

Valentina STÎNGĂ

The Victorian Age. A Literary  
Survey



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## CHAPTER I

### VICTORIAN ENGLAND – THE AGE (1837-1901)

#### 1.1. General Remarks

Unique for its solidity of purpose and far-reaching achievements, the nineteenth century marked the climax of Britain's socio-political, economic and cultural development. This particular era in the history of the nation bears the conventional denomination of 'Victorian Age/Victorian Era', thus establishing a direct connection between the significant developments of the day and a distinct paradigm in the history of Great Britain, i.e. a period revolving around the political career of Queen Victoria (1837-1901). In fact, Queen Victoria was the first English monarch to see her name given to the period of her reign while still living.

Preceded by the Georgian period and followed by the Edwardian period, the Victorian period is taken to have formally begun in 1837 (the year Victoria Alexandrina became Queen) and ended in 1901 (the year of her death). However, it is common knowledge that a certain cultural paradigm does not suddenly "begin and cease" (Moran 2); therefore, we can identify ideas and events that seem 'Victorian' well before 1837 (for instance, a sustained interest in social reform and the preoccupation with the rights of the individual), just like Victorian ideas extended well into the twentieth century.

The choice of representing an entire era by means of the name of an individual implies the idea of stability and uniformity of character. At the same time, it also suggests some of the most important coordinates of nineteenth-century Britain. The Victorians valued stability, authority, respectability in public life, so it was but normal to symbolically associate the era with the institution of monarchy, more precisely with the head of the most powerful nation of the day. Moreover, the identification with the Queen, who very consciously promoted her image of a wife and mother, suggests to the modern individual that the Victorians conceived their society as a large 'family', built on respect and decency.

The Victorian period was a long period of peace, generally associated with such words as *stability*, *prosperity*, *progress*, *reform* and *Imperialism*, during which the citizens' grounds for satisfaction were rooted in the abundant evidence of great economic development and technical progress of the nation. It was a time of major changes and breakthroughs in almost every sphere of human existence – from advances in scientific, medical and technological knowledge (for instance, increased specialisation and developments in surgery, anaesthetics and antiseptics, the national railway network) to significant changes in population growth and shifts in people's mentalities. It was a long period of prosperity for the British people, since the profits gained from the overseas British Empire, as well as from major industrial improvements at home, allowed the development of a large, educated middle class.

Yet, while from many points of view the Victorian age is identified as England's pinnacle of power and prestige (cf Galea 2), the other side of the coin was represented by the widespread poverty, miserable slums and poor working conditions that existed in many industries of Victorian England. Moreover, as time passed by, the rapid transformation deeply affected the country's state of mind: an era that had begun with a confidence and optimism that resulted in economic development and prosperity eventually gave in to uncertainty and doubt arising from "vast social and intellectual change" (Moran 2).

## 1.2. Alexandrina Victoria (1819-1901)<sup>1</sup>



When Alexandrina Victoria was born in Kensington Palace, London, on May 24, 1819, there seemed little chance that she would ever succeed to be the ruling monarch of Great Britain and Ireland eighteen years later. Her father, Prince Edward, Duke of Kent, was the fourth son of the reigning King George III. Prince Edward was one of the less inspiring figures of the populous royal family - he had been discharged from the army for brutal behaviour, had large debts, and lived for many years with a French singer before he married Victoria's mother. King George III had other sons who would succeed and it was generally believed that at least one of them would eventually give the royal family a legitimate male heir to the throne.

Victoria's mother was Victoria Mary Louisa of Saxe-Coburg, Princess of Leiningen (a small German principality), and sister of Leopold, King of the Belgians. Widow of Prince Emich Charles of Leiningen, she married Prince Edward with hopes of providing him with a son. However, Victoria was their only child.

The Duke of Kent died of pneumonia shortly after Victoria's birth (in 1820, the same year that his father, King George III, passed away), and the young child remained with her mother at Kensington Palace. Not expected ever to reign as monarch, her education was largely left to her mother, who thought it important for her daughter to be initiated in arts, natural philosophy, history, and foreign languages. She would also be frequently taken to the opera and theatre.

Princess Victoria became heiress to the throne in a general context of tensions: her uncles, King George IV and King William IV, had no surviving legitimate children. On June 20, 1837, the latter died and Victoria became Queen of Great Britain and Ireland at the age of 18; the proclamation of her accession was made the following day at St James's Palace and her coronation took place a year later at Westminster Abbey, on June 28, 1838. On her accession, Victoria adopted the Whig Prime Minister Lord Melbourne as her political mentor and came to rely on his guidance heavily, whilst he taught her a great deal about constitutional government.

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<sup>1</sup> This biographical section mainly uses information found on the official Diamond Jubilee site, i.e. [www.queen-victorias-scrapbook.org](http://www.queen-victorias-scrapbook.org).

Queen Victoria first met Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg Gotha, her cousin, in 1836, at the suggestion of her uncle King Leopold I of the Belgians, who felt they were suited to each other. The couple fell in love during their second meeting in 1839 and were engaged on October 15, 1839. The wedding of Queen Victoria and Prince Albert took place in the Chapel Royal, St James's Palace, on February 10, 1840. Victoria desired that Albert receive the title King Consort, but British officials would not accept it, as they had little intention to see a German prince assume any part of the British sovereign power.

Victoria and Albert remained devoted to each other throughout the next 20 years of married life. The couple lived in close harmony and had a family of nine children, many of whom eventually married into the European monarchy: Princess Royal Victoria Adelaide Mary Louise (born 1840); Albert Edward, Prince of Wales (born 1841); Alice Maud Mary (born 1843); Alfred (born 1844); Helena Augusta Victoria (born 1846); Louise Caroline Alberta (born 1848); Arthur William Patrick (born 1850); Leopold George Duncan (born 1853) and Beatrice Mary Victoria (born 1857). The couple believed that royal children should receive a proper education and were very serious about it. In fact, Victoria and Albert were the first royal couple in England to send sons to Oxford and Cambridge.

Strongly influenced by her husband, with whom she worked in closest harmony (she even persuaded Parliament to officially grant Albert the title Prince Consort), after his death (1861) the Queen went into lengthy seclusion, neglecting many of her public duties. But with the event of her recognition as Empress of India (1877), together with the celebratory golden (1887) and diamond (1897) jubilees, she again increased the prestige of the British monarchy.

Queen Victoria died on January 22, 1901, after a reign of 63 years, and till this day she has remained the first English monarch to see her name given to the period of her reign whilst still living.

Though queen of all Great Britain, Ireland, and a growing overseas empire, Victoria saw her role as a wife and mother in traditional terms and placed it at the core of her life. Simultaneously, Queen Victoria was a model of both a new type of power for women in Britain, as well as of traditional feminine virtues.

### **1.3. Victorian England: between the French Revolution and the Industrial Revolution**

Queen Victoria's lengthy reign was deeply influenced by two historic events that are especially worthy of attention, in spite of some sort of temporal distance that may have existed between the beginning of the age and the actual events that will be the focus in what follows. The nineteenth-century British intellectual and socio-political paradigm was marked both by the ideology of the *French Revolution* (1789-1799) and by the enormous progress brought about by the *Industrial Revolution* (that began around 1780 and accelerated all through the Victorian Age).

LIBERTY, EQUALITY, FRATERNITY. It is undeniable that Victorians lived through historic times. By the time Queen Victoria came to the throne in

England, in France the so-called *French Revolution (la Révolution française)* had produced a major impact on the socio-political life of the country and of Europe as a whole, as it had managed to overthrow a traditional aristocracy in the name of democratic ideals. Moreover, at the cultural level, the French Revolution facilitated the world's first meaningful experience with *political ideology* – a major consequence of the new *secular* spirit of the eighteenth century. Once it was agreed that society was made by man – as eighteenth-century enlightened thinkers approached the matter – then it was also agreed that this man-made society could be changed: in such a case, political ideology was exactly the guideline for that change.

During its 10 years (1789-1799) of violence and terrorizing experiences, the French Revolution acquired the significance of an unprecedented event which marked the end of an era and the beginning of a new one. The revolutionaries' purpose was to annihilate an undemocratic and corrupt system and to put in place democratic institutions. Thus, on the one hand, the revolutionary event put an end to a world based on tradition and on inherited social status, while, on the other, it marked the beginning of a new temporal paradigm in which the individual was placed at the core of a newly-established social order. In ideology, the revolution was liberal in that it proclaimed the liberty of the individual and the importance of private property.

The revolution in France was undoubtedly made possible by multiple factors, the most important having to do with the previous years of feudal oppression, with mismanaged finances and with an impoverished treasury (largely produced by the country's participation in wars) of the country. In 1789, King Louis XVI convened the Estate-General, an ancient assembly consisting of three estates, each of which stood for a particular section of French society – the nobility, the clergy and the general public; the assembly failed to reach a consensus on a possible solution to the financial problems of the country. In this context, the representatives of the third estate (the general public) took control and declared themselves the sovereign National Assembly.

The revolutionary spirit of the National Assembly inspired revolts against the nobility all around France – in Paris, the revolutionaries assaulted Bastille, the largest prison, in order to take possession of arms, while at the countryside the peasants revolted against the noblemen and their feudal contracts. Thus, the entire French population participated actively in the revolution and symbolically asserted their belief in the new political order. In this general revolutionary context, the National Assembly released the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen, which proclaimed the rights and the autonomy of the French citizens (i.e. “Men are born and remain free and equal in rights; social distinctions can be founded only on the common utility” etc.).

The first acts of the newly-formed National Convention were: the abolition of monarchy and the change of the political status of the country from monarchy into republic. In 1793, the Convention tried and executed King Louis XVI on grounds of treason and a newly-formed French government took control over the country. Known as the French Jacobins (named after their meeting place in a monastery in the rue St. Jacob), the revolutionary government were determined to purify their country and did so by means of the *guillotine*, this being the beginning of what is conventionally

known as the *Reign of Terror* (*Régime de la terreur*)<sup>2</sup>. The finality of such a *régime* grew from “patriotic determination to protect France” (Fasel 17) which was seen as endangered by foreign agents, reactionary monarchists and political opportunists. Therefore, the primary purpose of establishing a *Reign of Terror* was to consolidate the power of the revolutionary government and to protect it from all elements that were considered “subversive”. *Terrorisme* and *terroriste*<sup>3</sup> were employed by the Jacobins themselves when self-reflexively describing their own actions and deeds. The terms initially referenced positive realities; in fact, Maximilien Robespierre viewed terror as vital if the new French Republic was to survive its infancy, and identified the use of terror with virtue and justice, thus conferring it the necessary amount of legitimacy. Under such revolutionary justification, over 14,000 people were executed during the terror of 1793-1794 using the guillotine (Fasel 17). Most of the victims were declared insurgents against the republic, that is true; but “there was also a streak of paranoia in the terror, not to mention a dose of cynicism, so that innocent persons were killed because someone thought them royalists or perhaps because someone in power held a grudge against them” (Fasel 17). Therefore, *terror* was first invested with a positive sense, since it was used to protect the state from any subversive elements.

The increasingly violent nature of the newly-established regime led to the shaping of a strong reaction against it; its end indeed came by the summer of 1794, when its leader, Maximilien Robespierre (1758-1794), was himself beheaded (July 28, 1794).

If, internally, revolutionary fervour was under the way, foreign politics recorded troubled times as well. By 1793, France and England were at war – and the conflictual situation lasted till 1815. By the late 1790’s the general Napoleon Bonaparte had become First Consul, and he declared himself Emperor in 1804. The final confrontation between the French and the British armies took place at Waterloo, in 1815, and ended with Napoleon’s defeat and final exile.

The echoes of the French revolution were not confined to the borders of the country which favoured the birth of the revolutionary ethos. It shook up the whole social and political edifice of Britain. British radicals enthusiastically approved of the fall of despots in France and eagerly awaited the coming of the new age of liberty in their own country. The ruling oligarchy, on the other hand, approached the revolutionary event with undisguised horror and fear. The Irishman Edmund Burke<sup>4</sup> (1729 - 1797), who had earlier praised the American Revolution, was worried by the political ‘spectacle’ unfolding in the neighbouring country. Reflecting on the bloodshed that was happening in France at that time, Burke warned his people against “thousands of those hell-hounds called terrourists” (Burke 315) who were let loose on

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<sup>2</sup> *Régime de la terreur* = A bloody, ten-month period in the history of the French revolution which involved, basically, the removing of political opposition: (known or presumed) counterrevolutionaries of the regime and revolutionaries themselves fell beneath the blade of the fearful guillotine.

<sup>3</sup> Actions that terrorize are as old as humanity itself, but the *modern* usage of “terrorism” can be related to the final decades of the eighteenth century, when the Jacobins used it to refer to themselves.

<sup>4</sup> Sir Edmund Burke is reported to have used the word ‘terrorism’ for the first time in English.

the people and were spreading panic. The association he operated between Jacobin terrorists and images of anarchy and chaos could find various explanations: first, he was an Englishman writing about the French people (thus there were cultural and nationalist considerations to motivate his attitude); secondly, Edmund Burke was an aristocrat who witnessed how the ruling class had been overthrown by that violent, however popular, revolution. At some point in his book, Burke described the revolutionaries as “robbers and murderers (...) ruffians, thieves, assassins, regicides” (Burke 293) whose actions promoted therefore unjustified and illegitimate violence against the citizens.

On the other hand, English artists and intellectuals were initially very enthusiastic about the Revolution’s “*liberty, equality, and fraternity*” claim. The Romantic poets (William Blake, William Wordsworth, Samuel Taylor Coleridge) welcomed the Revolution with undisguised joy as they identified it with the birth of a new age of intellectual improvement, human happiness, equality and liberty. In *The Prelude*, William Wordsworth brings perhaps the most remarkable poetic tribute to the French revolution:

“[...] ‘Twas in truth an hour  
Of universal ferment; mildest men  
Were agitated; and commotions, strife  
Of passion and opinion, filled the walls  
Of peaceful houses with unique sounds.  
The soil of common life, was, at that time,  
Too hot to tread upon.” (*The Prelude*, ix, 163-9)

...

“O pleasant exercise of hope and joy!  
For great were the auxiliars which then stood  
Upon our side, we who were strong in love!  
Bliss was it in that dawn to be alive,  
But to be young was very Heaven!” (*The Prelude*, x, 690-4.)

However, as time passed and brought along virulently violent events, many former sympathisers of the French Revolution had second thoughts. Repelled by the Napoleonic reaction, many intellectuals and writers now distanced themselves from the Revolution. In the summer of 1799, Coleridge wrote to Wordsworth bitterly criticising those who “in consequence of the complete failure of the French Revolution, have thrown up all hopes of the amelioration of mankind and are sinking into an almost epicurean selfishness, disguising the same under the soft titles of domestic attachment and contempt for visionary *philosophies*” (cf Bloom (ed.) 2003).

After 1815, the British Tories, who had conducted the war against France, wanting no manifestations of revolutionism in a post-war Great Britain (whose economy had been badly affected by the war), introduced repressive legislation to diminish dissent by ‘the lower orders’ (for instance, freedom of speech and assembly were limited). The institution of monarchy preserved its popularity in England, but there were serious socio-economic troubles that were marking the age. In fact, there



are several historians who place the beginning of what we traditionally call “the Victorian Age” right back to 1815, the end of the war against France. The association of the two events is encouraged by the fact that there really was no going back to the stable aristocratic order prior to the French Revolution; new developments were in process, and the expectation of change that gave birth to the French Revolution itself continued into the new century, becoming a constant of the Victorian Age.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION. Following the defeat of Napoleon at Waterloo (1815), in the first decades of the nineteenth century Britain consolidated its position as a world leader. Inside the country, the *Industrial Revolution* was well under way and brought about the development of a modern, industrial state, as well as of a modern and urbanised society. Which both favoured and prompted the industrial innovations that were to contribute to the industrial development of the nation as a whole. At the time, the British economy (based mainly on overseas trade) was thriving and provided the resources which made those innovations necessary.

The beginning of the *Industrial Revolution* could be traced back to the second decade of the eighteenth century. Basically, *industrialization* refers to “the substitution of man by the machine in the economic process and the mass production of consumption goods” (Cuțitaru 6). It occurred in Britain first since the British economy was powerful – the country had capital to invest, and some of the people already had a high standard of living as compared to those living in Continental Europe. London was already a great commercial centre and, by 1780, England, with its huge naval power, its successive foreign expansions, and its developing and highly practical commercial class, was ready to revolutionize its means and modes of production to meet the greater demand for goods that was to come with expanded markets.

Trade played an important part in the process since it had long been important in Europe, and the commercial classes had obtained from the monarchy the right to control their own property. They also required a broader market for their goods along with more and more raw materials with which to produce them. That broader market came into being partly through foreign exploration and conquest in India, Africa, and the Americas. Population growth in Europe itself also encouraged an increase in the size of the market as well as more labour for the workforce. So, an increasingly important commercial class, bigger markets, and expanded population made the Industrial Revolution possible.

Other developments which encouraged the revolution were *coal power* and, above all, *steam power* (James Watt and Matthew Boulton<sup>5</sup>, 1769). As steam power gradually replaced water as the source for industrial production, it became possible to locate large factories conveniently in large urban complexes in the north of England, and great industrial towns like Manchester began to transform English life and landscape. The coming of the railroads from the 1830’s-40’s networked commercial centres and greatly increased the speed of production and sale of commodities, while at the same time amounting to a new investment and manufacturing opportunity. The

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<sup>5</sup> Leading figures of the Industrial Revolution, inventors of the steam engine.

overall effect was stunning: people's mentalities and ways of living were changing at an exciting speed – but also anxiety-provoking.

**THE SOCIAL EFFECT OF INDUSTRIALIZATION.** In addition to the beneficial effects it had on society in general, industrialization also brought about an intensely felt social transformation. In other words, the development of the modern and urbanised society meant employment and financial welfare for some, yet unemployment for others – an eloquent example of this reality may be the replacement of rural handloom weavers by the new cotton-working utensils. Therefore, urbanization definitely implied a **human cost**: the early industrial city was far from being a paradise – in its rawest form, industrial production was carried on at great risk to the workers (men, women and children alike) and with serious damage to the quality of their lives. Wages were extremely low, working hours very long – 14 a day, or even more. Women and children were hired and paid even less than men. Families lived in horribly crowded, unsanitary housing. Outbreaks of typhus and cholera due to unsanitary water were a fact of life, even for those above the lowest levels of society, and the same was true of infant mortality.

Before the reformist wave in the 1830's, there was little talk of “labour laws” to protect those whose permanent toil made the development of society and augmentation of capital possible. As a result of concentration and discontent, a sense of “class consciousness” began to infiltrate British life and discourse – poor people were no longer so inclined as formerly to respect their betters, while the new factory owners often saw their employees as little more than instruments in the profit-engendering machine.

**THE POLITICAL EFFECT OF INDUSTRIALIZATION.** The entire political life of Great Britain suffered changes in the nineteenth century. From this point of view, industrialization is to be linked with the emergence of modern democracy in Europe. The English Parliament became more democratic as industrialization made it possible for the institution to open its doors to other social categories than the nobility (cf. Cușțitaru 8). The monarchy was no longer authoritarian and absolute, but liberal and subject to the Parliament.

**THE ECONOMIC EFFECT OF INDUSTRIALIZATION.** From the point of view of its economical status, Great Britain recorded a huge development as a consequence of industrialization. Basically, the economic effect of industrialization was represented by *modern urban economy based on trade and manufacturing*. If the first decades of the nineteenth century saw the country developing new industries, the rest of the century witnessed its unprecedented development and growth, “unmatched at any other time in its history” (Delaney, Ward, Fiorina 124). However, the transition from manufacture to mass production also involved a very painful coordinate (painful in terms of human tragedy) (cf. Cușțitaru 8).

## 1.4. The Political System in Great Britain

Roughly speaking, nineteenth-century states were mostly monarchies, with the notable exceptions of France and the United States. In England, the institution of monarchy also preserved its popularity; the Queen became a symbol of all that was good and glorious in nineteenth-century Britain. Though her figure “holds the age together: from her accession as a child queen, through her motherhood, her period as a distressed widow living in reclusion in Windsor castle and her final triumph as Matriarch and Empress” (Allen, Smith, Margaretti 322), the Queen actually interfered in a small extent in the running of the country, preferring instead to set a moral example for her people.

The real governing authority in the English *constitutional monarchy* of the time was the *bicameral Parliament* (formed of two houses, the *House of Lords* and the *House of Commons*). If the members of the House of Lords were not elected by the citizens, but rather held a hereditary position, the House of Commons consisted of democratically elected members, whose number was larger than that of the House of Lords members.

In this bicameral legislature there were two main political parties, the first political parties in England, i.e. the *Whigs* and the *Tories*. The Whigs were not supporters of the monarchy, they supported instead the growth of Parliament and strove to limit royal power, promoting a liberal system of thinking in the sense that they believed that Parliament should make all the decisions and that all men should have the right to elect the members of Parliament. On the other hand, the Tories were conservative, i.e. supporters of the monarchy and promoters of the idea that a position in Parliament and the right to vote should be reserved for wealthy or high-ranking officials.

A major characteristic of the political life in Victorian times is that, without being fully democratic, the Parliament managed to become more *representative*. In fact, the attempt to build some kind of *parliamentary democracy* is one of the great achievements of the period. At the beginning of Victoria’s reign, about a fifth of adult males were entitled to vote. That proportion increased, through parliamentary reform acts passed in 1867 and 1884, to one-third and two-thirds respectively. No women could legally vote in parliamentary elections until almost 18 years after Victoria’s death – and the Queen herself was no suffragist.

More importantly, the Victorian Age marked the preoccupation for a new type of political identity. The Victorian statesman was “not chosen from the most powerful families in the country, but an outsider chosen for his political acumen” (Allen, Smith, Margaretti 321). A case in point would be Robert Peel, the Prime Minister starting with 1841, under whose government Britain managed to avoid the revolutionary fervour that corrupted the entire Europe in 1848. Other leading politicians of the day were William Gladstone, an ex-factory owner, and Benjamin Disraeli, of Jewish origin, the leader of the Conservative party. If Gladstone was a man of great skill and a very capable administrator (he encouraged reductions in taxes and tariffs), Disraeli was a fervent promoter of the idea of *Empire* and a defender of monarchy (he rescued Queen Victoria from a not very popular isolation after the

death of her husband). Moreover, Disraeli was a skilled novelist, whose *Sybil* (1845) is remarkable for its depiction of the society of the time.

It becomes immediately visible from the considerations above that during the Victorian Era Britain managed to modernize its political system without giving in to the revolutions that virtually affected its European competitors.

## 1.5. The Monarchy and the British Empire

Although an icon of her age, Queen Victoria interfered little in the running of the country, preferring to set a moral example to the nation through the publication of a book (*Our Life in the Highlands*), “a kind of family diary” (Brodey, Margaretti 170). Though she was rather concerned about the gradual loss of power of the aristocratic classes, “her simple and virtuous behaviour made the monarchy more popular than it had ever been before” (Brodey, Margaretti 170).

The loss of the American colonies in 1783 made the idea of empire-building rather unattractive until the 1830’s, but Britain was still prepared to fight in order to protect its trade routes. By 1850, in the face of fierce competition from its rivals, Britain began to fight colonial wars. From this point on, British foreign policy was mostly concentrated on **expansion**; the need to conquer new territories was brought about by the economic booming which required new markets and an endless supply of raw materials.

During the reign of Queen Victoria, Great Britain was not only a powerful island nation, but also the centre of a global empire that encouraged British contact with a variety of cultures. By the end of the era, approximately **one quarter** of the earth’s land surface was part of the British Empire, and more than **400 million** people were governed by Great Britain.<sup>6</sup> An incomplete list of British colonies in 1901 would comprise Australia, British Guiana (now Guyana), Brunei, Canada, Cyprus, Egypt, Gambia, the Gold Coast (Ghana), Hong Kong, British India (now Bangladesh, India, Myanmar, Pakistan, Sri Lanka), Ireland, Kenya, Malawi, the Malay States (Malaysia), Malta, Mauritius, New Zealand, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Singapore, South Africa, Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) and Trinidad and Tobago.

Queen Victoria’s Empire was a truly heterogeneous entity within which one could find heterogeneous practices. This entity included *Crown Colonies*<sup>7</sup> (Jamaica) and *protectorates*<sup>8</sup> (Uganda), which had granted only partial sovereignty to Britain. Ireland had a particular status as an internal colony whose demands for domestic/home rule were alternately entertained and discouraged. India had started the century under the control of the East India Company, but was directly ruled by Britain after the 1857 Indian Mutiny<sup>9</sup> and Queen Victoria was crowned Empress of India in 1877. Colonies

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<sup>6</sup> Cf. The Norton Anthology of English Literature. Norton Topics Online. Available at [http://www.wwnorton.com/college/english/nael/victorian/topic\\_4/welcome.htm](http://www.wwnorton.com/college/english/nael/victorian/topic_4/welcome.htm)

<sup>7</sup> A *Crown colony*, also known as *royal colony* in the seventeenth century, was a type of *colonial administration of the British Empire*.

<sup>8</sup> A *protectorate* is a part of a country that is ruled by another, larger and stronger country based on an agreement.

<sup>9</sup> The *Indian Mutiny of 1857* = the first Indian war of independence.