caused, despite also of the passage of the Coercion Bill (1887), the majority of the more intelligent and thoughtful of the Irish people had faith in the logic of events. They believed it would ultimately obtain for them the full enjoyment of those political rights which England so fully possesses. It will be seen (§ 656) that recent legislation has justified their faith.[1]

645. The Leading Names in Science, Literature, and Art. — In the progress of science the present age has had no equal in the past history of England, except in the discovery of the law of gravitation by Sir Isaac Newton (§ 533). That great thinker demonstrated that all forms of matter, great or small, near or distant, are governed by one universal law. In like manner the researches of the past fifty years have virtually established the belief that all material forms, whether living or not, obey an equally universal law of development, by which the higher are derived from the lower through a succession of gradual but progressive changes.

This conception originated long before the beginning of the Victorian era, but it lacked the acknowledged support of carefully examined facts, and was regarded by most sensible men as a plausible but untenable idea. The thinker who did more than any other to supply the facts, and to put the theory, so far as it relates to natural history, on a solid and lasting foundation, was the distinguished English naturalist, Charles Darwin.[2] At his death (1882) he found an honored resting-place in Westminster Abbey, near the graves of the well-known geologist, Sir Charles Lyell, and Livingstone, the African explorer.

On his return (1837) from a voyage of scientific discovery round the world, Darwin began to examine and classify the facts which he had collected, and continued to collect, relating to natural history. After twenty-two years of uninterrupted labor he published a work ("The Origin of Species") (1859), in which he

[1] See Summary of Constitutional History in the Appendix, page xxviii, § 33.

[2] Alfred Russel Wallace, also noted as a naturalist, worked out the theory of evolution by "natural selection" about the same time, though not so fully, with respect to details, as Darwin; as each of these investigators arrived at his conclusions independently of the other, the theory was thus doubly confirmed.

aimed to show that animal life owes its course of development to the struggle for existence and "the survival of the fittest."

Darwin's work may truthfully be said to have wrought a revolution in the study of nature as great as that accomplished by Newton in the seventeenth century (§ 533). Though calling forth the most heated and prolonged discussion, the Darwinian theory has gradually made its way, and is now generally received, though sometimes in a modified form, by nearly every eminent man of science throughout the world.

A little later than the date at which Mr. Darwin began his researches, Sir William Grove, an eminent electrician, commenced a series of experiments which have led to a great change in our conceptions of matter and force. He showed that heat, light, and electricity are mutually convertible; that they must be regarded as modes of motion; and, finally, that all force is persistent and indestructible,[1] thus proving, as Professor Tyndall says, that "to nature, nothing can be added; from nature, nothing can be taken away." Together, these, with kindred discoveries, have resulted in the theory of evolution, or development, which Herbert Spencer and others have endeavored to make the basis of a system of philosophy embracing the whole field of nature and life.

In literature so many names of note are found that the mere enumeration of them would be impracticable here. It will be sufficient to mention the novelists, Dickens, Thackeray, Brontë, and "George Eliot"; the historians, Stubbs, Hallam, Arnold, Grote, Macaulay, Alison, Buckle, Froude, Freeman, and Gardiner; the essayists, Carlyle, Landor, and De Quincey; the poets, Browning and Tennyson; the philosophical writers, Hamilton, Mill, and Spencer; with Lyell, Faraday, Carpenter, Tyndall, Huxley, Darwin, Wallace, and Lord Kelvin in science; John Ruskin, the eminent art-critic; and in addition, the chief artists of the period, Millais, Rossetti, Burne-Jones, Watts, and Hunt.

646. The Queen's Jubilee (1887), and her "Diamond Jubilee" (1897); Review of Sixty Years of English History (1837–1897). — In the summer of 1887 Queen Victoria celebrated the fiftieth

[1] See An Essay on the Correlation of Physical Forces, by W. R. Grove.

year of her reign; ten years later (June 22, 1897) the nation spontaneously rose to do honor to her "Diamond Jubilee." The splendid military pageant which marked that event in London was far more than a brilliant show, for it demonstrated the enthusiastic loyalty of the English people and of the English colonies.

The real meaning of the occasion is best sought in a review of the record of the past threescore years. They have been, in large degree, a period of progress; perhaps, in fact, no similar period in European history has been so "crowded with benefit to humanity."

When Victoria came to the throne in her nineteenth year (1837) she found the kingdom seething with discontent, and the province of Canada approaching rebellion. In business circles reckless speculation and the bursting of "Bubble Companies" had been followed by "tight money" and "hard times." Among the poor matters were far worse. Wages were low, work was scarce, bread was dear. In the cities half-fed multitudes lived in cellars; in the country the same class occupied wretched cottages hardly better than cellars.[1]

The "New Poor Law" (§ 455),[2] which had recently gone into effect (1834), eventually accomplished much good; but for a time it forced many laborers into the workhouse. This result

1 See Cobbett's Rural Rides, 1821–1832.

2 The "New Poor Law" (§ 455): between 1691 and 1834 the administration of relief for the poor was in the hands of justices of the peace, who gave aid indiscriminately to those who begged for it. In 1795 wages for ordinary laborers were so low that the justices resolved to grant an allowance to every poor family in accordance with its numbers. The result of this mistaken kindness was speedily seen; employers cut down wages to the starvation point, knowing that the magistrates would give help out of the poor fund. The consequence was that the tax rate for relief of the poor rose to a degree that became unbearable.

The "New Poor Law" of 1834 effected a sweeping reform: 1. It forbade outdoor relief to the able-bodied poor, and thus, in the end, compelled the employer to give better wages (but outdoor relief is now frequently granted). 2. It restricted aid to that given in workhouses, where the recipient, if in good health, was obliged to labor in return for what he received. 3. It greatly reduced the expense of supporting the poor by uniting parishes in workhouse "unions." 4. It modified the old rigid Law of Settlement, thereby making it possible for those seeking employment to take their labor to the best market.

aggravated the suffering and discontent, and the predominant feeling of the day may be seen reflected in the pages of Dickens, Kingsley, and Carlyle.[1]

Notwithstanding the passage of the Reform Bill (1832) (§ 625), political power was still held chiefly by men of property who distrusted the masses of the people. They feared that the widespread distress would culminate in riots, if not in open insurrection.

The Chartist movement (§ 634), which speedily began (1838), seemed to justify their apprehension. But the dreaded revolt never came; the evils of the times were gradually alleviated and, in some cases, cured. Confidence slowly took the place of distrust and fear. When, in June, 1897, the Queen's "Diamond Jubilee" procession moved from Buckingham Palace to St. Paul's, and thence through one of the poorest quarters of London, none of the dense mass that filled the streets cheered more lustily than those who must always earn their daily bread by their daily toil.

The explanation of this marvellous change is to be found in the progress of good government, the extension of popular rights, and the advance of material improvements. Let us consider these changes in their natural order.

647. The Broadening of the Basis of Suffrage (1832–1894).[2]— We have already described the far-reaching effects of the Reform Bill (§ 625) of 1832, which granted representation in Parliament to a number of large towns hitherto without a voice in the National Legislature. Three years later (1835) came the Municipal Reform Act. It placed the government of towns, with the exception of London,[3] in the hands of the tax-payers who lived in them.

This radical measure put a stop to the arbitrary and corrupt

1 See Dickens' Oliver Twist (1838); Carlyle's Chartism (1839); and Kingsley's Yeast, and Alton Locke (1849).

2 See Summary of Constitutional History in the Appendix, page xxvi, § 31.

3 London proper, a district covering about a square mile, and once enclosed by walls, is still governed by a lord mayor, court of aldermen, and a common council elected mainly by members of the "city" companies, representing the mediæval trade guilds (§ 326). The metropolis outside the "city" is governed by the London County Council and by the Vestries or Parish Councils, elected by the men and women residing in the parishes.

management which had existed when the town officers elected themselves and held their positions for life (§ 640). Furthermore, it prevented parliamentary candidates from buying up the entire municipal vote, — a thing which frequently happened so long as the towns were under the absolute control of a few individuals.

A generation passed before the next important step was taken. Then, as we have seen, the enactment of the Second Reform Bill (1867) (§ 640) doubled the number of voters in England. The next year an act reduced the property qualification for suffrage in Scotland and Ireland; thus the ballot was largely increased throughout the United Kingdom.

The Third Reform Act (1884) (§ 640) granted the right of suffrage to more than two million persons, chiefly of the agricultural and laboring classes. Since that date, whether the Liberals or the Conservatives[1] have been in power, "the country," as Professor Gardiner says, "has been under democratic influence."

But though these acts wrought an immense change by transferring political power from the hands of the few to the nation at large, further progress in this direction was destined to come soon. Originally the government of the shires, or counties, was in the hands of the people; they gradually lost it, and the wealthy landed proprietors obtained control. The Local Government, or County Councils, Act (1888) restored the power in great measure to those who had parted with it, by putting the management of county affairs under the direction of a council elected by the householders of the shire. This council looks after the highways, the sanitary condition of towns, the education of children, and the care of the poor.

Six years later (1894) the principle of self-government was carried almost to the farthest point by the passage of the Parish Councils Bill. This did for small local populations what the

[1] In 1832 the Whigs (§ 531), who were divided into a moderate and a radical faction, took the name of Liberals, and the Tories (§ 531), who found their old name unpopular, adopted that of Conservatives.

Local Government Act did for the counties. It gave back to them certain rights which they once possessed, but which had been usurped by the squire, the parson, and a few privileged families.

Now every man and woman who has resided in the parish for a twelvemonth has the right, not only to vote for the members of the Parish Council, but to run as candidate for election to that body. This village parliament discusses all questions which are of public interest to the parish. It is in some respects more democratic even than a New England town-meeting, since it gives women a voice, a vote, and opportunity to hold office. Its work supplements that of the County Council and the National Parliament.

648. Overthrow of the "Spoils System"; the Army; the "Secret Ballot" (1870–1872). — Meanwhile reforms not less important had been effected in the management of the civil service. The ancient power of the Crown to give fat pensions to its favorites had been pared down to the most modest proportions, but another great abuse still flourished like an evil weed in a rich soil.

For generations public offices had been regarded as public plunder, and the watchword of the politicians was, "Every man for himself, and the National Treasury for us all." Under this system of pillage the successful party in an election came down like a flock of vultures after a battle. They secured all the "spoils," from petty clerkships worth £100 a year up to places worth thousands.

About the middle of the century (1855) an effort was made to break up this corrupt and corrupting custom, but the real work was not accomplished until 1870. In that year England threw open the majority of the positions in the civil service to competitive examination. Henceforth the poorest day-laborer, whether man or woman, might, if competent, ask for any one of many places which formerly some political "boss" reserved as gifts for those who had obeyed his commands.

The next year (1871) the purchase of commissions in the

army was abolished.[1] This established the merit system in the ranks, and now military honors and military offices are open to all who can earn them.

The Registration Act (1843) suppressed election frauds to a large extent. It was supplemented (1872) by the introduction of the "secret ballot" (§ 634).[2] This did away with the intimidation of voters and put an end to the free fights and riots which had so frequently made the polls a political pandemonium.

649. Reforms in Law Procedures and the Administration of Justice; Treatment of the Insane. — Since the late Queen's accession great changes for the better have been effected in simplifying the laws and in the administration of justice. When she came to the throne the Parliamentary Statutes at Large filled fifty-five huge folio volumes, and the Common Law, as contained in judicial decisions, dating from the time of Edward II (1307), filled about twelve hundred more. The work of examining, digesting, and consolidating this enormous mass of legislative and legal lore was taken in hand (1863) and has been happily progressing ever since.

The Judicature Acts (1873, 1877) united the chief courts in a single High Court of Justice. This reform did away with much confusion and expense. But the most striking changes for the better have been those made in the Court of Chancery (§ 195) and the criminal courts.

In 1825 the property belonging to suitors in the former court amounted to nearly forty millions of pounds.[3] The simplest case required a dozen years for its settlement, while difficult ones consumed a lifetime, or more, and were handed down from father to son, — a legacy of baffled hopes, of increasing expense, of mental suffering worse than that of hereditary disease.

Much has been done to remedy these evils, which Dickens set forth with such power in his novel of "Bleak House." At one

[1] Up to 1871 an officer retiring from the army could sell his commission to any officer next below him in rank who had the money to buy the position; whereas under the present system the vacancy would necessarily fall to senior officers in the line of promotion. [2] The Bribery Act of 1883 was another important measure.

[3] See Walpole's History of England, Vol. III.

time they seemed so utterly hopeless that it was customary for a prize-fighter, when he had got his opponent's neck twisted under his arm, and held him absolutely helpless, to declare that he had his head "in chancery"!

In criminal courts an equal reform has taken place, and men accused of burglary and murder are now allowed to have counsel to defend them; whereas, up to the era of the coronation of Victoria, they were obliged to plead their own cases as best they might against skilled public prosecutors, who used every resource known to the law to convict them.

Great changes for the better have also taken place in the treatment of the insane. Until near the close of the last century, this unfortunate class was quite generally regarded as possessed by demons, and dealt with accordingly. William Tuke, a member of the Society of Friends, inaugurated a better system (1792); but the old method continued for many years longer. In fact, we have the highest authority for saying that down to a late period in the present century the inmates of many asylums were worse off than the most desperate criminals.

They were shut up in dark, and often filthy, cells, where "they were chained to the wall, flogged, starved, and not infrequently killed."[1] Since then, all mechanical restraints have, as a rule, been abolished, and the patients are generally treated with the care and kindness which their condition demands.

650. Progress in the Education of the Masses; the Universities; Religious Toleration. — Since 1837 the advance in popular education has equalled that made in the extension of suffrage and in civil-service reform. When Victoria began her reign a very large proportion of the children of the poor were growing up in a state of barbarism. Practically they knew little more of books or schools than the young Hottentots of South Africa.

The marriage register shows that as late as 1840 forty per cent of the Queen's adult subjects could not write their names in the book; by the close of her reign (1901) the number who had to "make their mark" in that interesting volume was only about

[1] Encyclopædia Britannica, 9th ed., "Insanity."

one in ten. This proves, as Lord Brougham said, that "the schoolmaster" has been "abroad" in the land.

The national system of education began, 1870, with the opening of what are popularly known as the "Board Schools" (§ 641). Later, the Assisted Education Act (1891) made provision for those who had not means to pay even a few pence a week for instruction. This law puts the key of knowledge within reach of every child in England, so that elementary education there is now as free to the poor as it is in the United States.

The universities have felt the new impulse. The abolition of religious tests for degrees at Oxford and Cambridge (1871) threw open the doors of those venerable seats of learning to students of every faith (§ 641). Since then colleges for women have been established at Oxford and in the vicinity of Cambridge, and the "university extension" examinations, with "college settlements" in London and other large cities, have long been doing excellent work.

The religious toleration granted in the universities was in accord with the general movement of the age. It will be remembered that the Catholics were admitted to sit in Parliament (§ 618) late in the reign of George IV (1829), and that under Victoria the Jews were admitted (1858) to the same right (§ 640). Finally, Mr. Bradlaugh carried his "Oaths Bill" through Parliament (1888), and so opened the National Legislature to persons, not only of all religious beliefs, but of none.

In the meantime the compulsory payment of rates for the support of the Church of England had been abolished (1868) (§ 641); and the next year (1869) was made memorable by the just and generous act by which Mr. Gladstone disestablished the Irish branch of the English Church (§ 641).

651. Transportation and Communication. — When the Queen ascended the throne, the locomotive (§ 627) was threatening to supersede the stage coach; but the progress of steam as a motor power on land had not been rapid, and England then had less than two hundred miles of railway open;[1] there are now about

[1] A part of what is now the London and Northwestern Railway.

twenty-two thousand. The passenger accommodation was limited. Those who could indulge in such luxuries sometimes preferred to travel in their own private carriages placed on platform cars for transportation. For those who took first-class tickets there were excellent and roomy compartments at very high prices. The second-class fared tolerably well, but the unfortunate third-class were crowded like cattle into open trucks, without seats, and with no roofs to keep the rain out. All this has changed, and the workingman can now fly through the country at the rate of fifty miles an hour, for a penny a mile, and can have all the comforts that a reasonable being should ask for.

Cheap postage (§ 633) came in (1840) with the extension of railways. Every letter, for the first time, carried on it a stamp bearing a portrait of the young Queen, and in this way the English people came to know her better than they had ever known any preceding sovereign.

Half a dozen years later the telegraph made instantaneous communication possible. The Government now owns all the lines, and by the outlay of sixpence one can send a brief despatch to any part of the United Kingdom.

652. Light in Dark Places; Photography; Ether and the New Surgery (1834–1847). — The invention of the friction match (1834) (§ 627), the abolition of the tax on windows (1851) (§ 637), with the introduction of American petroleum, speedily dispelled the almost subterraneous gloom of the laborer's cottage. Meanwhile photography had revealed the astonishing fact that the sun is always ready, not only to make a picture, but to take one, and that nothing is so humble as to be beneath his notice.

News came across the Atlantic from Boston (1846) that Dr. Morton had rendered surgery painless by the use of ether. Before a year passed the English hospitals were employing the anæsthetic. Sir James Y. Simpson introduced chloroform (1847). They have abolished the terror of the surgeon's knife, and have lengthened life by making it possible to perform a class of operations which few patients had been able to bear.

A score of years later Sir Joseph Lister called attention to

antiseptic methods in surgery. They have suggested precautions, formerly unknown, by which multitudes of lives have been saved.

653. Progress of the Laboring Classes; Free Trade. — At the date of the Queen's accession an enormous mass of laws existed restricting trade and the free action of workingmen. Only three years before Victoria's coronation six poor agricultural laborers in Dorsetshire were transported (1834) to penal servitude at Botany Bay, Australia, for seven years, for peacefully combining to secure an increase of their miserable wages of six shillings a week. In fact, the so-called "Conspiracy Laws," which made labor unions liable to prosecution, were not wholly repealed until the nineteenth century was far advanced.

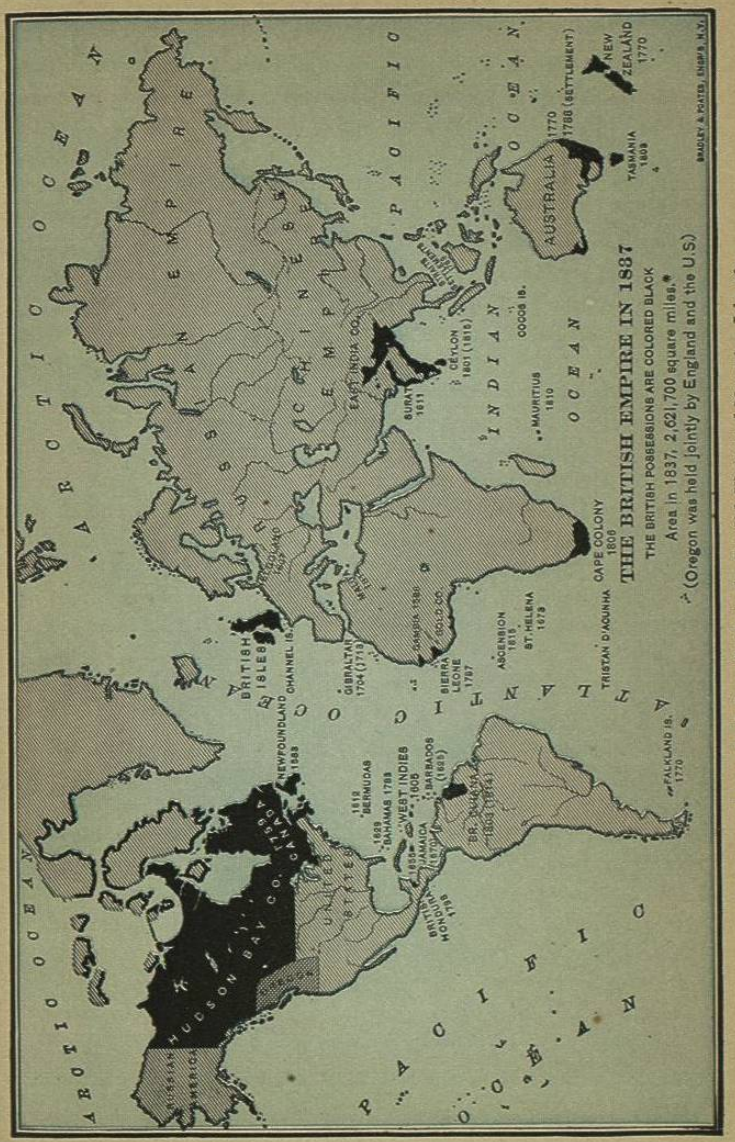
Then (1871–1876) the Trades Union Acts recognized the right of workingmen to form associations to protect their interests by the use of all lawful measures.[1] Since that time trades unions have gained very largely in numbers and financial strength. In many ways, in connection with the Coöperative Societies and Stores, they have accomplished great good.

They will accomplish more still if they succeed in teaching their members to study the condition of industry in England, to respect the action of those workers who do not join associations, and to see clearly that "if men have a right to combine," they must also "have an equal right to refuse to combine."

In 1837 the English Corn Laws (§ 635) virtually shut out the importation of grain from foreign countries. The population had outgrown its food supply, and bread was so dear that even the agricultural laborer cried out. "I be protected," said he, "but I be starving." The long and bitter fight against the Corn Laws resulted not only in their gradual abolition (1846), but in the opening of English ports to the products and manufactures of the world. With the exception of tobacco, wines, spirits, and a few other articles, all imports enter the kingdom free.

But though Great Britain carries out Peel's theory, — that it is

[1] One result of the trades unions has been the shortening of the hours of labor. In 1894 the Government announced an eight-hour day for workingmen in dockyards and in ordnance factories.



* This area is given by J. Scott Keltie in the *English Illustrated Magazine*, July, 1897.

better to make things cheap for the sake of those who buy them, rather than dear for the sake of those who produce them, — yet all of the English colonies, with the exception of New South Wales, impose protective duties even against British products. One of the interesting questions suggested by the Queen's "Diamond Jubilee" (1897) (§ 646) was whether England's children in Australia, New Zealand, and Canada would take any steps toward forming a commercial free-trade union with the mother-country.

654. The Small Agricultural Holdings Act; the Agricultural Outlook. — Through the influence of the greatly increased popular vote, which resulted from the Third Reform Act (§ 647), the farm laborers made themselves felt in the House of Commons. They secured the passage of the Small Agricultural Holdings Act (1892). This gave those who worked on the land the privilege of purchasing from one to fifty acres, or of taking it on lease if they preferred.[1] But, notwithstanding the relief granted by this measure, the agricultural problem is to-day one of the most serious England has to solve. Just as New England now depends in large measure on the West for its food supply, so Great Britain depends on America for breadstuffs. Thousands of acres of fertile soil have gone out of cultivation in the eastern half of the island, partly because of bad harvests, but mainly because the farmers cannot compete with foreign wheat.

The Royal Agricultural Commission in its report a few years ago (1897) could suggest no remedy, and believed matters must grow worse. A leading English journal,[2] in commenting on the report, said, "The sad and sober fact is that the English farmer's occupation is gone, or nearly gone, never to return."

The depression has ruined many tillers of the soil, and has driven the rural population more and more into the already overcrowded towns. There they bid against the laboring men

[1] The Small Agricultural Holdings Act enables the County Council (§ 640) to acquire, by voluntary arrangement, suitable land for the purpose of reletting or reselling it to agricultural laborers and men of small means. Under certain safeguards the Council may advance up to three-fourths of the purchase money.

[2] The Bristol Times and Mirror, Aug. 5, 1897.

for work, and so reduce wages to the lowest point. If they fail to get work, they become an added burden on the poor rates, and taxes rise accordingly.

Should no remedy be found, and should land continue to go out of cultivation, it is difficult to see how the majority of proprietors can resist the temptation to break up and sell their estates. The tendency of the Consolidated Death Duties Act (1894) is believed by many to work in the same direction. It imposes an inheritance tax on the heirs to landed property, which they find it hard to meet, especially when their tenants have abandoned their farms rather than try to pay the rent.

To-day a few thousand wealthy families hold the title-deeds to the soil on which more than thirty millions live. Generally speaking, the rent they demand does not seem to be excessive.[1] It is an open question whether England would be the gainer if, as in France, the land should be cut up into small holdings, worked by men without capital, and hence without power to make improvements.

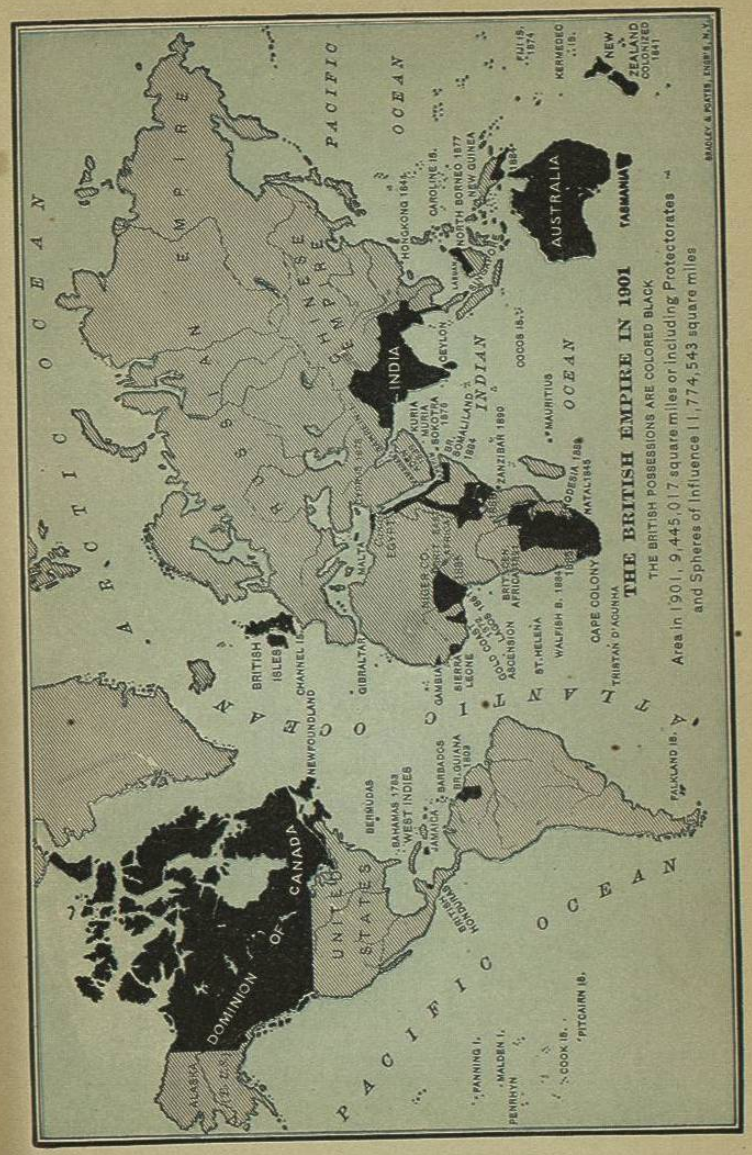
655. The Colonial Expansion of England. — Meanwhile, whether from an economic point of view England is gaining or losing at home, there can be no question as to her colonial expansion. A glance at the accompanying maps of the world[2] in 1837 and in 1897 shows the marvellous territorial growth of the British Empire.

When Victoria was crowned it had an area of less than three million square miles; to-day it has over eleven million or more than one-fifth of the entire land surface of the globe. This shows that England added, on the average, more than one hundred and forty-five thousand square miles of territory every year of the late Queen's reign.

Australia began its career (1837) as a penal colony with a few shiploads of convicts; now it is a prosperous, powerful, and loyal part of the Empire (§ 594). Sixty years ago New Zealand was a

1 This is the opinion of the Royal Commission; but Gibbins' Industry in England (1896), page 441, takes the opposite view.

2 See Maps Nos. 19 and 20, facing pages 400 and 402.



mission-field where cannibalism still existed; now it is one of the leaders in English civilization.

Again, when Victoria came to the throne (1837) the greater part of Africa was simply a geographical expression; the coast had been explored, but most of the interior was unknown. Through the efforts of Livingstone and those who followed him (1840–1890), the interior was explored and the source of the Nile was discovered (1863). Stanley succeeded in his great work on the Congo River, and the "dark continent" ceased to be dark. Trade was opened with the interior; the discovery of diamond mines and gold mines in South Africa (1867, 1884) stimulated emigration. Railroads are now being pushed forward, new markets are springing up, and Africa, once the puzzle of the world, seems destined to become one of the great fields which the Anglo-Saxon race is determined to control, if not to possess.

On the other hand, the British West Indies have of late years greatly declined from their former prosperity. The English demand for cheap sugar has encouraged the importation of beet-root sugar from Germany and France. This has reduced the market for cane sugar to so low a point that there is little, if any, profit in raising it in the West Indies.[1]

656. England's Change of Feeling toward her Colonies; Ireland; the Policy of Justice; Arbitration vs. War. — One of the most striking features of the "Diamond Jubilee" celebration (§ 646) was the prominence given to the Colonial Prime Ministers. Less than half a century ago the men who governed England regarded Canada and Australia as "a source of weakness," and the Colonial Office in London knew so little of the latter country that it made ridiculous blunders in attempting to address official despatches to Melbourne, Australia.[2] Even as late as 1852 Disraeli, then Chancellor of the Exchequer, wrote to Lord Malmesbury in regard to the Newfoundland fisheries, "These wretched colonies will all be independent, too, in a few years, and are a millstone around our necks."

1 See Brooks Adams' America's Economic Supremacy.
2 Traill's Social England, VI, 684.

Twenty years afterward Disraeli, later Lord Beaconsfield, declared that one of the great objects he and his party had in view was to uphold the British Empire and to do everything to maintain its unity. That feeling has steadily gained in power and was never stronger than it is to-day. If the colonies respond by actions as well as words, "Imperial Federation" will soon become something more than a high-sounding phrase.

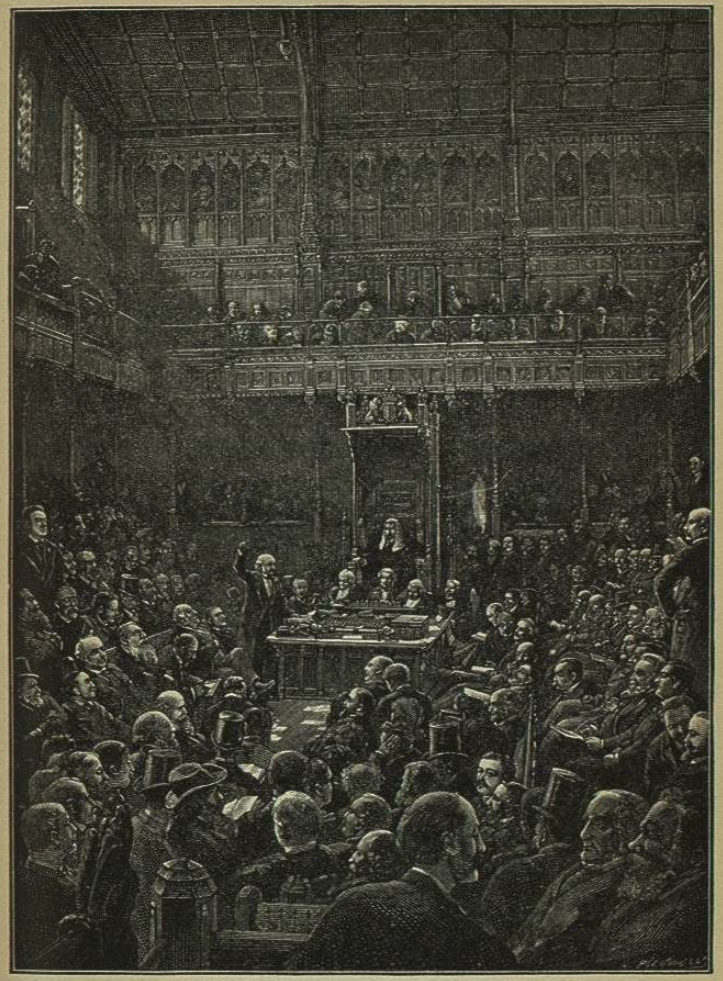
But to make such federation harmonious and complete the support of Ireland must be obtained. That country is the only member of the United Kingdom whose representatives in Parliament refused, as a rule, to take part in the celebration of the Queen's reign. They felt that their island had never been placed on a true equality with its stronger and more prosperous neighbor.

In fact, the Royal Commission, appointed to inquire into the relative taxation of England and Ireland, reported (1897) nearly unanimously that "for a great many years Ireland had paid annually more than £2,000,000 beyond her just proportion of taxation."[1] It has been estimated that the total excess thus extorted during the Queen's reign amounts to nearly £100,000,000.

In 1893 Mr. Gladstone made a vigorous effort to secure "Home Rule" for Ireland. His bill granting that country an independent Parliament passed the House of Commons by a very large majority, but was utterly defeated by the Lords. In 1898 Mr. Balfour succeeded in passing a bill which gave Ireland local government on the same popular foundation on which it rests in England (§ 647) and Scotland.

The recognition of the principle of international arbitration by England in the *Alabama* case (§ 639), in the Behring Sea Seal Fisheries dispute (1893), and in the Venezuela boundary controversy (1896), shows that the English people see that the victories of peace are worth as much to a nation as the victories of war. The Hague Peace Conference Treaty, ratified by Great Britain (1899), provided for the establishment of a permanent Court of

[1] McCarthy's History of Our Own Times, V, 487.



GLADSTONE SPEAKING IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS (on his Introduction of the Home Rule Bill for Ireland. Feb. 13, 1893)

Arbitration between the leading nations of Europe, the United States, China, and Japan.

Sixty years ago such a court would have been thought to be impossible; to-day it has the support of the ablest men on both sides of the Atlantic. It is a pity that it could not have exercised its influence to prevent the terrible South African war. But, none the less, it holds forth promise of good in the future.

657. Death of Gladstone; the Cabot Tower; Centennial of the First Savings-Bank. — Meanwhile, Mr. Gladstone died full of years and honors at his residence, Hawarden Castle,[1] North Wales (1898). The "Grand Old Man" — as his friends delighted to call him — was buried in that Abbey at Westminster which holds so much of England's most precious dust. His grave is not far from the memorial to Lord Beaconsfield, his lifelong rival and political opponent.

In the autumn (1898) the Cabot monument was opened at Bristol. It is a commanding tower, overlooking the ancient city and port from which John Cabot (§ 387) sailed in the spring of 1497. The monument commemorates Cabot's discovery of the mainland of the new world. An inscription on one of the walls of the tower expresses "the earnest hope that Peace and Friendship may ever continue between the kindred peoples" of England and America.

In May of the next year (1899) the one hundredth anniversary of the establishment of savings-banks in Great Britain was celebrated. Near the closing year of the eighteenth century (1799), Rev. Joseph Smith, Vicar of Wendover in Buckinghamshire, invited the laborers of his parish to deposit their savings with him on interest.

"Upon the first day of the week," said he, quoting St. Paul's injunction, "let every one of you lay by him in store."[2] He offered to receive sums as small as twopence. Before the end of the year he had sixty depositors. Eventually the Government took up the scheme and established the present system of national savings-banks.

[1] Hawarden (Har'den).

[2] The quotation is from 1 Corinthians, xvi, 2.

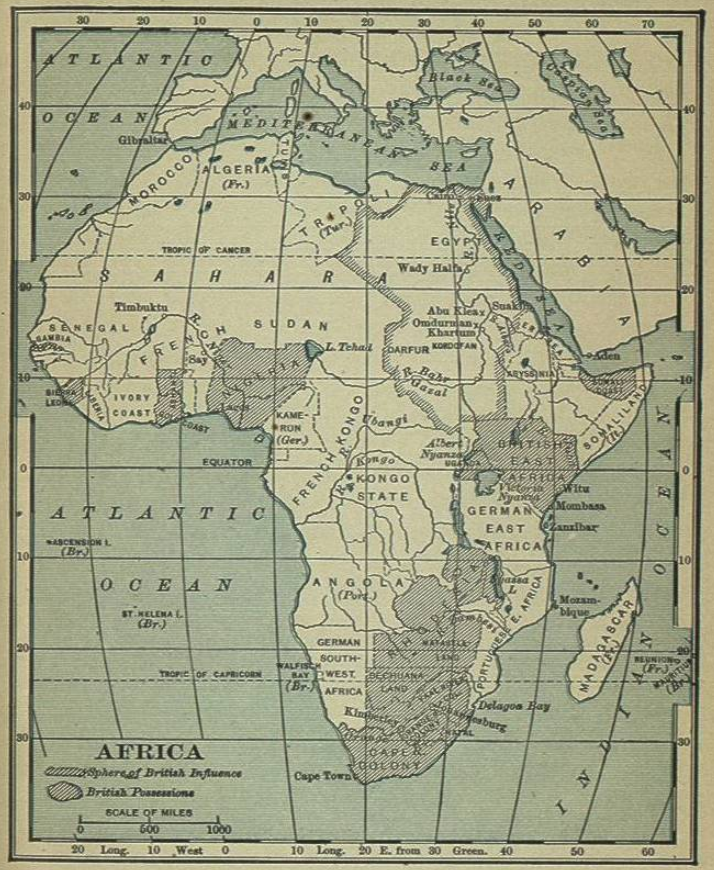
They have done and are doing incalculable good. To-day there are nearly nine million depositors in the United Kingdom. Most of them belong to the wage-earning class, and they hold not far from £200,000,000. In this case certainly the grain of mustard seed, sown a century ago, has produced a mighty harvest.

658. England in Egypt; Gordon; Omdurman; Progress in Africa. — Meanwhile, the English had been busy outside of their island. Five years after the opening of the Suez Canal (1869), Lord Beaconsfield,[1] then Prime Minister, bought nearly half of the canal property from the Governor of Egypt. From that time England kept her hand on the country of the Pharaohs and the pyramids.

About ten years later (1881) Arabi Pasha,[2] an ambitious colonel in the native army, raised the cry, "Down with all foreigners — Egypt for the Egyptians!" Lord Wolseley[3] defeated Arabi's forces, and he was banished from the country.

Two years afterward (1883) a still more formidable rebellion broke out in the Soudan, — a province held by Egypt. The leader of the insurrection styled himself the Mahdi,[4] or great Mohammedan Prophet. Then (1884) Gladstone sent General Gordon, commonly called "Chinese Gordon,"[5] to withdraw the Egyptian troops from Khartoum, the capital of the Soudan. The Mahdi's forces shut up the heroic soldier in that city, and before help could reach him he and all his Egyptian troops were massacred. No braver or truer man ever died at the post of duty, for in him was fulfilled Wordsworth's eloquent tribute to the "Happy Warrior."[6]

Lord Kitchener advanced (1896) against Omdurman, the headquarters of the new Mahdi. In a decisive victory (1898) he scattered the fanatical Dervishes, or Mohammedan monks, like chaff before a whirlwind. He then took possession of



[1] Beaconsfield (Bĕk'ons-field).
[2] Arabi Pasha (Ä-rä'bee Pah-shaw').
[3] Wolseley (Wools'ly).
[4] Mahdi (Mah'dee).
[5] So called because of his military career in China (1862), where as commander of the "Ever-Victorious Army," and supported by the Chinese Government, he suppressed the formidable Tai-Ping rebellion.
[6] See Wordsworth's Poems, "The Happy Warrior."