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Some notion of the growth of the British navy during the last three centuries may be gathered from the comparison of a few simple figures. In 1578 Queen Elizabeth had twenty-four ships in her own royal list. Besides these, she could, in emergency, depend on merchant and other ships throughout the kingdom of 100 tons and upwards to the number of 135; on barques and other craft of from 40 to 100 tons, 656; on about 100 sail of hoys (small sloops used for the transport of passengers and freight), and an indefinite number of fishing boats and other such craft, reckoned to be at least 600. Evidently, with the exception of Her Majesty's ships (that is, the royal navy proper), the vessels in this enumeration (the naval reserve, so to speak), would be of exceedingly small account in our time. Of course, the stage of advancement which ship-building had reached in other countries, as well as England, in the latter part of the 16th century must be remembered. Another list—that of the Armada year—shows what a naval force could be mustered with the willing help of patriotic merchants, noblemen and gentlemen. Let us see what the great readjustment of last year has already effected in the service. Not until 1894 will all the changes contemplated be carried out. Of battle ships of the first class there are 17, with an aggregate tonnage of 165,330. In 1894 these will be increased to 30, with a total tonnage of 333,950. Of battle ships of the second class there are 15, with a tonnage of 97,010, which are to be increased to 17, with a tonnage of 115,010. Of other classes of battle ships there are 6, with a tonnage of 55,660. Of coast defence ships the number is 12, with a tonnage of 37,230; of first-class cruisers, 12, with a tonnage of 76,650. The total of armoured ships is 62, with a tonnage of 431,880, to be increased to 77, with a tonnage of 618,500. Of protected ships there are to be 11 cruisers of the first-class, with a tonnage of 84,150; of the second-class there are 10, with a tonnage of 39,000, to be increased to 51, with a tonnage of 169,625; of the third-class, 18, with a tonnage of 37,900, to be increased to 24, with a tonnage of 46,800. There is to be one torpedo depot ship of a tonnage of 6,620. There is one torpedo ram of a tonnage of 2,640. There are in all 29 protected ships, with a tonnage of 78,540, to be increased to 88, with a tonnage of 309,915. There are of unprotected ships—second-class cruisers, corvettes, sloops, gun vessels, torpedo cruisers, torpedo gunboats, first and second-class torpedo boats, dispatch vessels, special service ships, etc.—a total of 282, with a tonnage of 168,724, to be increased to 336, with a tonnage of 198,654. The complete list of effective ships afloat in January, 1889, is 373, with a tonnage of 679,144, which in 1894 will be increased to 501, with an aggregate tonnage of 1,127,049. This list does not comprise ships, like the Thrush, then under construction, on whose completion a sum of £1,546,000 was to be spent. The total cost of the addition required to bring the navy to the standard contemplated in 1894 is computed to be £22,669,000. This enumeration does not include the seven vessels being built for an Australian squa-

dron, nor the twenty-three vessels on the Cunard, Peninsular and Oriental, and White Star lines, retained as Reserved Merchant Cruisers.

A finer fleet was never brought together than that which passed under the admiring and astonished gaze of the young German Emperor at Spithead in the summer of last year. Since the practical initiation of the great scheme of reform introduced by Lord George Hamilton, a large number of new vessels had been launched, while some thirty-five ships of the smaller type, deemed inadequate for the improved standard of construction, were variously disposed of. After His Majesty's inspection, the vessels of the fleet dispersed for the summer manœuvres. The main feature in the evolutions was the defence of the British coasts against a powerful enemy who had Ireland as his base. The enemy's tactics of sending a squadron piecemeal up the channel resulted in the capture of some of his most valuable ships. A fast squadron was then sent round by the north of Scotland to bombard the towns of the east coast, but the defence sent a squadron through the strait of Dover to intercept the attacking foe, and, notwithstanding the damage done by the Irish flying squadron, all but one ship of it was captured, while the assailants gained little or no compensating advantage. The inference drawn by naval strategists from this result was that the channel was not so difficult to defend as had been previously imagined. The naval manœuvres of the present year provoked more controversy, opinion being divided as to the significance of the result. In this case the invaders utterly disappeared, and it seemed doubtful whether their dispersion was to be deemed a victory for the defence, or their escape scatheless to be regarded as a discomfiture. For the management of their respective squadrons, however, fair credit has been given to both admirals—Sir George Tryon, who personated the commander of the defence, and Sir Culme Seymour, who led the invading force.

Canadians have been reproached (and not without some reason) for neglecting to avail themselves of the opportunities for the study of aboriginal ethnology, languages and tribal characteristics, though due credit has been given to our governments and people for their treatment of the Indians. On the other hand, our neighbours have been severely blamed (and not by outsiders chiefly) for cruel injustice and disregard of solemn obligations in their intercourse with the native races, while the fruitful zeal and pains which they have devoted to the scientific study of the native American tribes have won the admiration of learned circles in the Old World. No more sweeping indictment was ever brought against a nation than that which the late Helen Hunt Jackson has brought against her fellow-countrymen in her able summing-up of the case for the Indians—"A Century of Dishonour." And that her charges are not prompted by the romantic benevolence of a humane, warm-hearted woman, stirred to profound indignation by what she deemed wanton cruelties inflicted on a defenceless people by the greed of white settlers, the unscrupulousness of government agents and the bloodthirsty barbarity of frontier garrisons, is shown by the strong confirmation of every one of her assertions from living and reputable witnesses, as well as documentary evidence. Bishop Whipple, who has spent his life among the Indians, bore willing testimony to the truth of her narrative, which he complemented by a chapter from his own experience. The author of "The Massacres of the Mountains" has undertaken to unfold an important part of the record with strict impartiality, but his conclusions do not differ materially from those of Bishop Whipple and Mrs. Jackson. In recent years, however, there has been an appreciable change in the relations between the Indians and the United States authorities, and at present it may be said that on both sides of the frontier there is harmonious coöperation between those who have dealings with the tribes whether as missionaries and teachers, as students of language and folk-lore, or as agents of either government. For a number

of years past the Rev. E. F. Wilson, of Sault Ste. Marie, has, in "Our Forest Children," treated the Indian question at once from an economic, phil-anthropic and scientific standpoint. The four volumes of that instructive magazine, which have been published, contain a mass of information as to the history, traditions, condition and prospects of the Indians not to be found in any other publication. We have already referred to Mr. Wilson's larger enterprise—"The Canadian Indian," and need only remind our readers that the first number of it will make its appearance next month. Mr. Wilson has been assured of literary assistance from qualified persons on both sides of the border, and there is good reason to hope that his venture will be in every sense a success.

The amendment to the Contract Labour Act, recently adopted by the House of Representatives, Washington, and which increases the stringency of the law prohibiting Canadians in the border-towns from working in the States while having their homes in Canada, would doubtless be reasonable enough if the competition with citizens of the Republic resulting from the usage were more extended and more formidable. But the whole number of Canadians who have been availing themselves of opportunities of securing work across the boundary, without being obliged to change their domiciles, is necessarily too small to assume the character of an international grievance. There are a great many Canadians who go to the States for a part of the year, and, at the close of the labour season, return to Canada, while there are thousands upon thousands of Canadians residing in the States who have neither changed nor intend to change their allegiance. On the other hand, how many Americans are living in Canada on exactly similar conditions, and yet no one objects to them. In both these cases there is competition, and the difference between resident aliens and alien workmen who reside in their native land, is virtually (under the circumstances) of small importance. Of course, if the United States authorities are opposed to the practice, they are right in making the law so stringent that it will be more than a mere form.

## THE CANADIAN OF THE FUTURE.

Under the head of "Expansion of Our Race," *La Minerve* publishes a long statement compiled by M. Rameau de Saint-Pere, a writer to whom French Canada is not a little indebted, in which the natural growth of our French Canadian fellow-citizens during the thirty years from 1851 to 1881 is contrasted with that of British Canada. The census returns are employed as the basis of this comparison, and M. Rameau endeavours to show that in the old provinces the ratio of increase of the French Canadian population has largely exceeded that of either English-speaking Protestants or English-speaking Roman Catholics. First of all he deals with the increase of population as a whole, which from 2,312,916 in 1851 increased to 4,044,060 souls in 1881—or 75 per cent. Regarding the two nationalities as a whole, he finds that the British element increased during the same period 75 per cent. and the French 72 per cent. But the advantage which these contrasted ratios give to the English-speaking people of Canada is, he maintains, more fictitious than real, as the augmentation recorded was largely due to immigration. He then calculates the natural growth of the various elements, and calculates that in Ontario, while the British Protestant population increased at the rate of 105 per cent., the English-speaking Roman Catholics at 54, the French Canadians in Ontario showed an increase of 288 per cent. The rates of increase were: Total 93; English Protestants, 31; English-speaking Catholics, 24, and French 60. In New Brunswick the total showed a rate of 66 per cent., the English Protestants 71, English Catholics 70, and the French 156 per cent. In Nova Scotia the rates were: Total, 59; English Protestants, 61; English Catholics, 70, and French, 73. From the foregoing, M. Rameau concludes that the French Canadians are the most solid and enduring element of our population—the people of the future.