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The British Empire

IN THE

Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries

A Reading-Book for Schools

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PREFATORY NOTE

This little book is intended to give, in as vivid and interesting a way as the space at disposal admits, a clear general account of the building up of the British Empire, which so predominantly characterizes the nineteenth century. To make the story coherent, retrospective glances have been thrown at earlier periods in our imperial development; and while a large share of the narrative is necessarily claimed by military events, peaceful progress has by no means been neglected. Throughout, care has been taken to avoid any display of partisanship or bias, religious or political. The book will be found useful, it is hoped, in those schools where history is studied in periods, and indeed wherever an intelligent interest in the history of the Empire is deemed worthy of cultivation in her children.

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THE BRITISH EMPIRE

IN THE

NINETEENTH CENTURY

BRITAIN AT THE BEGINNING OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

Condition at Home

The general condition of Britain at the beginning of the nineteenth century was very unlike what it was a hundred years afterwards. In 1801 this country was neither happy nor secure. She had been engaged in various wars, with little cessation, for more than half a century, and was still fighting for her very existence against France and the French allies. It was an exhausting struggle. Britain had lost the American colonies some eighteen years before, through the selfish, short-sighted, and tyrannical policy of the government. Her military strength and reputation had fallen to a low point; her armies had hitherto made a poor display in the war with France; and the prospect of emerging victorious from the prolonged struggle in which she was engaged did not seem bright.

George III was king, a prejudiced, narrow-minded man, who, notwithstanding the constitutional checks imposed upon him, had succeeded in raising again

in Britain the question of the personal rule of the sovereign. The Act of Union with Ireland had been passed in the previous year; but Pitt's proposal to emancipate the Catholics, a proposal to which he considered himself in honour bound by the pledges he had given at the time of the passing of the Act of Union, was opposed by the king. Pitt resigned, and the shock to the king was so great that it brought on a fresh attack of insanity. Addington, Pitt's successor, was another North, and Catholic emancipation was no more heard of, so the Irish Catholics remained unhappy, discontented, and hostile to the government. Throughout Britain there was a scarcity of food amounting almost to a famine. It was true that trade and industry had developed remarkably during the past century, for while British soldiers and sailors were fighting fiercely abroad in all parts of the world, the people at home were working hard in factories and foundries, and had made great progress in the industrial arts. But the war was costing great sums of money every year, and the strain upon the resources of the country was being severely felt. We were the only country that had the money, and consequently we had to do all the paying. Not only had we to support our own army and navy, we had also to give large sums to Austria, Prussia, and Russia, to enable them to keep the field against France. Consequently the British taxpayer had a heavier load to carry than he could bear without some suffering. The national debt at the same time rose to an enormous figure.

At home, therefore, things were looking gloomy at the opening of the new century, which was to see more astonishing changes than any one century ever saw before.

During the twelve years of Lord North's ministry, the king's will had been supreme; and disaster and disgrace marked the course of events. The period of progress, which began with Pitt's administration, was interrupted by the French Revolution; but that event served to confirm the popularity of the king, who was inclined, therefore, to cling more stubbornly than ever to his personal likes and dislikes.

The Colonial Empire

Abroad, Britain in 1801 was already a great colonial power, ruling over wide dominions in all parts of the world. Canada, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and other territories in North America belonged to her. Her power was established over a great part of India, many West Indian Islands, and parts of the west coast of Africa. Her flag had been planted on Australia, and the settlement of that vast island-continent had begun. In Europe she held the important fortress of Gibraltar. But her enjoyment of these great possessions beyond the seas, as well as her safety at home, was being threatened by France, then her only rival as a colonial power, and her most formidable European foe.

In order, therefore, to follow the course of events in the early part of the nineteenth century it is necessary to know something of what happened in the closing years of the preceding century.

THE WAR WITH FRANCE

The French Revolution

In the year 1793 Britain went to war with France, partly because British trade was interfered with by the French, partly because Holland, her ally, was attacked, and partly because of the feeling roused by the atrocities of the French Revolution. The French people, long cruelly oppressed, had risen against their government, set up a Republic, and beheaded their king, Louis XVI, and his wife Marie Antoinette. In their fury they had butchered many thousands of innocent persons, along with some who doubtless deserved their fate.

This indiscriminate slaughter had shocked many people in Britain and in other countries who had sympathized with the Revolutionists at first. In the end the other European powers, therefore, combined to oppose Revolutionary France. But the French fought with extraordinary vigour and won battle after battle. Soon they had driven all their enemies out of France. Prussia and Austria were compelled to sue for peace. Spain and Holland were forced to become allies of France, and to help her with their fleets. Britain alone remained unconquered in 1797.

Mutiny of the Navy—St. Vincent and Camperdown

The year was a very black one, for in the spring of it our navy, on which we relied, mutinied. First at Spithead and then at the Nore, the fleets lay idle, the

sailors declaring they would fight no more till their grievances were redressed. It is true that two months earlier Admiral Jervis, with fourteen ships of the line, had shattered a Spanish fleet of twenty-seven vessels in the battle of Cape St. Vincent (1797). But France had another maritime ally, Holland. The Dutch fleet had been held blockaded by Admiral Duncan. But when our fleets mutinied it did not seem that this blockade could be maintained. The Dutch might break out, join the French, and seize the Channel, and a French army might be landed in England. Duncan managed to deceive the Dutch. He kept a frigate or two cruising in sight of land, making signals as if to a blockading fleet outside. The Dutch did not know that the blockading fleet was not there—that it really was lying mutinous and idle. But time was gained. The sailors' demands for better pay, better food, and better treatment were granted. The fleet again put to sea before the slow Dutch made a move. When they came out, Duncan defeated them at Camperdown.

Nelson

Jervis's second in command at St. Vincent was Horatio Nelson, the son of a Norfolk clergyman. He was to show that, given an opportunity, he could do greater things yet for Britain. His chance soon came. In 1798 Napoleon Bonaparte was sent with a French expedition to Egypt. The French fleet got safely to Egypt, but Nelson found it lying in Aboukir Bay, in a place where the French admiral judged it would be impossible to attack him with



Admiral Nelson

any chance of success, since he had placed his ships so near to a shoal that it seemed impossible for the British ships to get between him and the land.

To Nelson, at the head of a fleet, nothing was impossible. By a magnificent piece of seamanship some of the British ships rounded the extremity of the French line, while the rest anchored on the other side, placing the French between two fires. In the evening the fight began. It raged all night. In the middle of the darkness the French flagship *L'Orient* burst into flames, and eventually blew up with all hands. When morning came all the French ships save four had been taken or sunk. The French power in the Mediterranean was broken.

Trafalgar

Trafalgar saved us from a danger nearer home. When, after a year of uneasy peace, war broke out again in 1803, Napoleon gathered an army of 130,000 men at Boulogne, ready to invade England. Hosts of flat-bottomed boats were prepared to carry them across, and the troops were so constantly drilled at embarking that the task was only an affair of minutes. "Let us", said Napoleon, "but be masters of the Straits for six hours, and we shall be masters of the world." But those six hours' mastery he was never to gain.


Napoleon

France was not without ships; indeed, could she only have massed her own with those of her ally, Spain, she would have had a formidable fleet; but the ships of the two countries lay blockaded in many separate harbours—Toulon, Rochefort, Brest, Ferrol, Cadiz. Napoleon formed an ingenious plan. His admiral, Villeneuve, was to dash out of Toulon the first time a storm drove off the British blockading fleet, and sail for the West Indies. Nelson would be sure to follow.

Villeneuve, however, was not to fight him; he was to give him the slip, hasten back across the Atlantic, set free the imprisoned French ships at Brest, and thus, with a united fleet, hurry to Boulogne and give Napoleon the command of the Channel. The first part of the plan succeeded. By what was for him a very lucky combination of circumstances, Villeneuve succeeded in avoiding Nelson, and, leaving him in the West Indies, returned to Europe. But on his way he had to fight a British fleet under Calder; and though he was not seriously defeated, he turned aside and put into Cadiz, where he was at once blockaded. Napoleon's chance of invading England was gone.

Nelson took care that Napoleon never had another chance. On the 21st of October, 1805, he met the allied French and Spanish fleet off Cape Trafalgar. As the British fleet drifted slowly down in two columns against the allied line, Nelson made that famous signal which will always be remembered by all


Duke of Wellington

English-speaking races: "England expects that every man will do his duty"—and nobly every man did it. The enemy's fleet was destroyed, but the victory was won at the cost of Nelson's life. He was struck on the quarter-deck of his flagship, the *Victory*, by a musket-ball from the French ship, the *Redoutable*, and died soon after. But his work was done. Never again during the war was the British command of the sea in danger; never again were we threatened with the horrors of a foreign invasion.

The Peninsular War—Wellington

While our sailors had been winning so much renown, our soldiers had done very little. They did not lack bravery. Wherever, as at Alexandria, they were under fit leading, they showed their old superiority to the French; but they were badly led, or else sent to places where they could do no good. Their turn came when Wellington (Sir Arthur Wellesley, as he then was) went to command the British army in Portugal. He defeated one French marshal after another. He constructed the lines of Torres Vedras, a series of fortified positions, by means of which he checked the advance of the French, protected Lisbon, and secured for himself a basis of supplies, and from which French armies far larger than his could not expel him. Step by step he drove the French

through Spain towards their own frontier. He showed that British soldiers, when well led, were better than any soldiers in the world, and that even the French, so long victorious, could not resist the men who advanced to storm the steep and shot-swept breaches in the great fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo with *unloaded* muskets. Picton's order had been, "No powder. We'll do this thing with cold iron." It was done.

In the course of five campaigns Wellington cleared Spain, and in the spring of 1814 Britain was in turn invading France.

Napoleon's Russian Campaign

The war in Spain, which Napoleon called "the Spanish ulcer", to such an extent did it eat away his power, was not the only disaster he had met. In 1812 he had led half a million of soldiers, gathered from all the countries of Europe that had submitted to him—his Grand Army—into Russia. The Russians, defeated at Smolensko and Borodino, retired before him, and he reached Moscow. There, to his surprise, they did not ask for peace. Moscow was burned, and Napoleon was forced to retreat over the same country which his army had laid waste in its advance. His men could find neither food nor shelter. The Russians followed on their traces, and gave them no rest. The Cossack horsemen cut off the stragglers. Then came on the winter, with snow and bitter frosts, more deadly than Russian cannon, sharper and more pitiless than Cossack lances. The

wretched soldiers of Napoleon froze to death round their very camp-fires. Not one in ten of the army escaped. Napoleon's veterans were gone; and after another year's fighting in Germany he was driven by the combined Russian, Austrian, and Prussian forces to retreat into France, and at last had to give up his throne.

The "Hundred Days"—Waterloo

Napoleon was sent to Elba, a small island in the Mediterranean, which was assigned to him as a residence and a dominion; but early in 1815 he escaped to France. The army joined him again, and it was felt that such an enemy to the peace of Europe must be crushed, and this time for ever. England was nearest at hand, and Wellington was the man to do it. He was sent with an army into Belgium. Wellington had the aid of a Prussian army under Blücher. Napoleon's plan was to thrust his force between the British and the Prussians, and defeat each in turn. He began well by beating Blücher at Ligny, and advanced to attack Wellington. The two great generals had never met before. On the 18th of June, 1815, the armies were face to face at Waterloo, the French superior in numbers, while Wellington had many Belgian troops, on whom he could not rely. But he had promised Blücher to stand fast at Waterloo, while Blücher had sworn to come there to help him, and both generals were men of their word. All day the British troops stood steady against the rush of cavalry and the storm of

French shot and shell—"the thin red line" that could not be broken. Charge after charge was beaten off, and still the French swarmed to the attack. In the afternoon the thunder of the Prussian guns was heard coming up on the left. Wellington gave the word to his own troops to advance in their turn, and the French were overthrown. Napoleon was conquered at last.

(*See Coloured Picture "Wellington at Waterloo", page 21.*)

Results of the War

It has been said that "at Waterloo the British fought for victory; at Trafalgar for existence". The fruits of these battles are what we now enjoy: a land secure from invasion; supremacy at sea; great wealth drawn from a world-wide commerce; and a colonial empire which no other power can rival.

Extension of the Empire

After Waterloo Britain was richer and stronger than she had ever been before. She had now no need to fear any other country. Her martial power was restored, and she was mistress of the sea. Her dominions abroad were increased by the addition of the Dutch colonies of Ceylon and the Cape of Good Hope, of Mauritius, a few West Indian Islands, and of Malta. Thus strengthened and enriched, she now entered on a long period of peace.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Progress in Trade and Manufactures

During this period, perhaps the most important in her history, Britain saw great progress in trade and manufacture, great changes, not always for the better, in the conditions under which her people lived, and great political reforms. The change which the nineteenth century saw effected in the methods of manufacture was so complete that it has been called the Industrial Revolution. In order to understand and appreciate this change, we must look for a little at the condition of the country before the days of machinery.

Industrial Position in the Eighteenth Century

At the beginning of the eighteenth century Britain was still chiefly an agricultural country. Her iron trade made no progress, because men had not learned the use of coal in that industry, and the supply of charcoal from the forests was running short. The linen business was small, chiefly centred in Scotland and the north of Ireland. No true cottons were made, because British spinners could not spin a cotton yarn strong enough for use as warp. The woollen trade was old and fairly vigorous, but it was somewhat held back by the fact that several spinners were required to make enough yarn to keep one weaver at work. But the mechanism used in the trade had made little progress. The spinning-wheel and the hand-loom

had been in use for a long time without any improvement. Spinning and weaving were by-industries carried on in many parts of the country by women and men after the day's work in the fields was done.

In fact, wherever there were large numbers of sheep, and clear streams for cleansing the wool, there you would find men and women employed in their own cottages in working up the wool into cloth. The men would shear the sheep in June, and cleanse the wool in the stream. Then it would generally be put by till the nights became long, and there was not much to be done on the farm. In the autumn and winter evenings the wife and daughters would take out their spinning-wheels, and make the rough wool into woollen thread.

Then the husband at his loom would ply his shuttle, so as to cross the threads and make cloth of them. In some parts there were, alongside of the domestic manufacture, small factories, where many men and apprentices were busy under the same roof. Such factories were to be found especially near the hills of Wiltshire, Somerset, Gloucestershire, Lancashire, and Yorkshire, as well as in the fertile eastern counties of England, and along the course of the Tweed and the Clyde in Scotland.

The cloth thus turned out by the human hand was generally coarse, and it took a long time to make. Besides, the spinners or spinsters of a family could not make enough thread to keep one weaver going. So men set their wits to work to invent some contrivance which would do the spinning more quickly.

Hargreaves' Spinning-jenny (1767)

Among the first to succeed was a Lancashire weaver named Hargreaves. A quick and clever man sometimes hits upon a new idea from observing some slight and trivial occurrence, and this was the case with Hargreaves. His wife's spinning-wheel happened to be overturned, and he noticed that the wheel went on turning when it was in that unusual position. He thought to himself, "Why should I not make a machine in which several wheels could turn in that way, and in which some contrivance could hold the pieces of wool and give them the twist which would make them into thread?"

Before long he made a machine (1767) which spun several threads more quickly and finely than his wife and daughter could do them. He called his machine a jenny, after the name of his wife. At first, Hargreaves used the jenny for himself. By and by he sold some of the machines to others, and the spinners, who were afraid that they would be thrown out of work, were very angry. They broke into his cottage and destroyed his jenny. As he was determined to use his new invention, he removed to Nottingham, and made another better than the first. After a few years he made one which would spin thirty threads at once, and his machine was found to be so useful that it spread into Lancashire, and even into the village where the first jenny had been destroyed. Hargreaves himself died a poor man in 1778.

Arkwright and the Spinning-frame

Another man who improved the spinning of thread was Richard Arkwright. Strange to say, he was not a weaver or a spinner, but a barber. He was the son of a poor man at Preston, in Lancashire, who had twelve other children, and as Richard was the youngest child, he had hardly any early advantages of education. But he soon showed that he had plenty of push and go in him. After being for some time a barber, he took to a more profitable calling, and travelled about buying up hair, which he then sold to wig-makers.

In his travels he kept his eyes open to what was going on in other trades, and at that time there had been one or two attempts to make a spinning-machine. He knew little about this machinery at first, but he made friends with mechanics, and persuaded one of them to make a model of a machine with improvements which he suggested.

He next removed to Nottingham, and after a long struggle with poverty he made a spinning-machine which was, in some respects, better than that of Hargreaves. At first his machine was turned by a horse; but, as he found that it would be better to get it turned by water-power, he removed to Cromford, a pretty village just below Matlock, on the river Derwent. That river flows very swiftly, so it was easy to build a mill containing several machines, all of which could be worked by the water-wheel which was turned by the current of the river. Arkwright's activity was shown in his numerous journeys on

horseback or by coach to Manchester, or even to Scotland, for the purpose of seeing any improvements in machinery, or of extending his business. In course of time he became a wealthy man, and was knighted by George III.

Crompton's Spinning Mule

Another man who did much to improve the spinning-machine was Samuel Crompton, the son of a farmer near Bolton, in Lancashire. He was a quiet, thoughtful lad, and when he was spinning he tried to puzzle out a way in which Hargreaves' jenny could be improved. For a long time he worked secretly at his improvement; and the people of the house were often alarmed at the strange noises which came from the upper room. It was even said by the neighbours that the house was haunted, until at last it was known that the noise came from his new machine.

When it was finished, it was found to be better than the machines of Hargreaves or of Arkwright, and as it had all the good points of both, Crompton called his invention the *mule*. The mule made thread finer and firmer than ever before had been made; so that it was soon possible to make in our own land muslins better than those of India.

Crompton's invention brought prosperity to many parts of the country which had been comparatively poor before, especially in the north and the Midlands. The prosperity of Lancashire dates from the time of Crompton, for soon cotton began to be made



WELLINGTON AT WATERLOO (page 14)

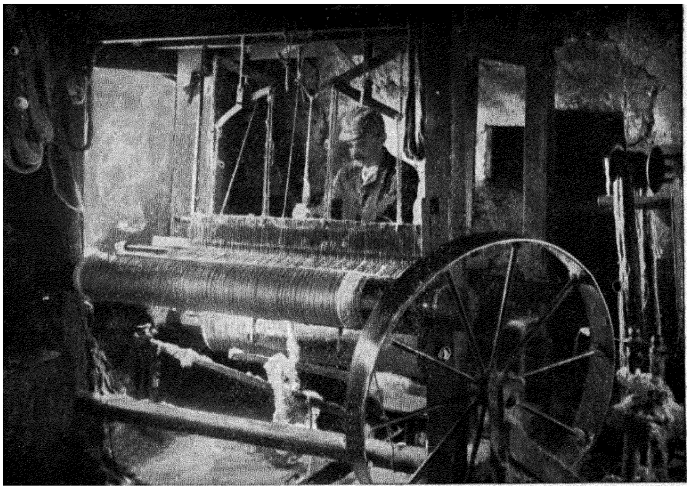


Photo. Wilson

Weaver and Hand-Loom

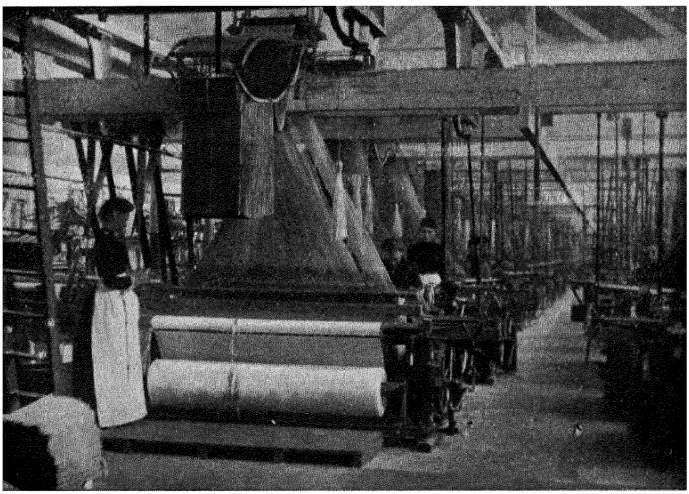


Photo. Wilson

Modern Power-Looms

better and cheaper than before, and the industry centred more and more in Lancashire, because the American cotton could be brought so readily to Liverpool. Instead of being one of the most backward of our counties, as it was in 1750, it quickly became the wealthiest and most thickly-peopled county in Great Britain.

Cartwright and the Power-loom (1803)

The inventions about which we have just read were all connected with the spinning of thread, not with the weaving of cloth. You cannot make cloth unless you have a good firm thread to work with. So it was only natural that the first great inventions in the cotton and woollen trades should be for improving the making of thread.

But we should not to-day have our great manufactures of cotton and woollen goods unless we could quickly and cheaply work up the thread into sheets and cloths; and that could not be done quickly by the old hand-loom, which was at best a cumbrous contrivance. The worker had his rows of threads before him, and then threw a thread crosswise with his shuttle, and these cross threads when tightened on the upright threads made the cloth. Between 1703 and 1740 Kay's invention of the fly shuttle doubled the amount of work a weaver could do, and at the same time greatly improved its quality, but it did not enable the weaver to work up the supply of yarn which improvements in spinning had placed at his disposal.

It occurred to a clever clergyman, Dr. Cartwright, that, as so many improvements had been made in spinning-machines, he might make a machine which would weave cloth. At first he was laughed at, and was told that it was quite impossible for any machine to copy the movement of a weaver's hand.

But Cartwright had a great belief in his own powers; and at last he knocked together a clumsy sort of machine which did weave in a slow and cumbrous way. He next set to work to improve it, with the help of some skilled mechanics, and, after a long time of patient labour, his machine was found to be able to weave patterns, and to do all that a weaver had done, only the machine did it much more quickly.

In 1803 the new power-loom, as it was soon called, was first tried in several factories, and was found to answer well. Since that time it has been greatly improved in many ways, so that now there are very few hand-looms to be found in our land, except in remote parts of Scotland and Ireland. The power-loom does the work more evenly, more quickly, and more cheaply.

At first water-power was generally used to work the new spinning-machines and the power-looms; and very many mills were built on swift-running rivers in Derbyshire, Lancashire, Yorkshire, and in Scotland. The cloth manufacture of our southern and eastern counties began to decay, because there are hardly any swift rivers in these parts.

Introduction of Steam-power

But another change was beginning to take place in our manufactures. Steam-power was found to be better than water-power, for with water-power the rivers occasionally overflowed and damaged the mills, or in a dry summer there was not enough water to work the machinery. Now, in the early years of last century, the steam-engine became of more use than ever it had been before. You can always work a steam-engine if you can get plenty of coal; and, to get the coal cheaply, manufacturers began to make their factories and mills near the great coal-pits of Lancashire, Yorkshire, and the Midlands, and in the valley of the Clyde in Scotland. That is the chief reason why our great manufacturing towns have grown up near the great coal-fields. To understand how this change came about, we must look at the work of James Watt and George Stephenson.

James Watt and the Steam-engine

James Watt, who did so much to improve the steam-engine, was born in 1736 at Greenock, a sea-port at the mouth of the river Clyde. He was a delicate child, but he soon showed that he had great powers of thought and of reasoning. He was also fond of tools, and of trying to improve all his play-things. His father wisely encouraged this. It is said that the boy once amused himself with making experiments on the steam which came from the boiling kettle on the hob, and that, by using a cup

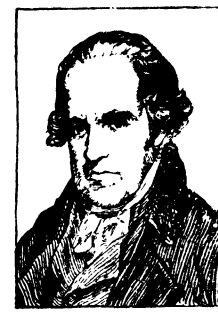
and a spoon, he found out how the steam could be condensed and become water again. Whether that be true or not, it is certain that he early made many experiments, some of which were with chemicals; and, by helping his father with the ropes and sails and ship's tackle, he grew to be clever with his hands.

It was soon decided that he should be a maker of instruments, such as compasses, parallel rulers, and the like. He went to Glasgow, and then to London, where he lived very sparingly on eight shillings a week. In the war time (1756) he was afraid of being forced by the press-gang to go into the royal navy. He therefore returned to Glasgow. As he had not served his apprenticeship in the city, the rules of the trade guilds did not admit of his setting up business; but the University, which was not subject to the rules of the guilds, granted him the use of some rooms in one of their buildings, where he could carry on his work.

One of the professors set him to repair a model of one of the queer old engines of those days. This was a great opportunity for young Watt, who began to think seriously about the many defects of this engine. He saw that there was a great waste of steam, and he set himself to work to remedy this. At length he contrived an ingenious plan for making the steam do far more work than it did in the old engine; and he has therefore been called the inventor of the steam-engine.

The old engines had mostly been used for pumping water out of mines; and Watt, in 1775, went to the tin mines of Cornwall to improve the engines there.

Of one of these engines, he writes: "The velocity, violence, magnitude, and horrible noise of the engine give universal satisfaction to all beholders". Soon he altered nearly all the steam-engines in Cornwall. Later on he made an engine to work a great hammer which would give three hundred blows a minute—a thing never dreamt of before.



James Watt

After 1800 his steam-engine could be used by anyone, and many improvements were made in it, so that it began to be used more and more for working all kinds of machinery in the new large factories of the Midlands and the north.

George Stephenson and the Locomotive

About eight miles west of Newcastle-on-Tyne there is a mining village called Wylam. There, in a humble cottage, George Stephenson was born in the year 1781. He was the second son of a poor fireman, who earned only twelve shillings a week, and had a hard struggle to bring up his children. For a long time George's father was the fireman who looked after the fires of the pumping-engine at the Wylam coal-mine.

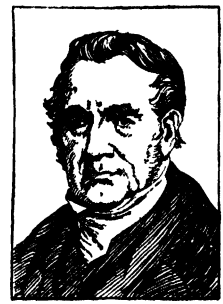
George's first employment was to look after the cows of a widow who lived near his home, for which he was paid twopence a day. In his spare time he used to make clay models of the steam-engine. He

and a friend even made a large model of the winding machine which drew loads up the pit; and great was their grief when some stupid persons smashed it.

George's father often had to move about in search of work, and the boy, when he was fifteen years old, was glad to be taken on as fireman at a shilling a day. He at once began to study the working of his pumping-engine, so as to be able to do his work well. By this means he became a skilled workman, and had his pay doubled. He loved his engine, and in his spare time used to take it to pieces so as to understand all about it. He also went to a night-school, where he was taught to read and write; and at the age of nineteen he was proud to be able to write his own name.

When he was twenty-one years of age he married, and settled at a village on the river Tyne, a little below Newcastle. Still he kept on trying to improve himself, and spent his evenings in his own home, reading and thinking about machinery and inventions. After a few years he moved to Killingworth colliery, not far off; but his life there was saddened by the death of his young wife.

Nevertheless he threw all his energy into his work, and became well known as a repairer of pumping-engines. On one occasion the manager of a coal-mine came to him in despair, and said he would make him a man for life if he would pump the mine clear of water. Stephenson set the pumping-engine to rights, so that in two days it pumped all the water out, and the miners were able to go on with their work again.


George Stephenson

In 1812 he was appointed engineer of the Killingworth coal-mine, with a salary of £100 a year. He spent most of this money, and of what else he could earn, in giving a good education to his only son Robert; for he said that he himself had always felt the need of education, and he was determined that his son should not labour under the same defect.

At this time, he began to study seriously how to make a steam-engine that would draw the coal-wagons, and so take the place of the horses then generally used for the purpose; for though the horses dragged the wagons on rough iron rails, yet the wear and tear to the horses was very great. Many men had been planning and making engines which would draw a load along a road; but they were very clumsy. They burnt a great deal of coal, and yet only went at a walking pace. So most people laughed at them, and said that they would never do; and the workmen called them a perfect plague. An engine-driver, when asked how he got on with his engine, said, "We don't get on; we only get off".

Stephenson felt sure that he could make an engine which would do its work cheaply and well. The chief owner of the mine, Lord Ravensworth, believed in him, and helped him, so he made his first "travelling engine", as it was called. But it was not a success. It dragged some trucks along at four miles an hour, but its work cost quite as much as that of horses.

Stephenson saw what a waste of steam there was from his engine, as it was always hissing away; and he thought to himself, "If I can make that steam do more work, my engine will be more powerful". He therefore let the steam escape up the smoke chimney. It drove out the smoke far more quickly, and thus gave a better draught to the furnace, which burnt more brightly and so made steam faster. Next year (1815) he made an engine with this great improvement and several others. His new engine drew a heavy train of coal trucks at six miles an hour, and was found to do the work more cheaply than horses could do it. Shortly afterwards he made a railway in Durham eight miles long, on which his engines dragged the coal-trucks to the banks of the river Wear.

The Safety-Lamp—The Geordie

In those times explosions of gas or fire-damp in the collieries were very frequent. No one had yet devised a safety-lamp; and the miners worked with open lights at constant risk to their lives. For if an unguarded flame comes in contact with that dangerous gas, a frightful explosion takes place; and, all too often, great numbers of the workmen are killed. George Stephenson, after many experiments, found out that a light might be safely used inside fine wire-netting; and he made a safety-lamp something like that which Sir Humphry Davy planned shortly after. The Davy lamp has some improvements on Stephenson's; but Stephenson's was invented first, and it has

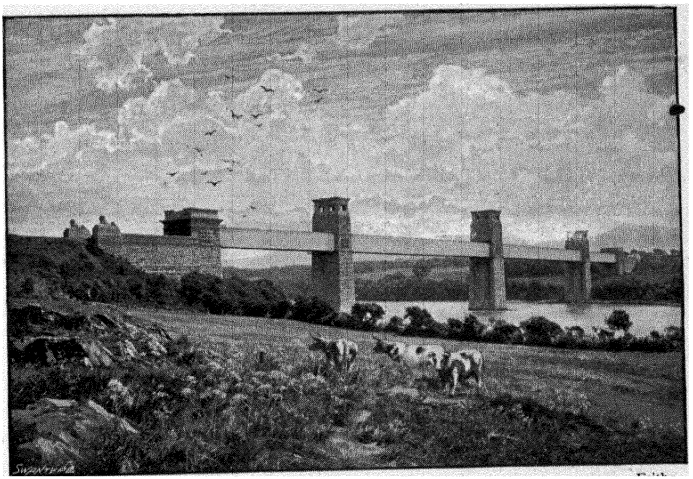


Photo. Frith

Britannia Tubular Bridge: designed by Robert Stephenson
(page 35)

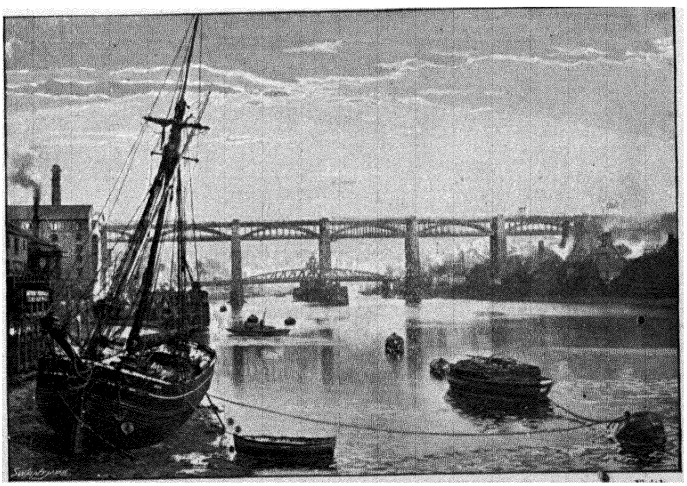


Photo. Frith

High-Level Bridge, Newcastle: designed by Robert Stephenson
(page 35)



BEFORE THE RAILWAYS: COACH ARRIVING AT AN INN

saved thousands of lives in the dangerous mines of the north of England.

The First Railway

In 1821, a new chance turned up for Stephenson, and he made the most of it. Mr. Pease of Darlington was planning a railway to take coal from the coal-mines near that town to the sea below Stockton-on-Tees. When Stephenson heard that the railway was about to be made, he and a friend went to call on Mr. Pease, and told him that the new engine at Killingworth colliery was worth fifty horses. His reasoning so convinced Mr. Pease, that it was decided that Stephenson's engines should be used on the new railway. When the day for opening came, crowds of people assembled, for many of them expected to see Stephenson's engine blow up. Stephenson was there to drive his new engine, and it drew a long train at the rate of about twelve miles an hour, which was thought most wonderful.

This railway paid very well for coals, but very few passengers travelled by it. Its only passenger carriages were two or three dark and uncomfortable vans which were drawn by horses. People still went generally by coach, even between Darlington and Stockton, and it was thought a great marvel when the train and the mail-coach had a race and the train won by a hundred yards.

The Manchester and Liverpool Railway

The business men of Manchester, hearing about the success of this railway, wanted to have a line between Manchester and Liverpool, so that they might travel more quickly between the two places and also get their goods more quickly. They appointed George Stephenson and his son Robert as constructors of the line. All sorts of people opposed the scheme. Farmers said that it would ruin their farms, that the noise of the engines would prevent cows grazing and hens laying eggs. Country gentlemen said that it would scare away all foxes and pheasants; and the ignorant rustics came out and attacked with pitchforks the men who measured the ground for the railway. The engineers had to hire prize-fighters to protect them and their men, and sometimes they had guns fired a long way off, so as to draw gamekeepers off the scent.

Among the many difficulties that had to be overcome in the construction of the line, was the carrying of the railway over a great bog called Chat-Moss. But the courage and patience of the Stephensons surmounted this as well as all other difficulties.

When the line was complete, a trial was held of the engines made by different engineers for working on the railway, a prize of £500 being offered by the directors. Stephenson's engine, the Rocket, proved to be far the best, and accordingly won the prize. At the public opening of the line, in 1830, a passenger train was drawn by this engine at the

speed of about thirty miles an hour. The world then knew that the patient Northumbrian was a really great man, and that his iron-horse was henceforth to be the king of the road.

George Stephenson and his son had a share in making many other important railways. Among the great achievements of Robert Stephenson we may mention the high level bridge across the Tyne at Newcastle, the tubular bridges across the Conway River and the Menai Straits, and an immensely long tubular bridge across the river St. Lawrence at Montreal, now rebuilt on a more modern plan.

THE REIGN OF GEORGE THE FOURTH

Period of Reform

King George III died in January, 1820, at the age of 80 years. For several years he had been blind and insane, and his son, the Prince of Wales, had been regent. On the death of his father the Prince-Regent became king as George IV, and with his reign begins what has been appropriately called the Period of Reform.

The long war with France had occupied men's minds so much that they had been able to devote but little attention to political reforms. So great was the effect of the French Revolution on the minds of our forefathers, that for a period of nearly thirty years the very name of reform seems to have been distasteful to them. The measures, which Pitt

had in hand, and for which the country was ripe at the close of the American War of Independence, were no more heard of till after Waterloo. But now people had time to think about their grievances, and the demand of the people for more power in the government of the country began to be heard.

Catholic Emancipation

One irresistible claim was that of the Catholics, who were debarred from sending men of their own religion to represent them in Parliament. In the case of Ireland the result of this rule was that the Irish people were in no true sense represented in the British Parliament, for though the majority of them were Roman Catholics, the elections were controlled by the Protestant landlords.

The foremost man in the fight against this injustice was Daniel O'Connell, an Irish barrister, whose fervid eloquence and brilliant wit secured him immense influence over his countrymen. He maintained the agitation for Catholic emancipation without resorting to illegal or unconstitutional means, and brought it to a triumphant termination in 1829, when the Catholic Emancipation Act was passed, removing nearly the whole of the Roman Catholic disabilities. This measure, for which O'Connell had fought so strenuously and so well, was introduced into Parliament by Sir Robert Peel, then Home Secretary in the government of the Duke of Wellington. He had long opposed the reform, but was finally convinced that it was necessary.

Sir Robert Peel

Peel was the ablest of George IV's ministers, and one of the greatest statesmen in British history. His name is so interwoven with the history of this period that we must state briefly the chief features of his life.

Robert Peel, the son of a wealthy Lancashire cotton manufacturer, was born in 1788. From the first his father was resolved that Peel should serve the state. As a boy at Harrow he was distinguished by his diligence, and at Christ Church, Oxford, he took a high degree, achieving the distinction of a "double first".

He entered Parliament in 1809 as member for Cashel, a small Irish borough, and though only twenty-one years of age, he soon commanded the attention of the House. He became private secretary to Lord Liverpool, one of the Secretaries of State, and shortly after he was made also Under Secretary for the Colonies. In 1812, when only twenty-four years old, he was appointed Chief Secretary for Ireland, a post the duties of which he fulfilled with much success for six years.

One of the difficulties which Peel had to face was the Catholic question, and his opinions were unfavourable to the proposal to admit Catholics to Parliament. He maintained his views stoutly, and gained the nickname of "Orange Peel" by his support of the Orange Associations.

During his term of office as Irish Secretary, Peel



Sir Robert Peel

organized a new body of police, afterwards known as the Royal Irish Constabulary. In popular talk the new police were called "Bobbies" and "Peelers", names which were afterwards given to the new London police organized by Peel.

In 1818 Peel resigned his office. He was now member for Oxford University. For four years he remained a private member, but his influence continually grew, and he was elected chairman of a committee appointed to deal with a difficult financial question. The measure that was afterwards passed to settle this question was commonly known as Peel's Act, and gave Peel a high reputation as a sound financier.

In 1822 he joined the ministry as Home Secretary, and turned his attention to the reform of the criminal law. A great number of offences were at that time punishable with death; but crime increased instead of diminishing, for juries and judges hesitated to send a man to his death for an offence like stealing a loaf, and thus criminals had great hope of escaping punishment altogether. During Peel's term of office nearly three hundred old laws which bore too hardly on the people were repealed, and capital punishment was limited to murder and a few other serious crimes.

After five years as Home Secretary, Peel resigned because he differed from the Prime Minister, George Canning, on the Roman Catholic question. Canning,

a witty and brilliant minister, who did noble work for freedom at home and abroad, was in favour of allowing Roman Catholics to sit in Parliament. Only four months after Peel's resignation, Canning died, and Peel returned to the Home Office under the new Prime Minister, the Duke of Wellington. Opposed as he was to admitting the Roman Catholic claims, Peel soon saw that the relief demanded by the Roman Catholics would have to be granted. The Commons had several times declared for the Roman Catholic Relief Bill, and when at length O'Connell, a Roman Catholic, was elected member for Clare, it was evident that resistance could only be maintained by the government at the cost of civil war.

Wellington, like Peel, saw that the time for giving way had come, and Peel honourably offered to retire from the ministry, fearing that his previous opposition might tie the duke's hands. But the duke would not allow him to retire, and it was ultimately decided to bring in three measures: one to suppress the Catholic Association, which had been agitating Ireland on the question, the second to remove the barriers which shut Roman Catholics out of Parliament, and the third to regulate the Irish franchise. After the passing of the first act, Peel resigned his seat in Parliament, in order, by seeking re-election, to be assured that his action was approved. But he was rejected by Oxford University, then a stronghold of Toryism and intolerance, and was abused by almost the whole of the Tory party, in and out of Parliament, as a turn-coat and a traitor—abuse which he bore without a murmur.

Being elected member for Westbury, Peel, on March 5, 1829, introduced his great measure for the relief of the Catholics. His speech, which occupied four hours, was a masterpiece of persuasiveness and sound statesmanship, and was received with immense applause. With his usual generosity and honourable feeling, Peel gave the credit of the measure to the great men who had fought for liberty and had passed away, such as Pitt, Grattan, and Canning. The bill passed the Commons easily; the influence of Wellington secured its passage through the Lords, and on April 13, 1829, it became law. Thus was removed an injustice from which Catholics had suffered for a hundred and fifty years.

Peel then formed a new police force for London, to take the place of the old and feeble watchmen, who failed to keep order and prevent crime. He was engaged in other beneficent reforms when George IV died on 26th June, 1830.

THE REIGN OF WILLIAM THE FOURTH

Parliamentary Reform

The brother of George IV succeeded to the throne as William IV, and during his short reign of seven years proved a popular king. He was a bluff, hearty seaman, and his simple ways pleased the people. He showed no special favour to either party, Whigs or Tories, but thoroughly accepted his position as a constitutional sovereign.

The great question of the reign was that of parliamentary reform. Owing to the changes that had been for many years coming over the national life, the House of Commons, as then elected, did not truly represent the country. The majority of the members were elected by a handful of voters in the pocket boroughs of the great nobles and land-owners, who were all-powerful on their own property, and secured the election of their own relatives and friends, or of men who could be trusted to look well after their patrons' interests. On the other hand, the great towns which the growth of trade and manufactures had created, and which were drawing more and more people to themselves from the country districts, could not elect members at all. The forsaken hill of Old Sarum, in Wiltshire, still had the right of sending two members to Parliament, while Leeds, Manchester, and Birmingham could not send one. In short, the Commons represented the upper classes; the great middle class of traders and merchants, and the lower class of labourers and artisans, were not represented at all.

For many years liberal-minded statesmen had seen that a reform was necessary. Chatham and Pitt had both made vain efforts to bring about such a reform, but the opposition was so strong that not till 1832 was it actually accomplished.

After Waterloo there had been great distress and discontent among the people, caused partly by the fall in prices, and the consequent bad trade, that followed the stoppage of the war, and partly by the changes in employment due to the introduction of machinery.

The disbandment of the great forces employed on land and sea, too, had brought back numbers of men who could not at once find employment. How great was the number thus returning to civil life will be understood when it is remembered that at one time during the struggle with France Great Britain is said to have had about a million of men in arms.

In various parts of the country the distressed people had committed acts of violence. A remarkable man named William Cobbett had started a newspaper, in which he taught the people that violence would do them no good, but that they must educate themselves, and secure the power of electing members of Parliament to speak for them.

In William IV's first Parliament a motion was made in the House of Lords by the Whig Earl Grey, recommending that a measure of reform should be introduced. A great noble and land-owner himself, Lord Grey saw that the people were right in asking for better representation, and used all his eloquence, and the influence of his high station and fine character, to support their cause. But the Duke of Wellington, who could see no need of improvement, opposed Lord Grey in a speech which made him very unpopular, and in a short time his ministry was compelled to resign.

The Passing of the first Reform Bill (1832)

Lord Grey then became prime minister, and on March 1, 1831, one of his colleagues, Lord John Russell, an earnest and singularly able man, intro-

duced the first Reform Bill in the House of Commons. It was strongly opposed by Peel and the Tories; the second reading was only carried by a majority of one, and in committee the government suffered a defeat. Lord Grey then advised the king to dissolve Parliament, so that in electing a new House of Commons the nation might show whether it wished for a reform or not. The king agreed, and went down to the House of Lords to dissolve Parliament, just as Lord Wharncliffe in the Lords and Peel in the Commons were protesting against the action of the ministers. The king's action was very popular; people cried out for "the bill, the whole bill, and nothing but the bill", and the reformers had an immense majority in the new House of Commons.

In June, 1831, Lord John Russell again introduced his Reform Bill, which passed the Commons by great majorities, but was rejected by the Lords. Thereupon serious riots broke out, and unions were formed of men who declared they would march on London to support the ministers. In December a bill was introduced for the third time. After passing the Commons it was again likely to be rejected by the Lords. In these circumstances Lord Grey asked the king to create a sufficient number of new peers to overcome the hostile majority, and when William refused, the earl resigned.

Wellington was then asked to form a ministry, the king, who saw that reform must come, making it a condition that a Reform Bill of some kind should be introduced. Wellington, who was always ready to obey the king, accepted the duty; but Peel refused

to join him in forming a ministry, and even become prime minister, declaring that he could n in honesty support what he had so strongly oppose At length the duke gave up the attempt to form ministry, and Lord Grey was recalled. The kin agreed to create new peers if necessary, and Wellin ton, seeing that effective resistance was no long possible, advised his supporters in the Lords, whe the bill again came before them, to withdraw witho voting. In this way the ministers gained a majorit and the bill passed in June, 1832.

This great Reform Bill took away 143 membe from small and decayed boroughs; 43 towns, inclu ing Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds, and Sheffiel were allowed for the first time to elect members; an 65 new members were given to the counties. Th right to vote was extended to a large number householders, and important changes were made i the mode of election. The result was, that the Hou of Commons from 1832 to 1867 represented, not th aristocracy, but the great middle class of trader farmers, and professional men. In the first reforme House the Whigs had a majority of more than 3c over the Tories.

Further Measures of Reform

In the Reformed Parliament of 1833, Peel, wh had three years before succeeded to his father baronetcy and wealth, sat as member for Tamworth Except for a few months as prime minister, in 1834–3 he passed the next eight years in opposition. The

were years of very great importance. Political parties underwent a momentous change. The Whigs divided into two sections, Liberals and Radicals, the latter, from the passing of the Reform Bill of 1832, being used to denote little more than the more advanced of the Liberal party. The Tories as a party had opposed reform; but Peel, as leader of the opposition, trained his followers to look for the will of the nation as a whole, and to be ready to effect moderate and well-thought-out reforms whenever they should be really necessary. These became the principles of the Conservative party, as the more liberal Tories called themselves.

Abolition of Slavery

During this period Peel, while opposing the Liberal government on some questions, gave it cordial support on others. Among these was the great measure passed in 1833 for the freeing of the slaves in British colonies. Twenty-six years before, the exertions of some noble-minded men, William Wilberforce, Thomas Clarkson, and Zachary Macaulay (father of Lord Macaulay), had resulted in a measure for the abolition of the slave-trade. From 1807 it was illegal for any British subject to engage in the transport of negroes from Africa to the British colonies in the West Indies or elsewhere. In 1833 an act was passed setting free all slaves in British dominions, while £20,000,000 was paid by the government to their masters as compensation.

The First Factory Act

The same year Lord Ashley, afterwards Lord Shaftesbury, carried through Parliament a Factory Act, designed to prevent the overworking of children and young persons in factories. Peel's father had brought forward a similar measure thirty years before, and Sir Robert gave Lord Ashley his hearty support. The year 1833 also was marked by the first grant made in aid of national education, £20,000 being voted for the improvement and extension of school buildings.

The New Poor Law

In 1834 a new Poor Law was passed, to relieve honest and hard-working people from the great burdens thrown on them by the increase of pauperism. Under the old law a numerous class of casual labourers had grown up, who, with their large families, had received outdoor relief from the rates paid by the more industrious. The new law compelled all able-bodied persons, who would not keep themselves, to enter workhouses and work for their living. The result of this change of system was that the number of paupers and the amount of the poor-rate rapidly diminished.

Reduction of Duties on Newspapers

Among the many other reforms carried out in this reign was the lowering of the duties levied on newspapers. This resulted in a large increase in the

number of newspapers, and consequently in greater knowledge of political affairs among the people at large.

Development of Railways and Steam Navigation

After the construction of the first railway, in 1829, by George Stephenson, railway trains soon took the place, in all parts of the country, of the old stage-coaches. Time was saved in the transport of goods, in the carrying of news, and in journeys for business and pleasure, and remote parts of the country were brought into a closeness of connection that was previously impossible.

Of equal importance was the increasing use of steamboats. As early as 1808 Henry Bell had launched the first steamer on the Clyde, and ten years later the *Rising Sun*, built by Lord Erskine, crossed the Atlantic; but it was not till many years later that steamships were built in any great numbers.

THE ACCESSION OF QUEEN VICTORIA

King William IV died in 1837, and then began the memorable reign of Queen Victoria, the longest and most illustrious reign in the history of Britain.

Queen Victoria, the most beloved, and perhaps the wisest sovereign that ever sat on the throne of Britain, was the only child of the Duke of Kent, the fifth child of King George III. At one time it did not seem a probable thing that a child who had so many relatives between her and the throne would

ever be Queen. But one by one the elder members of the royal family died off. George IV passed away in 1830, William IV followed him in 1837; and, as neither they nor the next heirs of George III left any descendants, the succession came to Victoria.

Princess Victoria



Duchess of Kent

The Princess Victoria was born on May 24, 1819, at Kensington Palace. She was never to know the loving care of a father, for her father died while she was an infant. His widow was left to the care of her brother, Prince Leopold, who brought her and her infant daughter to the royal palace at Kensington.

The little princess, who, as she grew up, showed that she had inherited her father's kindliness and intelligence, was most carefully trained by the widowed mother. In all the West End of London probably no child received more careful, regular training in all that makes for health of body, vigour of mind, and loving regard for all the works of God. Consequently, when called upon to ascend the throne, the young princess was qualified, in a remarkable degree, for her lofty and difficult duties.

The Queen's Accession

The bluff old sailor king, William IV, died very early on the morning of June 20, 1837, and the Arch-


Queen Victoria in 1837

bishop of Canterbury, and the Lord Chamberlain immediately set off from Windsor to Kensington Palace, to greet the new queen. Summoned hastily from her bedchamber, to receive the startling news of her uncle's death and her own accession, Victoria appeared clad in her dressing-gown, "tears in her eyes, but perfectly collected and dignified", and gave her hand to be kissed by her kneeling subjects. She showed the same calm and firm demeanour later in the day when she received the homage of Lord Melbourne, the prime minister, and his colleagues; as also when she took her seat on the throne in the House of Lords to prorogue Parliament.

The accession of the first queen of the House of Brunswick who reigned in her own right, led to the separation of Hanover from the United Kingdom. By the ancient Salic Law, no queen could rule over Hanover; and that kingdom, after having been connected with our own since the accession of George I, now passed to the rule of Queen Victoria's uncle, the Duke of Cumberland. This severance was popular in England, not only because Hanover had been considered a burden on our foreign policy, but also because the Duke of Cumberland, owing to his overbearing manners, was highly unpopular. Accordingly, our people were heartily glad to "send him to Hanover".

Difficulties at Home and Abroad

Victoria became queen at a moment of great difficulty at home and abroad. There were revolts in Upper and Lower Canada. Our National Debt was enormously large; taxation, though not extremely heavy, pressed on many of the necessaries of life. The tax on corn raised the price of bread to an artificially high figure; and when a working man had paid his rent and bought his scanty supplies of food, little or nothing remained over from his wages for the general wants of the family. Two formidable agitations began not long after Queen Victoria came to the throne—that of the *Anti-Corn-Law League*, and another which was far less wisely conducted, the movement for the *People's Charter*. In these disturbed times the accession of a young and beloved queen was an event productive of the highest good. If the extravagant George IV, or even if his brother William IV, whose changes on the Reform question had made him unpopular, had been reigning when these social troubles came to a head, there might have been a serious rebellion against the Government.

The Reform Ministry, headed by Lord Melbourne, had failed to satisfy the wishes of the people, and was becoming more and more unpopular, partly owing to the cool and off-hand manner of the premier himself. But though the premier slighted his supporters and offended every deputation by his jaunty airs, he behaved to the queen with the most chivalrous regard. A well-known writer of memoirs, named

Greville, wrote in his diary: "Melbourne is at her side at least six hours in the day, and she fretted herself into an illness at the notion of his going out of office. It has become his province to educate, instruct, and form the most interesting mind and character in the world."

Though her ministers were so unpopular, against the young queen herself not even the most violent of the Chartist agitators uttered a word. Young and high-spirited, she was at first inclined to the gaiety and splendour of state balls, but a hint from her trustiest councillors showed her the wisdom of restraining the display of wealth before a populace which was often suffering from the direst want.

The Queen's Coronation (1838)

The enthusiasm for the queen grew in intensity as her excellent qualities became more widely known. At first she had come forth from the almost complete privacy of the family circle at Kensington Palace to a world which knew little about her. The curiosity which greeted her advent to the throne changed to admiration and devotion at the time of her coronation on June 28, 1838; and great crowds cheered the imposing procession in which the queen rode to Westminster Abbey.

The Queen's Marriage

Again in 1839, when the Chartists were arousing fierce excitement in the great towns of our land, an outburst of loyalty greeted the news that the young



Prince Albert

queen was about to bestow her heart and hand on her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. It was a love match. The young prince had once or twice seen the Princess Victoria, and each felt a deep though secret devotion to the other. Undoubtedly it realized the dearest wish of the prince's heart when he received from the young Queen of England the offer of marriage, which court etiquette required should come from her to one who was not her equal in rank. Prince Albert had been carefully educated for the duties of his own small German principality; and he now brought to the far higher station of consort of the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland a loyal devotion to truth, honour, and the highest interests of humanity. Though there was some jealousy at the queen's marriage with a German prince, the people of London gave the wedded pair a right loyal reception as they drove from the chapel at St. James's Palace all the way back to "royal Windsor". In spite of the chilling fog of that morning of February 10, 1840, vast crowds greeted the queen and her consort, and showed that the heart of England beat in sympathy with the descendant of its long line of kings. And not the heart of Great Britain only, but that of the sister island was touched by the sight of so much womanly excellence on the throne, and by the prospect of the domestic happiness which now opened out before



OPENING OF THE GREAT EXHIBITION, 1851 (page 56)



OPENING OF PARLIAMENT BY QUEEN VICTORIA, 1860

her. The great Irish orator O'Connell, who before the concession of Catholic Emancipation had almost aroused the Irish Roman Catholics to revolt, was now foremost in his expressions of devotion.

The Great Exhibition

It was some time before the Prince Consort became popular. His actions were sometimes misunderstood, to the great grief of the queen. But one suggestion of his is agreed on all hands to have produced results of great and lasting usefulness. He had always taken a keen interest in the progress of mankind in arts and inventions, and had accepted the position of President of the Society of Arts. Throwing all the energy of his generous nature into the duties of this office, he proposed that the society should promote the holding of an International Exhibition, which should be a faithful picture of the industrial development of mankind. For this ingenious suggestion he may well be called, as Tennyson has called him—

> "Far-sighted summoner of War and Waste
> To fruitful strifes and rivalries of Peace".

The project was violently opposed in many quarters. Manufacturers who had machines or inventions of special excellence feared, or even refused, to exhibit, lest foreigners might copy them. Others of a more nervous disposition thought that as Europe was still in a very distracted state after the Revolutions of 1848–1849, many of those who had disturbed the peace of the Continent would flock over here and stir up revolt. In spite of these and

many other objections, the queen and her husband did their utmost on behalf of the proposed exhibition. They and its other supporters showed that the prosperity of other nations would advance the wealth of our own; and that as people advanced in industry, and multiplied the channels of friendly commerce, wars would become less frequent, and workmen would have something better to do than form conspiracies and throw up barricades.

The support of the Queen and the Prince Consort helped to bring the scheme to a successful issue. Mr., afterwards Sir Joseph, Paxton, gardener to the Duke of Devonshire, designed a wondrous palace of glass (now the well-known Crystal Palace), high enough to enclose lofty trees under its glittering roof, and large enough to display the latest triumphs of human ingenuity. This palace of industry was opened by Queen Victoria and her consort in Hyde Park on May-day, 1851. The spectacle was no less brilliant than joyous. Men of all nations were there assembled on friendly terms to promote the welfare of mankind. As the cheers of the multitude welcomed the young queen, and the strains of the choir rose to celebrate the triumphs of peace, men and women hailed with sobs of joy the beginning of a new golden age.

Alas, these splendid hopes were short-lived! Before the close of that year, 1851, Louis Napoleon had his opponents seized or shot in Paris. Three years later came the Crimean War, which was speedily followed by the Indian Mutiny. In 1859, with the war in the north of Italy, began the series of great national strug-

gles which were to build up the nations of southern and central Europe, a work completed in the Austro-Prussian War of 1866, and the tremendous struggle between France and Germany in 1870. During the sixties, the Civil War between the Northern and the Southern States of America deluged with blood that usually peaceful continent. In Central and South America, wars, insurrections, rebellions, and revolutions followed each other during the last half of the century with startling rapidity. The Russo-Turkish War of 1876–1877 freed some of the Balkan peoples from the rule of the Turks, but only after a terrible effusion of blood.

THE CORN LAWS

Peel's Ministry

Queen Victoria's first prime minister, Lord Melbourne, was not a very great statesman, but he did his country good service by carefully instructing the young queen in political affairs. His ministry was not generally successful, and when, in 1841, he resigned, he left a deficit of £10,000,000 to be made up by his successor. He was followed in office by Sir Robert Peel, who remained prime minister for five years. During these years he accomplished work that won him the eternal admiration and gratitude of the British people. Among the younger members of his ministry was William Ewart Gladstone.

Peel early set himself to get rid of the debt left by his predecessors. There was so much distress among the working-classes that he declined to impose further taxation on articles of consumption. Instead, he levied an income-tax of 7*d.* in the pound, at the same time reducing the customs and excise duties on many articles; for he believed that such articles would be increasingly used if their price was lowered, and that what a man paid in income-tax he would regain by the lessening of his household expenses. Before Peel left office, he had reduced the duties on more than a thousand articles, and totally abolished duty on more than six hundred.

The Corn Laws

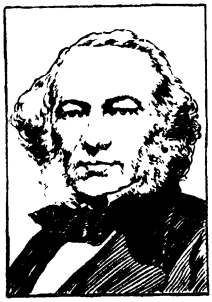
The one commodity on which he did not see his way to abolish the duty was the most important of all —corn. The corn laws kept up the price of corn for the sake of the land-owners. To lessen the hardships of the poor a "sliding scale" had been introduced, by which in times of scarcity the duty on foreign corn became very low; but there had arisen in the minds of many a belief in free-trade; that is, in the opening of British ports to food-stuffs and raw material absolutely free of duty.

The Anti-Corn-Law League was founded by men of keen intelligence and great capacity, to educate the people in the principles of free-trade, and, especially, to urge on the government the repeal of the corn laws. Of this league the most prominent members were Richard Cobden, a calico printer, who had

devoted himself to the careful study of the subject, and John Bright, a carpet manufacturer, who was the greatest orator of his day. These men did not enter Parliament until 1841 and 1843 respectively, but, for years before, Charles Villiers had annually proposed in the Commons a resolution against the corn laws.

The Irish Famine

Though Peel had abolished the duties on so many articles, he was at first strongly opposed, like the whole Tory party, to the removal of the duty on corn. He thought that the corn laws were necessary to the prosperity of the British farmers, and to the maintenance of British agriculture; and he was unwilling to do anything to injure these interests. But his eyes were gradually opened to the necessity of the reform. In 1845 the harvest failed in England, and the potato crop, on which the vast majority of the Irish people depended for a living, failed in Ireland. In England, poor people suffered intensely, and famine stared them in the face. In Ireland, the whole of the late potato crop, on which the bulk of the people depended for their living, was lost; and when, next year, the destruction caused by disease was complete, large numbers died from starvation, and from famine fever. Peel's sensitive nature was much affected by this distress; the Duke of Wellington said that he never saw a man in such agony. The efforts of the Anti-Corn-Law League were redoubled, and one speech of Cobden's in the Commons was so striking that Peel, tearing up the paper on which he


Richard Cobden

had been making notes for his reply, said to one of his colleagues, "*You* must answer this, for *I* cannot".

It was evident that measures of some kind must immediately be adopted. Peel proposed in the Cabinet to suspend the duties on corn, with a view to their complete abolition. In so doing he went totally against the principles of his party and his own former convictions; but Peel ever put the safety and welfare of the State above the claims of party. Some important members of the Cabinet opposed him, and he resigned. Lord John Russell, who had just issued a declaration against the corn laws, was called upon to form a ministry, but, finding himself unable to do so, Sir Robert Peel was recalled to office. He came back determined to repeal the corn laws, and was supported by many of his party, including Wellington, who had no love for reform, but said "a good government for the country is more important than corn laws or any other consideration".

Repeal of the Corn Laws (1846)

In 1846 Peel introduced his bill. He explained the principles of free-trade, and his own change of view, in a series of remarkable speeches. He bore without flinching the violent attacks of members of his own party, among whom the most brilliant and the most

bitter was Benjamin Disraeli, afterwards Lord Beaconsfield. The bill was passed in the Commons; on June 25, 1846, it passed the Lords, and the repeal of the corn laws was accomplished. The duty on corn was to decrease gradually for three years until it reached one shilling; and in 1869 that shilling was removed and corn became absolutely free. Thus the poor gained the inestimable blessing of cheap bread.

Sir Robert Peel's Last Years

On the same night on which the bill for the repeal of the corn laws passed the Lords, by the combination of the opposition with the disgusted members of his own party Peel was defeated in the Commons on a measure for the repression of disorder in Ireland. Four days later he announced his resignation. In his speech he declared that the credit of bringing about free-trade belonged to Richard Cobden, not to himself. He said that he would leave a name censured by Tories who accused him of betraying his party, by those who honestly disbelieved in free-trade, and by those who opposed it from interested motives. "But", he said in closing, "it may be that I shall leave a name sometimes remembered with expressions of good-will in the abodes of those whose lot it is to labour and to earn their daily bread with the sweat of their brow, when they shall recruit their exhausted strength with abundant and untaxed food, the sweeter because it is no longer leavened with a sense of injustice."

For the remaining years of his life no public cares


W. E. Gladstone

interrupted the simple domestic life in which Peel found such deep enjoyment. The queen would have made him a lord and covered him with honours, but he respectfully declined them all; sprung from the people, with the people he would remain. He retained his seat in Parliament, where, though no longer the leader of a strong party, he exercised great influence, and was looked up to by a little band of Peelites, among whom Mr. Gladstone became the most notable. He often supported the measures of his successor, Lord John Russell.

His last speech was made on June 28, 1850, on the occasion of a great debate on foreign policy. Peel, while opposed to the policy of Lord Palmerston, the Foreign Secretary, paid a generous tribute to the ability with which Palmerston had defended it against objection. Then he went on to utter words of weighty advice and reproof, pleading the cause of peace and good-will. He went home at the dawn of day, saying that he felt at peace with all men. Next day, as he was riding up Constitution Hill from Buckingham Palace towards Hyde Park, his horse, suddenly startled, became restive. Peel was a careless horseman, and was flung heavily to the ground. It was seen that he was seriously injured, and a passing carriage was used to bear him home. After three days of intense agony, the great man passed away in his sixty-second year. The whole nation

was plunged in grief, mourning for him, as the queen wrote, as for a father. In the House of Commons, Mr. Gladstone, one of Sir Robert's faithful supporters, quoted in impressive tones Sir Walter Scott's lines on Pitt:

> "Now is the stately column broke,
> The beacon light is quenched in smoke;
> The trumpet's silver sound is still,
> The warder silent on the hill".

Shy and reserved, stiff and awkward in ordinary society, Peel was loved and trusted by all who knew him well. The Duke of Wellington said of him: "I never knew a man in whose truth and justice I had a more lively confidence". As a leader in Parliament, Peel had no rival. Disraeli said that he was "the greatest member of Parliament that ever lived". He thoroughly understood how to manage the House of Commons, and his speeches were masterpieces of clear reasoning and persuasive eloquence. As a statesman, his name will ever be held in honour. He sought before all things the welfare of the nation, and was willing cheerfully to sacrifice the good opinion of his party and friends, and all personal ambition, for the sake of achieving what he believed would make his country strong, and prosperous, and contented.

CHARTISM AND REFORM

The early years of Victoria's reign were remarkable for the rise of a body of men who became known

as Chartists. The Reform Bill of 1832, while it largely increased the number of voters, and admitted the middle classes to a share in the power formerly held by the aristocracy alone, had left the working-classes without votes. The Reform leaders did not think it wise to give power to poor and ignorant men, who, they feared, would not use it well. But there was much misery and discontent among the poor, and some of their leaders taught them that their condition would be much improved if certain further reforms were effected.

Accordingly, a movement was started with the object of bringing about six reforms: (1) manhood suffrage, (2) annual parliaments, (3) vote by ballot, (4) the abolition of the property qualification for members of Parliament, (5) the payment of members, (6) the division of the country into equal electoral districts. The objects of these proposals were to give a vote to every grown man, to enable him to vote freely and without fear, and to enable poor men as well as rich to enter Parliament. Two of them, the third and fourth, have long been carried out; and some progress has been made towards the achievement of the first, fifth, and sixth. These proposed reforms made up what was called the People's Charter, and the men who worked for them were known as Chartists. Some of these were eager to force the government, by violence and revolution, to grant their demands; others were men of education, of high character, and of pure and noble motives, who believed in persuasion and peaceful measures. In spite of the efforts of the peaceful party to prevent

disorder, riots broke out in various places, and the government took strong measures to put down the movement. Many of the leaders, including some who were altogether opposed to violence, were arrested, tried, and sentenced to terms of imprisonment; and their treatment in prison was often unreasonably severe.

In 1848, rather more than ten years after the agitation began, the Chartists proposed to draw up a monster petition to Parliament, to hold a great meeting on Kennington Green, and to march in procession to the House of Commons, taking their petition with them. The government, fearing violence, forbade the procession, and the whole affair turned out a failure; for the Chartists were divided among themselves, some wishing to proceed in spite of the government, others determined to obey. Great excitement arose in London; soldiers were held in readiness to put down any violence that occurred; and special constables were enrolled in large numbers to protect property.

The Chartist meeting was held, and passed off peaceably; it was attended by less than one-tenth of the number expected. The petition, when presented to Parliament in the ordinary way, was examined; and it was found that many of the signatures were forgeries, and many were fancy names, scrawled, in all probability, by mischievous school-boys who found the sheets lying about. Everybody laughed at the collapse of the great agitation, and Chartism soon died out.

Second Reform Bill

In 1866, when Lord John, who had now become Earl Russell, was prime minister, his chancellor of the exchequer, Mr. Gladstone, brought in a second reform bill, still further enlarging the number of voters. The bill was not much liked, even by the Liberal party, and was defeated; whereupon Earl Russell resigned office, and was succeeded by Lord Derby and a Conservative government. Then there sprang up a great agitation throughout the country. Meetings were held demanding reform, and the working-classes showed that they indignantly resented the defeat of the bill. Yet the bill, after all, had been only a half-hearted measure, extending very grudgingly the franchise to the smaller trades-people and the better class of artisans in the community.

A meeting had been announced to be held in Hyde Park. The government ordered the police to shut the gates of the park and allow no one to enter. A great mob of loafers and roughs assembled, in addition to a number of people who really had an intelligent interest in the subject of reform. Many of the latter went quietly away when they found the gates closed; but some of the roughs, finding the park railings very shaky, managed to break them down, and rushed into the park.

It was more a rough frolic than a deliberate outrage; but the authorities were alarmed, and the government decided to remove all fear of a possible revolution by passing a Reform Bill of their own. Thus it happened that in 1867 the Conservatives,

who had just defeated the Reform Bill of the Liberals, themselves passed a bill giving votes to a larger number of the smaller householders than the Liberals had proposed, and also, under certain conditions, to lodgers.

Gladstone's First Ministry (1868)

In 1868 the government of Lord Derby fell, and Mr. Gladstone became the head of a Liberal government. He passed in 1871 the Ballot Act, which enables voters to record their votes in parliamentary elections secretly, by making a cross against the name of the candidate they prefer. Under the former system of public voting, a man was sometimes afraid to vote as he wished, lest he should offend his employers. In 1885, when Mr. Gladstone was prime minister for the second time, a third Reform Bill was passed, giving votes to a large number of the smaller householders in the counties.

As the result of these successive measures, men of all classes, from the wealthiest land-owners to the poorest workers in factories or yards or in the fields, got the right to vote for a member of the House of Commons. The government of the United Kingdom is chosen from the party which has a majority in the Commons; and therefore the men of Great Britain and Ireland now had it in their power to say who should be their real rulers.

IRELAND AND HOME RULE

Daniel O'Connell

As we have already seen, the Catholic Emancipation Act, passed in 1829, did away with a serious grievance under which Roman Catholics, and especially the Irish people, had long suffered. Since Roman Catholics were now admissible to Parliament, it was possible for the Catholic Irish to elect members who really represented them. Daniel O'Connell was the first of such members, and his wonderful voice was often heard in the House of Commons on behalf of his country.

O'Connell and many of his countrymen, however, were not satisfied with what they had gained. They believed that Ireland would never be a happy, prosperous, and contented country until the Irish were allowed to govern themselves. They wished to repeal the Union effected by Pitt in 1800, and to have again a parliament of their own. They started an agitation for the Repeal of the Union; O'Connell addressed monster meetings in all parts of Ireland, and worked up the Irish to a high pitch of enthusiasm.

So strong did the movement for repeal become, that O'Connell at length was bold enough to declare that the year 1843 would be the year of repeal. Though he was opposed to violence, and trusted to peaceful means to bring about his desires, some of his followers believed that one day he would lead them in arms. The government entertained the same belief, and, learning that a great meeting was

to be held at Clontarf on October 8, 1843, the Lord-Lieutenant issued, on the day before that fixed for the meeting, a proclamation forbidding it. At a word from O'Connell the people would have defied the proclamation; but their leader bade them obey it, and the meeting was not held.



Daniel O'Connell

O'Connell's most ardent supporters were bitterly disappointed, and from that moment his influence waned. He was soon afterwards arrested and tried on a charge of inciting to disaffection, and sentenced to pay a heavy fine and suffer twelve months' imprisonment. But the jury was composed of Irish Protestants bitterly opposed to O'Connell and his religion, and there were certain irregularities in the trial. On appeal to the House of Lords, the sentence was set aside, and O'Connell was released from prison; but his power was gone, and four years later he died, a broken, disappointed man.

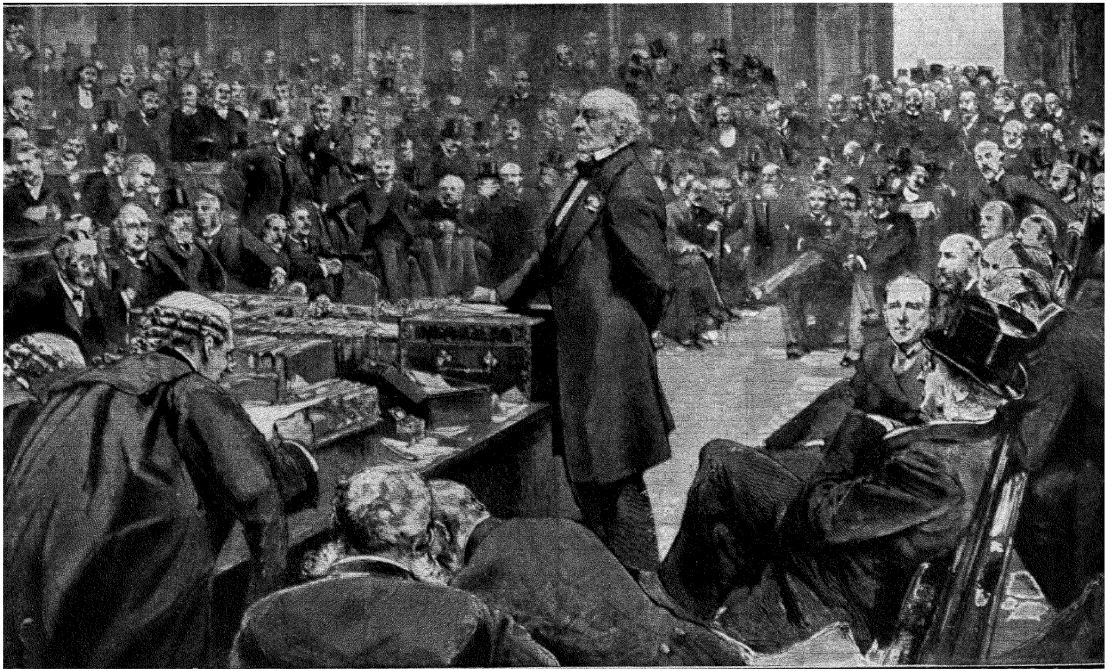
But the demand for the repeal of the Union did not cease with the death of O'Connell. As carried on by the "Young Ireland" party and the Fenians, the movement was repressed by the stern hand of the British government, which, however, has never endeavoured to stifle merely political agitation. The miseries of the Irish people, especially those arising from the laws governing the holding of land, often found expression in violence and outrage, which needed strong measures to put them down.

Irish Land Act—Disestablishment of Irish Church

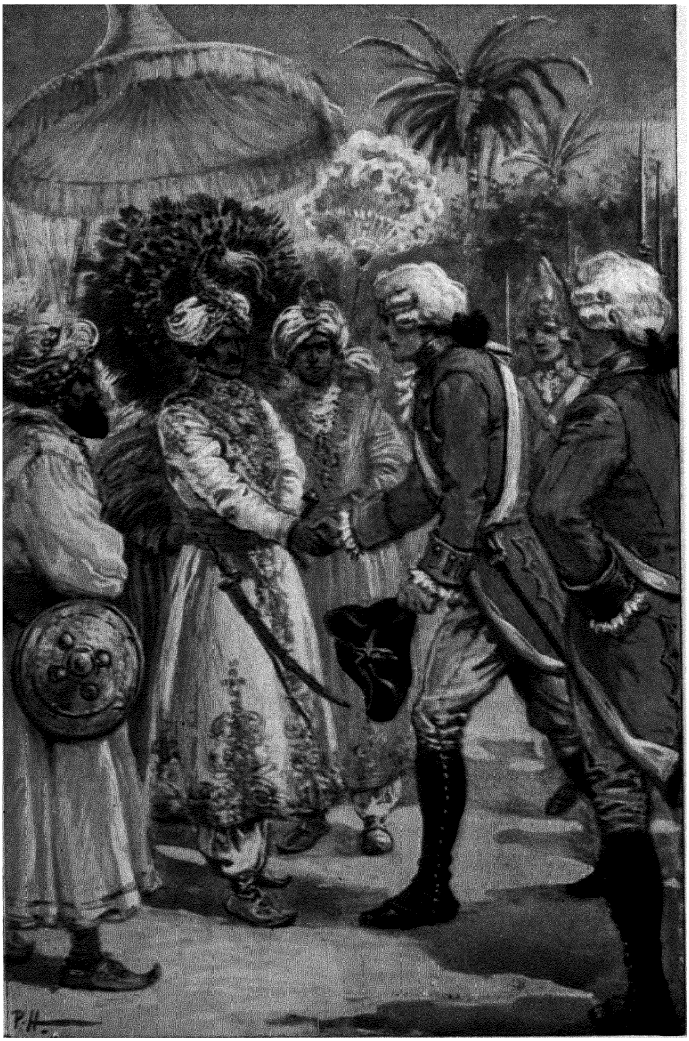
Mr. Gladstone's first ministry (1868–1873) did something for Ireland in passing a Land Act, and disestablishing the Irish Church. The Protestant Episcopal Church had been the established church of the land since the Reformation, and held all the endowments which had belonged to the unreformed church. But the large majority of the Irish were Roman Catholics, and did not attend the established churches; and, but for the devotion of their priests, religion would have been almost unknown among them. In 1869, the Irish Church Act took away these old endowments from the Episcopal Church, and employed a large portion of them in relieving distress. Thus all the churches in Ireland were freed from State control, and Catholics and Protestants were put on an equal footing.

Home Rule

The year 1870 saw an association formed with the object of gaining Home Rule for Ireland, and of electing members of Parliament pledged to work for that end. In a few years, the Home Rule party in the Commons numbered more than sixty members, and, under their skilful leader, Mr. Parnell, they made themselves exceedingly troublesome to the government. Both Conservatives and Liberals long resisted their demands, and passed coercion acts for the repression of disorder in Ireland. In 1886, however, Mr. Gladstone adopted the Home Rule cause, and thereby brought about a split in the Liberal party.



MR. GLADSTONE SPEAKING IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS



CLIVE MEETING MEER JAFFEER AFTER THE BATTLE OF PLASSEY

(page 79)

His first bill for granting Home Rule was defeated by a majority of thirty in the Commons. Six years later, when prime minister for the fourth time, he brought in a second bill, which, after passing the Commons, was rejected in the House of Lords by an enormous majority.

INDIA BEFORE THE MUTINY

Beginnings of British Rule

At the beginning of the nineteenth century Britain was already, as we have learned, a great Colonial Power; but the century was to see an immense increase in her dominions abroad and a great development of her influence throughout the world. For while the people at home in Great Britain had been chiefly occupied by political and social reforms, trade and manufacture, a Greater Britain beyond the seas had been steadily expanding.

In India, in 1800, some tracts of land and a number of trading stations were held by a British trading company, and these, during the nineteenth century, grew into the great Indian Empire of to-day. For our dominion in India, as in most of our other possessions abroad, was founded by the enterprise of our merchants.

In Queen Elizabeth's reign a charter had been granted to the East India Company, giving it the sole right to trade to India. It had sent ships, built trading stations called factories, and obtained leave

from native rulers to traffic in their dominions; it had had many quarrels with Dutch traders and French traders, who also were building factories and striving to get all the trade into their own hands. But for the first hundred years of its existence the Company had no wish to acquire territory. The conquest of India was not dreamt of by them.

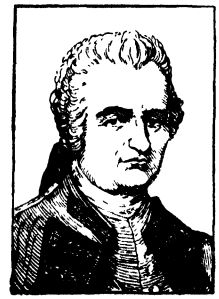
But the French were aiming at absolute supremacy, and threatened to drive us out of Southern India altogether. So, in order to retain what it had, the East India Company was compelled to conquer the French and their native allies. Under Lord Clive this was accomplished.

Lord Clive

Robert Clive was born in 1725 at Market Drayton, in Shropshire. All through his school life he showed a daring, obstinate, and masterful spirit which nearly drove his parents and teachers to despair. He once frightened all the people of his native town by climbing up the church steeple, and coolly sitting on a stone spout near the top. Not knowing what to do with him, his parents at last sent him out as a clerk in the service of the East India Company.

In those days the voyage to India often took many months; and Clive's journey to Madras took more than a year, nine months being spent in Brazil. The intense heat tried his health, the life at the desk chafed his active spirit, and he soon grew home-sick. Twice he carefully loaded a pistol, and tried to take his own life. Each time the pistol missed fire, though

the bullet sped forth when he turned the weapon away from himself and fired towards the sea. Astonished at this strange fact, he exclaimed that he must certainly be destined to do something great; and events were soon to prove this.



Lord Clive

The French were then more powerful in the East Indies than we were. In one of their inroads they even captured Madras and took all the British prisoners. Among them was Clive, who managed to escape in the disguise of a native, and became an ensign in the Company's little army. That was his first training as a soldier; and he soon showed that he had the courage, quickness, and promptitude which make a good officer.

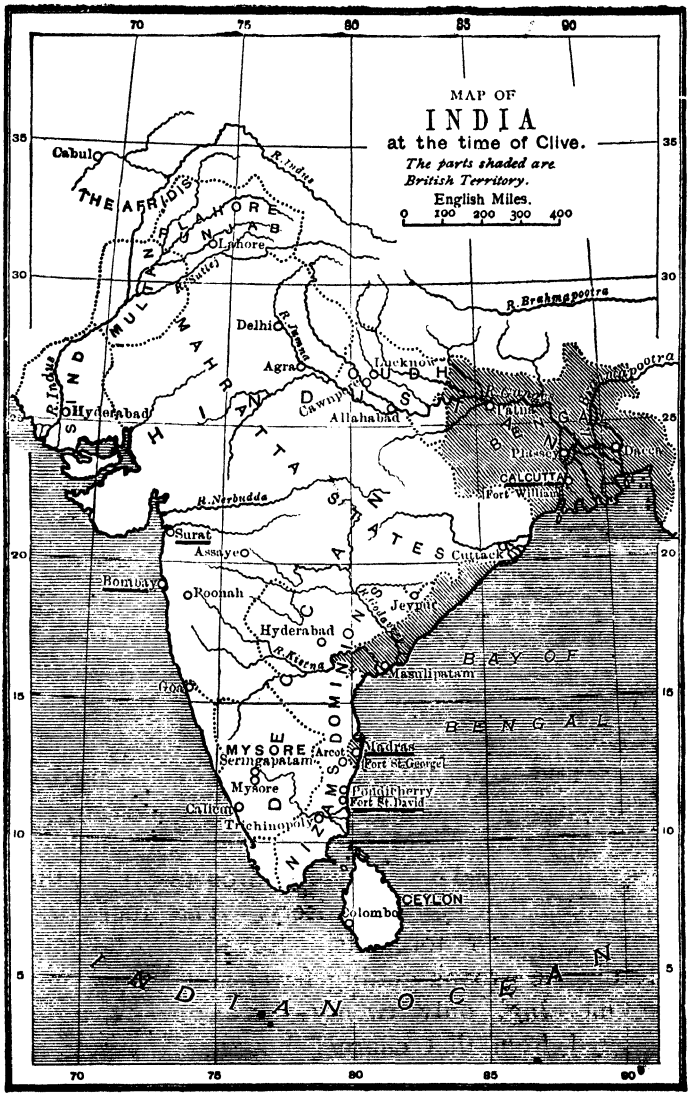
Before long, peace was made between Britain and France, and Madras was restored to the East India Company; but the ambition of Dupleix, the French governor of Pondicherry, again brought the British and French to war in the South of India. This ambitious man had formed the plan of playing off the rival native rulers one against the other, and by this means he meant to make his countrymen supreme in India. The bravery of the French soldiers scattered in flight ten times their number of native troops, and the rule of Dupleix in the south of India seemed in 1750 to be firmly established.

But the genius of Clive soon changed the whole aspect of affairs. He persuaded the English East India Company to send help instantly to one of the

native princes whom they were supporting against the French, and to seize the important town of Arcot. He led his little force of 500 men quickly towards its walls. Undaunted by a terrific storm of thunder and rain which burst over them, Clive and his men struggled on, and the defenders were so astonished at foes coming against them in such a tempest that they fled, and left Arcot as the prize to Clive's valour.

An army of 10,000 natives and a few French threatened him within the weak walls of Arcot, but Clive's daring spirit again nerved his scanty band to resist these overwhelming numbers. His native troops, called sepoys, showed that they would face even starvation itself. When food ran short, they begged Clive to give all the grain and rice to the British soldiers, who needed more nourishment. As for themselves, they said that the water strained away from the rice would be enough to sustain their life.

At last the enemy made a desperate attack. They began by sending elephants at the charge to burst in the gates; but, maddened by the shot which Clive's men poured upon them, they turned tail, carrying death and disaster into the ranks behind them. An attack of the natives on another part of the wall was repulsed, when Clive, to encourage his men, worked a cannon himself against his assailants. The steadfast bravery of his men beat back every onset. Arcot was saved; and after the enemy retreated, they suffered another overthrow from the dashing young English commander.


MAP OF
INDIA
at the time of Clive.
The parts shaded are British Territory.
English Miles.
0 100 200 300 400
70
75
80
85
90
35
30
25
20
15
10
5
Cabul
R. Indus
THE ARRIDGE
LAHORE
PUNJAB
Lahore
R. Sutlej
MULTAN
SINDE
R. Indus
Delhi
R. Jumna
Agra
Lucknow
OUDH
R. Brahmapootra
R. Ganges
Cawnpore
Allahabad
Hyderabad
HINDOOSTAN
BAHAR
Patna
Dinapore
CALCUTTA
Fort William
R. Nerbudda
Surat
Assaye
Cuttack
Bombay
Poonah
Jeypore
Hyderabad
R. Kistna
Masulipatam
BAY OF
Goa
BENGAL
MYSORE
Seringapatam
Arcot
Madras
Fort St. George
Mysore
Pondicherry
Fort St. David
Calicut
Trichinopoly
CEYLON
Colombo
MALABAR
COROMANDEL
COAST
DECCAN
NIZAMS DOMINIONS
MAHRATTA STATES
INDIAN OCEAN

The Black Hole—Plassey

This and other exploits made Clive famous; and he was rightly looked on as the greatest British commander since the time of Marlborough. His father was at last heard to say that after all the booby had something in him. On his return to England to restore his shattered health, he was greeted as the saviour of the Company's rule in India. The directors offered him a sword set in diamonds; but he modestly refused to accept it unless a similar gift was made to his superior officer. After a time of rest he returned to India, where his vigorous hand was needed more than ever.

The Company's settlement at Fort William, now known as Calcutta, had been seized by the Nabob Surajah-Dowlah, who then ruled over Bengal. This fickle and cruel young despot, annoyed at the growing power of the British, had suddenly marched a great army against Fort William and seized it. The British prisoners, 146 in number, had the promise that their lives would be spared; but their fiendish captors shut them all up in a narrow cell called the Black Hole. Stifled by heat and by the foul air, they struggled in agony to get near the few small air-holes, and begged the native guards to fire on them to put them out of their misery. The guards only mocked at their torments. So this awful night wore on, the groans getting fewer and feebler, until, next morning, only twenty-three ghastly figures staggered from that charnel-house. The rest had perished of heat, thirst, and suffocation.

Clive sailed from the Madras coast to Fort William on the Hoogley, to punish Surajah-Dowlah for this frightful crime. The British force was small, and Clive stooped to oriental tricks to compass the despot's ruin. He encouraged his chief general, Meer Jaffeer, to betray his master by leading over part of the troops to Clive's side. The general hesitated when it came to the point, and Clive's little force of 3000 men stood face to face at Plassey with 60,000 foes. Even Clive's stout heart was for a brief space appalled at the danger. He went apart to a grove to think, and at the end of an hour's musing he made up his mind to fight at once.

The few British guns poured in a destructive fire against the fifty cumbrous cannon and the crowded ranks opposite them. Then Clive, at the right moment, ordered a general charge. It swept away the dense and confused masses of their foes, and in a few minutes the plain was covered with torrents of fugitives, horse, foot, and elephants flying before the thin lines of red-coats. The camp, the baggage, cannon, and treasure of their foes were the spoils of the victors; and the great province of Bengal was conquered by this one blow (1757).

Meer Jaffeer, who had joined Clive only when the victory seemed certain, was rewarded by being placed on the throne of Surajah-Dowlah; but the real rulers were Clive and our East India Company. For these exploits the English leader received the titles of Lord Clive and Baron of Plassey.

Other successes were gained over the Dutch and the French; and the capture of Pondicherry in 1761

made our power supreme in the south, as it was in Bengal. Enormous sums of money were showered on Clive; and the lad who, fifteen years before, had arrived in India almost penniless, now made a very large fortune. Some years afterwards he was very much blamed for accepting so many gifts and for collecting so much wealth; but in the East it was usual for victors to receive these rewards and to gain tracts of land for themselves. At any rate, Clive was not miserly with his wealth, but sent handsome sums home to his relatives and poor friends.

In the later part of his life in India, Clive did much to improve the government of the Company's provinces, and to prevent the greed and the frauds of officials. Thus, in place of the terrible tyranny of Surajah-Dowlah and other despots, many millions of Hindoos gained something like good and just government. Both Britons and Hindoos, then, ought to be proud and thankful for the great deeds of Clive both in war and in peace.

Warren Hastings

In the ranks of Clive's army at Plassey was a young man who was afterwards to carry Clive's policy much further, and to increase greatly the dominion of Britain in India. This was Warren Hastings, the grandson of the rector of Daylesford in Worcestershire. Warren Hastings was born at Daylesford in 1732. His ancestors had once been wealthy and had owned the great house and estate at Daylesford; but they had gradually come down

in the world, and when Hastings was born, his parents occupied a humble position. He was sent to the village school, where he showed great talent and industry. He was fond of listening to stories about his ancestors and their brave deeds. At the age of ten, as he was lying by the stream on a bright summer's day, it came into his mind that he would be a great man and would win back the old estate for his family.

At first there seemed little chance of his doing this. He was left to the care of a distant relative, who did not want to be burdened with him. So, as in the case of Clive, young Hastings was sent off to India as a clerk in the service of the East India Company.

Exciting events soon happened to him. When Surajah-Dowlah marched against Calcutta, some of the British took refuge in an island near the mouth of the Hoogley. Among them was the young Hastings; and as he was bright and clever, he was sent secretly to watch events at the Nabob's court. There he barely escaped with his life from the Nabob's vengeance; but, after the battle of Plassey, Clive, hearing of the skill of the young clerk, made him agent at the court of the new Nabob, Meer Jaffeer.

Soon Hastings rose to an important post in the government of Bengal, and he protected the natives from the greed of many officers of the East India Company.

In 1770 Bengal suffered from a frightful famine, such as happened, and sometimes still happens, whenever the monsoon fails, for then hardly any

rice or corn can grow, and the people starve. This disaster happened in that year, when, for month after month, no rain fell to freshen the thirsty soil. The sun beat down on parched fields and empty ponds, and the peasants saw their tiny hoards of food vanish away. Then they themselves rushed to the rivers to drink, or lay down to meet death from sheer hunger and exhaustion. The water of the Ganges was pūtrid with corpses, and its fish and water-fowl became uneatable. More than half of the people died; for there were then no railways to bring food from other parts, and no canals from which water could be drawn to irrigate the fields. These have since been made by British engineers, and a famine in India is not so terrible now as it was then.

Three years after this dreadful scourge, Warren Hastings became Governor-general of India. He was the first who held that office and who ruled British India partly under the control of our Parliament. But its control was very slight, and the first Governor-general did several things which would not be allowed now.

One of these was as follows. He let out on hire British troops to a native prince who wanted to conquer some of his neighbour's lands. On success crowning this disgraceful enterprise, a large sum was paid to the East India Company by the conqueror; but a fertile province was made desolate by British troops for the sake of gain to the Company. This and other acts brought Hastings into trouble afterwards.


Warren Hastings

But in the years 1776–1783 our difficulties were so very great in America, in Europe, and also in India, that Hastings could not be spared. He had to face the great and growing power of the Mahrattas. These were bands of fierce and warlike horsemen who swept over the plains, carrying off plunder. They had founded some important States in India, and now they were likely to be helped by the French. The position was critical, for if French and Mahrattas had been allowed to act together against us, we should probably have lost our hold on India.

Danger acts as a spur to great and manly natures, and Hastings determined to strike at once, and strike hard, at the Mahrattas. He raised more sepoys, he made an alliance with a native prince, and sent an army to the west of India to attack the Mahrattas before the French could help them. At first our men were beaten, but finally they took the very strong castle of Gwalior, and for the time being brought the Mahrattas to accept terms of peace. News came from the south of India which led Warren Hastings to offer peace on easy terms to these valiant foes.

A powerful native ruler in southern India, seeing our troops busy far away to the north, seized the opportunity to send an army of 90,000 men against Madras. A small British force was attacked by immense numbers of the enemy. Stoutly they

beat off the native foot-soldiers and clouds of horsemen; but at last they were overpowered and were almost all slain.

On came the victors, believing that they would sweep the British into the sea. Our countrymen in Madras could see the night sky aglow with the flames of burning villages, and in terror they sought refuge behind the walls of Fort St. George. Such were the tidings sent off to Calcutta, and a swift ship, flying before the south-west gales, brought the news of our disasters to the Governor-general in very few days.

Warren Hastings did not despair. He sent away all the troops he could spare to the south to meet this new and formidable foe, and with them large supplies of money for the expenses of the new war. Our men were in time to meet the native troops before a French fleet arrived. Two victories were won over the dense array of native soldiers, and our rule in the south was saved. In 1783 peace was made between us and all our enemies; and our dominion in the south of India was left as large as it had been before this war.

The vigour of Warren Hastings saved our rule in India, but his conduct is said to have been marred by some unjust acts. He had been in sore need of money for the expedition to save Madras; and, not knowing how to get it otherwise, he forced the ruler of Benares to pay a very large sum. The Rajah rebelled, and was assisted by the Queen-mother or Begum of Oudh. Hastings advanced against him; and, when he fled, made his nephew

ruler of Benares, on condition that he paid a much higher tribute. Hastings also extorted from the Princess of Oudh over a million sterling, as a fine for having helped the rebel ruler of Benares.

The English East India Company had had claims in both these cases, but it is a question whether even the circumstances in which he was placed justified the Governor in wringing these large sums from almost helpless native governments.

In 1785 Warren Hastings returned to England. He left our dominion there far larger than he found it when he first became Governor-general; and on his return home he received the thanks of King George III, and the applause of the people.

But soon there came a change. He was put on his trial for his acts of extortion in India. It was the most famous trial that has ever taken place in our country. Westminster Hall was crowded with the greatest, the noblest, and the fairest of the land; and so great was the public interest that fifty guineas was paid for a single seat there. Burke, the finest orator of that age, accused Warren Hastings in a noble speech which at times brought tears to many an eye. Sheridan also made a brilliant speech against him. But the interest died away as the trial went on for months and years. At last, after seven years (1795), Hastings was acquitted; for men by that time had come to feel that his actions after all had saved our rule in India, and the lives of thousands of our countrymen.

Warren Hastings lived on to an old age at the estate at Daylesford, which he bought back for his

family, thus at last realizing the dream of his boyhood. In his closing years he often occupied himself with trying to rear Indian plants and animals, and he died in 1818. To him, after Clive, we owe our Indian Empire. As Clive was its real military founder, so Hastings has the credit of first putting its government on a sound basis. The unscrupulous slanders and misrepresentations begun by Sir Philip Francis, and accepted without question by James Mill, and by Macaulay, have been exposed by later writers; and Hastings has now taken his place among the worthy and great ones of our country.

British Power Established

The period of Clive and Hastings, then, saw the real establishment of British power in India. Before that period the Company was a body of traders afraid of the native princes, bent on pleasing them in order to get trading privileges, still standing in fear of their rivals, the French. When Hastings left India the power of France had been trampled in the dust, and the Company was as powerful as any native ruler, with as wide territories, as large a revenue, and a better army.

It was obvious that what had been done in Bengal and the Carnatic could be done again all over India. One by one native rulers would fall before the Company, which by degrees would become master of the whole country. This is what actually came to pass. The power of the warlike Mahrattas was destroyed in 1818; and Assam and other provinces were

annexed as a result of the first Burmese war in 1824–26.

Gradually the dominion of the British was extended over the whole of India. The country was well ruled by a succession of able governors-general, and the more enlightened of the natives began to see that British rule would benefit them by establishing order, putting down tribal wars, and protecting the people from the oppression of unworthy princes.

Beneficent reforms, too, were introduced by British governors, and cruel native practices were abolished. Lord William Bentinck, one of the best of the British governors, who held office from 1828 to 1835, put down a cruel religious custom known as *suttee*, by which Indian widows were burnt alive at the funerals of their husbands. He crushed out an association of murderers, known as *Thugs*, who were bound by oath to strangle as many people as they could. During his term of office considerable additions were made to British territory.

The Massacre of Cabul

Early in Queen Victoria's reign troubles arose in Afghanistan, on the borders of India. In 1838 a British army had entered Afghanistan to restore an Afghan prince, our ally, to his throne, from which he had been driven by a rival. The task was achieved after some hard fighting, especially at the town of Ghuznee, which the Afghans believed to be impregnable. It was, however, carried by our troops after a few hours' fighting; at length all resistance

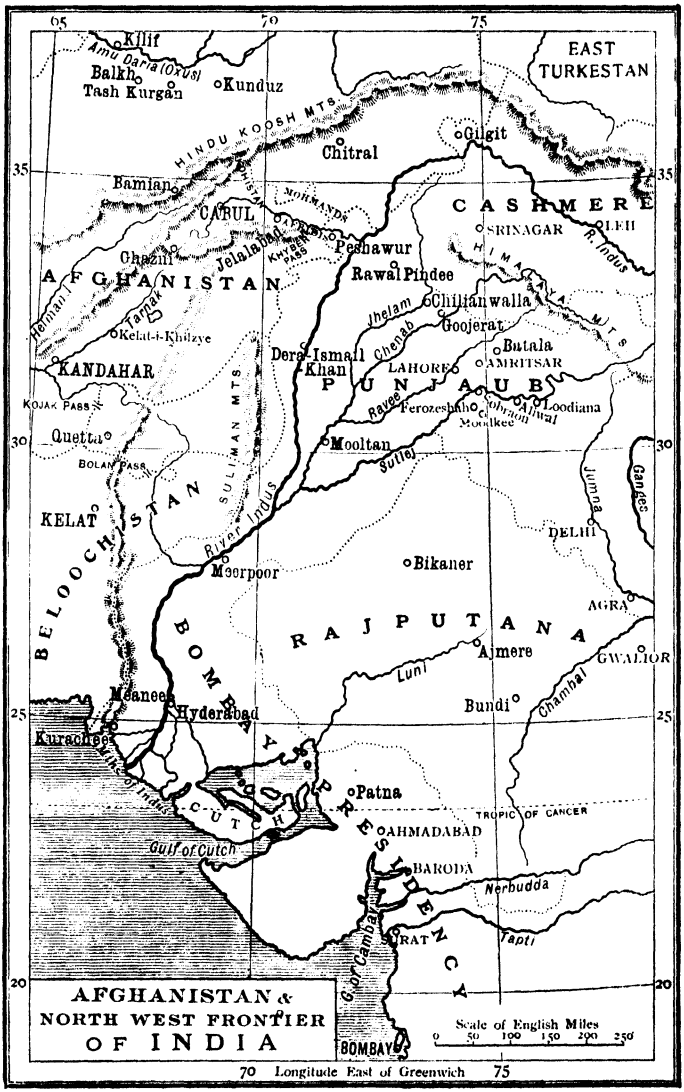
ceased, and a strong British force remained for the protection of our ally at Cabul, his capital.

Towards the end of 1841 one of the greatest misfortunes which ever happened to British arms befell this force. On the 2nd of November the inhabitants of Cabul rose in rebellion, and the tribesmen from all the country round flocked down. Supplies were cut off, and the position became very serious. General Elphinstone, an old man, quite unequal to the responsibilities of the position, was in command, and resolved to leave Afghanistan with his army of 4500 men and some 12,000 camp-followers. The movement began on the 6th of January, 1842.

The cold was bitter; the snow lay deep on the ground; and the ravines, through which they had to pass, swarmed with an active enemy. The column was attacked on all sides. Numbed with cold, overpowered by fatigue, with the passage blocked by fallen animals and broken baggage carts, the soldiers fought to the last, but of the whole seventeen thousand persons who left Cabul, one only, Dr. Brydon, reached Jelalabad in safety. All the rest had fallen, killed either by the cold or the sword of the enemy, except a hundred and five, men, women, and children, taken prisoners by the Afghans.

The Defence of Jelalabad

Sir Robert Sale was with a brigade on the way down from Cabul when the news overtook him of the rising in that town. He was at once attacked by the tribesmen, but fought his way down to Jelalabad,


AFGHANISTAN & NORTH WEST FRONTIER OF INDIA
65
70
75
35
30
25
20
Killif
Amu Daria (Oxus)
Balkh
Tash Kurgan
Kunduz
HINDU KOOSH MTS.
EAST TURKESTAN
Gilgit
Chitral
Bamian
CABUL
KOHISTAN
MOHMANDS
Khyber Pass
Peshawur
CASHMERE
SRINAGAR
LEH
R. Indus
HIMALAYA MTS.
Ghazni
Jelalabad
AFGHANISTAN
Rawal Pindee
Helmand
Tarnak
Kelat-i-Ghilzye
Jhelam
Chilianwalla
Goojerat
Chenab
Dera Ismail Khan
KANDAHAR
LAHORE
Butala
AMRITSAR
PUNJAUB
Ravee
Ferozeshahr
Loodiana
Aliwal
Sobraon
Moodkee
KOJAK PASS
SULIMAN MTS.
Quetta
Mooltan
BOLAN PASS
Sutlej
Jumna
Ganges
BELOOCHISTAN
River Indus
KELAT
DELHI
Meerpoor
Bikaner
AGRA
RAJPUTANA
Ajmere
GWALIOR
Luni
Meanee
Hyderabad
Bundi
Chambal
Kurrachee
Patna
TROPIC OF CANCER
AHMADABAD
Gulf of Cutch
BARODA
Nerbudda
Tapti
SURAT
Cape Comorin
Scale of English Miles
0 50 100 150 200 250
BOMBAY
Longitude East of Greenwich

and determined to establish himself there. The prospect was a gloomy one. He was far away from succour or support; the walls of the town were in ruins, and in many places were not more than two feet high; their circumference, a mile and a quarter, was too great to be properly defended by so small a force.

Nevertheless for months the little force maintained itself, sallying out and attacking the enemy whenever they approached, and driving in cattle. At last, after a five months' siege, the garrison boldly marched out, attacked the besieging army in their camp, completely routed them, and captured all their cannon. Shortly afterwards General Pollock, with a relieving army, fought his way up the Khyber Pass and reached Jelalabad. The united forces then moved forward towards Cabul, defeating the Afghans whenever they ventured to offer opposition. On reaching Cabul the great bazaar there was burnt as a punishment to the town for the part the inhabitants had taken in the massacre, and the army then marched back to India.

The Conquest of Sind

In the commencement of the year 1843 war broke out between the British and the tribes of Sind. This is a large province in the north-west of India, watered by the great river Indus, on whose banks stands the capital, Hyderabad. The country was ruled by a number of chiefs who held the title of ameers. They had been friendly with us since 1831,

and the Indus was open to our merchant vessels; but, excited by the news of our disasters in Afghanistan, they began to plot with our enemies for our overthrow. General Sir Charles Napier was despatched with a small army to repress them.


Sir Chas Napier

Sir Charles advanced along the left bank of the Indus, several steamers accompanying him until he arrived within sixteen miles of Hyderabad, when he heard that 36,000 men, of whom 10,000 were cavalry, were in a strong position at Meeanee. Although his whole strength consisted of but 2600 men, he did not hesitate to give battle, and on the 17th of February advanced against the enemy's position. After a great battle, in which the enemy lost upwards of 6000 men, Sir Charles reached the capital.

But Sind was not yet conquered. Shere Mahomed, or the Lion, one of the most powerful of the ameers, advanced against Hyderabad with a force even larger than that which had fought at Meeanee. When he approached Hyderabad, the ameer sent in an envoy with the insolent offer: "Quit this land; and, provided you restore all you have taken, your life shall be spared". Just at that moment the evening gun fired.

"You heard that sound," the general said; "it is my answer to your chief. Go."

Some days after the battle of Meeanee reinforcements reached the British. Thereupon they marched out and attacked the enemy near the village of Dubba. After a fierce and stubborn resistance the

forces of Shere Mahomed were totally defeated, and fled in confusion.

Eight hours after the battle had been concluded, the army was again on the march, and the next day the cavalry arrived at Meerpoor, the capital of Shere Mahomed. The chief had already left the town. Terms were then offered to the Lion if he would surrender; but this he refused to do, and an irregular warfare continued for some time until all resistance was crushed out by flying columns, after which Sind was annexed to British India.

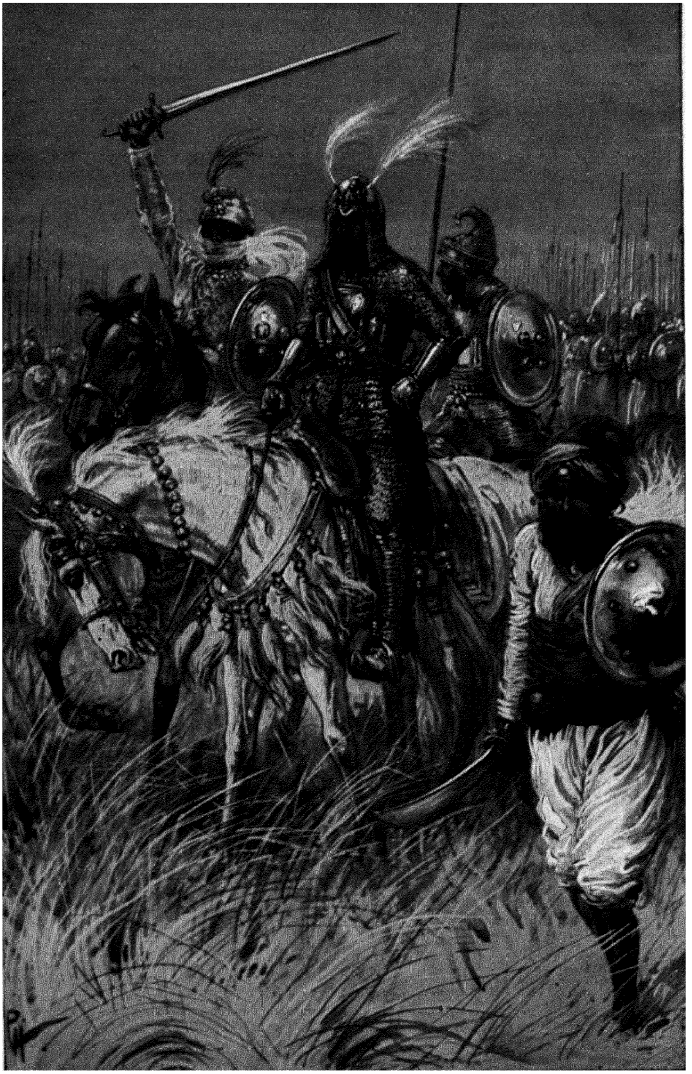
The Sikh Wars

At the end of the year 1845 trouble arose between the British and the Sikhs, a proud and warlike people who inhabited a country in the north of India known as the Punjab. The ruler of this country had a powerful army, composed of splendid soldiers, whom, however, he was unable to control. As an outlet for their energies, therefore, he allowed them to go to war with the British.

The Sikhs, thinking themselves strong enough to conquer all British India, declared war on the 17th of November, and in the following month crossed the river Sutlej into British territory. An army, under Sir Hugh Gough, advanced against them, and was attacked by 40,000 Sikhs at Moodkee (18th December, 1845). A great battle ensued, in which the Sikhs were defeated with much slaughter. It was late in the afternoon when the fight began, and darkness alone saved the enemy from destruction.



THE KHYBER PASS (page 90)



SIKH SOLDIERS AT THE TIME OF THE SIKH WARS

On the 21st December, Sir Hugh Gough, largely reinforced, advanced against the great camp which the Sikhs had formed round the village of Ferozeshah. He attacked them in the afternoon, and the fighting went on till darkness came down. It began again next day as fiercely as before, and when the struggle seemed over, the enemy brought up more guns and 30,000 fresh troops. In the end the enemy were driven from the field, and thus 60,000 Sikhs, supported by 150 pieces of cannon, were defeated by one-fourth of their number, British and Indian soldiers.

Sir Harry Smith was now despatched with 10,000 men and 26 guns to relieve Loodiana, which was besieged by the Sikhs. Having first relieved the city, he advanced to attack the enemy at Aliwal. Here another great battle was fought, in which our troops were again victorious after a stubborn fight, for the Sikhs fought with the greatest courage.

While Sir Hugh Gough was waiting for reinforcements before crossing the Sutlej into the Punjab, the enemy were strongly fortifying themselves at the bridge across that river at Sobraon. These formidable works were defended by 34,000 men on the one side, while at the camp across the bridge was a reserve of 20,000. As soon as Sir Harry Smith returned from Aliwal, Sir Hugh Gough attacked the Sikh position. The Sikhs fought with steadiness and resolution, and repeatedly charged with masses of infantry. Several times the British were driven back, but each time they rallied and returned to the charge until the second line came up, and

the whole pressed forward together into the Sikh entrenchments.

The enemy fought to the last. Numbers who had been pushed off the bridge as they crossed, were drowned in trying to swim the river, and fully a third of the Sikh army perished in the battle. Sixty-seven guns were captured, with all the enemy's munitions of war. The army then marched into Lahore, and peace was made with the Sikhs, who were allowed to retain a partial independence.

Sir Henry Lawrence was appointed resident adviser to the Sikh council, which was entrusted with the government of the country, on behalf of Dhuleep, the infant son of Ranjit Singh, the former ruler.

The Siege of Multan

But the Sikhs, a proud and high-spirited people, were not yet convinced of their inability to resist the British forces, and during the next two years were in an unsettled and restless state. The position of the British officers who had been placed at the courts of their principal chiefs, with power to advise and to a certain extent to control them, was thus a difficult and even dangerous one. It was at Multan, where a young officer, Lieutenant Herbert Edwardes, occupied this position, that troubles broke out afresh. Multan, the chief city of the province of the same name, was governed by a Sikh called Mulraj. This person having resigned his position, the Council of Regency appointed another governor in his place. He was accompanied to Multan by two British

officers and a body of native troops. Mulraj determined to revolt, won over by bribes the native troops who accompanied the commissioners, and suddenly set upon and murdered both officers.

The commissioners had had, however, sufficient warning of their danger to have time to write to Lieutenant Edwardes, who was with a small force at a place five days' march away. He collected as many men as he could and pushed on towards Multan, but on the march he learned that he was too late. He at once set to work to raise an army, and so great was his influence with the people that he got together a considerable force. With this, on the 19th of June, 1848, he encountered the army of Mulraj, about 20,000 strong, and after a severe battle, lasting all day, defeated him, and drove him back into Multan.

On the 1st of July Mulraj again took the field, and was again defeated. The city was surrounded and invested by Lieutenant Edwardes until a British army came up, and the siege began in earnest. The place was extremely strong, and defended itself desperately. On the 12th of September two British columns advanced to storm a fortified village outside the walls. The fighting was severe, but the enemy were driven out with a loss of 300 men. Just as the guns were ready to open fire and batter the town, the news came that the whole Sikh army had joined the enemy.

Inspirited by the news, the enemy sallied out and attacked on the 8th of November, but were driven back, and a column under General Markham cap-

tured another position of the enemy outside the town after severe fighting. On the 2nd of January, 1849, breaches in the wall were made by the British guns, and the troops marched forward to the attack. The Sikhs defended themselves desperately, but the British column fought its way in, and after a gallant struggle captured the town. Mulraj took refuge in the citadel, but was soon forced to surrender.

Chilianwalla

In the meantime a British army under Lord Gough had marched against the army of the Sikhs, who were now in full revolt. After two serious skirmishes the armies approached each other at Chilianwalla (13th January, 1849). Here the Sikh chief Shere Singh had entrenched himself. After a heavy cannonade for an hour, General Campbell's division advanced against the enemy. The brigade of General Pennycuick advanced against one of the enemy's batteries, but the 24th Regiment, in its ardour to get at the enemy, left the native regiments with it behind, and was almost exterminated by the guns of the enemy and by the charge of the Sikhs.

One of the British cavalry brigades also suffered heavily, and would have been defeated had not its chaplain grasped a sword and shouted to the men, "My lads, you have often listened to my preaching, listen to me now! About, and drive the enemy before you!" Saying this, he placed himself at their head, charged, and drove back the enemy. The Sikhs at last retreated, but the British had suffered very

heavily, and it was nearer a drawn battle than any that had taken place in India.

Goojerat

About a week later the troops again marched against the enemy, who had been joined by 1500 Afghan horse, and numbered 60,000 men with 59 guns, and were posted at Goojerat.

The battle opened, as usual, with an artillery duel, in which the British guns had the best of it, and the British infantry then advanced and stormed two villages in front of the enemy's lines. The artillery kept up with them, and maintained so heavy a fire upon the enemy that they were unable to oppose any effectual resistance. Village after village was stormed, 53 guns were captured with the camp and baggage, and the whole Sikh army was soon in flight. The cavalry, who had during the battle effectually checked the masses of the enemy's horse, were now launched in pursuit, and for twelve miles cut up the enemy and converted their retreat into an absolute rout. On the 11th of March the remainder of the Sikhs in arms, 16,000 in all, surrendered. The Punjab was then annexed to India.

THE CRIMEAN WAR

In 1853 Britain became involved in war in Europe for the first time since Waterloo. The cause of the war was a quarrel between Russia and Turkey. We believed that Russia had provoked the quarrel

deliberately in order that she might have a pretext for taking possession of the Turkish territories, and especially of Constantinople. Therefore, when the Czar of Russia seized the provinces north of the Danube and invaded Turkey, the British government resolved to interfere and help Turkey. France also took the Turks' side and joined Britain in fighting Russia.

At the beginning of the war, the Turkish troops, under English officers, had considerable success in defending their fortresses. But the Turkish Black Sea fleet having been destroyed by the Russians, the allies determined on an invasion of the Crimea, a district north of the Black Sea, which contained the great port and arsenal of Sevastopol. The plan of the allies was to make a combined attack on Sevastopol by sea and land; but the Russians prevented the naval operations by sinking their own fleet at the entrance of the harbour. The British and French troops, however, landed without opposition in the Crimea.

The first great battle was fought on September 20, 1854. The Russians had occupied in force the heights of Alma, some twenty miles north of Sevastopol. A joint attack was made on them by the British and French, and, owing to the nature of the ground, the brunt of the fighting fell on the British. The Russians were driven back by the dogged bravery of the soldiers, for there was no opportunity for the display of generalship. Indeed, Lord Raglan, the English general, one of Wellington's old officers, took up a position whence it was impossible to issue

further orders after the battle had begun. But for the allies' weakness in cavalry, which prevented pursuit, the Russians would have been utterly routed.

The allies then pressed on to attack Sevastopol; but the Russians had made the most of their opportunities for strengthening its defences, and it was soon seen that the town could only be taken after a protracted siege. On October 25, the Russians made a violent attack on the British at Balaclava, where deeds were done that will live for ever in the memories of Britons. The 93rd Highlanders, under Sir Colin Campbell, coolly awaited the attack of 25,000 Russians. Sir Colin drew the men up in line, telling them there was no retreat, and that they must die where they stood. "Ay, ay!" shouted the men: "we'll do that, Sir Colin!" Fortunately the Russian general did not use his full strength, but only sent a few squadrons of cavalry to cut up the "thin red line" opposed to them. But the Highlanders received the Russian horsemen with a volley which sent them reeling to right and left, and the attack was repulsed.

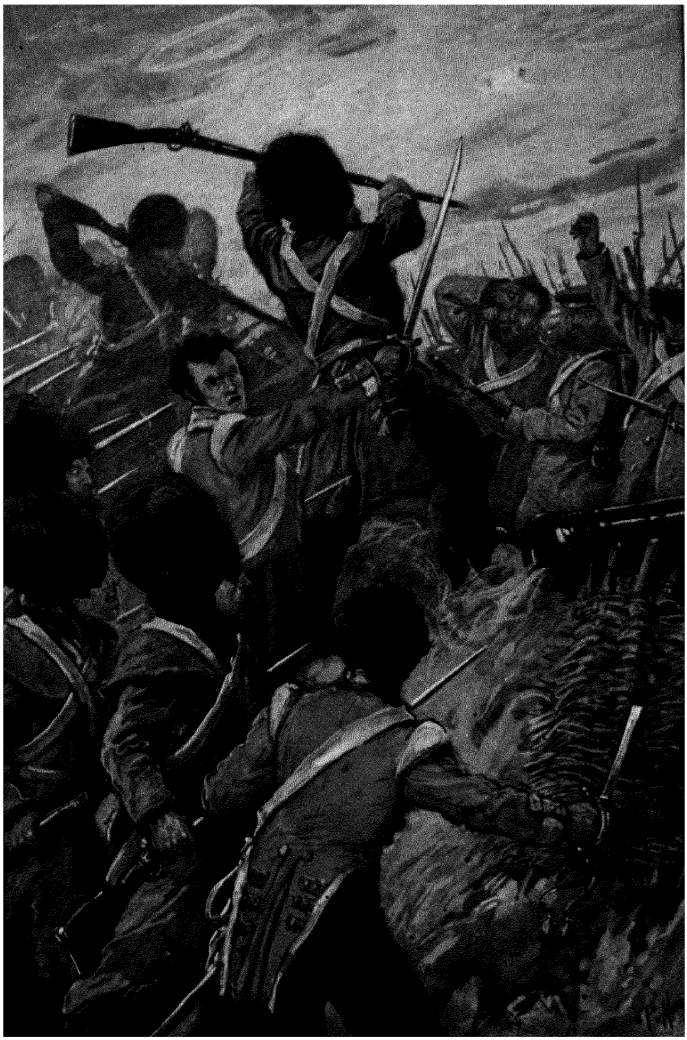
In another part of the field, the British Heavy Brigade of cavalry, by a brilliant charge, put to flight a much larger Russian force. But the exploit of the day was the famous charge of the Light Brigade. By some confusion of orders the British leader understood that he was to make an attempt to capture some Russian guns at the end of a long valley, commanded by artillery on the surrounding heights. Though he saw there was a mistake, he obeyed what he believed to be his orders. The Light Brigade, 600 strong, was ordered to charge, and the men rode

off steadily, in spite of the terrible artillery fire which broke on them from all sides. On they rode through the valley; they reached the guns; they drove the gunners away; they rode back—"all that was left of them". Four hundred men perished in that fatal charge; but the valour and the heroic obedience of the gallant Britons struck the French and Russians with astonishment and admiration, and made the hearts of their countrymen thrill with honourable pride.

On November 5th the Russians were signally defeated at Inkerman. This was known as the "soldiers' battle", for the mist which hung over the field prevented the generals from employing any tactics. The battle was won by the bull-dog courage of the British infantry.

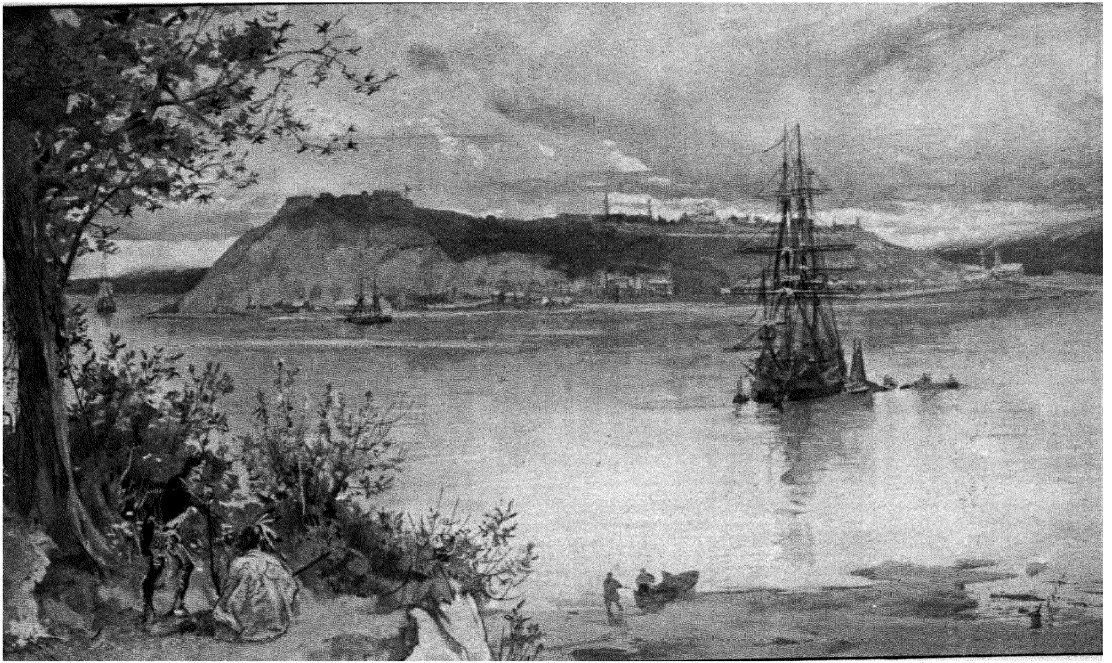
All through the winter the siege dragged wearily on. The weather was terrible, and the troops suffered fearful hardships from cold, want of clothing, and disease. Storms destroyed the transports bringing supplies; the men spent their nights and days soaking wet in the trenches; and through disgraceful management they perished by hundreds. But a change of ministry at home brought Lord Palmerston to the head of affairs. Under his vigorous management things were changed. Measures were taken to relieve the sickness and misery of the men: and a lady named Florence Nightingale went out, with other ladies as refined as herself, to undertake the nursing.

At last, on September 8, 1855, the Russians burnt and deserted Sevastopol, after the repeated assaults of the allies and the capture of outworks showed



THE CRIMEAN WAR: AN ASSAULT ON THE RUSSIAN TRENCHES

(page 102)



VIEW OF THE TOWN AND FORTRESS OF QUEBEC, IN THE YEAR 1759 (page 100)

them that they could hold out no longer. This was practically the end of the war. One other notable exploit was the splendid defence of Kars, a fortress in Armenia, by Turkish troops under a British officer, Colonel Williams, against overwhelming numbers of Russians. Famine at last compelled Williams to surrender; but his skill and bravery so excited the admiration of the Russians that they allowed the garrison to leave the town "with all the honours of war".

THE NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES.

The British Colonies in North America at the present time consist of Canada and Newfoundland. These constitute great and rich dominions, but at one time Britain possessed much greater territories in North America, for the thirteen Colonies that formed the United States were also British until they declared their independence in 1776. How we gained these Colonies, and how we lost them, may be briefly told in this place.

The honour of having discovered North America belongs to John Cabot, a Venetian pilot, who had made his home in Bristol. Hearing of the great discovery of Christopher Columbus, he and his son Sebastian determined "to do also something famous". Therefore in 1497 they set sail, hoping to reach India by sailing west from Bristol. Unfortunately we know little either of this or a second voyage undertaken by them in the following year,

but it is certain that they discovered a great part of the east coast of what we now know as Canada and the United States. It is highly probable that the Norsemen had already discovered the coasts of Labrador and Nova Scotia as early as the eleventh century, but at the time of which we are writing no one knew of these early Viking voyages. It remained for Cabot to find for us the way to these lands which we were to conquer and keep.

First English Settlements

The first permanent English settlement in America was made in 1606 by a London company which sent out an expedition to Virginia. The expedition seemed doomed to failure from the start. The people sent out were for the most part penniless dandies who had no idea of using their hands. For some time it seemed unlikely that the settlement would survive the hostilities of the Indians and the unhealthiness of the climate. Half of them died: the rest were saved by friendly Indians who brought them supplies in exchange for trinkets.

Among the survivors was a man named John Smith, whose life forms one of the most romantic stories in English history. A native of Lincolnshire, before he was thirty years old he had fought in the Netherlands and in Germany; he had been sold as a slave in Constantinople, and after escaping had fought against the Moors in Spain. It was his courage and dogged resolution that prevented the expedition from becoming an utter failure.

After passing through a period of difficulty and distress, the colony of Virginia was firmly established. The colonists occupied themselves chiefly in tobacco-planting, and before long they became a wealthy community. Other colonists came from England from time to time, and by and by Maryland was settled, to the north of Virginia. The people of these colonies were mainly members of the Church of England, and Catholics of gentle birth. They called their colony Maryland in honour of Henrietta Maria, the wife of Charles I. They allowed freedom in religion, and, becoming owners of large estates, lived like country gentlemen at home. They worked their estates by slave labour, and were the founders of the prosperous southern states of North America.

Thirteen years after the Virginian expedition, a very different band of emigrants sailed across the Atlantic in the *Mayflower*, and made a settlement on the bleaker shores of New England. These were Puritans who, after living for some years in Holland to escape persecution in England, had decided to seek a new home in America. They were mainly farmers and tradesmen, and in their American home they carried on the occupations they had followed in England. They, too, had their difficulties. Disease carried off half their number, but others came to join them as persecution in England became more severe, and the colony survived all perils and in time became prosperous.

The New England colonists were not so easy-going and tolerant as the people of Virginia. They were somewhat hard and narrow-minded, and would allow

no one to stay among them who did not think as they did in religious matters.

Virginia, New England, and Maryland were thus the first British colonies. Pennsylvania, New York, Massachusetts, and others were founded later. In all there were thirteen British colonies in North America in the middle of the eighteenth century. At first they were governed from Britain, but very soon it was found that they must be allowed to look after their own affairs. So they elected parliaments of their own, though they still owned allegiance to the British crown.

The Conquest of Canada

The French were the first to colonize Canada, and they long had possession of all the land along the course of the river St. Lawrence and to the north of the Great Lakes. In the middle of the eighteenth century the French also held, or claimed to hold, the lands along the course of the rivers Ohio and Mississippi. But this did not satisfy the ambition of Montcalm, the French governor of Canada, who formed great plans of building forts along the course of the rivers Ohio and Mississippi. He hoped by these means to shut in the English settlers, who then, it must be remembered, only had the colonies on the coast of the Atlantic, to the narrow strip of land along the Atlantic seaboard which lies between the Alleghanies and the ocean.

Montcalm also gained over many of the fierce tribes of the Red Indians to help him to subdue the English settlers; and perhaps, like Dupleix in India, he too


HUDSON BAY
CANADA
LAKE SUPERIOR
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
LAKE ONTARIO
LAKE ERIE
NEW YORK
PENNSYLVANIA
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
FLORIDA
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NEW ENGLAND
NEW BRUNSWICK
BRITISH COLONIES
South of
CANADA
To 1783.
English Miles

would have succeeded in America, if an English hero had not in his case also appeared to baffle French designs. Clive worsted Dupleix in India; Wolfe overcame Montcalm in North America.

James Wolfe was born in Kent in 1727. He grew up to be a shy, modest young man, of a rather weak and delicate frame, and he ever showed great kindliness and modesty of spirit, never desiring to force his way to the front by unworthy means. Indeed, he was of a brave and generous nature which gained him devoted friends. He entered the army at the age of fourteen, and distinguished himself by his bravery in the wars against France, as also at the battle of Culloden. He afterwards commanded a regiment which was quartered in the Highlands for the purpose of maintaining peace and order. Later on, he showed his bravery in the war in North America (1758). He took a leading part in the siege of Louisbourg, and even Horace Walpole, who disliked him, was forced to confess that he showed "great merit, spirit, and alacrity". In the struggle with France, the British had had, up to this, rather the worst of it.

Matters were soon changed when younger and abler men were appointed to command there. Among these was Wolfe, who was selected by Pitt for his vigour, energy of mind, and powers of awakening enthusiasm. Three British armies were to attack the French in North America. Wolfe, with 8000 men, sailed up the broad and noble river St. Lawrence to attack Quebec, 1759.

The city of Quebec stands on a lofty cliff which

overhangs that stately river. Many streams, which in our land would be thought large rivers, pour their waters into the St. Lawrence. Some miles below Quebec, near one of these streams, Wolfe landed his men; but, in trying to cross its rocky bed near a great waterfall, his men were driven back by the French.

Other attempts failed, and the French were so strongly posted in and around Quebec that it seemed impossible to dislodge them. Wolfe fell ill, and his forces were sadly wasted away by defeat and sickness. Still, he and his officers did not give up the attempt. He knew that higher up the St. Lawrence, above Quebec, there were steep cliffs, which at one point were indented by a small water-course. Wolfe thought that if his men could quietly make their way up at this point by a steep winding path, they would take the enemy by surprise.

The ships took his surviving troops up the great river to a place some distance above Quebec, on the side opposite to the city. He tried to mislead the enemy as to the real point of attack, while he secretly collected boats so as to land his army at the foot of the little gully or water-course.

One night in September, 1759, all was ready. The oars were muffled so as to make no noise which would alarm the French; but there were so few boats that Wolfe's small force had to cross in two divisions. While he was anxiously waiting, Wolfe repeated to his officers nearly the whole of Gray's *Elegy in a Country Churchyard*, and said that he would rather be the poet who wrote that than have the fame of conquering the French the next day.

At last all his men were landed, and began to climb the cliffs by the steep and narrow path. They reached the top without the French taking alarm; and they even dragged two small cannon up. When dawn broke, the French found over 4000 British troops on the Heights of Abraham just outside Quebec.

Montcalm hastily brought his men up for battle, and they fought as bravely as ever; but Wolfe's men were all trained soldiers, and now that they were on even terms with their foes they soon gained ground from them. As Wolfe was cheering on his troops he was severely wounded in two places. The dying hero was carried to the rear; and when he heard the shout "They run", he raised himself on his elbow and eagerly asked "Who run?" On hearing the answer "The French run", he uttered his last words, "I die contented". The French commander also perished in this battle, which at once overthrew all his great designs.

Quebec soon surrendered, and a little later the rest of Canada submitted to us. That great country has ever since been one of our most splendid colonies, and the French and English there now live peacefully side by side. On the promenade at Quebec there is a statue in honour of those brave and able men, Wolfe and Montcalm. It bears an inscription to this effect:

> "Their valour gave them a united death,
> History has given them a united fame,
> Posterity, a united monument".

The Loss of the Thirteen Colonies

There had been, as we have seen, a long war between the English and the French in North America, which ended with the conquest of Canada by our troops. As this war had given safety to our North American colonists, the British government resolved to make them bear some of its cost; and perhaps the colonists would have done so, had they been wisely treated in other respects. But our government also interfered with their trade and their customs duties; and when the colonists resisted, it gave way on some points, but resolved to keep a small duty on tea imported into those colonies. Our Ministers wanted to show that England had the right to tax the colonists; while the colonists denied that our Parliament had any right to tax those who did not send members to Westminster.

So when a few cargoes of tea were sent across the Atlantic to Boston, some men of that city disguised themselves as Red Indians, boarded the ships, and threw all the tea overboard. This outrage annoyed our government, and it ordered the port of Boston to be closed. Matters went from bad to worse, until the colonists began to raise militiamen and prepare for war with the British government.

The first fight was at Lexington (1775), when a number of militiamen, under cover of hedges, poured a deadly fire on a small body of English troops as they were marching along a lane. Our men lost heavily, and the colonists, encouraged by this success



Geo. Washington

and by the small numbers of our troops then in North America, persevered in the struggle.

The militia of the colonists then tried to blockade the British soldiers in Boston, by occupying a hill outside the city, called Bunker's Hill. Our men marched out to drive them away, but the colonists were fine marksmen, and fired steadily from behind earthworks on the redcoats as they marched up the slope. Twice our men were beaten back by the storm of bullets, and it seemed that they must lose the fight; but yet a third time they mounted that fatal slope, and this time they drove before them the militia, whose bullets were nearly all gone. Our men lost nearly half their number in this fierce struggle at Bunker's Hill (1775).

The American colonists then gave the command of their troops to a brave and determined soldier, George Washington. He came of an old Virginian family, and had long shown himself to be a man of honour, keen to see what ought to be done, and prompt in carrying out his plans. He was a man of few words, but they were always words of wisdom and prudence; and everyone felt sure that he would never use his position for selfish ends. This was the secret of George Washington's power over his countrymen, who have ever regarded him as the founder of their independence.

The Colonies Declare and Achieve Independence

The American colonists sadly needed a leader like Washington, for the different colonies were very jealous of each other, and many of their officers were at first openly disobedient to the commander, until they came to respect and fear him for his virtues and his strength of will. His army was soon able to compel the British troops to leave Boston. They then retired to New York, where they received reinforcements from Europe. Many of the new troops who fought on the British side were Germans hired by our government to fight against Englishmen. This and other acts further disgusted the colonists, until at last the men who represented the thirteen colonies met in a united Congress, and declared that they would henceforth be entirely independent of the British Crown (1776). They then and there gave to their land the name of *The United States of America.*[1]

For a short time the fortune of war favoured the British. Canada remained loyal to us; and an attack which the Americans made on Quebec was a complete failure. Though Washington held his own for a short time, yet his army was quite broken up by a British success at Brandywine Creek. It was a time of great trial for the American cause; and but for Washington's splendid courage and patience the American army would probably have gone to pieces.

[1] At that time their people numbered only about two and a half millions; but now the States are forty-five in number, and their population is between ninety and a hundred millions.

Even as it was, many of his militiamen deserted and went home after the defeat, and others did the same as soon as their time of service was up. Many of those who remained with the colours were shoeless, half-starved, and mutinous. In fact, it needed all Washington's powers of persuasion and command to keep his troops together, through the winter months, in Forge Valley near Philadelphia.

If the British generals had acted vigorously and well together, they might perhaps have ended the struggle before France helped the Americans. But as our generals did not work well together, they let the opportunity slip by, and one of them suffered a terrible reverse. He was marching south from Canada towards New York, when he was gradually surrounded by the militia of the States, and had to surrender with 5000 men at Saratoga (1777).

This gave France the opportunity for which she had been waiting, to side with the United States. She sent help in men and money to them, and also made war on us in Europe and other parts; and when Spain and Holland took sides against us, we were quite overmatched.

Even so, however, the war in America went on with varying fortunes, until another disaster brought it to a close. A British army of 5000 men was surrounded and besieged in Yorktown by 18,000 French and Americans, and by the French fleet, and after a brave resistance our men had to surrender (1781). One of the conditions was, that the British soldiers should be allowed to march out with bands playing, and one of the band-masters, with a whim-

sical appreciation of the situation, made his band play, "The world's turned upside down".

After this there was hardly any more fighting, for both sides were nearly exhausted, and the new American government was nearly bankrupt. Washington was begged to make himself dictator of the United States. He refused to do so, and soon showed his patriotism by retiring into private life for a time.

Our statesmen came to see that it was useless to prolong the war in America. In Europe, Britain boldly faced her many enemies, and our troops splendidly defended Gibraltar for three years against countless assaults of the French and Spaniards. Enraged at the obstinacy of the British defence, the besiegers finally sent ten great floating batteries close to the walls of the fortress. Our men replied to their terrific broadsides with red-hot cannon-balls, which at last set them on fire. The enemy's last great effort failed, and the Union Jack continued to wave over the rock of Gibraltar. The British Admiral Rodney also gained a great victory over the French fleet in the West Indies. So, Great Britain ended this great war against her many foes with something like honour (1783).

Great Britain also made peace with the United States and recognized their independence. Trouble arose again in 1812, when Napoleon stirred up the Americans to invade Canada. Three successive attempts to overrun the country were bravely beaten back by the Canadian militia, but the war was still going on when the enforced abdication of Napoleon in 1814 removed the cause of the quarrel. The loss of the United

States taught us this important lesson, that it is best not to interfere with the local affairs of our colonists.

The Formation of the Dominion of Canada

The most important event in the history of our North American Colonies since the loss of the United States was the union of all the remaining North American Colonies, except Newfoundland, and the formation of the great, strong, and prosperous Dominion of Canada.

The name Canada has since the year 1867 been applied to all the land lying between the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Pacific and Arctic Oceans. Before that time the term was only properly used of the two Provinces of Ontario and Quebec, which were known as Upper and Lower Canada. Up to the year 1840 these were practically separate colonies, between which there was only one bond of union,—their connection with the mother-country. So great, however, were their grievances that it seemed probable that this bond might be snapped.

Lower Canada was inhabited mainly by French agriculturists and fishermen, who clung to their old habits, and had no sympathy with the more progressive and enterprising British element which controlled most of the trade and commerce. The system of government brought the two races into collision, the French having a great majority in the House of Assembly, which corresponded to our House of Commons; while the British Governor and his nominees in the Upper House (or Legis-

lative Council) would override their decisions. The French Canadians, therefore, complained that though they formed the great majority of the people of Lower Canada, their wishes were often set aside. Their discontent became so great, that in the autumn of 1837 they rose in rebellion, which was, however, soon suppressed by the British troops.

A slight revolt was at the same time attempted by malcontents in the Upper Province, where a similar constitution had produced the same friction between the Governor and the majority of the people. They claimed that the Legislative Council should be freely elected by the people, instead of consisting solely of men named by the Governor. The malcontents of Upper Canada were easily disposed of; but it was clear that these and other grievances must be righted, if the Canadas were ever to be prosperous and loyal. The Home Government therefore sent out an able man, Lord Durham, to act as special commissioner and report on the position.

Though some of his acts were hasty and ill-considered, Lord Durham's report pointed out the cure of the difficulties. He recommended that the two Canadas should be united to form one colony, and that constitutional government should be granted not only in form but in reality, by making the Legislative Council elective. The need for the former of these steps will be obvious, when it is stated that the customs-dues levied at Quebec by Lower Canada on the imports and exports of Upper Canada enriched the maritime province at the

expense of the inland province. Lord Durham pointed out that this grievance would be at once removed by union, and that the hatred existing between the two races would soon vanish when they were called upon to work together for the welfare of the whole of Canada.

The famous *Canada Bill* of 1840, which embodied these suggestions, is a measure of great importance. Canada thenceforth was a united colony, enjoying large powers of self-government both in colonial and municipal affairs. The jealousy between British and French Canadians by degrees grew weaker and disappeared. Indeed, when the commerce of the Upper Province was freed from the control of Quebec, the British settlers in Ontario began to multiply so fast that in ten years they far outnumbered the more stationary French settlers of the Lower Province. With the opening up of the interior since that time the growth of the British element has been increasingly great.

The Act of 1840 was also a landmark in our whole colonial history, for it frankly admitted the right of a great colony to the almost complete management of its own affairs—a principle which was later on applied to all the Australasian colonies, and to others where the native races do not outnumber the whites.

Fortunately, however, in the case of Canada the successive governors appointed by the British Government have retained considerable control over the execution of the laws, and the appointment of ministers; and have often been able not only to

prevent hasty legislation, but to arrange disputes between the British and French parties.

Progress of Canada

After political difficulties were settled, Canada began to make steady progress, the colonists gaining more complete control over the appointment of officials and the postal and telegraphic arrangements. The navigation of the river St. Lawrence was greatly improved, canals being made past its worst rapids, and railroads being commenced. The lands hitherto reserved for the support of the Episcopal Church were sold for the benefit of educational and other improvements; and some of the antiquated French land tenures were abolished. A treaty of commerce was made with the United States which led to more friendly relations than had yet prevailed.

The great Victoria Bridge was built (1854–1859) at the direction of Robert Stephenson over the river St. Lawrence at Montreal, so as to connect the Canadian railway system with that of the United States. This bridge has been of immense service in improving traffic between the northern and the southern parts of Canada proper. It has recently been reconstructed as the Jubilee Bridge.

As has been explained in previous pages, the work of the man of science and engineer has helped to unite districts and people previously separated by what seemed to be insuperable obstacles. This has proved to be the case not only in our own islands, but far more in the New World, where

Nature has worked on so vast a scale. Indeed, the history of Canada now becomes the record of material progress effected by help of inventors and engineers, and of political union which the statesman is later on able to accomplish.

Continents were now to be brought within speaking distance by the electrician. After some unsuccessful attempts, a submarine cable was laid in 1858 between Ireland and Newfoundland and thence to Nova Scotia. Unhappily, after one or two messages had been sent across, the cable broke and the labour of years was rendered fruitless. After another series of failures, success was finally attained when the *Great Eastern* steamship landed the western end of a telegraphic cable in Newfoundland in 1866. Thenceforth the Atlantic was no barrier to news, and the Canadians could converse with the mother-country as easily as with the men of New York.

In 1858 the beautiful town of Ottawa, situated on high ground above its broad river, was chosen as the political capital of united Canada. No better choice could have been made; Ottawa is central, far removed from the United States' frontier, and seems to point the Canadian people westwards to their boundless interior.

But before Canada set about drawing to herself the vast lands of the North-West, she endeavoured to effect a union with the maritime provinces of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. A movement in favour of this union had for some time been making headway. Fenian raids made by some Irish Americans

into Canada in 1866 strengthened this movement, by showing that separate colonies were at a disadvantage in case of attack. But the maritime provinces were so jealous for their own local interests that matters moved slowly. Fortunately, the Conservative leader in Canada, Sir John Macdonald, was a man of great tact and energy; and it was mainly owing to him that these provinces united with Canada proper to form the great Dominion of Canada. This took place on July 1, 1867; and since then July 1, or "Dominion Day", has always been kept as a public holiday.

Two years later the Dominion acquired by purchase the rights of the Hudson's Bay Company over the vast lands of the North-West; and after a short time the great territory of British Columbia and the adjacent island of Vancouver joined the Dominion, on condition that a railway should be constructed from the eastern provinces to the mouth of the river Fraser. This line, called the *Canadian Pacific*, was accordingly made at great expense across the vast plains of Manitoba, up the course of the river Saskatchewan, through the Rocky Mountains, and then down the course of the river Fraser to the capital of British Columbia, New Westminster. Its completion in 1885 afforded speedy transit between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, all the way on British soil.

In the same year a revolt of half-breed French and Indians in Manitoba was put down; and as the leader, Louis Riel, had previously made war on the Dominion, and had been pardoned and become a

member of the Dominion parliament, he was brought to trial for treason, condemned, and executed.

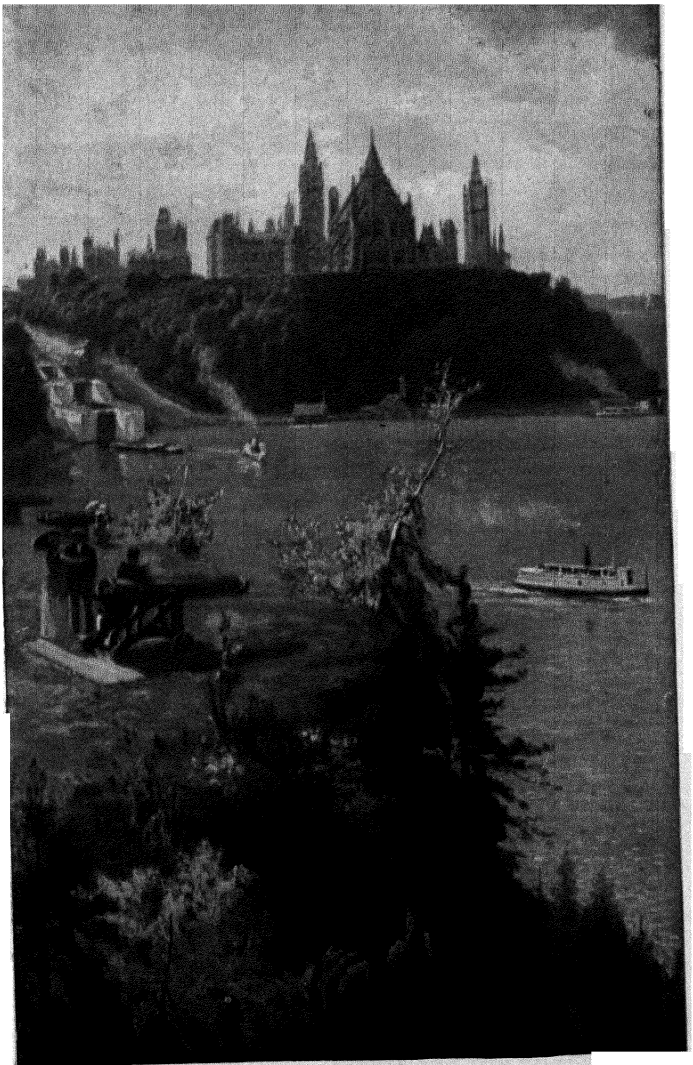
A number of Indians, eight in all, who had taken part in the rising, and who were clearly convicted of murder, were about the same time hanged at Battleford. During the rest of the century the Canadian Dominion had little trouble with the natives. Its progress was peaceful and rapid, and at the beginning of the new century its population had grown to between five and six millions, far more than the population of the thirteen colonies, which by their rebellion formed the United States.

The Gulf fishery dispute with the United States was complicated with a seal fishery dispute in the Pacific and a boundary dispute on the north-west frontier with the same country. The settlement of these by commission and by arbitration were the principal foreign events in recent Canadian history.

The discovery of gold in the Yukon Territory and the rush of miners thither, the development of Manitoba, and the beginning of the opening up of the North-West, and the evidences of continued loyalty to Britain given by the people of Canada were the most marked features of the Dominion history during the closing years of the nineteenth century.

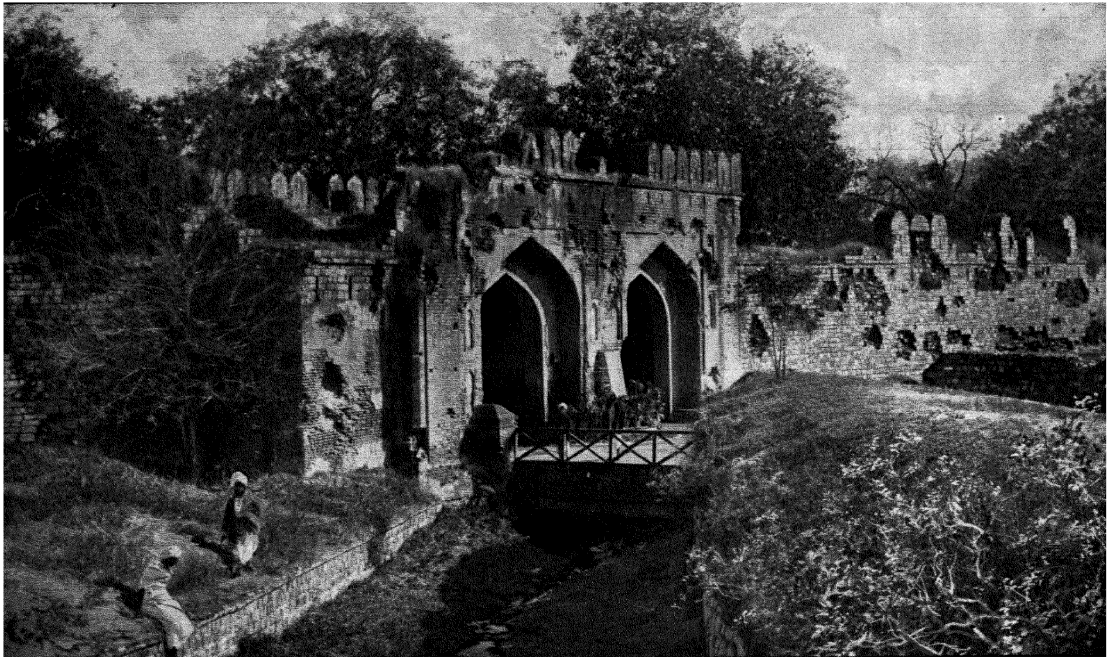
BRITAIN, RUSSIA, AND TURKEY

Throughout the nineteenth century the Eastern Question kept presenting itself from time to time, as it still does, puzzling our statesmen and perplexing our people. The phrase "The Eastern Question"



PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, OTTAWA, CANADA (page 122)

(M 953)



THE CASHMERE GATE, DELHI (page 136)

denotes the difficulties that are constantly arising between the Turks and their Christian subjects. The British people have always sympathized with the Christians in Turkey, and have often been disposed to interfere between them and their oppressors. But British statesmen in power have always thought it necessary to abstain from doing anything which would lead to the breaking up of the Ottoman Empire, because they regard Turkey as an important check upon the constantly extending power of Russia. It is generally believed in this country that if Russia were in possession of Constantinople, the safety of other European powers would be endangered. Hence Britain, while abhorring the cruelties that have from time to time been perpetrated by the Turks upon their Christian subjects, has hesitated to take extreme measures with the Turkish government.

Thus, when in 1875 the Christians in Herzegovina rose in revolt against the Turks, who were oppressing them cruelly, Britain refused to support the other great powers of Europe in threatening to use force on behalf of the Christians. On the contrary, the Mediterranean fleet took up a position as if for the defence of Turkey (May, 1876). This spirited performance encouraged the Turks in their misdeeds and annoyed the Continental powers. It also displeased many of our own people, whose sympathies were with the oppressed Christians. Then came the news of horrible massacres carried out by the Turkish soldiers among the Bulgarians, and the indignation of the people of Britain found lively expression at meetings held by Mr. Gladstone all over the country, to protest

against the support given to Turkey by the British government.

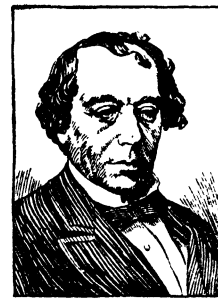
The Servians and Russians were as indignant at these atrocities as we were. Servia drew the sword first, but met with disaster. Then Russia declared war against Turkey, and many people in this country watched the progress of the Russian forces with the greatest sympathy, although the ministry of Lord Beaconsfield protested against the action of Russia.

After making an alliance with the Christian state of Roumania, the Russians set out to invade Turkey, and met with little opposition until they reached Plevna. There the Turks made a gallant defence. Under a brave and able general, Osman Pacha, they fortified the hills round that town with earthworks, and repeatedly repelled the attacks of the besiegers with great slaughter (July, 1877).

The Russians had to summon more troops and then more troops, and finally concentrated nearly their whole force upon the siege of Plevna. The stubborn Turk held out for 143 days, and then, being starved out, he surrendered. After that the Turkish defence everywhere collapsed, and Turkey was at the mercy of the Czar.

The Turks then appealed to Britain to intervene in the struggle, and at the request of the British government a Treaty of Peace was signed by the combatants. The Russians, however, continued to move on towards Constantinople, which our government believed to be the object they had had in view all the time. Lord Beaconsfield made a counter-move which set all Europe staring. He ordered the

British Mediterranean fleet to sail through the Dardanelles and anchor near Constantinople. This, of course, was equivalent to an intimation that we would not allow Russia to occupy the Turkish capital.



Lord Beaconsfield

This threat had the desired effect, and Russia consented to submit the terms of peace between her and Turkey to a Congress of the Powers, which met at Berlin. To this Congress Lords Beaconsfield and Salisbury went as our representatives. There was for a time great danger of war; but, thanks to the firmness of the British prime minister, and to the friendly mediation of the great German statesman, Prince Bismarck, an understanding was arrived at and embodied in the Treaty of Berlin (July, 1878). By this treaty Turkey lost a large portion of her dominions, but she retained her independence, and Russia was kept out of Constantinople. And, what was of even greater importance, time was secured, and an opportunity for free development given to those nations that had just been freed from the oppressive yoke of Turkey.

By a secret treaty which Lord Beaconsfield had made with Turkey in June, 1878, we occupied the Turkish island of Cyprus, which has greatly benefited by our rule and administration. Turkey, on the other hand, promised to Britain to introduce necessary reforms for the protection of the Christians in her Asiatic provinces; but Turkey has not kept her

promises, and these unfortunate people have continued to suffer severely at times from Turkish cruelty and oppression.

THE INDIAN MUTINY

The Outbreak at Meerut

Early in the spring of 1857 there were rumours of disaffection among the native troops or sepoys in India. It was in the Bengal army that the feeling of disaffection principally spread. The native troops believed that the time had come when they could easily drive the British out of India and re-establish the native monarchies. Evil-disposed persons went from regiment to regiment exciting them to mutiny. One of the stories circulated among the troops was that the cartridges served out to them had been greased with pigs' and cows' fat in order to destroy their religion, the pig being an unclean animal alike to Hindoos and to Mohammedans, and the cow being sacred to the Hindoos.

The first serious outbreak occurred at Meerut on the 10th May, 1857, when the native troops rose in mutiny, murdered their officers and all the Europeans, men, women, and children they could find, and marched upon Delhi, thirty-two miles distant. In that city, the ancient capital of India, there was a large white population, but no British troops were stationed there. The consequence was, that on the arrival of the mutineers from Meerut the native troops

joined them, and the whole of the white population inside the walls of Delhi was murdered under circumstances of the most horrible and revolting cruelty.

The magazine in the city was held by three British officers and six non-commissioned officers, and was nobly defended until the little band were all wounded. Then they blew up the magazine, killing some 2000 of the mutineers and rabble of the town. In the confusion the three officers and one of the non-commissioned officers effected their retreat through a small gate.

The Defence of Cawnpore

The signal given at Meerut spread like wildfire. At station after station the sepoys of the Bengal army rose in mutiny, murdered their officers and all the white men, women and children, and from the Punjab down to Calcutta the country was in a flame. At Cawnpore and Lucknow, in the newly-annexed province of Oudh, the white garrisons were besieged. At Cawnpore the officer in command was Sir Hugh Wheeler, who had with him only 55 men of the 32nd Regiment, the civilians belonging to the station, and those who had come in from outlying places.

It was hoped that there was no danger here, for Nana Sahib, a great native prince who lived close by, had been regarded as a great friend of the British, being profuse in his hospitality to the officers of the garrison and on the best possible terms with them. When the revolt of the native troops began, there were altogether 240 officers, soldiers, and civilians capable of bearing arms in Cawnpore, and these


Sir Henry Havelock

had under their charge no fewer than 870 women and children. A message was sent to Nana Sahib asking for aid, but his true character was now seen. He at once, with his own forces, joined the mutineers, and, assuming the command, advanced to besiege the hastily-thrown-up entrenchments of the British.

All the native Christians, with their wives and families, in the city of Cawnpore were murdered, as were many of the peaceable and wealthy inhabitants. The bombardment of the British position was kept up day and night, and the sufferings of the besieged were frightful. Yet, although the army of the Nana was now increased to upwards of 12,000 men by the arrival of mutineers from other stations, the handful of Britons repulsed every attack upon their lines.

At last, after twenty-two days of obstinate fighting, the Nana offered a free passage to the defenders if they would surrender the place with its guns and treasure. As further resistance had become all but impossible the terms were accepted, the Nana and his Hindoo officers taking the Hindoo oath, and the Mohammedans swearing on the Koran, that the conditions should be observed.

The Massacre of Cawnpore

But as soon as the Europeans had embarked in boats to proceed down the Ganges, the natives

opened a terrific fire of musketry and cannon upon them from the bushes on the river bank. With the exception of two or three boats which had drifted down the stream, all were sunk or captured. The men who were still alive were at once taken on shore and shot; the women and children, many of them bleeding from wounds, were taken captives into the town. The boats that escaped were seized by the mutineers at a place lower down the river, and the occupants murdered. Of the entire garrison, only four escaped to tell the mournful story.

Shortly after this treacherous deed, General Havelock with a little force of 1400 men fought his way up from Allahabad, defeating the mutineers and Nana Sahib's troops. At length they reached Cawnpore, rejoicing in the hope of rescuing the hapless women and children confined there.

But when they entered the town they found they were too late. All was quiet, but fragments of dresses, children's shoes, and other signs of English occupation lay scattered about, and a thousand terrible mementos of the butchery which had taken place met their eyes.

It was soon found that the great well, near the house in which the British had been imprisoned, was choked to the brim with the bodies of women and children.

The soldiers, who had struggled against heat and fatigue and a host of foes to reach Cawnpore, broke down, and cried like children, at the terrible sight.

The Siege of Lucknow



Sir Henry Lawrence

Meanwhile Lucknow, the capital of Oudh, was being besieged by the mutineers. Sir Henry Lawrence was in command, and the garrison consisted of a few hundred British troops and civilians, with about 150 men who remained faithful from the sepoy regiments. These had under their charge over 1000 women and children.

The ground that they defended was a little elevated and close to the river. The Residency stood in the centre, and at a distance of some two hundred yards round it were grouped a number of buildings occupied by the garrison and connected by entrenchments of earth. This little enclosure has become memorable to all time as the scene of one of the most gallant and successful defences ever offered by a small body of men to an enormously superior enemy. The siege began unfortunately, for on the second day Sir Henry Lawrence was mortally wounded by a shell which entered the room in which he was writing. The command then devolved upon Colonel Inglis of the 32nd Regiment. Day and night the bombardment continued till the houses were riddled with shot and shell. The enemy made frequent attacks in heavy masses upon the entrenchments, but they were always repulsed by the garrison, every one of whom fought as if the whole

defence of the place depended upon his individual bravery. Soldiers, civilians, and natives vied with each other in the bravery with which they performed their duty. The women too displayed an heroic patience and fortitude under the dangers and sufferings they underwent, for nowhere were they secure from the shot and shell of the enemy. And so for weeks the siege went on, while British ships were bearing across the seas troops destined for the relief of their brothers and sisters so hardly pressed.

The Advance upon Delhi

While the garrison of Cawnpore, after a noble defence, had been massacred, and that of Lucknow, cut off from all succour, was obstinately defending itself, the eyes of India and of Great Britain were fixed principally upon Delhi. It was there that it was to be decided whether the British or the natives were to be rulers of India. Thither, after rising in mutiny and carrying out the work of murder, the sepoy regiments made their way, to gather in the ancient capital and to salute the aged king who dwelt there as the monarch of India. There the British forces followed them and took up a position on a craggy hill called the Ridge, almost looking down upon Delhi. For nearly three months they held the position in spite of incessant attacks of the mutineers.

At this time the splendid loyalty of the Sikhs was of immense advantage to the British, and throughout the campaign these native regiments served with unflinching fidelity and courage.

It was not till the 8th of September that guns fit for siege work reached the British camp, and the work of throwing up batteries began. Our men worked with tremendous energy, and as each battery was armed it opened fire upon the walls. In spite of the resistance of the enemy, and the fire of their guns, by the 13th great gaps were made in the walls in two places, and orders were issued for the assault at daybreak next morning. The troops were divided into four columns, each of 800 or 900 strong, while 1500 were kept in reserve to aid where needed. The numbers of the besieging army had by this time increased to 5000.

General Nicholson's column attacked one of the breaches, and, rushing forward through a tremendous fire, dashed up the slope of rubbish and won their way through the opening in the wall. An equal success attended the assault on the other breach. The third column was to assault the Cashmere Gate; but here a deed had first to be done which should live in the memories of Britons as long as we exist as a nation.

The Cashmere Gate

Before the assault could be made the Cashmere Gate had to be blown in, and as the column moved forward a little party ran on ahead towards the gate. It consisted of Lieutenants Home and Salkeld, of the Royal Engineers; Sergeants Smith and Carmichael, and Corporal Burgess, of the same corps; bugler Hawthorne, of the 52nd Regiment; and twenty-four native sappers and miners, under Havildars (or native

sergeants) Mahor and Sing. Each of the sappers carried a bag of powder. The gate stood close to an angle in the wall, and from the parapets above and embrasures in the walls a terrible fire was poured upon them. When they reached the ditch they found the drawbridge destroyed, but crossed one by one upon the beams on which it had rested.

The sappers laid their bags against the gate, and jumped down into the ditch to allow the firing party to do their work. Many had already fallen. Sergeant Carmichael was shot dead as he laid down his powder bag; Mahor was wounded. As Lieutenant Salkeld tried to fire the fuse he fell, shot through the arm and leg; while Sing, who stood by, was killed. As he fell, Lieutenant Salkeld handed the slow match to Corporal Burgess, who lit the fuse, and fell mortally wounded as he did so. Then those who survived jumped, or were helped, into the ditch, and in another moment a great explosion was heard, and the Cashmere Gate flew into splinters, killing some forty mutineers who were behind it. Then the bugler sounded the advance, and the column came rushing forward with a cheer, and burst into the city.

But though the entrance to the town was won, the work had only begun. Every street and house had been fortified, and during the whole day the most desperate fighting took place. Day after day the fight went on, our troops gaining ground slowly, and often having to break their way through from house to house. It was not until the sixth day that they had won their way to the palace, which was a fortress in itself. This, however, was taken with but slight

resistance, the sepoys having by this time completely lost heart, and having gradually retired by the bridge across the river on the other side of the city. The British flag was raised over the palace, and the thundering salute of the guns, and the cheers of the troops, announced that the heart of the rebellion was broken and British rule restored (20th Sept. 1857).

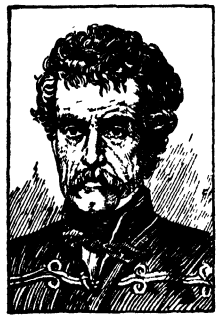
The Relief of Lucknow

While the desperate fighting in the streets of Delhi was going on, General Havelock and his force fought their way up to Lucknow, and arrived there just in time, for the enemy had driven two mines right under the defences. These would have been exploded next day, and in that case the fate of the garrison of Cawnpore might have befallen the defenders of Lucknow.

Havelock's little force, however, was not strong enough to carry off the sick and wounded, the women and children, and it was therefore determined to continue to hold the Residency until further aid arrived.

The siege of Delhi over, steps were taken at once to relieve Lucknow, troops were sent off from Delhi, and these, joined by some marching up from Calcutta, gathered at Cawnpore. Sir Colin Campbell, who had just arrived from England to take the chief command in India, joined them here, and on the 10th of November the advance began, the whole force being 2700 infantry and artillery and 900 cavalry.

The fighting began on the 14th outside Lucknow, when two palaces near the town were captured. The


Sir Colin Campbell

next day an attack was made upon the Secunderbagh, a building of strong masonry, standing in a garden, surrounded by a very high and strong wall. The enemy were gathered here in great force, and also in a great mosque close by. The sailors of the naval brigade brought their heavy guns close up to the walls and opened fire. A breach was soon made, and the troops burst in.

There were 2000 sepoys in the garden, and these fought desperately, but the soldiers, with the cry of "Remember Cawnpore!" were irresistible, and every mutineer in the garden was killed. Then the mosque was attacked; the sailors brought up their guns to within ten yards of the wall, the soldiers covering them by their fire, and the mosque was speedily captured. Gradually the troops won their way forward. The garrison of the Residency, delighted at taking the offensive after their long siege, attacked the enemy with fury, and carried building after building at the point of the bayonet, and on the 17th the heads of the two forces met.

But Sir Colin Campbell saw that it would be necessary again to retire until a force sufficient to crush all opposition was collected; accordingly the gallant garrison, with the women and children it had so long protected, was drawn off, and the force retired.

The End of the Mutiny

It was not until most of the bands of rebels scattered throughout the country had been broken up that the British army again advanced against Lucknow. Here were collected 60,000 revolted sepoys and 50,000 irregular troops, besides the armed rabble of the city, which had a population of 300,000 souls. But the army was far more numerous than that which had before attacked the town, and none doubted of success. The fighting was desperate in the extreme, but day by day the troops fought their way forward, carrying palace after palace. At last, in the middle of March, 1858, they captured the principal abode of the King of Oudh, where an immense quantity of treasure was found by the troops.

From that moment the enemy began to leave the town in large numbers, but it was not until after another week's fighting that the whole of the city was won. The fall of Lucknow broke the back of the rebellion. It was some months before the flying columns of troops scattered all the rebel bands and restored order throughout the country; but this was a matter of detail, and with the fall of Lucknow the great rebellion was brought to an end.

Hitherto India had been governed by the East India Company, but it was now transferred from them and placed directly under the British crown, and became really a portion of her Majesty's dominions. In 1876 Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India.

FURTHER EVENTS IN INDIA

Lord Roberts (1832–1897) and the N.W. Frontier

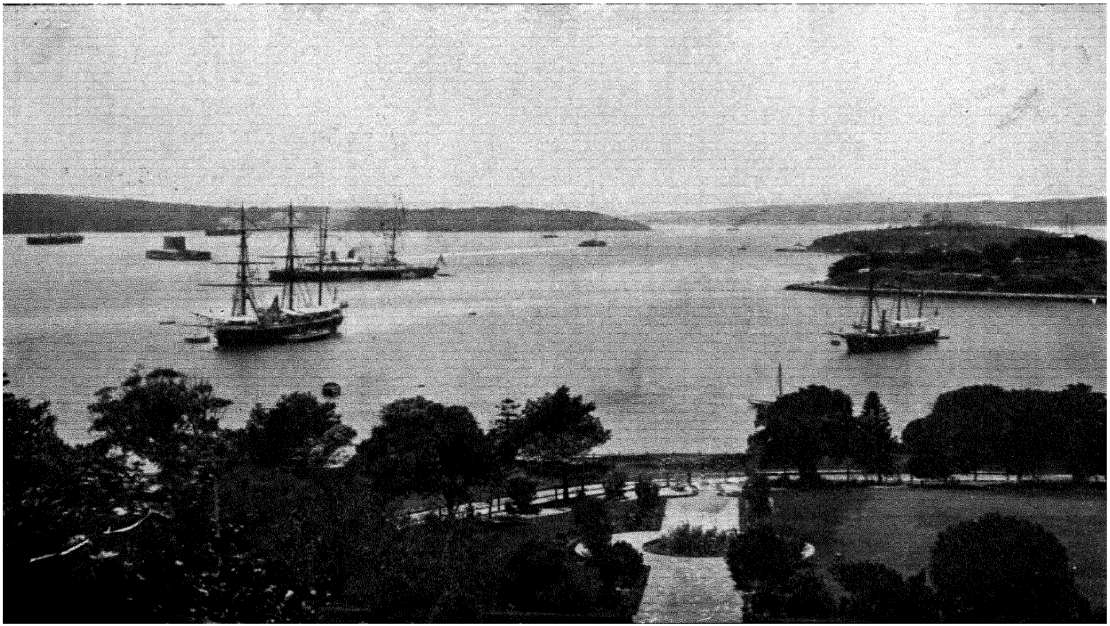
Lord Roberts, the son of Sir Abraham Roberts, was born in India (1832). He served through the Indian Mutiny, and was awarded the Victoria Cross for an act of signal bravery. In 1868 he took part in the Abyssinian war, and in 1875 was made Quarter-master-general in India. His chance of earning greater distinction came when war broke out with the Afghans in 1878. Shere Ali, the Afghan Ameer, had refused to receive British envoys at Cabul. On the other hand, he saw fit to welcome an embassy from the Czar of Russia, and so Lord Beaconsfield determined to force him to show like respect to the British representative. Shere Ali was equally determined to do nothing of the sort. In order to convince him of the error of his ways, the government of India sent an army which drove him out of his kingdom. His son, Yakub Khan, was put to reign in his stead, and he agreed to conduct his foreign policy in accordance with British interests.

These high-handed proceedings on the part of the Indian government are to be explained by the view it took of the military importance of Afghanistan. This country stands as a buffer-state between the possessions of Great Britain and Russia, and it serves to keep a possible enemy at a safe distance from the North-West Indian frontier. The British, on this account, considered their supremacy in Afghanistan to be a matter of vital importance. When, therefore,

Yakub Khan, unmindful of his promises, and regardless of the subsidy of £60,000 that had been granted him, permitted the massacre of the English envoy and his escort, it was felt that the time had come to make him understand once and for all the danger of refusing to accept the friendship of Great Britain. Sir Frederick Roberts, who had distinguished himself in the previous campaign against Shere Ali, was sent with an army to avenge the massacre and dictate terms at Cabul.

It was not long before the British again entered Cabul. Yakub Khan was sent to India, and many persons proved guilty of having taken part in the massacre of the envoy and his escort were executed. The Afghans were, however, not yet beaten, and, urged on by their fanatical priests, they continued the war with vigour. At Ghazni they were defeated by General Stewart in the month of March, 1880. Under the leadership of Ayub Khan, another son of Shere Ali, they again took the field, and about fifty miles from Kandahar attacked and almost annihilated a British detachment of 2500 Europeans and native soldiers. In this unequal fight a hundred officers and men of the "Old Berkshire", the only European regiment present at the battle, held out in a garden against countless foes till they were all shot or cut to bits. The sepoys and the few Englishmen who escaped made their way to Kandahar, which was occupied by a garrison under General Primrose.

Kandahar was besieged by the victorious Afghans, and its brave defenders, both British and native, waited anxiously for news of the advance of General



Photo, Kerry, Sydney

SYDNEY HARBOUR (PORT JACKSON) FROM GOVERNMENT HOUSE: DISCOVERED BY CAPTAIN COOK

(page 151)



QUEEN VICTORIA PROCLAIMED AT DELHI EMPRESS OF INDIA

Jan. 1, 1877

Roberts. He had not been idle, and on August the 8th he left Cabul with 10,000 men and hurried to the rescue. For three weeks nothing was heard of him either in India or Great Britain. It was known that he was on the march to Kandahar, but that was all. Ayub Khan was better informed; he drew his scattered forces from before the city, and, placing them in a strong position, decided to act upon the defensive. After traversing 318 miles in twenty-three days, General Roberts, followed by his devoted army of Britons, Sikhs, and Ghurkas, marched up to the city, and, uniting his forces to those of General Primrose, attacked the Afghan position and utterly defeated Ayub Khan. The news of the victory, coming as it did after days of suspense, was received in Britain and India with heart-felt joy and relief. Sir Frederick Roberts was made Lord Roberts of Kandahar, and became one of the most popular figures in Great Britain. As we shall see, he added greatly to his reputation as a general, and to his claims upon the gratitude of his countrymen, twenty years later, in South Africa.

The battle of Kandahar made British influence supreme in Afghanistan, Abdur Rahman became Ameer, and his friendship was in 1883 rendered more solid by our undertaking to pay him a welcome subsidy of £120,000 a year. On his side, he agreed to remain true to British interests, and apparently he kept his word. His position was a delicate and difficult one, for his dominions are hemmed in on both sides by the territory of two powerful neighbours, the British and the Russians. He could not

be friends with both, and his sympathy with the former more than once exposed him to outrage from the latter. The slaughter of a number of his soldiers at Penjdeh by a Russian force nearly caused a war between Great Britain and the Czar in 1885. Happily a compromise was effected, and a commission was sent out to mark clearly the boundary between Russian and Afghan territory.

Abdur Rahman died in 1901, and was succeeded by his son. His kingdom lies, as we have seen, between the boundaries of Asiatic Russia and the chief passes through the mountain barriers that guard our North-West Indian frontier. The country is a difficult one to traverse, and the hostility of the Afghans would hinder the advance of an invading army. Our chief defence, however, lies in the North-West frontier itself, which has been rendered almost impregnable by the military skill of British generals. The defensive works, which stretch from the mouth of the Indus to Chitral in the north, cost us much money, and their erection and occupation brought us into frequent collision with the wild and unruly hill-tribes of the border. In 1895 we had to quell a rising of the Chitralese, and in 1897 we were again engaged in a struggle with the Afridis and Mohmands.

The closing years of the nineteenth century were marked in India by a succession of calamities. Earthquake, famine, and plague wasted the land. The bright side of affairs was the effort made by the Indian Government and by the people of Britain to lessen the suffering caused by these misfortunes.

THE AUSTRALASIAN COLONIES

At the beginning of the nineteenth century the settlement of Australia had little more than begun. Even at the accession of Queen Victoria, in 1837, there were no great and flourishing cities, no mining industries, in that vast island-continent. There was little cultivated land, and there were only small settlements, all but one founded for convicts, surrounded by the dwellings and sheep-runs of a few free settlers called squatters. Of these settlements Sydney was by far the most important and flourishing; but other smaller stations for convicts had been established in Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania, as it is now called), as also at Brisbane, and on the Swan River in Western Australia.

The English were probably not the earliest explorers to discover Australia; and the opportunity of taking possession of the country came first to the Dutch. The Dutch, however, could not, or did not, make use of their opportunity, and in 1770 Captain Cook landed in New South Wales and took possession of the country in the name of King George III.

Cook's Voyages—Sounding the St. Lawrence—First Voyage to the Pacific

The famous seaman and discoverer, Captain Cook, was born in 1728 at a village not far from Whitby. His father was a Yorkshire farm-labourer, who had nine children, and had a hard struggle to bring up his large family. His son James, who was to become

so famous, was sent to serve a tradesman near Whitby; but his love of the sea led him to take service on one of the sailing vessels engaged in the coal trade on the east coast. He worked so well that in course of time he became mate of his ship.

In those days seamen were often carried off by the press-gang, and were forced to serve in the royal navy. Once, when with his ship on the Thames, Cook thought this would happen to him, for it was a time of war, and the press-gangs were very active. To avoid being seized, Cook of his own accord enlisted in the royal navy. Here again he worked so well that he soon became master of a small gun-vessel which was sent to help General Wolfe in Canada.

One of Cook's duties there was to sound the river St. Lawrence. The French sent Indians to catch the daring captain; and once they chased his boat so closely, that Cook had barely time to throw himself out of it, and save his valuable papers and charts. After the conquest of Canada was completed, Cook was employed in surveying the coasts of Newfoundland, so that fishing-boats might know where the dangerous rocks and reefs were, and be able to avoid them.

But higher honours were in store for the son of the Yorkshire labourer. His strong sense of duty, his quickness of eye, his good temper, and his steadfast courage fitted him for a far more important command, which was to lead to famous results.

In 1769, astronomers were very anxious to observe the passage of the planet Venus across the sun. To make sure of seeing it, they sent expeditions to many

parts of the world, in the expectation that, if invisible at one place, it would be visible at another. They wished one of the expeditions to be sent to the Pacific Ocean.

They asked our government for a ship to take them to the required place, and to make geographical and other discoveries on the way thither. Cook was fixed on as the best suited to command such an expedition, because he was not only a brave and skilful seaman, but a pleasant man to get on with. So Cook, in company with several learned men, set sail for the Pacific in a small ship called the *Endeavour*. He rounded Cape Horn, entered the Pacific, and made his way to the lovely island of Otaheite or Tahiti.

When Cook and some of his companions went on shore, the natives came forward in wonder. "The first who approached us", wrote Cook, "crouched so low that he almost crept upon his hands and knees." But when they received presents of beads and other trinkets, they soon began to be very friendly, and behaved like naughty children. They stole many of the objects which they admired. Among other things, one of the valuable instruments was secretly carried off, and not till one of their chiefs was seized was it given back.

But these and other difficulties were got over with little trouble, owing to Cook's kindness and firmness. The observation of the passage of Venus was a complete success. Other gains to knowledge came from the collection of the plants of the island by the scientific men of the ship, and their observation of the customs of the natives. Their strange dances,

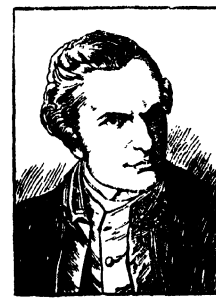
and the boldness with which they swam through or under the roughest surf, excited the wonder and admiration of our sailors; and after a pleasant stay on the coral shores, and amidst the leafy groves of Tahiti, Cook gave the order to depart.

After sighting several islands, Cook at length arrived off the coast of New Zealand. This had been discovered long before by a Dutchman named Tasman, who had also discovered the south of Australia; but the Dutch had made no use of either discovery. The natives of New Zealand were hostile and defiant; and as Cook could do little or nothing with them, he sailed away, after giving the name of Poverty Bay to the place where he had touched land. He sailed right round the coasts of New Zealand, thus proving that the islands had no connection with any great southern continent, and he sailed through the strait, now known as Cook Strait, which separates the North Island from the South. After proclaiming that New Zealand was British territory, Cook sailed away to the west.

End of the First Voyage—Second and Third Voyages

The next land which Cook sighted was a part of Australia, or New Holland as it was then called. Sailing up that coast, he first landed in a bay which was surrounded by shrubs growing in tropical profusion. Hence he and his botanists called it Botany Bay. The natives were so stolid and stupid that they scarcely left off their fishing to look at the

ship's boat; but two of them finally came forward and attacked the boat's crew, till Cook ordered small shot to be fired at them. Then they ran away, and no offers of beads or trinkets brought any natives back again. A few miles farther north Cook sighted a splendid natural harbour, which he named Port Jackson. Its banks were then silent and deserted. Now they are gay with the beautiful villas of Sydney, and its waters bear the ships of all nations.



Captain Cook

While sailing on far to the north, the *Endeavour* ran aground on a reef, and with much difficulty she was got into a river, which now bears the name of the ship. During the time occupied in repairs, the crew saw for the first time the strange creature called a kangaroo. One of the sailors thus funnily described it at its first appearance: "He was as large as a one-gallon keg, and very like it. He had horns and wings, yet he crept so slowly through the grass that if I had not been afeard I might have touched him." To the men's surprise the kangaroo, when chased, leaped away as fast as a greyhound.

At last the repairs were completed, and the ship was ready for sea again. After more exciting dangers from reefs, she reached the north point of the coast, which Cook named Cape York. As the whole of the coast seemed to him rather like that of South Wales, he called it New South Wales, and annexed it all to the British crown.

After many sufferings from privation and pestilence, Captain Cook and the few who survived reached England (1771), and received a splendid welcome. In this voyage, which lasted three years, he had made great discoveries, besides peacefully gaining for his country the right to hold New Zealand and the best parts of Australia.

A little later, Cook made a second voyage round the world. It was mainly to find out whether there was a great continent near the south pole, and he proved that there was no land there of any great extent. Icebergs and water-spouts were nearly fatal to the ship; but at last he made the coast of New Zealand. After sowing some seeds there, and leaving some goats to run wild, he visited some of the islands in the Pacific where he had touched before, and received a friendly greeting from the natives. The rest of this long voyage was weary and uninteresting.

Cook's third great voyage was to make discoveries in the Antarctic Ocean, and then to seek for a passage from the Pacific Ocean to the Atlantic, through the Arctic Ocean by way of Behring Straits. After a long voyage in the southern sea, he sailed through the middle of the Pacific, discovering many groups of islands. Everywhere the natives were astonished at the ship and its cargo. In some small islands, where there were no land creatures but birds, the natives asked Cook whether his pigs and goats were birds; and elsewhere the astonishment was great when Cook landed his horse and rode round the island.

At all the islands there was trouble from the

thievish habits of the natives; but on the whole he was received better at the Sandwich Islands than anywhere else. There the people fell on their faces when he landed, and loaded his men with food.

Cook next sailed on to the north, but the near approach of winter forbade any attempt at forcing a way into the Arctic Ocean, and he sailed back to the Sandwich Islands, hoping to winter there. The natives of the island at which he now arrived thought that he was one of their gods; for there was an old saying that one of their gods would return on a floating island bearing cocoa-nut trees and swine and dogs. They feasted Cook and his men for days, until some began to doubt whether he was a god, while all complained that his lean and hungry sailors ate too much, and were growing sleek and fat on their gifts.

Quarrels became more frequent. English goods were stolen, and at last one of Cook's boats was stolen away from its moorings by a skilful swimmer. Cook went to complain of this and other acts, but blows were given and returned. A native called out "'It is war", and an attack was made on the party. Cook retreated to the boats, but his men were overpowered, and Cook was murdered before the boats could row to his help. His limbs were sought for by many of the natives, who still thought that he might perhaps be their god.

Such was the unfortunate end of this brave man, the greatest explôrer of the eighteenth century, and one of the great discoverers of the world.

THE GROWTH OF AUSTRALIA

New South Wales

The Australian colonies, though now united into one dominion, remained for a long time without any form of union. The oldest of the colonies was New South Wales.

This was the name given by Captain Cook to the whole of the Pacific coast of Australia; but, as has been already seen, Sydney was at first the only considerable settlement. When the interior was shown to be suitable for grazing, squatters began to buy up large tracts of land, until Government, in the early part of the present reign, made rules for preventing such wholesale absorption. The price of the public land was raised, and part of the money was used to help the immigration of poor settlers. This laid the basis for the future prosperity of the colony, which was, however, chequered by periods of severe depression. In 1840 the practice of transporting convicts to New South Wales was given up. Two years later the colony enjoyed the beginnings of self-government, in a constitution somewhat like that just previously accorded to Canada; but the unruly elements in New South Wales were so strong as to make precautions needful.

The Discovery of Gold

Thus, when in 1845 gold was discovered near Bathurst, Governor Gipps did his best to hush up

the news and prevent a large immigration of adventurers. But in 1851 a man who had gained experience in the gold-fields of California discovered gold on the banks of a tributary of the river Macquarie, and received £10,000 reward from the authorities at Sydney. This discovery, and others which followed, drew crowds of eager men to the localities which seemed to promise gold. A rush commenced to the gold districts around Bathurst; and the character of the colony began to change as rapidly as its resources multiplied. In the long run, however, agriculture, the pasturage of sheep, and the growth of fruit were found to be the mainstay of the colony.

Gold finds had an even more startling influence in the south of the continent. The wealth of that part of the country which lies around Melbourne was at the outset entirely pastoral. In 1836 that infant settlement numbered 177 white persons, who claimed to occupy 100 square miles on the banks of the river Yarra. In the village, which in 1837 received the name of Melbourne, the average selling price of a half-acre plot of land was £35; before the end of the century the same land sold at about £600 for every foot fronting a main street. The cause of this immense increase of wealth lay in the great fertility of the soil of the Port Phillip district, and the discovery of gold in 1851.

Victoria

Even before the famous gold discoveries, the agricultural wealth of the district was so great that its

exports were in 1850 valued at one million sterling. It was evident that this wealthy land could not much longer be governed from Sydney, from which it was separated by lofty mountain ranges and an unexplored wilderness, and in 1851 it became a separate colony under the name of Victoria. Scarcely had the colony acquired a separate existence when gold was found in several parts around the present towns of Ballarat, Bendigo, &c. At once a feverish rush was made for gold. Farms, shops, and even the ships in the harbour were left almost deserted, while throngs poured forth to the gold-diggings.

Ere long serious troubles arose between the new government and the excited crowds of diggers. These were not quelled until thirty or forty of the diggers were shot down behind their stockade. By 1855 the craze for gold had begun to die away. The surface gold became exhausted, and the industry grew increasingly expensive and unexciting owing to the need of quarrying the quartz and crushing it by the aid of powerful machinery. The gold industry continued prosperous, but the chief wealth of Victoria lay in its rich corn and pasture lands. Here, as in the neighbouring colonies, grapes and other fruits were found to grow luxuriantly, and to form no small part of the wealth of the colony.

South Australia and Tasmania

It was well for Victoria and its neighbours that the gold craze was over; for while it lasted South Australia and Tasmania were left almost without

able-bodied men. South Australia was founded in 1836 by a company. Its plans were formed on far too ambitious a scale, and one of the early governors of South Australia was so extravagant as nearly to ruin the colony; but under Captain Grey, afterwards famous as Sir George Grey, the colony entered on a career of prosperity. This was due to the increase of the cultivated area and the discovery of the rich copper-mines at Burra. In 1849 the colony gained representative government. Though hard pressed by the gold rush to the Victorian gold-fields, it made on the whole steady advance, owing chiefly to its splendid wheat and fruits. In 1862 Mr. Stuart successfully passed through the desert interior to the northern coast, and an overland telegraph was soon constructed along his route.

Tasmania during the century had an easy, uneventful existence. Established in 1804 as a convict settlement, it advanced at first very slowly. Troubles with the blacks, and then the rush to the gold-fields, retarded its progress; but later the excellence of its pastures, corn, and fruit gained it considerable prosperity; and the island, happy in a climate superior to that of any of the other states of the Commonwealth, a climate resembling in many respects that of the south of England, ceased to deserve the nickname of "Sleepy Tasmania".

Queensland

Far more rapid was the progress of the vast north-eastern district of Australia. Brisbane, estab-

lished first as a penal station, became the centre of flourishing settlements of squatters, who realized large fortunes by the excellent sheep-runs on the Darling Downs. In 1859 this immense northern territory became a separate colony under the name of Queensland. The colonists who pushed on to the Fitzroy and Burdekin rivers found the soil and climate most suitable for the sugar-cane, which was then cultivated mostly by black labourers brought from the islands of the Pacific. The trade of supplying these islanders to the sugar-planters gave rise to many cruel practices; but after a time kidnapping, or "black-birding", was sternly prohibited by the Imperial Government, and white labour was employed.

Gold also was found in the mountain ranges of Queensland, the "Mount Morgan" mine being long considered one of the richest in the world. The colony, possessing a vast territory, and very varied products both vegetable and mineral, progressed in wealth more rapidly than any of the Australasian colonies. The government of Brisbane was so confident in its strength as in 1884 to annex the eastern part of New Guinea; but the Imperial Government, setting aside this annexation, declared the south-east part of that great island to be a separate British colony.

Western Australia

Little need be said about Western Australia, which was founded in 1829. It languished, for a long time, and was kept alive almost entirely by the importation of convicts, which only ceased in 1868. About that

year the colony began to make some progress owing to its natural advantages. The climate and the steady rainfall of the south-western corner of this vast territory make agriculture more regular than it is on the Pacific coast of Australia, where the alternate droughts and floods are very trying to the farmers. Latterly, the discovery of gold at Coolgardie and elsewhere much assisted the growth of the colony, which received constitutional government in 1890.

Federation of Commonwealth of Australia

About this time, the Australian colonies began to desire some form of union. In 1888 a Naval Defence Act was passed, which arranged a plan whereby the colonies co-operated with the mother-country for the defence of their shores. The desire to increase their strength and prosperity also led them to form a Federal Council to discuss plans of political union.

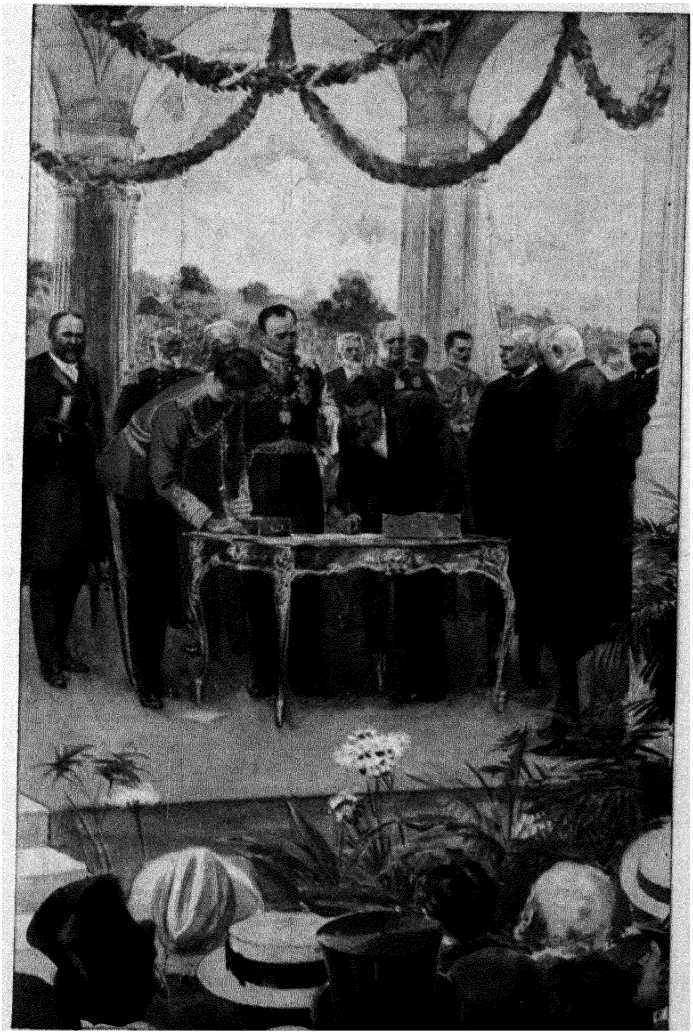
The difficulties in the way were by degrees surmounted; and an Act was passed enabling the Australian colonies (for New Zealand persisted in holding aloof) to form a federation termed the Commonwealth of Australia. The Government of the Commonwealth controls some of the most important matters, such as naval and military defence, fisheries, &c.; but the central authority has not so much power as that of the Dominion of Canada, which in other respects it somewhat resembles. The Commonwealth Parliament consists of two Houses, the Senate and the House of Representatives. Each colony sends the same number of senators to the

Upper House, where Tasmania, therefore, has the same influence as New South Wales. But members are elected to the House of Representatives on the basis of population, one member being chosen for every 50,000 inhabitants. The new constitution came into force on Jan. 1, 1901; and the birth of the new nation was everywhere celebrated with great rejoicings. This was especially the case at Sydney, where the new Governor, Lord Hopetoun, was received with much pomp, and a display of British, Australian, and Indian troops. One of the many triumphal arches was made of wool, the chief source of Australia's wealth.

The loyalty of our Australian kinsfolk was also shown in the strain and stress of the South African war. Of their own accord they raised and sent forth a large force, consisting of soldiers most suited to that kind of warfare, men who could ride hard, see far ahead, and shoot straight. They rendered splendid service on all sides; but none did better work than the "Bushmen's Corps", who largely aided in the relief of Mafeking. Melbourne was chosen as the meeting place of the federal parliament, till such time as a suitable site for the Capital of the Commonwealth could be agreed upon.

NEW ZEALAND

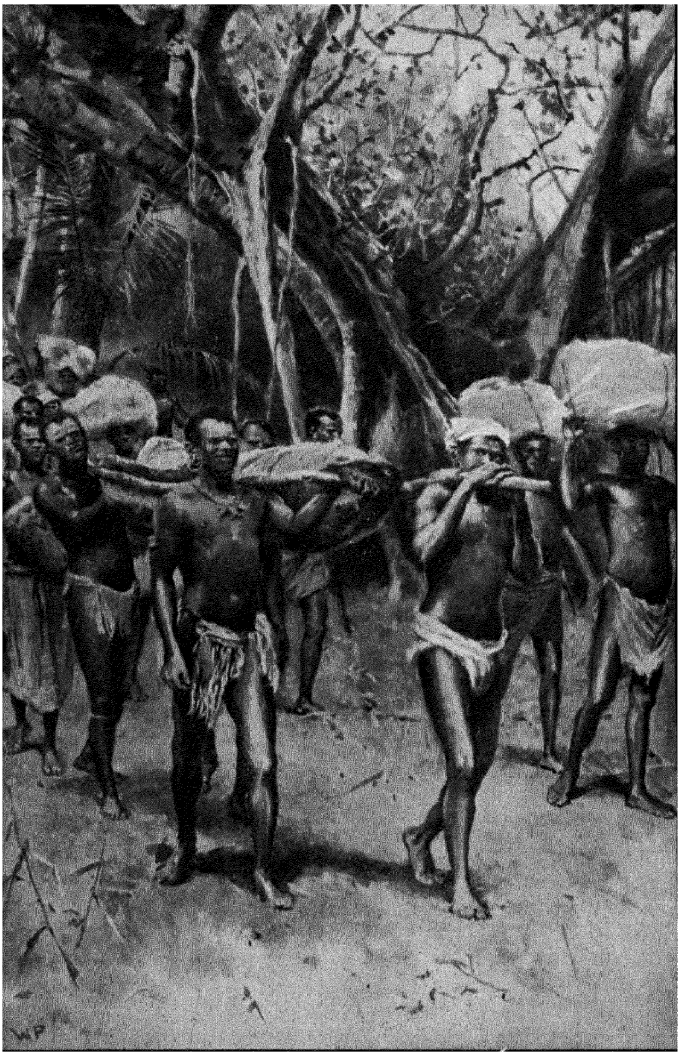
New Zealand differs from the continent of Australia no less in its climate and natural features than in its native inhabitants. The two chief islands of New



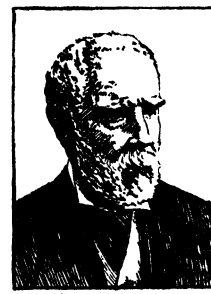
SIGNING THE DEED OF AUSTRALIAN FEDERATION

(page 160)

(M 052)



LIVINGSTONE'S NATIVE FOLLOWERS CARRYING HIS EMBALMED BODY TO THE COAST (page 172)


Sir George Grey

Zealand abound in fresh-water lakes, rivers that are never dry, and fine natural harbours,—advantages which are wanting to the greater part of Australia. The climate is moist but invigorating, that of South Island so much resembling the English climate that it has often been called the Great Britain of the Pacific. The natives are adventurous and warlike; and the early history of New Zealand, especially of North Island, is largely occupied with the strifes between the settlers and these brave aborigines, the Maoris.

The first governor, who landed in 1840, found trouble brewing over the purchase of land which the settlers claimed to have made from native chiefs. By degrees we drifted into war with the formidable Waikato tribes, which controlled most of the central district of North Island, and occasionally by their daring raids struck terror into the inhabitants of Auckland. Sir George Grey, who had already done splendid work as Governor of New Zealand, was in 1861 brought back from Cape Colony to his former sphere of duty so as to guide the government and make an honourable peace with the Maoris. Such was their confidence in his justice and uprightness that things quieted down for a time, until a party of whites were in 1863 massacred by some Maori braves. Then a general war ensued, in which the natives showed great skill in defending strong natural positions by "pahs", or stockades, and in

wearing out our troops by irregular warfare. At last the British and colonial forces, after gaining experience by failure, began to beat down the revolt. By a successful attack on a "pah" at Tauranga the war was practically ended. Since then the North Island has been the scene of peaceful progress.

Meanwhile the South Island, being free from these troubles, had made excellent advance, especially in the district of the Canterbury Plains, and in that of Otago, which was peopled mainly by Scottish immigrants. Reckless borrowing from British investors long hampered the resources of the colony; but these were so great and varied that it was able to do more than meet all its expenses. The export of wool and tallow, the development of the frozen-meat trade, and the working of numerous minerals, including gold, gave to this colony a well-balanced prosperity.

BRITISH POWER IN AFRICA

One of the most remarkable developments of the nineteenth century, and especially the latter part of it, was the opening up to civilization of Africa, the Dark Continent.

Up to the last quarter of the nineteenth century, save in the south and in Algeria and Egypt, the European settlements formed a scanty fringe on the coast. African colonies could not therefore prosper, for, as a rule, the climate of the coast is deadly to Europeans. Sierra Leone is called "the White Man's Grave", but many other stations are equally

unhealthy. The interior, being higher, is more free from the fevers that haunt the marshy coasts of East and West Africa. But much of the interior was then a No-Man's Land, only half-explored, belonging to savage tribes who owned no European masters. Later, however, almost the whole continent was parcelled out among European nations.

The work of opening up Africa to civilization has been done chiefly by British explorers, traders, and missionaries. It is to their labours that the world owes its knowledge of all the great rivers and lakes of that continent; and to no African explorer do we owe more than to the missionary David Livingstone. His name is specially connected with the Zambesi, as Mungo Park's name is with the Niger, and Stanley's with the Congo, while the exploration of the Nile and its system has been mainly done by Bruce, Baker, Speke, and Grant.

David Livingstone

David Livingstone came of a Highland family, one of whose members was slain at Culloden fighting for the Stewarts. Later on, the family removed from their island home off the west coast of Scotland to the village of Blantyre, near Glasgow. David's father used to sell tea in the neighbouring villages, and he also distributed tracts and useful books. He was a good man, and he brought up his children strictly but kindly, so that they might do the best for themselves in the time to come.

David Livingstone was the second son, and his

bright and lovable ways made him the life of the home. At the age of ten he was sent to the village factory as an apprentice, and in due course he became a spinner and received wages. The first half-crown which he earned he carried home with great pride, and laid in his mother's lap. He soon began to spend part of his slender earnings on books. He learned Latin at a night-school, and often used to sit up till midnight, though he had to be back at the factory next morning at six. He also used the little spare time in the day at his books, and he persevered with his studies until he could remember what he read amidst the noise of the machinery. In this way he became a well-read lad, and his knowledge was of great use to him in his later years.

Livingstone grew up to be a God-fearing and diligent young man; and in 1836 he determined to become a medical missionary, that is, he desired to heal the bodies of the heathen as well as teach the Christian religion. To gain the knowledge which would fit him for his work, he, in 1836, became a student at the University of Glasgow; but after each term was over he returned to work at the factory, so as to earn money which would meet some of his expenses. At Glasgow he was much respected for his courage and strict sense of duty. In fact, it was said of him that fire, water, and stone-walls would not stop him from doing his duty to the uttermost.

After further preparation in London, Livingstone set sail in 1840 for South Africa. That land was


David Livingstone

not then the settled flourishing colony which it now is. The white men were few and scattered, and the natives were despised and ill-treated by the Dutch settlers. He at once made up his mind to protect the natives against the injustice of the Dutch colonists in or near the Transvaal.

After a time he made his way to the interior in a wagon drawn by bullocks. This long and tedious journey took him over vast and almost arid plains, peopled by very few settlers, and still haunted by the wild ostrich and the hyæna, or farther north by the lion and the elephant. Rugged, hilly country had to be traversed, or the wagon had to be dragged across the rocky beds of streams and rivers. By such means as these did settlers and missionaries then make their way to the almost unknown interior of South Africa. On arriving at his destination, Livingstone spent a little time at a mission-station, where most of the natives had become Christians. But he longed to go farther north, among the tribes which were still heathen savages. So he travelled away northwards, settled down in their midst, learned their language, and cured many of their sick by his medicines. Little by little he won their confidence, and some of them became Christians.

His fame spread into other tribes beyond; and when he asked a chief of those parts whether he would like him to come and settle there, the chief

replied, "Oh, I shall dance, if you do; I shall get all my people to hoe a garden for you, and you will get more sweet-reed and corn than I do". In his frequent journeyings he generally rode on the back of an ox. On arriving at a place where they meant to pass the night, his native helpers used to unyoke the oxen from the wagon, then kindle a fire to cook the food and make coffee, after which the fire would be kept up so as to scare away lions and other dangerous animals.

On one occasion a lion leaped at him, seized him by the arm with his terrible teeth, and then stood over him, growling furiously at Livingstone's men, who rushed up to protect their master. One of them severely wounded the lion by a well-aimed shot. The lion then sprang towards this man, but speedily fell dead from the effect of the wound. When Livingstone was asked what his thoughts were when the lion stood growling over him, he quietly replied, "I wondered which part of me he would eat first". This shows the calm courage of the missionary, even when in the jaws of death.

In course of time Livingstone married the daughter of Dr. Moffat, who had long been a missionary in those parts. His wife helped him in many ways, especially in training the young children of the natives at the settlement. But he felt it to be his duty to move on and found other mission-stations. He also wanted to explore the country, to see if British settlers could be planted out there, and improve it by peaceful means. He wrote that he would open up Africa, or die in the attempt.

Livingstone Discovers the Falls of the Zambesi

After long and weary travels, Livingstone made his way to the great river Zambesi. He was enchanted with the scenery. This broad and noble river flowed through richly wooded country, often among lofty hills. At one place it plunged down into a deep chasm, making one of the finest waterfalls in the world. The spray from the seething waters rose high, forming a cloud which could be seen from afar. These wonderful falls were called by Livingstone the Victoria Falls, in honour of Queen Victoria.

But though the scenery was grand and beautiful, the natives were fierce and degraded. At one place Livingstone saw them hack some prisoners in pieces, and cast their limbs into the river to be devoured by crocodiles. He was unable to stop this cruel act, and hurried away in horror. He travelled along up the course of the river, and came across a sight which saddened him even more than the last. He saw gangs of slaves, fastened together by long ropes, being taken off to the coast to be sold to the slave-dealers. He then made up his mind that he would do his best to bring honest trade into this fair country, and so put a stop to the traffic in human flesh.

At last, sick and weary, he came to the Atlantic coast; then, turning back, he made his way down the course of the Zambesi right to its mouth in the Indian Ocean. This journey had been accomplished

once previously, for a Portuguese officer with soldiers had travelled across Africa from ocean to ocean; but Livingstone made this great journey unprotected, save by some peaceful native attendants, and though he passed through fierce tribes, yet he never shed any blood. He always trusted to kindness to melt the hearts even of savage chiefs, and he kept up his peaceful attitude even when a club was whirled over his head. For this reason, and for his splendid work in an unknown land, he received a warm welcome when he returned home for a time of rest.

Before Livingstone's days the middle of Africa was thought to be a vast sandy desert where only camels and ostriches could exist. Our people were surprised to read in Livingstone's description of his travels that it was a beautiful land, teeming with countless tribes and watered by noble rivers. So he was honoured by the universities and by learned societies, as well as closely questioned by the merchants of Manchester about the prospects of trade.

The Great Lakes

Before long he returned to Africa, and made his way up the Zambesi and one of its tributaries. He was the first white man to see the great Lake Nyassa, on the banks of which he hoped to found a colony, and to open up a better sort of trade than the slave-trade. His life was soon clouded over by the death of his wife, who was carried off by fever; and for the first time he felt that he would gladly die.

But his life-work was not yet done. He established a mission-station near the great lake. It was to consist of young men from the universities; but the difficulties from the slave-traders and from the unhealthy climate were so great that it then had to be given up. This was another severe blow to him.

After another short time of rest in England, this energetic Scotsman again set to work to discover an easy means of reaching the heart of Africa, so as to beat the slave-traders by peaceful means. On returning to Africa, he landed at Zanzibar and made his way overland to Lake Nyassa. Everywhere he found tribes making slaves of men of other tribes, and he did his best to show them how wrong this was.

Then he set himself to find the sources of the great river Nile. He laboured long and hard, and discovered two more large lakes. For some years he was quite alone in the heart of that dark continent. At last, when he was in the depths of distress, he was found and relieved by Mr. H. M. Stanley (1871). This adventurous traveller tells us that Livingstone looked pale, weak, and weary, and his hair and beard were almost white: but Stanley noticed that, even so, the natives reverenced him, and never passed his little hut without calling a blessing on his head.

Death of Livingstone

The old explorer was overjoyed at hearing the English tongue again after being alone in Africa for

so many years; but he would not return home, because he felt that his work in Africa was not done even yet. He wanted to make sure that the rivers which he had found were the sources of the Nile, and not of the Congo. But this last journey, made in 1873 across marshes and other fever-stricken parts, was too much for his weary frame, and he became weaker and weaker. He had one day's severe illness, and then early next morning his faithful native followers found him dead. He was kneeling as if in prayer. Thus he died, praying that Africa might be saved from the curse of the slave-trade. For that cause he had made his many travels, and for Africa he laid down his life.

His native followers did what they could to preserve the body of their beloved master. They carried it reverently all the way to Zanzibar; and now the bones of Livingstone lie in Westminster Abbey, where Britain buries the greatest of her heroes.

BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA

Cape Colony was originally a Dutch settlement, and became finally a British possession in 1814. The descendants of the original Dutch settlers, or Boers as they are called, formed a large portion of the white population of the country, and there were among them many to whom British rule with its care for the natives was very unacceptable.



UNITED SOUTH AFRICA and RHODESIA

Scale, 1:23,000,000

English Miles

0 50 100 200 300 400

From the time of our taking possession of the country there were many wars with the natives and many difficulties with the Dutch. These latter troubles culminated in the war with the Transvaal or South African Republic and the Orange Free State, which broke out in October, 1899. These two Boer states, without just cause, invaded Cape Colony and Natal, thinking to drive the British out of South Africa.

The Zulu War

The wars with the natives, though numerous, were mostly not serious. Towards the end of the year 1878, however, we found ourselves in conflict with the Zulus, a nation of savage warriors lying to the north of the colony of Natal. The attitude of this people had long been menacing. Their military organization was in its way perfect. Every man was a soldier; and their king was a despot, who carried out wholesale executions as a punishment for the slightest opposition to his will. A variety of causes of dispute had arisen, and it was felt by Sir Bartle Frere, the high commissioner of South Africa, that it was impossible for things to continue as they were, since the Zulu king could at any moment pour his army across the frontier and carry destruction into the whole colony.

Accordingly a demand was sent to the Zulu king to the effect that he must dissolve his army, and early in 1879 a British force under Lord Chelmsford was despatched to enforce compliance with this demand.

A portion of this force was attacked by an immense army of Zulus at Isandula, and almost totally destroyed; while at a place called Rorke's Drift a force of some eighty men of the 24th Regiment beat off an army of Zulus and killed over a thousand of them (January, 1879).

On the news of the disaster of Isandula arriving in England a great sensation was created, and reinforcements were at once sent out.

As soon as the first reinforcements landed, a column set out to relieve the garrison of Ekowe. When the force arrived within a short distance of Ekowe the enemy were seen advancing. The troops were formed up in a hollow square. The Zulus came on in their usual formation, and first attacked the side held by the 60th Rifles. For half an hour they assailed that side, but, unable to withstand the terrible fire of the 60th, swept round to the right with the intention of attacking on that side, but were then exposed to the fire of two other regiments.

Nothing could exceed the gallantry with which the Zulus fought, and it was not until they had lost 1500 men that they abandoned the attack. The relieving column then marched on to Ekowe, drew off the garrison, and retired with them across the frontier again, for as yet things were not prepared for the invasion of Zululand.

Kambula and Ulundi

On the 28th of March, the day before the column started for the relief of Ekowe, there had been some

very severe fighting on the north-west frontier of Zululand. Colonel Evelyn Wood with his column, which had fallen back after the disaster at Isandula, had continued to harass the enemy with much success, and had determined to punish a noted chief of the name of Umbelini, who had made repeated attacks upon our positions. His stronghold lay far to the north, but he kept the greater part of his herds of cattle on an almost inaccessible plateau fifteen miles from his camp. Colonel Buller started on the morning of the 28th with all the cavalry attached to the column, consisting entirely of colonial troops, gained the plateau without difficulty, collected great herds of cattle, and prepared to return.

Just as they were on the point of leaving the plateau vast bodies of Zulus were seen approaching across the plains. This was a force sent by Cetewayo, the Zulu king, to the assistance of Umbelini. They attacked the cavalry as they were still entangled in the rugged descent, and desperate hand-to-hand fighting took place. The cavalry suffered severely, losing no fewer than eighty-six men and twelve officers. The rest of the force succeeded in getting away, and, although hotly pursued, reached the camp of Colonel Wood at Kambula in safety. The following day the Zulus in great force approached the camp, which had been strongly entrenched and put into a position of defence. Colonels Buller and Russell, with the cavalry, went out to check the advance, but the masses of the enemy poured on without a check, and the cavalry retired into the camp.


Sir Garnet Wolseley

When the Zulus arrived within 300 yards of the entrenchments a heavy fire was opened upon them. This checked their advance upon the camp, and they then moved round and attacked the enclosure where the cattle were kept. This was stoutly defended, and for three hours a desperate fight raged round the whole circuit of the camp. At the end of that time the enemy, having suffered terribly from the fire of our breech-loaders, began to fall back. The cavalry again sallied out and fell upon them, and kept up the pursuit for seven miles. Our loss in this engagement was very small.

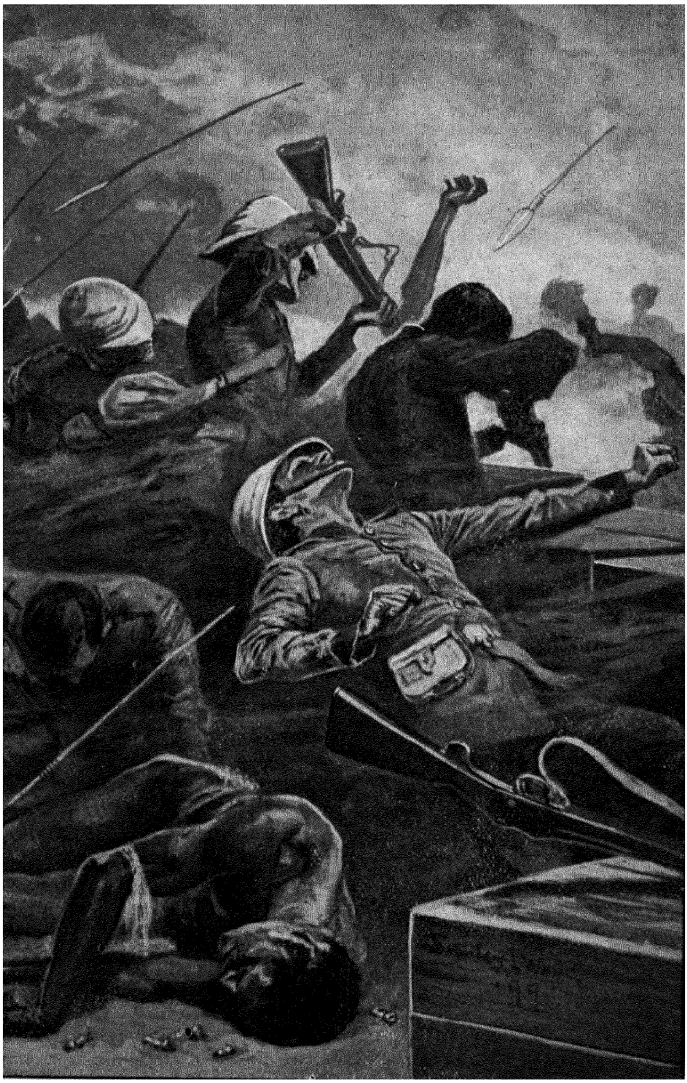
A force of 15,000 men was now gathered ready for the invasion of Zululand, but for months they were kept inactive, and the greatest discontent prevailed in the colony and in Britain at nothing being done, though so large a force was within four days' march of the stronghold of the enemy. So strong was this feeling that on the 26th of May Sir Garnet Wolseley was appointed to the chief command, and sailed from England a few days later.

It was not until Sir Garnet Wolseley was daily expected to arrive that the general in command made up his mind to advance against Ulundi, Cetewayo's chief town. The British troops were formed in a great square, and as they approached the village they were attacked by the Zulu army. The enemy came on with their accustomed bravery and surrounded the

square, but the tremendous fire from our breech-loaders, aided by guns and Gatlings placed at the corners of the square, mowed them down with terrible slaughter. The conflict lasted but a few minutes, at the end of which the Zulus took to flight, and the war in Zululand was at an end. A few scattered bands held together, but these were easily dispersed, and the Zulus made off to their villages. A hot pursuit was kept up after the king, and he was finally captured and sent a prisoner to the Cape. Some time afterwards he came to England, and was allowed to return to Zululand. He never regained his former power, and a few months afterwards was killed in a battle with a rival chief.

The Rising of the Boers

A few months after the Zulu war came to a conclusion, the Boers, inhabiting a district adjacent to the land of the Zulus, became very troublesome. They had gladly put themselves under our protection at the time when the Zulus were threatening their very existence, but as soon as we had destroyed the Zulu power they began to regret the loss of their independence. On 20th December, 1880, a large body of them suddenly fell upon 250 men of the 94th Regiment as they were marching with a train of wagons. Totally unprepared for attack, the British were unable to defend themselves. In a few minutes 150 men were killed or wounded, and the rest taken prisoners. Several adherents of the British rule in various parts were massacred,



THE DEFENCE OF RORKE'S DRIFT (page 175)



THE AUSTRALIAN CONTINGENT LEAVING SYDNEY FOR SOUTH AFRICA

(page 190)

and the whole country, with the exception of a few of the towns, was very shortly in the hands of the Boers.

On the 24th of January, 1881, General Sir George Colley, with two British regiments and a naval brigade, advanced from Newcastle, a place near the frontier. They moved slowly, and the Boers took up and entrenched a position known as Laing's Nek. Here the British troops sustained a severe reverse and were forced to retire.

Some weeks later General Colley, being reinforced, started from the camp with twenty officers and 627 men, intending to occupy Majuba Hill, a lofty mountain rising at the side of Laing's Nek. The march across the unknown country in the night was difficult in the extreme, but before daylight the troops gained the top of the hill. At sunrise the Boers discovered that the mountain which commanded their position was in the hands of the British, and at once swarmed out to the attack. For four hours a distant fire was kept up, but little harm was done to our men. Then the Boers crept up under shelter of the boulders until close to the summit, and suddenly rushed forward in overwhelming numbers. In a few minutes the whole of the British force on the crest were either killed or captured.

Great numbers of troops were sent out at a vast expense from England, and just as these reached the front, and were preparing to advance, peace was made. Mr. Gladstone, who was then Prime Minister, had become convinced that the demands of the Boers were just. Therefore, although our troops believed

that they could crush the Boers, he suddenly stopped the war and gave them all they asked for. Only a nominal suzerainty over the Transvaal was retained.

New Boer War

Thus the South African Republic regained its independence, and peace was established for a time. But in 1899 a fresh war broke out that proved to be the most serious in which Britain was engaged during the later years of Queen Victoria.

The causes of the war were various. The Boers were a pastoral people opposed to improvement of any kind, who lived as their fathers had lived, in the roughest way. Most of them were uncultured and illiterate, too backward to cultivate fully the rich land they held, and content to live on the produce of their flocks and herds. They treated the native peoples within their boundaries almost as slaves.

Still, they might have retained their independence under a British suzerainty, and a cause of war might never have arisen, had it not been for the discovery of rich deposits of gold in part of their country. To work these, great numbers of British miners and mechanics flocked into the Transvaal. This acted harmfully in two ways. The Boers beheld with jealousy the increasing numbers of Europeans among them, and by heavy taxation obtained great sums of money, without allowing the taxpayers to have citizens' rights in the country. They formed an alliance with the Orange Free State, which had no cause of quarrel with Great Britain, and entered into

communication with the Dutch farmers scattered throughout Cape Colony and Natal.

Thus, in spite of the fact that the British population equalled in numbers that of the Boers in the Transvaal, possessed intelligence and enterprise, and paid a large proportion of the taxes of the state, they were denied any voice in its government. This was naturally unpleasant to men who had grown up in the enjoyment of British rights.

The evil became so serious that the British Colonial Secretary, Mr. Chamberlain, was forced to remonstrate, and to demand that a certain amount of representation should be granted to the European colonists in the Transvaal. For months Mr. Kruger, the President of the Transvaal, argued and discussed. Meanwhile he was making preparations for war on an immense scale.

In view of the easy victories they had gained at Laing's Nek and Majuba Hill, the Boers believed that they could drive the British altogether out of South Africa and create a great Boer republic there. With this intent they built forts, and imported great quantities of cannon, muskets, and ammunition.

When all was ready for war the Boers suddenly sent an ultimatum to this country, and only two days later their forces invaded Natal on the east, and on the other side besieged Kimberley and Mafeking.

The Progress of the War

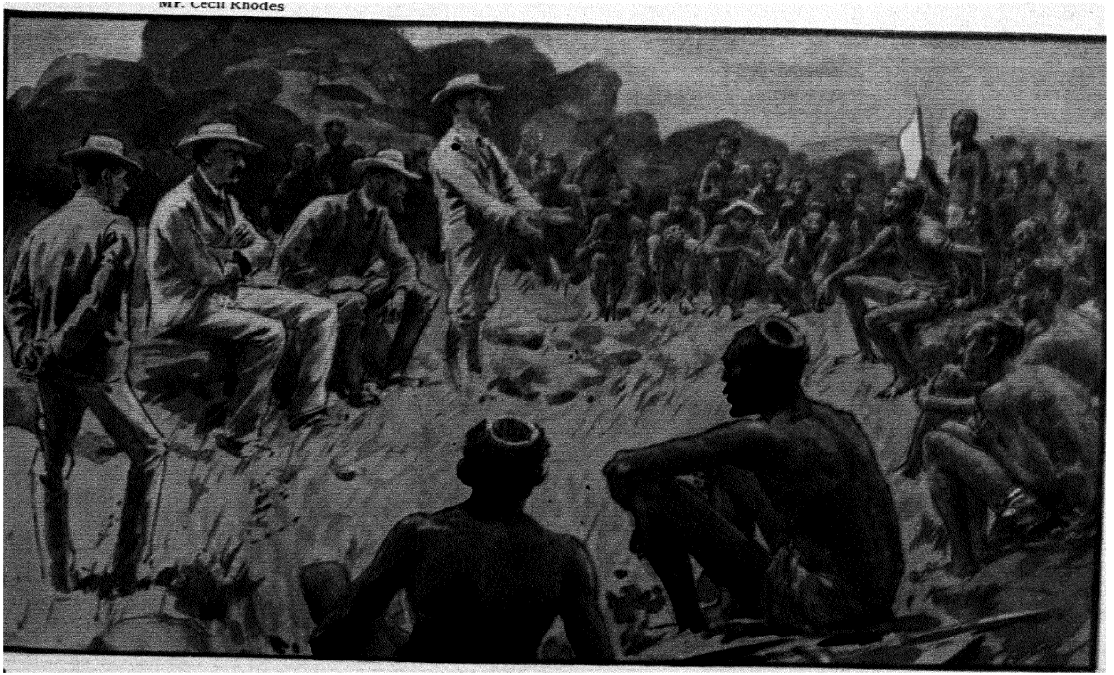
Up to this time the British had but a few thousand troops in South Africa, and had abstained from send-

ing out an army, because this would have given the Boers the opportunity of declaring that, while pretending to negotiate, we had determined upon war; consequently at first the Boers had it all their own way. In Natal they compelled the force of some 4000 men under General Symons, that had advanced to Dundee and had at first inflicted a check upon them, to retire to Ladysmith, its general having lost his life in the battle. The forces at that town under General White inflicted a heavy blow on the Boers at Elandslaagte, but were then obliged to fall back in view of the immense force gathering round them. The Boers broke up the railway line to Pietermaritzburg and established a siege.

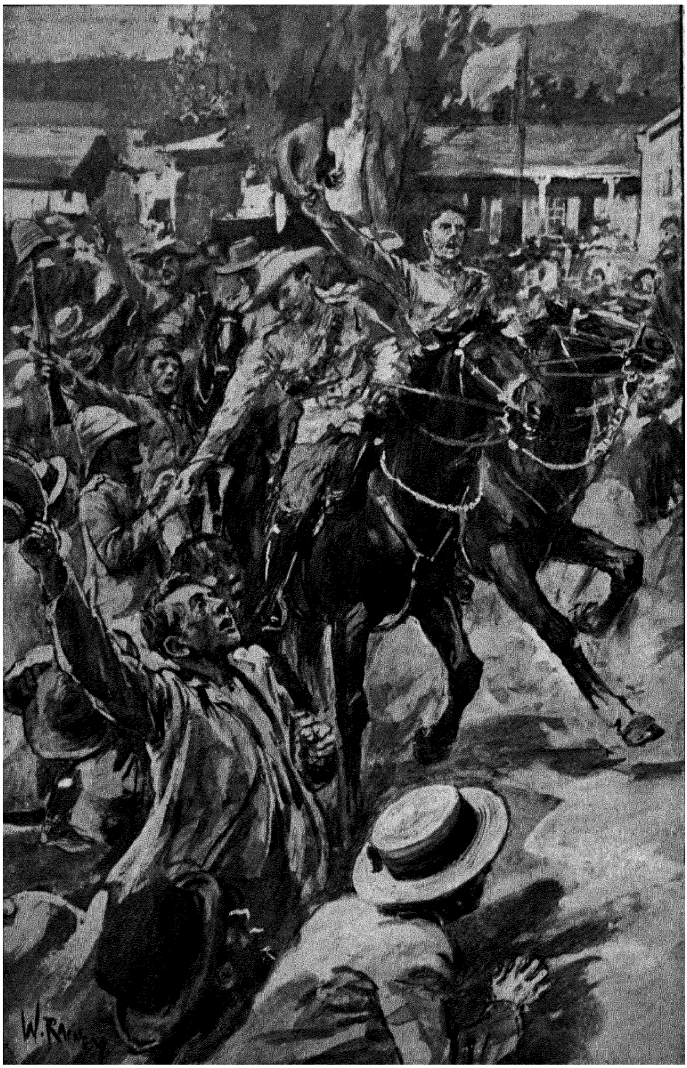
In the meantime large British forces were on their way out. Some 5000 troops from India had been the first to arrive, and these were with General White in Ladysmith. The Boers had reckoned upon seizing this town without difficulty, as it was situated in a valley surrounded by hills and was wholly unfortified. They soon discovered their mistake, and the defence of the town for six weeks enabled some 20,000 men to arrive and to march to its relief under General Buller.

Another force had landed at Cape Town under the command of Lord Methuen, and advanced to the relief of Kimberley. In Cape Colony itself a large number of the Boer farmers had risen and were plundering and ill-treating their loyalist neighbours, and it is possible that, but for the arrival of the troops, the whole of the Dutch population in South Africa would have risen.

General Buller's task was one of great difficulty.



MR. CECIL RHODES (see page 200) AND THE MATABELE CHIEFS 1896



THE RELIEF OF LADYSMITH (page 188)

Between Ladysmith and Estcourt, where his army assembled, ran the Tugela, a wide and deep river. Beyond this was a mountainous region. On the hills were planted cannon of the newest construction, obtained from Germany and France, and large numbers of machine-guns, while the slopes were cut up with deep trenches in which the Boers could lie secure from our fire while able to mow down the troops advancing to the attack. On the British side none doubted that they would without great difficulty overcome the Boer defence, occupied only by men untrained in warfare, although individually good shots. The attack was delivered on December 15th at three points, but although the British soldiers fought with heroic bravery, they failed to obtain any advantage, and were obliged to fall back with heavy losses and to wait until reinforcements came up.

Not until January 16th was General Buller in a position to make another attack, his force having now increased to 30,000 men. This time the Tugela was crossed, and for nearly a week the troops, aided by their powerful artillery, endeavoured to break through the Boer lines, but in vain. After serious loss they withdrew across the river. The Boers had as much artillery as we had, and, with the exception of the naval guns, it was greatly superior to ours. An almost impregnable mountain, Spion Kop, was taken by surprise, but the fire opened upon it was so terrible that its capturers were forced on the following day to retire.

On February 5th the attack was renewed. More guns had been got up on the heights; the river was

crossed without resistance, the Boers were driven back, and a position which it was believed would open the way to Ladysmith was captured at the point of the bayonet. Beyond this, however, it was impossible to advance, the hill being commanded by others in the neighbourhood. The Boers several times tried to retake the hill, but were driven back. At last, after holding the position for two days, the army again retired across the Tugela.

All this time communication had been kept open, by means of signals, with Ladysmith, and it was known that the situation was most serious there. The provisions were all but exhausted, the horses of the cavalry had been eaten, and although a serious attack by the Boers had been repulsed, it was certain that the place, which had now been besieged for more than four months, must surrender in a few days unless the long-looked-for aid arrived.

A week later the left of the Boer position was attacked, and several positions of great importance were captured. Guns being placed there, the troops were enabled to cross the Tugela after taking the town of Colenso. Step by step the enemy were driven backwards beyond the line of railway. There was tremendous fighting at Pieters Hill, which commanded the line of railway. This was finally captured and the way opened to Ladysmith, which was relieved on the last day of February, the succouring party arriving just in time, for the garrison, which was reduced by famine, was in the last stage of weakness. The Boers fled, and took up so strong a position to the north that fighting ceased for a time.

The Conquest of the Transvaal

On the western side of the Orange Free State, Lord Methuen's column at first obtained some successes, driving the Boers before them from several hills they had occupied. At the Modder River, within sound of the guns of Kimberley, the Boers made a determined stand, but after suffering heavy loss retreated to a very strong position some eight miles from Kimberley. Here strong lines of defence had been erected. A night attack was attempted, but the Boers were on the alert, and when the troops were within three hundred yards of their lines they suddenly opened so terrible a fire that the Highlanders suffered fearfully, and General Wauchope, who commanded them, was killed. The surprise was a complete one, for the existence of the trench in which the Boers were lying concealed was unsuspected. After the heavy loss that they had suffered, the troops fell back on their camp on the Modder.

This failure and Buller's unsuccessful efforts showed the home authorities that they had miscalculated the serious nature of the struggle. Great reinforcements were sent out under Lord Roberts, with Lord Kitchener as chief of his staff. From the first, offers of assistance had been made by the Canadian and Australian colonies, and the evidence given, by the repulses in Natal and on the Modder, of the serious nature of the situation elicited a display of enthusiastic loyalty throughout the Empire. South Africa had already furnished large bodies of volunteers, and large

numbers of mounted troops were now despatched to the scene of action by Canada, New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, West Australia, and New Zealand, all of which did magnificent service.

Lord Roberts arrived in January, and having seen that all the preparations were complete, on February 12th moved into the Free State with 45,000 men. Making a circuit he threw himself across the Boer line of communication, while General French with the cavalry, making a wide sweep round, entered Kimberley, which had repulsed all attacks made upon it. The Boers at once left their position and retired in all haste in different directions; their commander, Cronje, with about 4000 men, was overtaken and surrounded by General Roberts at Paardeberg.

The Boers entrenched themselves on the Modder River in hopes that reinforcements would come up. Some bodies of Boers did approach, but were easily defeated, and after resisting a tremendous bombardment for ten days, Cronje surrendered with all his men.

A fortnight later General Roberts entered Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange Free State, and issued a proclamation annexing that state to the British Empire under the name of the Orange River Colony. At a later date the Transvaal was also proclaimed a British colony.

After some time spent in making arrangements, Lord Roberts moved north with great rapidity. The Boers were now thoroughly disheartened, and offered but a feeble resistance, and the victorious troops entered first Johannesburg and then Pretoria, the



Lord Roberts

capital of the Transvaal. Mafeking, which had maintained a heroic resistance under the command of Colonel Baden-Powell, was, to the delight of Britons throughout the Empire, relieved by a mixed force of British and Colonials.

For two months after the relief of Ladysmith the British army under General Buller remained inactive. Then operations were begun for driving the invading Boers out of Natal. They were forced to retire from their fortified position on the Biggarsberg, and Dundee and Glencoe were reoccupied. Later the Natal army drove the enemy from other positions, and when those Boers who were entrenched at Laing's Nek had to retire, Natal was at last free from the enemy. A week after General Roberts had entered Pretoria, the Natal force occupied the Transvaal town of Volksrust. A movement of Lord Roberts from Pretoria eastward made him master of the line from Lourenço Marques to Pretoria, and enabled him to release the British prisoners who were in the hands of the Boers. At the same time a large portion of the Boers in the Orange Free State, who had been joined by a great many others, were hard pressed by the British forces, and were driven, they and their general Prinsloo, to surrender.

The end of regular warfare was now near at hand, and Lord Roberts returned to England, leaving his chief of staff, Lord Kitchener, in command.

BRITAIN AND EGYPT



General Gordon

The country that affords perhaps the most striking example of the spread of British influence is Egypt, which is not nominally a British possession or dependency, although now practically administered by us. This position was not exactly of our own choosing, but was forced upon us by a variety of circumstances.

In the first place, the Suez Canal, which is the shortest route to India, was vitally important to us as the great maritime nation of the world. That made us take a special interest in the welfare of Egypt, and in seeing that no other nation got control of the country. Then, like other European nations, we had lent a great deal of money to the Egyptian government. Consequently, when Egypt was becoming bankrupt through misrule and extravagance on the part of the Khedive, France and Britain assumed the joint control of the country, and undertook to keep Tewfik, who ruled the country as viceroy of the Sultan of Turkey, on the throne, so long as he governed fairly well.

In 1882 an Egyptian soldier named Arabi organized a revolt against Tewfik, and seized Alexandria. The people became riotous, and plundered and murdered Europeans. It was obviously necessary that some strong power should interfere. Britain invited France to join with her in restoring order, but France de-

clined the proposal, and Britain had to act alone. Our fleet bombarded Alexandria, and a British army under Sir Garnet Wolseley defeated Arabi's forces in a fierce battle at Tel-el-Kebir and sent them flying.

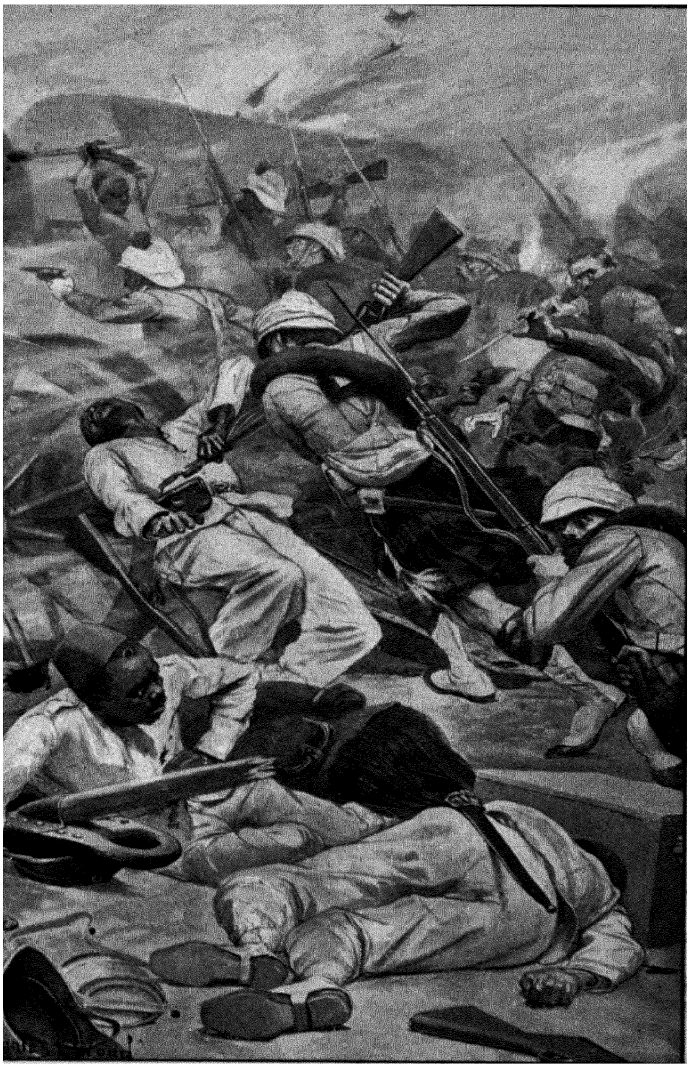
It would have been easy to have declared Egypt to be under British protection, but we did not aim at this. What we wanted was to restore order, and give Egypt a good government. Our occupation of the country was to last until it seemed that Egypt was fit to govern itself. This object has been steadily pursued; and while on the one hand we have firmly refused "to be worried out of Egypt" by the hostility of France, we have not regarded it as a British possession. We have abolished the forced service to which the fellahin or peasants were liable; we have done away with flogging and torture, and set up a better system of justice; we have improved the system of irrigation, so that all cultivators get a fair share of the Nile floods which make their land fertile; we have diminished taxes, and yet rescued Egypt from the threatened bankruptcy; and we have re-created the Egyptian army.

Arabi's defeat showed how worthless the old army was, but this was made still more clear by events in the Soudan. A fanatic prophet, the Mahdi, gathered a body of Dervish followers, and beat the Egyptian troops wherever he met them. Numbers flocked to his standard. General Hicks, with an Egyptian force of 10,000 men, was utterly routed at Kashgal, near El Obeid. Scarcely a man escaped. Khartoum, to which General Gordon had gone with the approval of the British government, to try to restore order, was

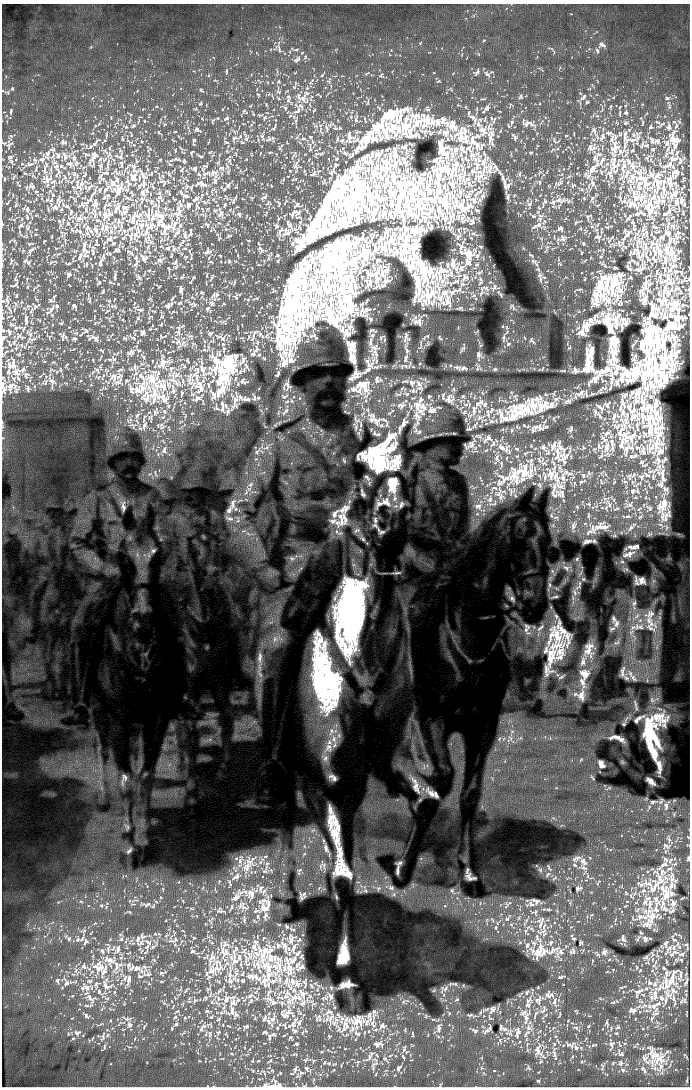
besieged. At last Gladstone despatched a British force to rescue Gordon. After hard fighting it drew near Khartoum—too late. Two days before, the town had been stormed and Gordon murdered.

The Soudan was lost. What had been a prosperous country was given up to brutal and ignorant savages. The Dervishes even tried to invade Egypt. But the Egyptian army had been put on a better footing. The troops were paid and well cared for; drilled by British sergeants, officered by British officers, and commanded by a British Sirdar or commander-in-chief, in whom they trusted. Side by side with British troops, they stood fast against the Dervish charges at Ginniss and Toski, and routed their opponents.

The tide of barbarism had reached its flood, and was on the turn. Nine years were to pass, however, before its waves were altogether rolled back. The Mahdi died, and the Khalifa succeeded him. In 1896 the work of reconquest was begun by a mixed force of British and Egyptian troops under the new Sirdar, General Kitchener. No mistakes were made, and no risks run. In April, 1898, the Dervishes were driven from a strong position on the Atbara; in August the army drew near to Khartoum. Outside Omdurman the Dervishes fought a desperate battle, but it was their last. There were over forty thousand of them. They charged with all the reckless valour that had won victory after victory in the old days. But they had a new enemy to meet. They could not stand before the deadly volleys poured into them. In the evening, Khartoum, after thirteen years of Dervish



THE CHARGE OF THE 42nd HIGHLANDERS AT THE BATTLE OF TEL-EL-KEBIR (page 193)



KITCHENER ENTERING OMDURMAN AFTER THE BATTLE (page 194)

rule, was recovered for the Egyptian government. Not the least satisfactory part of the day was the steadiness of the Egyptian soldiers. They proved themselves worthy companions of their British allies.

Directly after the battle of Omdurman, news was brought that Fashoda, a town south of Khartoum on the White Nile, was in the hands of the French. An expedition headed by Captain Marchand had occupied it. Since Fashoda was part of the Egyptian Soudanese province, this was an intrusion. Moreover, it had been made with a wanton disregard of British feelings and British rights, and in the face of a distinct warning from the British government that they would regard any intrusion into the Nile Valley as an unfriendly act. The British government demanded that Marchand should be immediately withdrawn. As France hesitated, there was great excitement. A war with France seemed likely. Happily the French government saw that Marchand had no right to occupy the town, and withdrew him.

Sir Herbert Kitchener, who was made a peer after the battle of Omdurman, was succeeded as head of the Egyptian army by Sir Reginald Wingate. In 1899 Sir Reginald at last tracked down the Khalifa, the chief of the rebellious Dervishes, who had escaped from Omdurman. After a short fight, in which the Dervishes showed their usual bravery and scorn of death, the Khalifa was killed, and the rich province of the Soudan was freed from his cruel tyranny. An equitable system of government under British officials was at once organized, and the Soudan soon gave promise of regaining its former prosperity.

THE DEATH OF QUEEN VICTORIA

Within a month of the close of the nineteenth century the longest and one of the most illustrious reigns in British history came to an end; for, on the 22nd of January, 1901, Queen Victoria died. There had been no long illness to give warning of the end; for three days only anxious fears and hopes about the queen's health filled people's minds.

The death of Queen Victoria caused universal grief throughout the empire. It was felt both as a national and a personal loss by her subjects everywhere.

The negroes of Jamaica wept when they heard of the loss of their great Queen; the Kaffir tribesmen of South Africa mourned the loss of her under whom they had found peace and protection; the traders and handicraftsmen of India closed their shops when they heard that the great, and to them mysterious, Empress, was dead; and the Red Indian, who had found in Canada a home where he could live free from the hostility of greedy adventurers, was struck with grief when he heard of the death of the great White Mother.

But not to her own subjects was this feeling of deep sorrow confined; it was scarcely less genuine and sincere among our kindred across the Atlantic, while in every capital of Europe the rulers, public bodies, and people vied with each other in their expressions of sorrow.

No such universal tribute has ever been paid before; none has been so well deserved. As a queen

her influence for good was immense; she was ever a peacemaker, and desired above all things peace, but peace with honour. Nothing was done by her ministers in any important affair without every despatch being submitted to her for approval; no step was taken without receiving her sanction. She ruled as well as reigned, quietly and unostentatiously, ever constitutionally and wisely; and her influence was not confined to the affairs of her own empire, but was continually exercised for the good of the world in general. Her great age, her unrivalled experience, her connection by marriage with so many rulers, the known wideness of her views, her common-sense and wisdom, necessarily gave her an influence far beyond that of any other reigning monarch, and it was always employed for good. In this sense it will be long indeed before the blank caused by her death can be repaired.

But while as a queen her subjects respected and admired her, it was as a woman that they loved her. Her private life was free from all blame and all reproach. Her sympathies were ever with the suffering; she was prompt to express how deeply she felt every calamity that befell even a small portion of her subjects. Quickly following a great colliery explosion, a terrible shipwreck, a disastrous conflagration, or any other accident attended by great loss of life, would come a message from her, expressing her grief and sympathy. Eager as she was for peace, when war was forced upon her, none felt a keener interest in her troops, a deeper sympathy in their sufferings, a higher admiration for

their bravery, than their queen; and never was this feeling evinced more strongly than during the last fifteen months of her life, not only in her frequent messages to her troops in the field, but in her many letters of sympathy to the parents, wives, and relatives of those who had fallen in her service.

During her long reign she had witnessed vast changes. The area over which she reigned had been enormously increased, its population doubled, its wealth multiplied in an even greater degree. From a kingdom it had grown into a world-wide Empire, such as the world had never before seen. Canada, from two comparatively small provinces, had grown into a great Dominion; Australasia had sprung into a great and powerful Commonwealth; India had all come under the sway of the British Crown, and under wise government had become one of its most attached dependencies. From the small colony in South Africa, British power had spread till Britain had become paramount in the African continent, in large measure through the work of a great Englishman, Mr. Cecil Rhodes, whose name is commemorated in the district known as Rhodesia. In Egypt our influence had become paramount, and the country as far south as the Great Lakes acknowledged our dominion.

THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

EDWARD THE SEVENTH

Queen Victoria died in the first month of the new year and of the new century, and was succeeded by her eldest son, who took the title Edward the Seventh.

The Boer War had found Germany anxious to annoy Britain, but unable, on account of the want of a fleet, to do her any real harm. Conscious of this inability to combat the sea power of Britain, the German Kaiser, Wilhelm II, had declared: "The trident must pass into our hands"; and by the Navy Law of 1900 Germany had doubled her fleet, and proclaimed her object to be to make it dangerous "even for the greatest naval power" to challenge the German navy. The French had not forgotten the Fashoda incident, when Captain Marchand, who had set out from the French Congo to establish a position on the Upper Nile, had to be withdrawn. At the accession of the new King, Britain could hardly be said to have a friend in Europe.

Well was it for the Empire that the new King was a man of affairs as well as a man of great ability and common sense, and that he was loved and trusted alike by his own subjects and by the people of foreign

lands. His tact was as generally acknowledged as was his personal charm, and from the time of his accession the feeling on the continent of Europe with regard to Great Britain began to improve. Especially was this the case in France, where the new King was well known and thoroughly liked.

After the departure of Lord Roberts from South Africa the war took on an even more irregular character than it had hitherto had, and it required great skill and perseverance to wear down the resistance offered by the scattered bands of Boers.

Lord Kitchener, the new Commander-in-Chief, ultimately succeeded in bringing the war to an end, and, after a conference with him and Lord Milner, the Boer leaders came to terms. On the 31st of May, 1902, peace was signed at Pretoria, and the Transvaal and the Orange Free State became parts of the British Empire.

Visits were exchanged between King Edward and the French President, M. Loubet, and the latter was welcomed with almost as great enthusiasm in London as was displayed in the reception of King Edward in Paris. During the following year Britain and France entered into an agreement with regard to Newfoundland and other disputed matters, and the *Entente Cordiale* was established.

A treaty between Great Britain and France, whereby the two countries agreed to refer all matters in dispute between them to outside judges or arbiters, was entered into in 1903. This led to the settlement by agreement of a number of subjects on which the two nations had up to that time differed. Similar *arbitration treaties*

or *agreements* were made with Germany, Italy, and other European countries and with the United States of America, and a new agreement was entered into with Japan, which had triumphantly concluded her war with Russia, and had now taken her place as one of the world's Great Powers.

The object of all these arbitration treaties was to remove, as far as could be done, all causes that might lead to international warfare. The danger of an outbreak of war, and of its leading to a universal conflagration, was pressing, and the attitude and opinions of the rulers and people of Germany seemed to render it almost unavoidable.

The German Emperor visited Tangier in 1905, and proclaimed his intention to protect German rights in Morocco. This led to the Algeçiras Conference of 1906, which secured France in her position in Morocco, and greatly disappointed the Germans. In 1908, taking advantage of the weakness of Russia, the German Emperor insisted that Austria should be permitted to violate the treaty of Berlin, and seize Bosnia and Herzegovina without hindrance. This was one of the least justifiable displays of the resolution of Germany to impose her will on her European neighbours.

The Finance Bill of 1909 was, on the third reading, rejected by the Lords; Parliament was dissolved, and a new election took place in the beginning of 1910.

The new Government introduced a Bill to abolish the veto of the House of Lords. While this measure was still under discussion King Edward died, and for a little there was an end of political strife.

The whole civilized world felt his loss. They had recognized the part he played in international affairs by calling him "Edward the Peacemaker", a noble title worthily won by the success of his efforts to maintain peace throughout the world.

THE REIGN OF GEORGE V

The new King, George V, was crowned on 22nd June, 1911. Besides royalties and royal representatives from different parts of the world, the ministers of the self-governing colonies, feudatory princes from India, representatives of the various great municipalities, and representative bodies of the various naval and military forces of the Empire took part in the coronation ceremonials and festivities.

Later, India was visited by King George and Queen Mary and a Durbar held at Delhi, which was now made again the capital of the Indian Empire.

The Algeçiras Conference had assured to France recognition of her special interests in Morocco, but, encouraged by the success which his ultimatum to Russia in 1908 had obtained, the German Emperor sent, in 1911, the gunboat *Panther* to Agadir. British statesmen recognized the significance of the attack, and publicly proclaimed their determination to support France to the uttermost. From July to September it seemed as if a European war were unavoidable, and then Germany came to terms. On being handed over two hundred thousand square miles of

the French Congo she agreed to leave France undisturbed in Morocco.

In September of the same year Italy attacked Turkey, and after a year's war gained Tripoli. Encouraged by the Italian success, Greece, Montenegro, Serbia, and Bulgaria made war on Turkey in 1912, and a conference was held in London to settle matters among the disputants.

What was called the Treaty of London was signed on the 30th of May, 1913, and on the 1st of June Greece and Serbia concluded an anti-Bulgarian agreement, and bargained with Rumania for her intervention on their side. The Turks joined; Adrianople was retaken, and Bulgaria, unable single-handed to meet her enemies, had to submit to the terms imposed on her by the Treaty of Bucharest.

The results of the Balkan struggle were anything but satisfactory to Germany and Austria. A weakened Turkey and a strong Balkan confederacy threatened to render it impossible to realize the dream of a Middle Europe stretching her arms through Asia Minor and Syria to the Persian Gulf, and so to render all the efforts and the money spent on the Bagdad Railway useless.

On the 28th of July Austria declared war on Serbia. The Austrian Archduke, Franz Ferdinand, and his wife had been murdered in Serajevo a month before; and Austria, inspired by Germany, sent an ultimatum to Serbia, which was equivalent to a demand that Serbia should surrender her independence.

As far as was consistent with self-respect, Serbia, advised by Britain, France, and Russia, accepted the

Austrian terms. Every effort was made by the statesmen in these three countries to settle matters peacefully, but all their efforts failed. When Austria declared war on Serbia, Russia mobilized a part of her forces on the borders of Galicia and Hungary, and in answer to a German threat ordered complete mobilization. Thereupon, on the 1st of August, Germany declared war on Russia and on France.

All the German preparations had been made with the idea of overrunning Belgium, and marching in great force to Paris through a country where there were no great fortresses. True, Belgium was a neutral country, and her independence had been guaranteed, among others, by Prussia. But what did these things matter to people who held that "might was right". With immense courage Belgium refused the Germans a free passage through the land.

Britain, one of the guarantors of Belgian independence, addressed a strong remonstrance to Germany; and when, heedless of the remonstrance, the Germans invaded Belgium and laid siege to Liège, she declared war on Germany on 4th August.

THE WORLD WAR.—I

The struggle which began in August, 1914, and continued for more than four years, was, with respect to the numbers engaged in it, the destruction of property, the suffering and the loss of life occasioned by it, the most dreadful in the world's history. Ger-

many, the day after her declaration of war on Russia and France, seized Luxemburg and invaded Belgium. Pluckily the Belgians defended their country while they begged help from Britain and France. Before the help could arrive the Germans had captured Liège and destroyed the forts surrounding it. The Belgians, with their King and Government, were forced to retire on Antwerp, and a huge German force occupied a great portion of Belgium, including the capital, Brussels. Meantime the British expeditionary force had been landed in France, and had formed up on the left of the French force sent up to help the Belgians. This arrived too late. After two days' siege Namur fell, Dinant suffered the same fate, and the French army on the British right found itself forced to retire. The Germans attacked the British at Mons, and, to prevent his army being surrounded, the British Commander-in-Chief, Sir John French, after a sharp fight in which the Germans suffered severely, ordered retiral towards the south-west.

For nearly a fortnight the retreat continued, until the southern tributaries of the Marne were reached. Then French troops from Paris, which was now on the left flank of the retiring army, moved northwards and attacked the German right flank on the Ourcq; the British crossed the Morin and the Marne, threatening von Kluck's left flank; the French under Foch attacked von Moltke in the centre, and the Germans were forced to retreat rapidly. This they did till they reached the line of the Aisne, where they made a firm stand.

Then began a series of attempts on the part of the British and French Commanders-in-Chief to outflank the enemy. These were replied to by similar attempts on the German side, until at last, in the second week of October, the sea on the Belgian coast was reached.

Meantime the German army had captured Antwerp, the Belgian Government had been moved westward, first to Ostend and latterly to Rouen; and the British force, under Sir John French, was withdrawn from the Aisne to the district between Ypres and La Bassée. There, in the first battle of Ypres, which lasted from the middle of October till the middle of November, the small British force held its position and defeated the German attempts to break through to Calais and the Channel.

The losses on both sides in this five weeks' struggle were great. The Germans for the time being had been practically fought to a standstill. Elsewhere matters did not look much brighter for the Central Powers. In Serbia the Austrians had been driven back, and Belgrade, the capital, retaken, while in Galicia the Austrians had suffered several severe defeats from the Russians. It is true, the Russians themselves had been driven out of East Prussia and the Russian army of invasion almost destroyed in the battle of Tannenberg; but the German invasion of Russia and the two attempts on Warsaw had not succeeded. At sea matters had not gone much better for the Central Powers. Though a weak British squadron had been sunk off Coronel in Chile, and though the *Emden* and other commerce-raiders had for a little caused almost a panic in Eastern waters,

the destruction of the *Emden* by the Australian cruiser *Sydney*, and the annihilation of the German Pacific squadron in the battle of the Falkland Islands made manifest Britain's complete command of the sea. Towards the end of August, Japan had joined the alliance against Germany, and Kiaochau had been taken from Germany three months later. The rebellion in South Africa, fostered by Germany, was speedily suppressed, Togoland was captured by the British and French, and Kamerun, German East Africa, and German South-West Africa were invaded, while Egypt was declared a British Protectorate.

Rapidly this dreadful war extended itself; nation after nation was involved in it. Italy entered it on the side of the Entente; Turkey, and later Bulgaria, on the side of the Central Powers. As the war area widened, the accompaniments seemed to become more and more terrible. Zeppelin raids on fortresses were succeeded by raids on open towns, by the use of poison gas and other forbidden weapons of warfare, and by the sinking of unarmed merchant ships, of which the most notorious example is the sinking of the *Lusitania* in May, 1915.

The British defeated the Germans at Neuve Chapelle, and repulsed them at St. Eloi early in the year. Then, in April, 1915, the enemy made a desperate attempt to force their way to the Channel. During this attempt they made use of poison gas, a weapon whose use was prohibited by the laws of war to which they themselves had agreed; but, though the British were made to draw back and shorten their

front, for the Germans there was no break-through, and therefore no success.

During the remainder of the year the British and Germans fought fierce but indecisive battles, and the French won successes against the common enemy in the Vosges and in the Argonne. On the eastern front, while the Russians gained considerable successes over the Austrians in the battles of the Dniester and of Krasnik, the advantage was on the whole with the Germans and Austrians, who made considerable advances in western Russia. On the south there was great waste of men and materials in the unfortunate British expedition to Gallipoli, and the Germans and Austrians and Bulgars overran Serbia and forced the British and French troops sent to help that little country to retire to Macedonia. where they took up a position round Salonika, which the Greeks handed over to them. The Italians in their struggle with the Austrians captured Castelnuovo and won a considerable victory on the Isonzo.

Towards the close of the year 1915 Lord French, the British Commander-in-Chief in France, was recalled, and Sir Douglas Haig was made Commander-in-Chief.

More than aught else, such outrages on humanity as the execution of Nurse Cavell in Belgium, the sinking of hospital ships, the use of poison gas and liquid fire, the poisoning of wells and springs, the attempts artificially to spread disease among their enemies, and the murder or brutal ill-treatment of helpless prisoners roused the conscience of civilized mankind and turned people against the Germans.

THE WORLD WAR.—II

On the Western Front the chief event of the early part of the year 1916 was the fight for Verdun. The Germans began the attack on 21st February, 1916, and continued it with intervals for rest for several months, till sheer exhaustion caused them to cease.

In the middle of April a rebellion broke out in Ireland, and there were murderous riots and fighting in Dublin; soldiers and police, taken unawares, were killed. Ireland was then placed under martial law, and the rebellion collapsed at the end of the month.

In the East during the first half of the year the Russians gained numerous successes against the Austrians, whom they routed near Czernowitz, capturing between thirty and forty thousand prisoners, and finally making themselves masters of the whole of Bukovina. In the Trentino the Italians were driven back. The British expedition was withdrawn from Gallipoli, some of the troops being sent to Salonika, some to Egypt, and some to France.

At sea, save for the depredations of the German commerce-raiders, *Möwe* and *Greif*, and the sinking by mine and submarine of British ships, the only noteworthy event was the battle between the two grand fleets off the coast of Denmark, known as the battle of Jutland. Never during the rest of the war did the German high-sea fleet come out.

In the middle east the failure to relieve Kut and the surrender there of the force under General Townshend were recognized as severe blows to British prestige,

though the Russian successes in Persia and Asia Minor helped for the time to preserve the balance.

In June, to the great grief of the people of the British Empire, indeed of the whole civilized world, Lord Kitchener, the British Secretary of War, was drowned in H.M.S. *Hampshire*, which was mined off the Orkneys, and Mr. Lloyd George became Secretary.

On the 1st of July began the British and French advance on the Somme, which met with a large measure of immediate success. Later, the success was even more marked, and Sir Douglas Haig, at the end of September, was able to report that out of thirty-eight German divisions, engaged on the Somme, twenty-nine had to be withdrawn exhausted. In this advance the British made use for the first time of tanks, a kind of land warship which played an important part during the rest of the struggle.

Besides capturing Sailly-Sallisel on the Somme, the French during this period gained considerable successes at Verdun, recapturing Douaumont and other forts, together with a large number of prisoners and a considerable amount of material. Encouraged by the Russian successes in Bukovina, Rumania, towards the end of August, 1916, declared war on Austria, and met at first with very considerable success. Germany had to come to the rescue of her ally. A force of Bulgars, Turks, Germans, and Austrians, under Mackensen, attacked Rumania from the south, while a similar force under von Falkenhayn, advancing from the west, defeated the Rumanians at Hermannstadt, and droye them through the Carpathians. By December Bucharest fell. The Rumanians continued to

fight for several months, but early in March, 1917, they were defeated and forced to surrender.

In Britain the end of 1916 saw the fall of the Asquith Coalition Government and the establishment of the War Cabinet of five by Mr. Lloyd George.

THE WORLD WAR.—III

To meet the Russian pressure on the east and to subdue Rumania, Germany had been forced to withdraw troops from the Western front, where, in the early months of 1917, the British and French made considerable advances. The British captured the important railway centre of Bapaume and continued their advance till the German retreat ended in April on what was called the Hindenburg line. In May General Foch succeeded Pétain as French Commander-in-Chief, and in July the Allied advance in the Ypres salient began. The object of the advance was the seizure of the Belgian coast ports Zeebrugge, Ostend, and Nieuport, and the turning of the German right flank.

Early in March the difficulties and discontent in Russia caused by the war and its conduct led the Tsar to abdicate and a provisional Government under Prince Lvoff was formed. Government followed Government. In September Russia was declared a Republic. Practically after their defeat at *Baronovitchi* in March, and *Stokhod* and *Tabol* in April, the Russians may be counted out of the war. In November Lenin succeeded in a *coup d'état* which made him master of all Russia. But a new power had entered into the

struggle. At the end of January, Germany had notified to the United States her determination to sink at sight all ships within the *barred zone.* American ships were sunk, and in April the United States declared war on Germany, and her example was followed by Brazil a few days later.

Relieved from the struggle with Russia and Rumania on the east, the Germans and Austrians, leaving the Bulgarians and Turks to hold their own as best they could, concentrated their forces on the west; and first of all the Austrians and Germans attacked the Italian lines. These they surprised on the Isonzo and broke through the defences at Caporetto and Tolmino. The defeat of the Italian Second Army became a rout. Before the middle of November it was claimed that the Austro-Germans had captured over a quarter of a million of prisoners and between two and three thousand guns. When the Italians had been driven back as far as the Piave, they were reinforced by British and French troops drawn from the western front, and were able to make a stand.

By this time Germany had been stripped of all her African colonies, and in the near and middle east her allies, Bulgaria and Turkey, were being severely pressed. Britain, advancing from Egypt, had driven the Turks back in Palestine and captured Jerusalem. Her advances in Mesopotamia had been even greater. Bagdad, the city of Haroun al Raschid, had been captured, and an advance made towards Mosul. In the Balkans the Serbians and French had captured Monastir and the Bulgarians were hard pushed to maintain their position on the rest of the line.

THE WORLD WAR.—IV

The Germans and Austrians were now able to concentrate against the British and French position in the west. The first blow was at the British, and so successful were the German arrangements that from the first day, 21st March, the Fifth Army, under Sir H. Gough, had to retire. Many prisoners and guns and tanks were captured, and though the British and French threw large reserves into the battle on the 25th, they were unable to check the German advance. At the end of a week all the ground captured in the Somme advance was again in the hands of the Germans, and by the beginning of April the enemy were within twelve miles of Amiens.

The second assault was on the part of the British lines between Armentières and La Bassée. Like the first German offensive, this was at the beginning successful. The British lines were driven back, Armentières was evacuated, and it was not till the line of the River Lawe, a tributary of the Lys, was reached that the German advance was brought to a standstill. The town of Bailleul and the famous Messines ridge, and, ten days later, both the village of Kemmel and Mont Kemmel were lost.

Towards the end of May a fresh attack was made on the Allied front running north of the Aisne and west of Reims. On the third day of the battle the Allied wings gave way and Soissons was captured. Later, the enemy reached the Marne and turned westward towards Paris, getting within about forty miles of that city.

In the middle of June an attempt was made by the Austrians to overcome the Italian resistance. The Piave was crossed at several points and part of the Montello ridge was captured. Then a deluge of rain flooded the Piave. The Austrian bridges were carried away and a great many of the soldiers who had crossed the river were either killed or taken prisoners.

In the middle of July the Germans made their final advance in France. They crossed the Marne and pushed forward about three miles to the south of that river; but they failed on the 17th to carry the French positions at Monthodon; and on the 18th Marshal Foch began the great counter-offensive. Back the German armies went, losing prisoners and guns until the part of them opposed to the British reached the Hindenburg line. During August and September the British captured between 120,000 and 130,000 prisoners and nearly 1500 guns. The St. Mihiel salient was captured by the Americans in September. St. Quentin was taken by the French on the 1st of October, and on the 9th the British captured Cambrai. In the middle of October the Germans abandoned the Belgian coast, and the whole German line from the sea to the Vosges began to retreat. On the 11th of November the armistice asked for by Germany—in reality a case of unconditional surrender—was signed, and the world conflict came to an end.

Already, on the 28th of September, the Bulgarians, unable to stem the advance of the Serbians, British, and French, had capitulated. The Turks, defeated in Mesopotamia, driven out of Palestine, defeated with great loss of men and material in Syria, surrendered

towards the end of October, and Austria-Hungary, driven back by the Italians and their allies and closely pursued, yielded on the 3rd of November.

Already, in Russia, the war had led to the abdication of the Tsar and later to his murder and the murder of his wife and family. Russia sank into a state of anarchy and bloodshed. The Emperors of Germany and of Austria abdicated and fled, the one to Holland and the other to Switzerland, and republics were formed to take the place of the former autocracies. A Council of the victorious allies met in Paris in 1919 for the purpose of drawing up the conditions of peace to be imposed on the defeated foes. In this Council, Mr. Woodrow Wilson, the American President, took a leading part. Under his influence what is known as the League of Nations to secure the peace of the world, was drawn up, and the terms definitely stated to which it was necessary that Germany should surrender. These were accepted by Germany, and the Peace Treaty signed by her plenipotentiaries, on the 28th of June, 1919. And so ended the horrors of a war which threatened for a time to plunge the entire human race into a hopeless state of savagery, an immoral and irrational war which showed that nations can be more unscrupulous and inhuman in the pursuit of their ambitions than the worst tyrants.

SUMMARY

BRITAIN AT THE BEGINNING OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

Condition at Home.—The eighteenth century, a century of almost continuous wars, closed, leaving France and Britain engaged in a life-and-death struggle. British victories at sea seemed more than balanced by French successes on land; the combination of the northern powers, Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, against Britain added to the gloom of the outlook.

British statesmen, with some show of reason, regarded the right of search, that is, of seizing the goods of an enemy on a neutral ship, as one of the most effective weapons they possessed in the struggle with France, and this the northern powers refused to acknowledge.

British wealth had been freely spent in subsidizing the continental nations at war with France. Taxation was heavier than it had ever been in our country. There was actually a scarcity in the land, and Britain was only enabled to stagger along under its burdens by the rapid industrial progress that marked the closing years of the century.

Wheat in the first year of the nineteenth century rose to 180*s*. a quarter, more than four times its price at the beginning of the war.

An Act of Union with rebellious and discontented Ireland had been passed, but had not yet come into force. The great minister in whom the country mainly trusted, finding himself unable to redeem the pledge he had given to the Irish Catholics, was forced to resign. Truly the outlook was gloomy.

The Colonial Empire.—Eighteen years previously the United States, the most important of the British Colonies, had been lost to the country; yet Britain at the end of the eighteenth century was still a great colonial power, with possessions in almost every quarter of the globe, and during the struggle with France she had added considerably to her dominions both in the East and in the West. The settlement of Australia had begun,

though there was little then to indicate the splendid prosperity to which, in the course of the new century, the **Australian** and **American Colonies** of Britain would attain.

THE WAR WITH FRANCE

The French Revolution.—Europe, revolted by the excesses which accompanied the French revolution, made war on France. In 1793 Great Britain joined the coalition partly in defence of Holland and of British trade, which seemed threatened by the action of the French government, and partly from dislike to the revolutionary doctrines. Before the end of the century the success of the French arms had compelled the other European nations to come to terms with her, and Britain was left to carry on the struggle alone.

In 1799 Napoleon, who had been made first Consul, wished to treat for peace, but his advances were haughtily repelled. Defeated at Marengo, the Austrians were forced, however unwillingly, to make peace at Luneville.

Mutinies of the Navy.—There had been mutinies of British sailors both at **Spithead** and the **Nore**; mutinies also in the Mediterranean fleet, where **Sir John Jarvis** (afterwards Earl St. Vincent) put them down with a firm hand. These did not prevent **Jarvis** from defeating the Spanish fleet off Cape **St. Vincent, Duncan** from crushing the Dutch at **Camperdown**, or **Nelson** from destroying the French fleet at **Aboukir Bay.**

The sailors' grievances were stated to be: Insufficient pay, and pensions; insufficient and unwholesome food; want of care for the sick; shortness of leave on shore; and stoppage of pay of the wounded. Their grievances were partially redressed, but the ringleaders of the mutineers were executed.

Nelson.—At the beginning of the new century **Nelson** destroyed the Danish fleet at Copenhagen, and so put an end to the **Armed Neutrality league.**

Napoleon's army for the invasion of Britain waited at Boulogne till his fleet should secure the command of the Channel. He was foiled by the energy with which the British Admiralty acted; and though **Sir R. Calder** was justly censured for letting **Villeneuve** reach **Ferrol**, Nelson a short time afterwards completely destroyed all chance of an invasion of Britain by the annihilation of the united French and Spanish fleet at **Trafalgar.**

The defeats of the Austrians and Russians at **Austerlitz** in 1805, and of the Prussians at **Jena** in the following year, were followed by the issue of the famous **Berlin Decree**, proclaiming Britain in a state of blockade. This was met by the British authorities with the **Orders in Council**, forbidding trade with French ports or with the ports of countries held by the French armies. In 1808 the seizure of Spain and Portugal by Napoleon led to British intervention in the Peninsula, where **Sir Arthur Wellesley** defeated **Junot** at **Vimiera**, and compelled the French to evacuate Portugal.

The Peninsular War.—After the retreat of **Moore** and his death at Corunna, Wellington was sent out a second time to the Peninsula. In the course of five campaigns, during which he was pitted in succession against nearly every one of Napoleon's famous marshals, he drove the French out of the Peninsula, and led his victorious army into the south of France.

Napoleon, who in 1809 had again succeeded in crushing the Austrians, quarrelled with Russia for not carrying out the Berlin decree.

Napoleon's Russian Campaign.—In 1812 he invaded that country, beat the Russians at **Borodino**, and advanced to **Moscow**, which the inhabitants burned. In his retreat the French Emperor lost nearly the whole of his great army, and in 1813 and 1814 was driven back by the armies of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, and forced at last to give up his throne.

The Hundred Days.—He was sent to **Elba**, but early in 1815 escaped. He landed in France, was joined by the army, and advanced against the British and Prussians, who were the first of the allies to take the field against him. He defeated the Prussians at **Ligny**, but Marshal Ney was repulsed by the British at **Quatre Bras**; and finally Napoleon himself was crushingly defeated by them at **Waterloo** on June 18th, 1815.

Among the results which Britain achieved by these prolonged wars may be mentioned **security from foreign invasion, supremacy at sea, great wealth,** and some addition to her already **world-wide Colonial Empire.**

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The changes in the methods of manufacture introduced in the nineteenth century were so vast as to justly entitle what took place to be called the **Industrial Revolution.**

Industrial Position in the Eighteenth Century.—Formerly spinning and weaving were household tasks, the spinning being usually done by the women and the weaving by the men of the family.

The invention of the Flying Shuttle earlier in the century made a weaver able to work up into cloth the yarn produced by a dozen spinners.

Hargreaves' Spinning-jenny, 1767.—Spinning with the old-fashioned spinning-wheel was a very slow process, and men who were often unable to work on account of want of yarn tried to invent machines by which thread could be made more quickly. In 1767 **James Hargreaves**, a weaver (and carpenter) of **Standhill**, near Blackburn, invented the **spinning-jenny.**

Some years before he had helped Robert Peel to make a carding machine.

Now his neighbours heard of the spinning-jenny, and broke into his house and destroyed it; whereupon Hargreaves went away to **Nottingham**, and built a spinning-mill. Hargreaves died a poor man in 1778.

He took out a patent for his invention, but as he had sold some machines before doing so, it was declared that his rights could not be protected by it.

Arkwright's Spinning-frame.—Richard Arkwright, the youngest of a humble family of thirteen, was born at **Preston** in 1732. He settled at **Bolton** about 1750 as a barber, and afterwards became a hair dealer. Having invented a machine for spinning cotton, the celebrated **spinning-frame**, he went to Nottingham, where he built a mill, and took out a patent for his invention (1769). The first mill was driven by horses; but afterwards Arkwright used water-power, and at a later time steam. In 1792 he died worth about half a million.

Crompton's Spinning-mule.—Samuel Crompton, the son of a small farmer near Bolton, in Lancashire, was able in 1779 to make a spinning-machine which made finer and better thread than the machines of Hargreaves and Arkwright. The invention, which had cost Crompton years of toil, added greatly to the wealth of the country generally, and to that of Lancashire in particular, which became the chief seat of the cotton manufactures.

Cartwright's Power-loom.—Edmund Cartwright, an ingenious clergyman of Leicestershire, who was born at **Marnham**, Nottinghamshire, in 1743, having thought a great deal about how to improve the methods of weaving, produced in 1785 his **power-loom**. It was a very clumsy machine, but it did weave, and with the help of skilled mechanics he set about improving it. It was not, however, till the beginning of the nineteenth century that the power-loom began to come into common use.

Cartwright took out patents for various other improvements connected with manufactures, and for the benefits derived from his invention government made him a grant of £10,000. He died at Hastings, 1823.

Introduction of Steam-power.—The use of steam-power to drive these machines led more and more to manufactures being set up where coal was cheap.

James Watt and the Steam-engine.—James Watt, born at **Greenock** in 1736, though delicate in his youth, showed at an early age a turn for mathematics and a great interest in machines. In Glasgow, and afterwards in London, he learned

the trade of a mathematical-instrument maker, and in 1757 became instrument-maker to Glasgow University. When repairing a working model of the **Newcomen engine**, used in the natural philosophy class, Watt observed its defects and set himself to remedy them. The result was the invention of a **separate condenser**, and a number of other improvements and inventions, which brought steam into common use, and placed Watt at the head of all the inventors of that age.

He entered into partnership with Matthew Boulton, of Birmingham, and his engines were produced at the famous Soho works, near Birmingham. He died in 1819.

George Stephenson and the Locomotive.—**George Stephenson** was born at **Wylam**, near **Newcastle**, in 1781. His father was a fireman with 12*s.* a week, and George had to begin to earn his living when very young. At fifteen he became a fireman, and made himself thoroughly acquainted with his engine in his spare time, taking it to pieces, cleaning it, and putting it together again. His evenings he spent in learning reading, writing, and arithmetic. He married in 1802, and his son, **Robert**, was born in 1803. In 1812 he became engine-wright at Killingworth Colliery. While here he made his first locomotive, and invented a safety-lamp, **the Geordie**, for which he received a public testimonial of £1000.

The First Railway.—He improved his locomotive, and in 1821 was made engineer for the construction of the **Stockton and Darlington Railway**, which proved a success. After overcoming very great difficulties, he finished the line between Liverpool and Manchester in 1829; and on the opening day an engine built by him, **the Rocket**, was found able to travel at the then almost undreamt-of rate of thirty-five miles an hour. In company with his son Robert he had a share in making many other important railways. Among Robert's work may be mentioned the **High Level Bridge** at **Newcastle-on-Tyne**, the **Britannia Tubular Bridge** across the Menai Straits, and a similar bridge across the St. Lawrence.

The tubular part of this bridge has since been opened up, and the bridge is now known as the Victoria Jubilee Bridge.

The years which followed Waterloo were miserable years for the working-classes in Great Britain and Ireland. Numbers of the people were on the verge of starvation. There was general dissatisfaction, and a general agitation for economy and reform. The government met the agitation by punishing the leaders and by suspending the **Habeas Corpus Act**. At Manchester a peaceful public meeting was attacked by the yeomanry, and with the result that about half a score were killed and several hundreds wounded. The year after Waterloo Algiers was bombarded by Lord Sidmouth, and the Dey forced to put an end to Christian slavery in his dominions.

THE REIGN OF GEORGE THE FOURTH
(1820–1830)

Catholic Emancipation.—In 1820 George III died, and George IV, who had been regent from 1811, became king. The most memorable event of the reign was the passing of the Catholic Relief Act in 1829. The passing of this measure was due chiefly to the efforts of Daniel O'Connell, an Irish barrister. The measure itself was introduced into the House of Commons by Sir Robert Peel, long one of its steadiest opponents, and one of the most famous of British statesmen.

Sir Robert Peel.—Born near Bury in Lancashire, 1788, the son of a wealthy cotton-spinner, Peel was educated at Harrow and at Christ Church, Oxford, where he took a double first in 1808. He entered parliament as member for Cashel in 1809, and from 1812 to 1818 he held office as Chief Secretary for Ireland. He opposed the claims of the Catholics and reorganized the police force, but resigned in 1818. In 1822 he became Home Secretary, and great reforms were introduced in the criminal laws, capital punishment being greatly restricted. He disagreed with Canning about Catholic Emancipation, and resigned; but on the death of that minister he joined the cabinet of the Duke of Wellington, and though Oxford rejected him, as member for Westbury he introduced and carried the Catholic Emancipation Act in 1829. In the same year the Metropolitan police force was introduced in London, to take the place of the old city watchmen, and they became known as "Bobbies" or "Peelers".

The discontent at the beginning of the reign manifested itself in such schemes as the Cato Street Conspiracy of **Arthur Thistlewood.** The suicide of the unpopular **Castlereagh,** and the measures adopted by **Canning** and **Huskisson,** diminished discontent and distress. During the reign the chief foreign events were: The civil wars in Spain and Portugal; the defeat of the Turkish and Egyptian fleets at Navarino, 1827; the successful war of the Russians against the Turks, 1828–29; and the acknowledgment of Greek independence by the treaty of Adrianople, 1829.

The Test and Corporation Acts were repealed in 1828.

THE REIGN OF WILLIAM THE FOURTH
(1830–1837)

The opening of the Liverpool and Manchester railway, revolutions in France and Belgium, and the Irish Repeal agitation of O'Connell, marked the beginning of the reign.

Parliamentary Reform.—The great question of the reign was that of parliamentary reform. This, though delayed by the

French revolutionary wars, had now become absolutely necessary. It was strongly advocated by William Cobbett, and a Reform Bill was introduced by Lord John Russell in 1831.

The Passing of the Reform Bill, 1832.—The rejection of this Reform Bill led to riots at Bristol and elsewhere. The measure was stoutly opposed by Peel in the Commons, and the opposition of the Lords was only overborne when the king gave Lord Grey, the Prime Minister, power to create a sufficient number of peers to ensure the bill passing. By this measure, the great middle class of traders and farmers got a share of that political power which had previously been almost entirely in the hands of the land-owners.

During the next eight years, save for a few months as Prime Minister in 1834–35, Peel remained the leader of the opposition

Further Reforms.—It was a period of great legislative activity. In 1833 an Act for the **Abolition of Slavery** was passed, the slave-owners receiving £20,000,000 as compensation. The same year saw the **first Factory Act** passed, for the protection of the child-slaves in mines and factories at home; and in 1834 the first of those grants in aid was made, which were the beginning of our present national system of **education.** The **new Poor Law,** in 1834, introduced great improvements in the treatment of paupers. Among other beneficial measures may be noted the **reduction of duties on newspapers.** During this reign railways were extended and steam navigation more largely employed.

The Municipal Reform Act of 1835 swept away much of the jobbery and corruption which up to that time had characterized the management of municipal affairs.

The chief foreign events during this reign were: (*a*) The unsuccessful Polish rebellion in 1831; (*b*) the separation of Belgium from Holland, 1830; (*c*) the defeat of Don Carlos in Spain by the aid of the British legion under Sir De Lacy Evans, 1835–40; (*d*) the restoration of Maria II and the expulsion of Dom Miguel from Portugal, 1835; and (*e*) the war between the Sultan and Mehemet Pasha, 1831–33. At home, both in England and Ireland, there was much agitation on the subject of tithes, and in Scotland on the subject of church extension.

THE ACCESSION OF QUEEN VICTORIA

The reign of Victoria, as it is the longest, is undoubtedly also in many respects the most important in our annals.

Its importance lies in the steady progress of the masses of the people in freedom, in general well-being, and in political power; and in the rapid and peaceful growth of the empire in extent, in wealth, and in numbers.

Princess Victoria.—Queen Victoria was the daughter of

Edward Augustus, Duke of Kent, and of **Victoria Mary Louisa,** widow of the Prince of Leiningen. She was **born** at **Kensington** on the **24th of May, 1819.** In January, 1820, her father died at Sidmouth, in Devonshire; and her mother, returning to Kensington, devoted herself with judgment and fidelity to the task of carefully training their young daughter for the duties of the lofty position she was destined to occupy.

The Queen's Accession.—On June 20th, 1837, the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Lord Chamberlain brought to the young princess the news of her accession. Young as she was, the queen acted with rare dignity and discretion. **Melbourne,** who was **Prime Minister,** treated her with a chivalrous devotion which she was quick to recognize.

Difficulties at Home and Abroad.—The queen's personal popularity, on the other hand, was of the greatest service to the ministers in their struggle with the difficulties of the time. These included the **revolt in Canada,** the **Chartist agitation,** and the **Anti-Corn-Law League.**

By the law of Hanover the crown of that country descended in the male line. So, on the queen's accession, her uncle Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, became king of Hanover. Thus the long connection between Britain and Hanover was brought to an end, to the relief of this country, which had long regarded the connection with Hanover as an irksome and profitless affair.

The Queen's Coronation.—The people of Great Britain and Ireland manifested the most enthusiastic and devoted loyalty to the queen at the time of her **coronation** on June 28th, 1838. As her character began to show itself their enthusiasm increased; and in spite of some jealousy at her marriage with a German prince, the people of London gave her and her husband, Prince Albert, a right loyal reception on the occasion of their **marriage, February 10th, 1840.**

The example of the queen and the Prince Consort, and their influence on the tone of the court and society at large, was most beneficial.

The Great Exhibition.—The Prince Consort only slowly gained the popularity which he deserved. It was to his efforts, backed by the queen, that the **First International Exhibition**—the exhibition held in 1851—chiefly owed its success. The project was so violently opposed in many quarters that nothing less powerful than their influence could have carried it through. The building in which the exhibition was held was known as the **Crystal Palace,** and was designed by **Mr.** (afterwards **Sir Joseph**) **Paxton.**

Though wars followed, and not the universal peace so fondly expected by the promoters of the scheme, there can be no doubt that these exhibitions have been of incalculable service to mankind.

At the close of the exhibition the materials of the palace were bought by a company, and the Crystal Palace was re-erected on its present site near Sydenham, in Kent, under the directions of Sir Joseph Paxton. It was opened by the queen on the 10th June, 1854

THE CORN LAWS

Peel's Ministry.—Melbourne, her first Prime Minister, though not a great statesman, had great influence with the young queen, but he was compelled to give place to Peel in 1841.

Repeal of the Corn Laws, 1846.—Although at first he refused to abolish the duties on corn, that able minister greatly improved the trade of the country by a very extensive all-round reduction of duties. In the matter of grain, he was satisfied with introducing an improved **sliding-scale** of duties, 1842; but the famine in **Ireland**, caused by the failure of the potato crop, 1845, and the distress in Great Britain, occasioned by the bad harvest of that year, brought matters to a crisis, and in 1846, though opposed by the majority of his old supporters, the **Corn Importation Bill** was passed, and cheap bread secured for the workers.

Sir Robert Peel's Last Years.—Defeated on an Irish Coercion Bill on the very day this important measure passed the Lords—June 26th, 1846—Peel at once resigned. He continued to support the free-trade policy of his successors till his death, the result of an accident, in 1850. The accident took place on the 29th of June, exactly four years after his resignation. He died on the 2nd of July, and was buried at Drayton, in Staffordshire, while the people of Great Britain and Ireland mourned the loss of one of whose capacity and honesty they had the most perfect assurance.

CHARTISM AND REFORM

Dear food, low wages, and want of work made people agitate for the extension of the franchise.

The Chartist riots throughout the country in 1838, and at Birmingham and Newport in 1839, and the Rebecca riots in Wales in 1843, showed how dissatisfied the great bulk of the people were, and it was in vain that Feargus O'Connor and other leaders of the movement were prosecuted and imprisoned.

Their demands were embodied in a document known as the Charter. The famous six points have already ceased to be contentious, the most important of them having been conceded. The agitation was kept up till 1848, when the proposed monster meeting at Kennington Common failed, and Chartism as a political force gradually died.

Second Reform Bill.—On the rejection, in 1866, of Lord John Russell's moderate measure of reform (the Adullamites, led by Robert Lowe, having voted against it), the Tory ministry of Lord Derby was forced, by the clamour in the country and by the Hyde Park riots, to pass in 1867 a much larger measure of reform, granting household suffrage in the boroughs.

Gladstone's First Ministry, 1868.—Mr. Gladstone's Ballot Act of 1871, and the Third Reform Act, 1885, established household suffrage in the counties, and, accompanied as the latter was by redistribution, brought parliamentary representation into its present condition.

IRELAND AND HOME RULE

Daniel O'Connell.—Daniel O'Connell's repeal agitation was carried on with great vigour till 1843, when the meeting at **Clontarf** was forbidden, and O'Connell and his chief supporters brought to trial. They were condemned, but the sentence was reversed on appeal to the **House of Lords.**

The failure of O'Connell's agitation was followed by the secession of Smith O'Brien and the "Young Ireland party" from the **Repealers.** Smith O'Brien's futile rebellion in 1848, and the conviction and transportation of its leaders, caused the collapse of the "Young Ireland party". The agitation was continued by the Fenian movement, begun by **Stephens** in March, **1858.** Under it there was an attempted **invasion of Canada** in **1868,** and several unsuccessful risings in Ireland in 1867.

Irish Land Act, &c.—To pacify Ireland Mr. Gladstone passed his **Act to put an end to the Establishment of the Church of Ireland** in **1869**, and his **Irish Land Act** in 1870.

Notwithstanding these measures a Home Rule Association, with **Mr. Isaac Butt** as chairman, was founded in 1870. Mr. Butt died in 1879; but under the skilful management of **Mr. Parnell** the movement grew in importance.

In 1886 Mr. Gladstone adopted the Home Rule cause. His Home Rule Bill, introduced in that year, was defeated in the Commons. In 1891 Mr. Parnell ceased to lead the party, and he died the same year. The Home Rule Bill of Mr. Gladstone's

fourth ministry was thrown out by the Lords in 1893, and since then the question has fallen somewhat into the background.

INDIA BEFORE THE MUTINY

Beginnings of British Rule.—Queen Elizabeth granted a charter to the **East India Company**, which, without dreaming of conquering India, set up trading stations and factories in the country. The French aiming at absolute supremacy, the Company was forced to conquer them and their native allies. This conquest Lord Clive began.

Lord Olive.—Born near **Market Drayton** in 1725, Clive in his youth was not fond of nor quick at learning, while at a very early age he gave evidence of a daring and masterful disposition. Sent to India as a writer in the service of the East India Company, he was at first so miserable that he tried to commit suicide. When the French, under Dupleix, captured Madras in 1746, Clive escaped to Fort St. David, which he helped to defend. He became a soldier, and by his capture and heroic defence of **Arcot**, in 1751, spread his own fame and the fame of English valour throughout India.

Plassey.—Having married, visited England, and made his relatives sharers in his wealth, Clive returned to India in 1755. He hastened from Madras in 1756, retook Calcutta, and forced **Surajah Dowlah**, the **Nabob of Bengal**, who had captured it, to agree to peace and to promise to pay the Company for the mischief he had done. At the beginning of the Seven Years' War Clive seized the French settlement of **Chandernagore**, and at **Plassey**, with 3000 men, utterly defeated 60,000 under the Nabob of Bengal, who had taken the side of the French. Clive then placed **Meer Jaffeer** on the throne of Bengal, and he himself managed the Company's affairs till 1760, when he returned to England, having amassed a huge fortune. He entered parliament, was made Baron Clive of Plassey in 1762, and in 1765 returned to India, where he did good service in reforming the Company's system of managing affairs in India.

Warren Hastings.—The work of Clive was continued by one who had served under him, **Warren Hastings**. Born at **Daylesford**, in Worcestershire, 1732, **Hastings** was among the clerks of the Company who fled down the river when Surajah Dowlah seized Calcutta. He served Clive first as **a volunteer**,

and afterwards as **agent**, first at the court of Surajah Dowlah and then at the court of Meer Jaffeer.

He became a member of the Council of Calcutta in 1761, just after the victory of **Colonel Coote** at **Wandewash**, 1760, and the surrender of **Pondicherry**, 1761, had put an end to the French hopes of an Indian empire. He returned to England in 1764.

Between Clive's leaving India, in 1767, and the governorship of Hastings, 1772, little of importance took place save the terrible **Bengal famine** of 1770, which carried off one-third of the people. Hastings altered and improved the mode of managing affairs in India, created courts of justice, and established a police; and his reforms were not more successful than was the bold foreign policy which he adopted.

In a war with the Mahrattas (1778–1782) Captain Popham carried by storm the fortress of **Gwalior**; but all the energies of Hastings were needed to repel an attack on Madras by **Hyder Ali** of **Mysore**, who at the head of 90,000 men cut to pieces a strong body of troops (under **Colonel Baillie**), and conquered the Carnatic, 1780. Then the energy of Hastings saved the honour of the English name. Troops sent to the Carnatic under **Sir Eyre Coote**, and supported by Hastings with all the men and money he could collect, were able to defeat Hyder Ali and his French allies in 1781, and again in 1782.

The **Rajah of Benares** (Chait Singh) refused to pay the tax asked by the governor for this war, and rebelled. Hastings crushed the rebellion and declared his estates forfeited. He also made the princesses of Oude pay a heavy fine for aiding the rajah. On his return to England, in 1785, he was brought to trial for extortion. After a trial lasting for seven years he was acquitted. He died in 1818. After Clive and Hastings the progress of British power in India was steady.

Seringapatam, the capital of the Sultan of Mysore, the ally of France and enemy of Britain, was stormed in 1799, and Tippoo killed. The victories early in the nineteenth century of General Lake and Sir Arthur Wellesley over the Mahrattas broke the power of that great confederacy.

British Power Established.—The Mahratta power was finally destroyed in **1818**, while **Assam** and other provinces were taken from Burmah after the first **Burmese War, 1824-26.** Beneficent reforms were introduced by a succession of able governors-general, and cruel customs, such as **Suttee** and **Thuggism**, were suppressed.

The Massacre of Cabul.—In 1838 a British army entered **Afghanistan**, to establish on the throne of that country

a native prince who was our ally. The task was accomplished, and a force was left in Cabul, the capital of the country, for his protection and support. Towards the end of 1841 the inhabitants of Cabul and the neighbouring tribesmen rose in rebellion. The British forces retreated; but they suffered so much on the retreat from the enemy, and from cold and want, that of the sixteen or seventeen thousand who set out from Cabul only one man, **Dr. Brydon**, reached **Jelalabad** in safety.

The Defence of Jelalabad.—The Afghans besieged Jelalabad for five months. At the end of that time the garrison under **Sir Robert Sale** drove them from their positions and captured their guns. Then the garrison having joined **General Pollock**, who was advancing from India, Cabul was captured, and the bazaar was burned as a punishment for the rebellion of the inhabitants. The British army then returned to India.

The Conquest of Sind.—In 1843 the chiefs of Sind, excited by the reports of British reverses in Afghanistan, began to show themselves hostile.

Sir Charles Napier with a small army advanced against them, and defeated the great body of the chiefs at **Meeanee**. He then entered **Hyderabad**; advancing thence he defeated Shere Mahomed, the most powerful of the native chiefs, at **Dubba**. A few days later he seized his capital, **Meerpoor**, and declared Sind British territory.

The Sikh Wars.—The **Sikhs**, a religious sect of North-Western India, which had become a great military confederacy, invaded British territory in December, 1845. At **Moodkee**, on the 18th of the month, 40,000 of them who attacked Sir Hugh Gough were defeated with great slaughter. At **Ferozeshah**, four days later, Sir Hugh, after two days' stubborn fighting, stormed their camp and put 60,000 of them to flight. Early in 1846 Sir Harry Smith defeated the enemy at **Aliwal**, and Sir Hugh, joined by him, forced the passage of the Sutlej at **Sobraon**, inflicting a crushing defeat on the enemy, of whom more than one-third perished. The British army then marched into Lahore, where a treaty was made with the Sikhs, who were allowed to retain a partial independence.

The Siege of Multan.—Two years later the Sikhs again rose in rebellion. At Multan two British officers were murdered. Lieutenant Edwards, with a hastily-raised force,

defeated the governor of the city, and drove him back. Then the British laid siege to Multan, which was captured in January, 1849, after a prolonged siege.

Chillianwalla.—Meantime **Lord Gough** marched against the Sikhs, whom, after a battle in which the losses on both sides were great, he drove from their entrenched position at **Chillianwalla.** A little later he attacked and completely defeated the enemy's force of over 60,000 at **Goojerat**, and the **Punjab** was annexed to the British territory.

THE CRIMEAN WAR

An invasion of Turkish territory by the Russians in 1853, and the **destruction of the Turkish fleet** at **Sinope**, led England and France to declare war on Russia. The allied armies invaded the Crimea, defeated the Russians at the battle of **Alma** on September 20th, 1854, and laid siege to **Sevastopol.** On October 25th an attack in force by the Russians on the allied position at **Balaclava** was repulsed. The battle was made memorable by the heroic charge of the "Light Brigade", and by the bravery of the "Heavy Brigade" and of the 93rd Highlanders. An attempt to surprise the British position on November 5th led to the battle of **Inkerman**, in which the Russians were repulsed with heavy loss. The sufferings of our soldiers in the trenches before Sevastopol excited great indignation in the country, and caused a change of ministry. Sevastopol was captured in 1855, shortly after **Kars**, a Turkish town in Armenia, had surrendered after a heroic defence by **General Williams.**

The efforts of **Florence Nightingale** and her heroic band of lady nurses to alleviate the sufferings of our wounded soldiers during this war, have made her name honoured throughout the world.

THE NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES

British North American colonies consist of **Canada** and **Newfoundland.** What forms the principal part of the United States—the eastern part—was also at one time British. Though America, known perhaps to the Vikings, is said to have been discovered by Columbus in 1492, the first expedition known to have reached the mainland of America was the English expedition of 1497, commanded by the Venetian, **John Cabot.**

The First English Settlements.—In 1607 the first permanent settlement was made in **Virginia**, while Maryland (so called in honour of Henrietta Maria) was colonized early in the reign of Charles I.

In 1620 the more famous settlement known as New England was made by the Pilgrim Fathers. These were a body of Puritans, who, having fled from England to Holland to escape persecution, now sought in America the religious freedom denied them at home, and the maintenance of their English nationality, which they feared would be lost if they continued to dwell among foreigners.

The Conquest of Canada.—The French were the first to colonize **Canada**, and they tried, by means of forts on the great lakes and along the Ohio and Mississippi, to shut in the English colonists to the coast strip between the Alleghanies and the Atlantic. Till Pitt took the matter in hand, the French seemed to be gaining in the struggle. **Montcalm**, the French governor, allying himself with the Indians, inflicted several defeats on the British.

In 1759 Pitt planned an expedition for the conquest of Canada, and gave the command of the portion of it that was to try to take Quebec to **General Wolfe**, a young officer born in Kent in 1726, who had gained great fame at the capture of **Louisburg**, 1758. Unable to break through the defences of the wary Montcalm, Wolfe, with matchless daring, scaled the cliffs above the city, at a point where they were insufficiently guarded, seized the **Plains of Abraham**, and forced his opponents to fight a battle. Wolfe fell in the hour of victory; Montcalm was killed; **Quebec** surrendered, and Canada became a British possession.

The Loss of the Thirteen Colonies.—To meet the expenses of the long war with France, the government proposed to tax the colonies, in whose defence the war had been waged. The thirteen American colonies protested against being taxed by a body in which they were not represented, complained of other interferences with their commerce and liberty; and when ships with the taxed tea reached **Boston harbour** they were boarded by some disguised colonists, and the tea thrown into the water.

As a punishment, the **port of Boston** was closed, and the **charter**, or grant giving them the right of self-government, taken from **Massachusetts** by the English parliament. A **congress** of the Colonies at **Philadelphia** resolved to cease trading with Great Britain till the rights of **Massachusetts** were restored.

In 1775 a body of soldiers, sent to destroy some arms collected by the colonists at **Lexington**, were attacked, and a large number of the men were killed; and in an attempt to drive the colonial militia from their position on **Bunker's Hill**, our men, though successful, lost very heavily.

The Colonies declare their Independence.—The colonists made **George Washington**, who had gained fame for himself in the old French-Indian wars, commander-in-chief; and the united Congress, on July 4th, 1776, passed the **Declaration of Independence**. The British repelled an American **invasion of Canada** in 1776, and though Washington forced them to quit Boston he was defeated in 1777 at the battles of **Brandywine** and **Germantown**, near Philadelphia; but the surrender of **General Burgoyne** at **Saratoga** was the turning-point of the war.

France joined with the United States in 1778, and **Spain** declared war on Britain in 1779, and besieged Gibraltar, which the Spaniards and French, after a three years' siege, failed to take. In 1780 **Russia, Sweden**, and **Denmark**, and soon afterwards Holland, formed the **Armed Neutrality League** against Britain

The war in America went on, with success sometimes on one side, sometimes on the other, till **1781**, when **Lord Cornwallis** and 5000 men were compelled to surrender to Washington at **Yorktown**. The raising the **siege of Gibraltar**, and **Rodney's** great victory over the **Count de Grasse** in the West Indies, made Britain's enemies lower their demands, though by the **Peace of Versailles**, 1783, Britain acknowledged the **independence of the United States** and gave up **Minorca** to Spain.

The Formation of the Dominion of Canada.—It is only since 1867 that the name Canada has been applied to all the British possessions in North America except Newfoundland. Before 1840 it was given only to the two provinces of **Ontario** and **Quebec**, known as **Upper** and **Lower Canada.**

In 1837 **Papineau** in Lower Canada, and **Mackenzie** in Upper Canada, attempted rebellion. The rebels were defeated at **St. Eustace** in December, 1837, and repulsed by **Sir F. Head** at **Toronto** in the beginning of 1838.

By **Lord Durham**, who was sent out in 1838 as governor-general and high commissioner, the ringleaders, with their own consent, were banished; and on his recommendation the two provinces were reunited; self-government was granted them; the independence of the judges was secured; and municipal institutions were established.

Abandoned by the ministers who had appointed him, Durham sent in his resignation. On his return to England he drew up for the Colonial Office the "**Report on the**

Affairs of British North America". This celebrated report has formed the model by which the policy of British statesmen in dealing with colonial affairs has since been guided. Lord Durham died in July, 1840, at the early age of 48.

Canada.—Since that time there has been a steady advance in prosperity. **Ottawa** in 1858 was made the **capital** of the united provinces; and when the **Fenian raids** convinced the different provinces of the need for a closer union, it became in 1867 the capital of the great **Dominion of Canada.** The railway system has been developed. The wealth and population of the country has grown enormously. The **Hudson's Bay Company's** rights were acquired in 1869, and some progress has been made with the opening up of the fertile North-West Provinces and British Columbia. Save for the rebellion of Indians and half-breeds put down in 1885, and disputes with the United States as to the fisheries, the history of Canada has been one of uninterrupted progress.

Louis Riel, who surrendered to **General Middleton's** scouts in May, 1885, was tried for treason at Regina, and executed in November. Some Indians who had been guilty of murder were hanged at Battleford.

In 1894 a new **tariff bill** favouring trade with Great Britain was introduced, and an **intercolonial conference** was held at **Ottawa.** In 1897 a bill even more favourable to British trade was passed The gold finds in the **Klondyke** and in **British Columbia** have of late drawn popular attention more to the Dominion, and Canada's enthusiastic support of the mother country in the Boer war has greatly strengthened the ties between the two countries. With its enormous area, and its vast agricultural and mineral resources, Canada is sure in the future to take a foremost place among the nations of the world.

BRITAIN, RUSSIA, AND TURKEY

Though the people of Great Britain sympathized keenly with the Christian population suffering from Turkish tyranny and misgovernment, our statesmen, for years after the Crimean war, considered it part of their duty to support the Sultan, and to prevent the breaking up of the Turkish empire. The **revolt in Herzegovina**, the **war with Servia**, and the **Bulgarian massacres** led in 1877 to a war between Russia and Turkey. The brave defence of **Plevna** by the Turks caught the fancy of our people; and though, after its capture, the Turkish defence everywhere collapsed, Lord Beaconsfield was able to intervene and prevent the Russians from capturing Constantinople. By the **Treaty of Berlin** a number of the Christian peoples in the Balkan peninsula were freed from Turkish tyranny and misrule. Turkey was secured her independence, Russia was kept out of Constantinople,

and time and a chance for free development were secured to the struggling nationalities of the peninsula.

THE INDIAN MUTINY

The Outbreak at Meerut.—A belief that they were able to drive into the sea the small force of British soldiers in India, led to the mutiny of the native troops or **Sepoys** in **1857.** Its immediate cause was the issuing of greased cartridges to the troops. The mutiny began at **Meerut** on **Sunday, 10th May, 1857.** From Meerut the mutineers advanced to **Delhi,** where the whole white population was murdered, and all that the Europeans could do was to blow up the magazine.

The Defence of Cawnpore.—The mutiny spread like wildfire. **Cawnpore** and **Lucknow** were besieged. At Cawnpore the small body of Europeans bravely defended themselves, repelling for twenty-two days every assault. At last, on a promise that the defenders would be allowed to go away unhurt, they surrendered.

The Massacre of Cawnpore.—Nana Sahib and his officers, who had offered the terms to the garrison and had sworn that the conditions should be observed, no sooner saw the British embarked than they treacherously opened fire on the boats. Only a single boat escaped, and only four men of the 240 survived to tell the tale. The remaining prisoners, chiefly women and children, were afterwards massacred by order of Nana, and their bodies thrown down a well. The day after the massacre the Nana's troops were defeated by a small British force under **General Havelock,** and Cawnpore was recaptured.

The Siege of Lucknow.—At Lucknow a small British force was hemmed in by the mutineers, and, first under **Sir Henry Lawrence,** and after his death under **Colonel Inglis,** made a most determined and heroic defence.

The Advance upon Delhi.—All the available troops within reach were hurried forward by the British authorities, and an attempt made to **recapture Delhi.** The siege of Delhi—if siege it could be called, where the besiegers, at first only about 3000 men, and at no time more than 8000, were opposed by more than 30,000 rebels—began on the 8th of June. In the middle of August **Nicholson** arrived with reinforcements from the Punjab, and on the **14th of September** the assault was delivered.

The Cashmere Gate.—A way into the city was opened up by the heroism of the small band commanded by **Lieutenants Home** and **Salkeld**, who blew up the Cashmere gate. After six days' fighting in the streets Delhi was won, but Nicholson, the hero of the siege, fell at the head of the storming party.

The Relief of Lucknow.—Meanwhile, **General Havelock** fought his way from Cawnpore to the relief of the British besieged in Lucknow. He arrived in time, but he was not strong enough to bring away the sick and wounded, and the women and children, so he determined to hold the **residency** till further help arrived. In **November, Sir Colin Campbell**, at the head of a small force, relieved the garrison.

The End of the Mutiny.—In the following March Campbell broke the neck of the rebellion by the **capture of Lucknow**, in which there was at the time 60,000 revolted sepoys besides the irregular troops. As soon as the mutiny was suppressed the government of the **East India Company** was **abolished**, and India was placed directly under the British crown.

FURTHER EVENTS IN INDIA

Among those who were entertained by Lord Lytton in 1877, when the queen was proclaimed Empress of India, was Shere Ali, the ruler of Afghanistan. Next year he received with honour at his capital a Russian embassy, while he refused to admit a British. This the British government refused to tolerate.

Lord Roberts and the North-West Frontier.—Afghanistan was invaded, Shere Ali fled, and his son, **Yakub Khan**, was made **Ameer**, and agreed to receive a British resident. Within a few months the British resident, together with his escort, was treacherously murdered, and a second war became necessary. A British force under **General Roberts** was sent to avenge the massacre. **Cabul** was **captured** and Yakub Khan was deported to India. In the south of Afghanistan, however, a British brigade was defeated at **Maiwand** by the forces of Ayub Khan, the brother of Shere Ali, and **Kandahar** itself was **besieged**. This defeat was promptly and completely retrieved by the **brilliant march** of Sir Frederick Roberts from **Cabul** to **Kandahar**. There he totally routed the forces of Ayub Khan. Abdur Rahman was made Ameer, and agreed to remain true to British interests. An attack by the Russians on the Afghans at Penjdeh almost led to a war between Britain and Russia. A compromise was effected, and the limits of the

Russian territory were defined in 1887. **Defensive works**, which stretch from the mouth of the **Indus** to **Chitral**, have been erected on the north-west frontier. The erection of these has led to wars with the hill tribes. There was a rising of the **Chitralese** in **1895**, and of the **Afridis** and **Mohmands** in **1897**.

On the eastern side of India there has been a similar rapid extension of the British dominions. In 1885 the hostile attitude of **King Theebaw** of Burmah forced the Indian government to interfere. He was **deposed in 1886**, and the whole of Burmah put under British rule.

Thus, bit by bit the boundaries of the British empire have been extended, till now the blessings of good government are enjoyed by more than 300,000,000 human beings. The sympathy of the people of Britain with the inhabitants of India in their sufferings from plague and famine was actively shown in the years 1897 to 1900. The loyalty of the native princes to the British raj was equally clearly manifested.

THE AUSTRALASIAN COLONIES

At the beginning of the nineteenth century the settlement of Australia could scarcely be said to have been begun. It is not easy to determine what was the nationality of the first discoverer of Australia, nor does it much matter. In the seventeenth century the Dutch explored parts of the coast, and named the great island New Holland, but they formed no settlements there. It was not till **1770** that **Captain Cook** landed and took possession of the country in the name of George III.

Cook's Voyages—First Voyage.—**James Cook**, the son of a Yorkshire farm-labourer, was born at **Morton, near Whitby**, in **1728**. Having risen to be mate of a collier, he entered the navy as able seaman in 1755. As master in the **Mercury**, 1759, he was engaged in surveying the channel of the St. Lawrence, and he afterwards surveyed the coasts of Newfoundland and Labrador. As lieutenant in command of the **Endeavour** he carried a party of scientists to **Tahiti** to observe the **transit of Venus** in **1768**. During this voyage Cook explored **New Zealand**, and proclaimed it British territory.

End of First Voyage.—He afterwards sighted Australia, and landed at **Botany Bay**, where he found the natives very shy and stupid. On the voyage along the east coast the **Endeavour** ran aground and had to be repaired, and it was not till **1771**, after many hardships, that the expedition returned to England.

Second and Third Voyages.—Cook was made commander in 1771, and in his second voyage of discovery, 1772–1775, he attempted to find out the reported great **Southern**

Continent, and discovered the island of **New Caledonia**. He became captain in 1775, and in 1776, in command of the **Resolution** and the **Discovery**, he set out on his third voyage, the object of which was to find a way from the Pacific to the Atlantic round the north of America. The **Sandwich Islands** were discovered in **1777**, and there, shortly after his return to them, in 1779, Cook was murdered in a quarrel with the natives. Nine years later, in **1788**, the **first British Settlement** in Australia was formed at **Botany Bay** in **New South Wales**.

THE GROWTH OF AUSTRALIA

New South Wales.—The Australian States, though now united into a Federal Commonwealth, were for a long time separate colonies. The oldest, **New South Wales**, began to prosper when it was discovered that the interior was suitable for grazing. In **1840** convicts ceased to be sent out, and two years later the **Colony** was made **self-governing**.

The Discovery of Gold.—Though the prosperity of the country depends chiefly on its agriculture, pasturage, and fruit-growing, its progress has undoubtedly been hastened by the discovery of rich gold and silver mines. It is also rich in coal and in other useful minerals.

Victoria.—In the case of **Victoria**, which became a separate colony in **1851**, the rapid increase of population, on the discovery of gold, was even more remarkable than in New South Wales. Gold-mining has now become only one of the industries of the colony, the chief wealth of which consists in its rich **corn-fields** and **pasture-lands**. Like New South Wales, Victoria passed through a monetary crisis early in the nineties, from which the trade of the colony only slowly recovered.

South Australia and Tasmania.—The rush to the gold-mines of New South Wales and Victoria kept back for some time the progress of the neighbouring colony of **South Australia**, notwithstanding the rich **copper-mines** of **Burra Burra**. The progress of **Tasmania** was also for a time interrupted by the rush, though its soil is fertile, its climate delightful, and its mineral wealth considerable.

Queensland.—Queensland, which became a **separate colony** in **1859**, possesses a large territory, with great variety of soil and productions, both vegetable and mineral. Its **sugar cultivation**,

its rich pastures, and its mineral wealth have made this one of the most flourishing of the Australian States.

Western Australia.—Western Australia, which received constitutional government only in 1890, as it is the largest, promises soon to be among the most flourishing of the states. The recent discovery of gold here, as in the other colonies, has been followed by a great increase in population.

Federation of Commonwealth of Australia.—The progress of the Australian colonies has in recent years been continuous and rapid. The aim of Australian statesmen to unite all the colonies in one federation has at length been accomplished. A bill passed the Imperial Parliament in 1900 authorizing the formation of "The Commonwealth of Australia". On January 1, 1901, the birth of the new nation was celebrated with great rejoicings, and Lord Hopetoun, the new governor, was received with great pomp.

The loyalty of the Australians to the empire was shown by the part they took in the South African war, where the Bushmen's corps did splendid service.

NEW ZEALAND

New Zealand has natural resources so varied and so great that it must become one of the most prosperous divisions of the empire. The first body of emigrants landed in 1840. Wars with the Maories, and reckless borrowing for public works, have retarded the progress of the colony, which, besides its Maori population, contains over three-quarters of a million of inhabitants.

BRITISH POWER IN AFRICA

One of the most remarkable circumstances of the latter part of the nineteenth century was the opening up to civilization of Africa.

In the early seventies little was known of the interior of Africa, and most of the continent was a No-man's-land; now it is almost entirely parcelled out among the different European nations. Most of the work of opening up Africa to civilization has been done by British missionaries and explorers. Among these Livingstone holds a foremost place.

David Livingstone.—David Livingstone was born in 1813

in the village of **Blantyre**, near Glasgow. A bright, industrious lad, he worked hard both in the factory and at his books; and having made up his mind to become a medical missionary, he prepared himself by study at Glasgow University and in London. He was ordained, and sailed for Africa in 1840. In 1844 he married the eldest daughter of **Dr. Moffat**, the missionary. He won the hearts of the natives by his kindness and wisdom; and he was ably assisted by his wife.

Livingstone Discovers the Falls of Zambesi.—Livingstone explored vast tracts of the continent, and made many important geographical discoveries, among them the **Victoria Falls** on the **Zambesi**. Saddened by the death of his wife in 1862, and of other helpers, including Bishop Mackenzie, he returned to England in 1864.

The Great Lakes.—He went back to Africa in 1865, and made further explorations with the view of finding the **sources** of the **Nile**. Nothing being heard of him for some years, an expedition to find him was led by H. M. Stanley.

Death of Livingstone.—Livingstone refused to return with Stanley, continued his work, and died in **1873**. His body was brought home, and he was buried in **Westminster Abbey** in 1874.

Under a series of **treaties**, and under the names of **colonies**, or **protectorates**, or **spheres of influence**, Britain possessed more than **a third** of all Africa. In most cases, too, the parts possessed by Britain were the richest in natural resources, the most populous, and the most suitable for colonization. Besides South Africa, they included **British East Africa**, **Egypt**, **British West Africa**, and several islands.

BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA

British South Africa has all along given greater trouble than any of our other colonies. This has been due chiefly to unwillingness of the Dutch settlers, or Boers, to accept British rule, and the restraints which that rule imposed on them in their dealings with the natives. These troubles came to a head in the war for supremacy in South Africa which broke out in 1899, between Great Britain and the Boers.

The Zulu War.—In 1878 the **Zulu** King, **Cetewayo**, whose powerful army was a constant menace to **Natal** and the **Transvaal**, having refused to disband his forces, **Sir Bartle Frere**, the High Commissioner, sent a British force under **Lord Chelmsford** against him. A portion of Lord Chelmsford's army was com-

pletely annihilated at **Isandula**. Notwithstanding this success, the repulse the Zulus met at **Rorke's drift**, and their defeat at **Ekowe**, so disheartened them that they refrained from invading Natal.

Kambula and Ulundi.—A little later the British, under Colonel Wood, repulsed the Zulus with great slaughter at **Kambula**. Soon afterwards Lord Chelmsford entered Zululand at the head of a powerful army, and completely defeated the Zulus at the battle of **Ulundi**. **Cetewayo** was captured, and was sent a prisoner to the Cape, and Sir Garnet Wolseley, who had taken the place of Lord Chelmsford, returned to England.

The Rising of the Boers.—A few months later the **Boers**, who had gladly put themselves under our protection when the Zulus were threatening their existence, rose in rebellion. In 1880 they won the battles of **Laing's Nek** and **Ingogo**, and early in **1881** utterly defeated the British at **Majuba Hill**. Peace was made with the Boers, who received back their independence, Britain keeping only a nominal **Suzerainty**.

The New Boer War.—Peace might have been maintained, but the gold discoveries in the Transvaal had attracted to that country crowds of British and other European adventurers. These, under the name of Uitlanders, were treated by the Boers most unfairly. They paid **nine-tenths** of the taxes, and were refused any part in the management of affairs. They appealed to the British Government, and a conference was held in the capital of the **Free State** between **President Kruger** and the High Commissioner, **Lord Milner**. The Boer leader refused to grant the reforms suggested, and some time after the close of the conference addressed an **ultimatum** to the British Government, and two days later **invaded Natal** on the east, and on the other side **besieged Kimberley** and **Mafeking**.

The Progress of the War.—In Natal the Boers forced back the British forces opposed to them, and laid **siege to Ladysmith**. In December, **General Buller**, who was advancing to the relief of the town, was **repulsed** with great loss in an attempt to cross the Tugela at **Colenso**; a month later he suffered another severe reverse at **Spion Kop**; and it was not till the last day of February that he succeeded in relieving the besieged garrison.

The Conquest of the Transvaal.—On the western

side of the Orange Free State **Lord Methuen**, who was advancing to the relief of Kimberley, suffered a severe repulse at **Magersfontein**. On February 12th, however, **Lord Roberts**, who had assumed the command in South Africa, moved into the Free State at the head of a large army. **Kimberley** was **relieved**; the Boer commander, **Cronje**, with about 4000 men, was surrounded and forced to surrender at **Paardeberg**; and a fortnight later Lord Roberts entered Bloemfontein and proclaimed the Orange Free State British territory. After some time spent in refitting, Roberts again advanced. **Johannesburg** and **Pretoria** were captured, **Mafeking** was relieved, the forces under Botha were pushed to the Portuguese border, most of their cannon and stores were captured; and the Transvaal also was proclaimed British territory. After this the struggle on the part of the Boers degenerated into **guerrilla warfare** skilfully combated by Lord Kitchener till peace was made on May 31, 1902.

BRITAIN AND EGYPT

The Dual Control—Egypt.—The **Khedive Ismail** abdicated in 1879, having so exhausted the resources of the country that it was no longer able to pay the bond-holders. **Britain** and **France** undertook the management of affairs, but under Ismail's successor, **Tewfik**, there was a rebellion headed by **Arabi Pashi** against this **dual control**. Alexandria was bombarded by the British fleet, and, the French having refused to join us, **Arabi** was attacked and defeated by Lord Wolseley at Tel-el-Kebir, and Egypt placed under the control of British officials, 1883.

The Mahdi.—In the same year the Egyptian army of Colonel Hicks was defeated and cut to pieces by the **Mahdi** in the battle of Kashgal, near **El Obeid.**

The Mahdi claimed to be the Mahommedan Messiah, and his supporters were called Dervishes.

In 1884 **Osman Digna**, as general for the Mahdi, defeated a force under Baker Pasha, but was defeated by General Graham at **El-Teb** and **Tamanieb.**

General (Chinese) Gordon, who had gone at the government's request to Khartoum to withdraw the Egyptian garrison, was besieged there.

He wrote home asking for help, but the government of Mr. Gladstone only moved in the matter when public opinion forced them to do so. Then an army was equipped for his relief, and placed under the command of Lord Wolseley.

The relieving force arrived too late, though General Stewart

gained a brilliant victory at **Abu Klea**, 1885. It was found that, two days before their arrival, Khartoum had been captured and Gordon killed, so the army was withdrawn.

After this the Soudan was abandoned to the Dervishes, though General Earle gained a brilliant victory over the rebels at **Kirbekan**, and General Graham again defeated Osman Digna at **Hasheen**.

The attempt to recover the Soudan for civilization was not renewed till 1896. In that year **Sir H. Kitchener**, the **Sirdar**, began those preparations which resulted in the defeat, in 1898, of the Khalifa's general at the **Atbara**, and the overthrow of the Khalifa himself at **Omdurman**.

A war with France seemed likely to result from the seizure of Fashoda by the French officer Marchand, but matters were otherwise arranged. In 1898 **Sir R. Wingate** destroyed the rest of the Khalifa's force at **Omdebrikat**.

THE DEATH OF QUEEN VICTORIA

Among all classes of her subjects, in all parts of her world-wide empire, the news of Queen Victoria's death on the 22nd January, 1901, was received with profound sorrow. Nor was the sorrow confined to her subjects. Throughout the civilized world the peoples vied with each other in their professions of regret for the queen's death, and of sympathy with the people of Britain in their sore bereavement. Never was the sorrow of Britain more universal, and never had that esteem and love, which prompted the display of feeling, been better deserved. Whether regarded as a ruler, or merely as a woman, the queen had so acted as to secure universal respect; and by her unflinching adherence to duty and her unshrinking sacrifice of personal wishes and inclinations to the public welfare, had set an example which it would be well if all rulers imitated. During her long reign great changes had taken place in the extent and resources of the empire, and great improvements had been introduced into the life of the masses of the numerous races over which she ruled.

One of the most pleasing features of her long and prosperous reign was the steady growth in the colonies of the **sentiment of loyalty** to the empire.

THE ACCESSION OF EDWARD VII

King Edward's messages to his people on his accession to the throne were models of statesmanship and right feeling, and the country was greatly distressed when, on account of illness, the **Coronation** had to be put off. Before the Coronation, peace had been concluded with the Boers, and the **Transvaal** and the **Orange Free State** had become parts of the British Empire. The tact and kindliness of **Lord Kitchener**, and the visit of **Mr. Chamberlain**, the Colonial Secretary, did much to allay the race feeling roused by the struggle in South Africa. An alliance between Britain and Japan enabled the latter to engage successfully in a war against Russian aggression in the East.

The Peacemaker.—King Edward's personal influence was so great and was so uniformly exercised in promoting peace and goodwill among the nations, that he was called the **Peacemaker.** Through his influence arbitration treaties were entered into with France and other countries, including the United States and Germany.

The Constitutional Struggle.—The Nonconformists in Britain were offended by a measure passed by the **Conservative Government** placing voluntary schools on the rates, and when in 1906 the Liberals secured a great majority in the Commons, one of their first measures was to introduce a bill practically abolishing voluntary schools. This bill was amended in the Lords; but the Commons rejected the amendments, so the bill was dropped. To meet the expenses of the Old Age Pensions Bill and of other measures, a Budget was produced in 1909 which the Lords thought introduced such contentious matter that they rejected it.

The Veto Resolutions.—On an appeal to the country the Liberals again secured a majority, and one of their first measures was the introduction of resolutions against the veto of the House of Lords. While these resolutions were being discussed, King Edward, to the grief of his people, died.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN KING EDWARD'S REIGN

One of the first uses the new South African Colonies made of the self-government granted them was to hold a Closer Union

Convention. As a result of this **The Union of South Africa** was formed in 1910. During the reign the progress of the Commonwealth of Australia was steady. So also was that of New Zealand, which was formed into a **Dominion** in 1907. The prosperity of the older **Dominion, Canada,** during this reign was wonderful. The North-West was opened up, and Canada began to show how boundless its resources were. Its population during the ten years of the King's reign increased by more than a half.

India.—While the story of India was also one of steady material progress, the state of affairs was marred by discontent fomented by unscrupulous politicians and journalists in India and at home. Notwithstanding the discontent in Bengal and elsewhere, many measures were taken to improve the condition of the people and to prevent the recurrence of famine.

ACCESSION OF GEORGE V

King Edward died in 1910 and was succeeded by his son, who took the title of George V. His declaration on his accession showed that he was a worthy successor of his father. To remove a cause of Roman Catholic discontent, the form of the declaration which it had been the habit of British sovereigns to make when they ascended the throne was altered.

New Parliament.—A conference on the Veto resolutions was held between representatives of the two parties, but after meeting for several months it was unable to come to an agreement, so the parliament was dissolved. The Liberals and other supporters of the government had again a majority, and one of the first uses they made of it was to introduce the **Parliament Bill.** This measure, according to some, virtually abolished the House of Lords. The bill was amended in the Lords, but the government refused to accept the amendments, and threatened to overcome the opposition in the Lords by the creation of new peers.

The Coronation.—Amid scenes of almost unimaginable splendour and impressiveness, the coronation of the King and Queen took place on June 22nd, 1911. Afterwards Their Majesties visited Ireland, Wales, and Scotland, to the great satisfaction of their subjects in these countries.

Strained Relations.—The coronation year saw Europe threatened with a general war on account of the action of Germany in Morocco, and the following year saw a war between Italy and Turkey in which the former acquired Tripoli. The end of 1912 saw the Turks attacked by the Balkan Confederacy and stripped of most of their possessions in Europe; while in 1913 Bulgaria was deprived by Serbia and Greece of a considerable portion of the territories she had won. The murder of an Austrian Archduke at Serajevo, in Bosnia, in July, 1914, was made the plea for an Austrian ultimatum to Serbia which led to the Great War.

The Invasion of Belgium and France.—War was declared on Russia on the last day of July, and on the 1st of August on France. Luxemburg and Belgium were invaded on the 2nd of August, and Britain found herself forced to declare war on Germany on the 4th of that month. For eleven days the forts round Liége held out, but those of Namur were reduced in two, and the Germans in overwhelming force poured through Belgium and through northern France, driving the French armies and the British expeditionary force before them. This so-called Mons retreat continued till the Germans crossed the Marne.

Then the retreating forces turned and drove back the enemy across the Marne (6th to 10th September). The Germans continued, however, to force their way through Belgium till they reached the coast, but all their efforts to capture Dunkirk and the Channel ports failed, as did their efforts in October and November to break through the British lines at Ypres. These were resumed in April the following year, but without success.

The Russians, who had invaded East Prussia, were defeated in the battle of Tannenberg, and the Germans invaded Russia. The commerce-raiders, like the *Emden*, were sunk or captured, and the strong German Pacific Squadron was destroyed in the battle of the Falkland Islands. The *Lusitania* was sunk by a submarine off the coast of Ireland on the 15th of May, 1915, sending a thrill of horror throughout the world, and rousing against Germany the hatred of mankind. Italy joined the triple entente and attacked the Austrians, thereby relieving the pressure on Russia.

The Attempt on Verdun.—The Crown Prince of Prussia attacked the fortifications round Verdun in February, 1916. The

attack, or as it was called the "Battle of Verdun", continued for months, and only came to an end through sheer exhaustion on the part of the Germans. The same year saw the meeting of the British and German fleets in the battle of Jutland, and the death of Lord Kitchener, who was on his way to Russia to give his advice and help. It saw also the entrance of Rumania into the struggle, and the fall of the Asquith Coalition Government.

Entrance of America into the War.—After many considerable successes against both the Germans and the Austrians, the Russians had suffered several crushing defeats, and in 1917 may be said, like Rumania, to have fallen out of the war. Enraged by the action of Germany in sinking her ships on sight, and paying no attention to her protests, the United States declared war on Germany in 1917.

Russia after her defeats at Baronovitchi and elsewhere in the spring of 1917, had to submit to the terms imposed upon her by the treaty of Brest Litovsk.

The Central Position. — The great advantage of the central position held by Germany and Austria was now shown. A German-Austrian force was concentrated against Italy, and the Italians were driven back to the line of the Piave, where, helped by British and French forces, they made a determined stand. Their losses had been immense. A similar concentration was adopted on the Western Front, where the British and French were attacked in overwhelming force, and driven back even beyond the positions they had held in 1914. The German advance continued from March to July, when Foch took up the offensive. They were then driven back, and by the middle of October were forced to abandon the Belgian coast. Bulgaria had been driven to unconditional surrender in the beginning of October, 1918. Turkey towards the end of the same month had submitted, while Austria had accepted the terms imposed on the 3rd of November. On the 11th of November the Germans accepted the Armistice terms, and on the 28th of June, 1919, signed the Peace terms in Paris.