilla bark, a tonic and astringent. The chief commercial products are sugar, molasses, rum, and lime-juice. This last article is of the highest reputation, supplied to the extent, some years ago, of 100,000 gallons, all shipped to a single firm in Liverpool by the Montserrat Company, the chief proprietors in this line, who have now above 1000 acres of lime-trees, mostly in the north of the island. The bulk of trade is about equally divided between the British Isles and the United States. In 1895, the total exports had the value of £17,390, of which nearly £11,000 worth went to the United Kingdom. The imports of bread-stuffs, hardware, machinery, household sundries, and pine-timber exceeded £22,700, of which about £10,000 was due to the home-country. The revenue, in 1895, was £7125, with an expenditure of £10,700 and a public debt of over £18,000. The government is in charge of the Resident Magistrate, also a Commissioner of the Supreme Court whose three judges go on circuit to each island of the Leeward federation. He is assisted by a Legislative Council of not more than six members, official and unofficial, nominated by the Crown. The chief town, *Plymouth*, with a population of about 1500, lies on the south-west coast, on the shore of an open roadstead with good anchorage. Springs afford an

excellent supply of water, which is furnished to ships at a moderate charge.

The group called the *Virgin Islands*, about fifty in number, lie at the north-western extremity of the Lesser Antilles, in about 19° north latitude, and 65° west longitude. Denmark holds St. Thomas, St. John, and Ste. Croix (or Santa Cruz); Spain possesses Bieque or Crab Island, and Culebra. Of the thirty-two islands or so that belong to the British Empire, the chief are Tortola, Virgin Gorda, Anegada, Peter's Island, Salt Island, and Jost Van Dyke, the whole British possessions having an area of 58 sq. miles, with a population (1891, diminished from 5287 in 1881) of 4639. A few score only of these are whites, the vast majority being negroes or "coloured people". The only recent history connected with this thick-lying archipelago of islets and rocks is the occurrence of two hurricanes. On October 29th, 1867, a fearful storm blew from 11 in the morning till 3 in the afternoon, with considerable loss of life to the people, and almost utter destruction of buildings and tillage. At the chief town, two-thirds of the houses were blown down; the jail, church, Wesleyan chapel, pier, school-house, hospital, and poor-house were ruined; the trees and crops were swept away or rendered useless. In August, 1871, the islands again suffered very severely from a like visitation, and have never fully recovered from these disasters.

With a lower average temperature, and a more healthy climate, than most of the West Indies; a generally rugged surface, partly covered with forests that contain mahogany, fustic, and other useful trees; having excellent pasturage for cows, sheep, and goats, and an abundant growth of Guinea-grass on the hill-sides; the British Virgin Islands, less popularly known than almost all other parts of the Empire, have a solitary and neglected existence, communicating with outward civilization only by the small sailing-craft which carry on a little trade with the Danish islands, and come in touch at St. Thomas with the vessels of the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company. There is a little growth of cotton and sugar-cane; some fishing; a modest rearing of poultry and cattle; a small production of charcoal in the woods. The sugar-cane growth of former days, carried on with great toil expended on the rocky hill-sides of Tortola and Virgin Gorda, came to an end, as a commercial industry, with the lowering of prices in the middle of

the nineteenth century. The inhabitants of the group are now the productions most worthy of remark, for their qualities and their social condition. These blacks and coloured folk are the finest men in the whole of the West Indies, bringing great credit to the emancipation plan of allowing human beings, as free agents, to work out their own economical and social regeneration. They are the owners, as peasant-proprietors, of most of the land, and there are few that do not possess some soil and stock. Working for themselves, they produce what is their own; they enjoy a modest honourably independent position, generally as far removed from pauperism as from affluence; they dwell in comfortable homes; they dress well in their hours of ease; they contribute to the support of the church. In manners and in natural intelligence, the Virgin Islanders under the rule of the Queen surpass most of the West Indian coloured people, and, by the constant practice of navigation amongst the dangerous reefs and currents of surrounding seas, the men have become daring, hardy, and skilful mariners who would be most valuable in our West Indian squadron.

Tortola, with an area of 26 sq. miles, is wholly made up of hills, some rising above 1500 feet above sea-level. The capital of the group, *Roadtown*, with about 400 people, and a score of registered vessels, having a total of 800 to 900 tons, lies on the south coast. *Virgin Gorda*, 10 sq. miles in area, is hilly and barren at its eastern end. *Anegada*, the most northerly of the group, 18 miles north of Virgin Gorda, is a low-lying isle of coral formation, 12 miles long by over 2 in breadth, with a population of about 300. Some cattle and sheep are reared for the markets of St. Thomas. Mariners are now warned of their approach to the dangers of the reefs which beset Anegada by a lighthouse on the island of *Sombbrero*, to the east. This little British possession, not attached to any group in a political sense, has very large and valuable deposits of phosphate of lime. The only inhabitants are Board of Trade officials connected with the lighthouse, maintained at a yearly cost of over £500 on this prominent islet, lying directly in the track of navigators from the Lesser Antilles to the Bahamas. The exports of the Virgin Islands, in 1895, had a value of £3818; the imports, chiefly of food-stuffs, were worth £4576. The revenue (£1533 in 1895) is mainly derived from a high and unpopular duty on food-

imports; the expenditure was, in the same year, nearly £2000. The government, under that of the Leeward Islands, and a local "administrator", is vested in a small official Executive Council, and a Legislative Council of mixed official and non-official nominated members.

END OF VOL. V.

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