CUSACK'S

THREE HUNDRED YEARS' GROWTH

OF THE

BRITISH EMPIRE,

1558-1858.

BY

PERCY W. RYDE, F.R.G.S.,

LECTURER ON GEOGRAPHY AT THE DAY TRAINING COLLEGE, MOORFIELDS, E.C.

Author of Cusack's "Map Drawing," "Reign of Queen Elizabeth," "Historical Geography of Europe," &c.

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PREFACE.

This little book has been compiled to assist Pupil Teachers in the study of the Special Period prescribed in History for the Queen's Scholarship Examination, December, 1900.

The text is mainly based upon the following authorities: Reclus' "Universal Geography"; The Historical articles in Fullarton's "Gazetteer"; the "Official Publications" of the Colonial and Indian Exhibition held in London in 1886; Haydn's "Dictionary of Dates"; Dr. Bright's "History of England"; and Mr. Justin McCarthy's "History of Our Own Times."

It will be noticed that the book has been planned so that the chapters cover well-marked Historical periods, and yet the story of a particular important country may be followed throughout the book. Thus the rise of the British power in India is treated in Chapters VIII., XII. and XV.; the story of Canada is traced in Chapters IV., VI., VII. and XIII., and so forth. The student is advised to make frequent use of the Chronological Table and of the Index, as references to the smaller colonies and possessions occur at different periods.

The maps are not intended as a complete illustration of the text. Every Scholarship student has an atlas wherein modern names may be easily located; thus it has only been considered necessary to illustrate those portions of the text which deal with important boundaries of former days, and to supply some names not generally found upon school maps of the present time.

I have again to acknowledge the ever-ready and valuable help given me by Professor Cusack in the design of the book, and in the correction of the proofs.

P. W. R.

Moorfields, E.C.,

November 1*st*, 1899.

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THREE HUNDRED YEARS' GROWTH

OF THE

BRITISH EMPIRE.

1558—1858.

CHAPTER I.

The English as Colonists.

A Contrast.—In 1558, when our period opens, the only foreign possession belonging to England was Newfoundland, and that island was of very little service to us. Colonisation had not been attempted, indeed the only value of Newfoundland was as a fishing station, and even in the fishing industry England was outpaced by France and Spain. In 1580 it is recorded that there were 150 French, 100 Spanish, 50 Portuguese, and only 35 English vessels engaged in the Newfoundland fishery. The area of the island, upon which the first settlements were founded by Sir Humphrey Gilbert in 1583, was 40,200 square miles.

In 1858, when our period closes, our foreign possessions covered an area of upwards of 7,780,000 square miles, and contained a population of 230,000,000 people.

The story of these Three Hundred Years of colonial growth is an interesting one, and it will be well to notify first some traits of English character which have made it possible to carry out the work, a work which commenced with a fog-girt island in the North Atlantic and culminated in an Empire upon which the sun never sets.

National Characteristics.—Much may be gathered from the succeeding paragraphs as to the national character which fits the Englishman to become a colonist. The following is the estimate which the greatest of French geographers has formed of us—"Englishmen learn to depend upon themselves on every occasion. They brave disease, fatigue and danger; dread neither high winds, cold, nor heat; and though left alone on the ocean, or in the desert, are inflexible in the attainment of their purpose, regretting neither parents, friends, nor the easy life of large towns, as long as their work is unaccomplished."

Growth of our Colonies. — The following are the chief causes which have contributed to the foundation and growth of our Colonial Empire.

1. *Desire of Conquest, Territory and Wealth.*—The Anglo-Saxon was always prone towards fighting, and of the Englishman, Reclus says—

> "He loves fighting for fighting's sake, but he loves it still more because of the advantages that may be derived from it. A barren victory in mere satisfaction of his vanity does not content him, for he always aims at conquest."

Such possessions as Quebec, Jamaica, Gibraltar, Malta, and some portions of India have been gained under this cause.

2. *The Requirements of Commerce.*—The establishment of Chartered Companies, such as the East India Company and the Hudson Bay Company, has greatly extended our foreign trade, and the erection of fortified stations, to protect the trade centres and trade routes, has largely increased our colonial power. Parts of India, North America and New Zealand, the last by purchase, fall under this heading.
3. *Love of Adventure.*—Although the lead was taken by Genoese, Portuguese and Spaniards, Englishmen were not slow to find out new ocean routes for themselves, and by their bravery and audacity they soon distanced all rivals. Virginia, Newfoundland, some West Indian Islands, and many parts of Africa came to be ours owing to this daring spirit.

4. *Political, Civil and Religious Dissensions.*—The Briton values his freedom of thought, and when the laws endeavour to take this freedom from him, he frequently seeks a new land where he may dwell in peace. In their turn Royalist and Republican, Catholic and Puritan turned their faces towards North America and founded what now constitutes the United States.
5. *Transportation.*—The story of the exportation of convicts to Australia and Tasmania is dealt with in Chapters X. and XVII.
6. *Emigration.*—This has been much encouraged by our Government. The population of the mother country has at times increased in a greater ratio than have the means of subsistence. Emigration is then a relief to super-abundant population and therefore benefits both the colony and the mother country.

"Whilst artizans and labourers expatriate themselves, because in another hemisphere they hope to acquire the comforts and independence they lack at home, there are also thousands of the younger sons of the better classes whom no responsibilities tie to the land of their birth, and who are at all times ready to change their place of abode."

"There was very little emigration from the United Kingdom previous to 1815, in which year the number of emigrants was no more than 2,081. Up to the year 1834 the main stream was towards the North American Colonies (Canada), but from 1835 the chief current set in towards the United States and kept on gradually increasing in force."—*Statesman's Year Book.*

In 1834 the number of British emigrants was 368,764, but in 1858 it had fallen to 113,972.

7. *Spread of Religion.*—Missionaries have been the pioneers in New Zealand and in many parts of Africa, but their best work has taken place subsequently to the period we are now considering.

Treatment of Native Races.—It has been said that wherever the English appear the days of the native peoples

are numbered. This is very severe, but it is to some extent true. It is true that the Red Indian has been badly treated, that the native race of Australia is becoming extinct, and that even the noble Maories are decreasing in numbers; but we should judge the English nation according to the varying spirit of the age, and by comparison with other nations. England was the first of civilized powers to treat native races with justice. The negroes owe more to the English than to all other civilized peoples. England, as "mistress of the seas," abolished the slave trade in 1807, and followed this up in 1833 by an Act of Parliament which came into force in the following year, and set free all slaves in British possessions and paid compensation to their owners. In every country under our rule we now treat the native fairly, and endeavour to make him self-supporting, better educated, and a Christian.

Methods of Government.—The idea no longer obtains that the colonies exist for the sole benefit of the mother country, and as soon as the colony is able to manage for itself, the advantages of Home Rule are granted to it. Thus there are three grades of colonial government:—

1. *Crown Colonies*, in which the Crown has entire control of legislation, while the administration is carried on by public officers under the control of the Home Government.
2. *Representative Institutions*, in which a part only of the members of the legislature are elected by the people of the colony, the remainder being nominated by the Crown, and the Home Government retains the control of public officers.
3. *Responsible Government*, in which the Crown has only a veto on legislation, and the Home Government has no control over any public officer except the Governor.

Value of our Colonies to us. With so much freedom of self-government, including power of legislation, it might be thought that the tie binding the colony to the mother country was very slight and in danger of breaking, but as we protect and guard the colonies our value to them is great and their value to us is threefold:—

1. *Commercial.* The colonies send us abundance of raw material and food stuffs, and they are the best markets for our manufactures. "Colonial trade is better and safer than foreign trade."
2. *Social.* The colonies extend the influence of British manners, laws, customs and language, thus paving the way for greatly extended markets for British produce.
3. *Political.* The colonies help Great Britain to become the greatest of political powers, and a completed scheme of Imperial British Federation would be a guarantee for the peace of the world.

In the chapters which follow we shall see the English as hardy sailors, the rivals of Spain, eager to estab ish power and gain wealth, but not in the early days showing much success as settlers. Then the home troubles of the Stuart period cause a lull in daring foreign enterprise, but send many forth to find a home beyond the seas. Emerging from her domestic troubles, England appears as the enemy of France, and in all parts of the world England and France are seen contending for colonial empire, to the ultimate victory of the former. From being traders in India the force of circumstances made us owners of the land, and we shall trace the steps by which this Indian Empire was built up; finally we shall see Australia advancing from the convict-gloom of her early years and becoming one of our most prosperous colonies.

CHAPTER II.

Early Exploration and Settlement in America.

(Earliest Times to 1603.)

As the continent of America plays such an important part in the story which we have to tell, it will be well to commence *before* the opening of our period (1558–1858), and trace very briefly the rise of European settlements in that continent.

Norse Discoveries.—Although the phrase "Columbus discovered America" is familiar to every one, it is now known that America was discovered by Europeans long before the time of that brave navigator. Passing by a number of legends about early voyages, the first authentic documents dealing with the existence of a new world date back to the 9th century. "Even in Italy itself, jealous of the fame of Columbus and Amerigo Vespucci, no writer any longer doubts that North America was discovered by the Norse seafarers."—(*Reclus.*)

Towards the end of the 8th century the Norse mariners were familiar with, and had settlements upon, Shetland, Orkney, the Faroë Islands, and Iceland, and rumours had been brought of lands still further west. In 982, Erik the Red, banished from Iceland for murder, reached a place called Hvarf, which was probably in the south of Greenland. From that time Greenland always had inhabitants of European origin, indeed, the See of Greenland became tributary to Rome and paid "Peter's Pence" in furs and walrus ivory. The Norwegian hold upon its distant colony was not, however, a firm one, and during the 11th and 12th centuries intercourse became less frequent, until the colonies were practically forgotten.

Mention should be made of the voyage of Leif, son of Erik, about the year 1000. He visited *Markland* which is probably Acadia or Nova Scotia, and even went far enough south to find the wild vine. The country which he called *Vineland* is thought by some to be Rhode Island, but others locate it in Nova Scotia or New Brunswick.

"The memory of these early expeditions appears never to have been entirely lost, but to have become intermingled with traditions of diverse origin."—(*Reclus.*)

Columbus.—Upon the well-known exploits of Christopher Columbus whilst in the employ of the King of Spain, it is not necessary here to dwell. He was a most daring and most successful man, and the date of his landing upon Watling Island, 1492, is the parting between two eras of human progress. It was during the third voyage of Columbus, in 1498, that he reached the mainland near the Orinoco delta, planting there the Spanish standard as he had already done in the West Indian Islands.

The Cabots.—While Columbus was crossing the central Atlantic, another Genoese navigator, John Cabot, in the pay of Henry VII. of England, was voyaging in the north Atlantic. In 1491, 1492, and 1494 he made expeditions to the western seas and on May 2nd, 1497, he set sail in the ship *Matthew* from Bristol upon his famous voyage in which he visited the north-east shores of America and discovered *Newfoundland*, which thus ranks as the earliest of our foreign possessions.*

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* The accounts of the voyages of John Cabot were written by his son, Sebastian Cabot, but it has been proved that many of Sebastian's stories are untrue and that he endeavoured to appropriate for himself some of his father's renown.

"The assertion of Sebastian Cabot that there were plenty of white bears on Cape Breton island, and his ignorance of the coast line of Newfoundland, show that his statements are inaccurate and careless versions of what he had heard, and that he was not himself on board the *Matthew*." "It is very doubtful whether Sebastian Cabot accompanied his father on either of his voyages." "Sebastian Cabot was born in Venice, yet for centuries he has robbed his father of his fame as a great discoverer, and has been lauded to the skies as an Englishman, born in Bristol, who discovered North America and was the founder of our maritime greatness." (Sir Clements Markham, President Royal Geographical Society. See Geographical Journal, June, 1897.)

Further Spanish Discoveries.—In the early years of the 16th century the work of exploration went on, but it was not carried out with any regard to system, for the Spanish objects were not settlement and civilization, but conquest and plunder. The leaders sought for seas abounding in pearls, and lands rich in gold and slaves.

The principal items of discovery were as follows:—In 1499 Amerigo Vespucci visited the north-east shores of South America and ultimately gave his name to the whole continent; in 1513 Nunez de Balboa (Bilbao) crossed the Isthmus of Darien and first saw the Pacific, of which ocean he formally took possession in the name of the King of Spain; in the period 1518–1528 Cortez conquered Mexico, which was held by Spain for 300 years; in 1520 Fernando Magalhaens (Magellan) a Portuguese in Spanish employ, discovered the strait which bears his name, and thus found a sea route to the Pacific; in 1524 Pizarro journeyed southward from Darien and discovered Peru and all its wealth of silver.

French Discoveries and Settlements.—In North America the chief share in the work of discovery was borne by French travellers. The French were first attracted by the wealth of the fisheries, and as early as 1517 they were fishing off Newfoundland. In 1523, Francis I. sent out a Florentine navigator, Verazzano, who boldly set up a claim to the country previously visited by Cabot, under the name of "La Nouvelle France."

In 1535 Jacques Cartier entered the mouth of the river St. Lawrence and reached as far as Montreal (then an Indian town called Hochelaga) naming several prominent points which he passed, and claiming all the district as French territory. At first the Indians were inclined to be friendly, but finding that they could not always trust the new comers they became bitter enemies, and the subsequent attempts of the French, down to about 1550, were opposed by the Indians and rendered difficult by the severe winters.

In 1598 an attempt was made by the French to use Canada as a penal settlement, and 40 convicts were sent out, but the scheme was an entire failure, and by 1603 "the small remnant of the French in Canada were dependent on the natives for their very existence." (For continuation of the French story see Chapter IV.)

English Discoveries and Settlements.—For many years following the voyage of John Cabot, which gave us Newfoundland, home affairs took up the attention of the Government and absorbed the minds of leading Englishmen, but in 1553 Sir Hugh Willoughby sailed in the *Bona Speranza* with 140 men upon a voyage of discovery; unfortunately he was cast away and lost in the White Sea.

In 1570 Drake commenced his series of marauding voyages which did so much to enrich England at the expense of Spain.

The problem of a *North West Passage* to China and India had long been discussed in England; it was thought that it would be a useful alternative to the Portuguese route by the Cape of Good Hope. The first attempt to solve this problem was made by Martin Frobisher in 1576; he reached the bay which now bears his name and returned home laden with what he thought was a quantity of gold ore, but the rocks turned out to be valueless. John Davis reached Davis Strait in 1585, and Hudson (1610) and Baffin (1616) carried on the work, but the North West passage was not discovered until the McClure expedition in 1853, though it is probable that Sir John Franklin had proved the existence of the passage before he died.

Returning to the sixteenth century we have to note a voyage of Sir Humphrey Gilbert in 1578 and another in 1583, when he visited Newfoundland and under orders from Queen Elizabeth proclaimed her sovereignty there and made several grants of land in return for rents and services. During the return voyage the *Squirrel*, with Sir Humphrey on board, was lost in a storm.

Although the English Government claimed by virtue of the discoveries of Cabot (see page 7) all the coast lands, at present comprised within the eastern United States, this claim remained unsupported for nearly a century, that is until the first attempt of Sir Walter Raleigh to plant a colony in *Virginia* in 1585. He had received a patent from Elizabeth to "appropriate, plant, and govern any territories he might acquire" but the hostility of the natives made the settlers re-embark and return home in 1586. In 1587 Raleigh made another attempt and landed at Roanoke Island in North Carolina, but the failure was still more

pronounced and many of the settlers lost their lives. He made one other attempt in South America in 1595, but this also had a disastrous ending.

African Trade Established.

Very little occurred outside North America in our colonial expansion previous to 1603. The French had carried on a trade with the West Coast of Africa since the middle of the 14th century, and about the year 1550 English trade was established with the *Gold Coast*, and in 1588 a party of Exeter merchants obtained a charter to trade with *Gambia*. In the same year Captain Cavendish called at the island of *St. Helena* to refresh his crew, on his return from his voyage round the world, but in neither case could we claim these places as English possessions.

The British Empire, 1558–1603.—It will be seen from the above that previous to 1558 our only foreign possession was *Newfoundland*, our claim to this island was by discovery, and it may here be noted that the fishing population was French rather than English.

Down to 1603 the Empire had made little or no progress, the attempts to plant colonies in *Virginia* having ended in failure.

Some trade had been established with the West Coast of *Africa*.

CHAPTER III.

English America in the Stuart Period: 1603–1702.

Leaving for awhile the progress made by other nations, it will be instructive to trace the establishment of our first group of true colonies, which colonies, however, we no longer possess, as they form the nucleus of the present-day United States of America.

Reign of James I.: 1603–1625.

Settlement of Virginia, 1607.—In 1606 James I. granted a charter to the London and South Virginia Company to carry on and complete the work attempted by Raleigh. The Company sent out three ships with 105 men under the leadership of Wingfield. The men landed in the estuary of the James River, Virginia, and established Jamestown. At first, progress was very slow, but after the introduction of tobacco cultivation in 1619 the era of prosperity commenced. At the time of the civil war in England, Virginia received a great influx of aristocrats who formed the "first families of Virginia" and gave a high social tone to this colony. Negro slaves were introduced in 1620.

Settlement of Massachusetts, 1620.—The Puritans in England were very dissatisfied with the religious laws under which they lived, and in 1608 a party of them left Scrooby, in Nottingham, and emigrated to Holland. Feeling that on Dutch soil their nationality would not be permanently preserved they determined to proceed to

America. In 1620 they crossed from Holland to Southampton, in the *Speedwell*, where they joined another company of Puritans in the *Mayflower*. At Plymouth the *Speedwell* was left behind, and the "Pilgrim Fathers," as they are called, crossed the Atlantic in the *Mayflower*, and landed near Cape Cod, in November, 1620. The party consisted of 102 persons, of whom 41 were men. John Carver was appointed their governor, and they formed their settlement at New Plymouth. Nine years later, 300 other Puritans arrived, and thus the new colony commenced to grow. Although these emigrants had fled from religious intolerance, they were themselves most intolerant, and bitter persecutions caused many of their number to seek new homes in other districts. Their penal code was terribly severe.

New Jersey, 1620.—The present state of New Jersey had its first settlements at Bergen. The original colonists were mainly Quakers, who sought a greater degree of religious liberty than was allowed them in the Puritan state of Massachusetts.

Maine, 1622.—The present state of Maine was first occupied by English settlers at Saco, in 1622; although Maine was one of the New England states, it was not one of the Thirteen States which gained their independence in 1783, indeed it was not admitted to the United States until 1820.

New Hampshire, 1623, was, like New Jersey, peopled by those who were dissatisfied with the severities of Puritan rule. The first settlements were made at Dover in 1623.

Turning for a moment from the mainland, we notice the efforts of Lord Baltimore to plant a colony in *Newfoundland* in 1624. Lord Baltimore proceeded to that island with men, money, and implements, and established a settlement at Avalon, but fearing that the expected war between France and England would be a great danger to the young colony, he proceeded to the mainland, where he afterwards founded Maryland.

Reign of Charles I.: 1625–1649.

Foundation of Maryland, 1632.—This district was granted by Charles I. to Lord Baltimore, and it was named by him Maryland in honour of Henrietta Maria, wife of Charles I. The earliest settlements were made at St. Mary's, and the chief commercial town, Baltimore, is named after the founder. Lord Baltimore was a Catholic, but the state allowed liberty of conscience to all. Maryland was the state most sought by Catholic refugees from England.

Settlement of Connecticut, 1635.—A party of Puritans left Massachusetts and proceeded to Hartford in 1635. They were the democratic portion of the original settlers, and had to fight hard for their new lands against the Pequot Indians in 1637.

Rhode Island, 1636.—Under the leadership of Roger Williams the town of Providence was founded in 1636; this state also was an off-shoot of Massachusetts.

No new English States were founded in America during the time of the Commonwealth.

Reign of Charles II.: 1660–1685.

Settlement of North Carolina, 1663.—We have seen that Raleigh had attempted, and failed, to establish a colony at Roanoke Island (page 9), and Charles I. had made a grant of all lands between 30° and 36° N. to Sir Robert Heath, but no successful colonisation took place until 1663, when a further grant by Charles II. caused a settlement at Albemarle. The name Carolina was in use before the time of the English Charles, as it had been given by a party of French Protestants in 1562 in honour of Charles IX.

Conquest of New York, 1664.—In 1614 the Dutch had established a trading depôt at Albany and there were many Dutch and Swedish colonists settled on the east coast of America. Their chief settlement was New Amsterdam,

which they founded in 1622. During the Dutch War of 1664–1667 we captured New Amsterdam in 1664 and changed its name to New York in honour of James Duke of York.

Acquisition of Delaware, 1664.—The first white settlements in Delaware were made by Swedes at Wilmington, in 1638, and the territory was acquired by the Dutch in 1655. After the conquest of New York, Delaware passed with it into English hands.

Pennsylvania, 1664.—This state was, like Delaware, first colonised (at Chester, in 1638) by the Swedes, and it was taken by the Dutch in 1655. It passed with Delaware in 1664 into English hands, and was granted in 1681 by Charles II. to William Penn, a Quaker.

South Carolina, 1680.—This state had been included in the grants made by Charles I. and Charles II. (see North Carolina, above). In 1680 William Sayle landed near Port Royal and chose the site of Charleston. The two Carolinas were governed under a constitution drawn up by Locke and Shaftesbury.

We have now seen the foundation of thirteen states in America, and it has been noted that Maine did not form one of the "Rebellious Thirteen"; the vacant place is taken by Georgia, which was settled in 1733 (see page 93).

Settlements were made in the state of Vermont in 1725, but this state was not admitted to the Union until 1791.

New England States.—When, in later years, this term came into general use it included six states: Massachusetts, Maine, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island and Vermont. But of these only the first five existed in the Stuart Period.

Progress.—The planting of these thirteen colonies was the great geographical work of the 17th century, and the work was performed slowly, toilsomely, yet effectively. The work could hardly be said at the time to prosper in any of its parts. It yielded no return for the capital invested. The political relations of the colonies with their neighbours, from the first, were those of encroachment and

resistance. There was conflict with the savages, war with the French and Spaniards, jarring and feuds between neighbouring colonies, persecution of dissenting individuals and sects, perpetual discords with the Crown and with the proprietary companies. Yet feeble germs of settlement grew to be powerful colonies, and habits of civil government rooted themselves in a soil that was continually stirred.

Population.—In 1630 the number of English colonists in North America did not exceed 4,000; in 1660 it was not less than 80,000; in 1701 the population of these colonies is estimated to have been 262,000.

Government.—There was no uniformity of government throughout the American colonies, but three main divisions may be traced:—

1. The New England states held charters which enabled them to choose their own governors and to make their own laws.
2. Virginia and New York were "Royal Governments" in which the governors and councils were appointed by the Crown.
3. The remainder were proprietary states under individuals or companies to whom grants of land had been made with power to establish civil government and to make laws.

While the colonies were poor they were much neglected by the mother country, and the colonists enjoyed considerable freedom in trade. It was the attempt of England to change these conditions which led to the secession in the 18th century. (See Chapter IX.)

Newfoundland.—After Lord Baltimore left in 1628 this island saw little prosperity. A fresh party of colonists arrived in 1634, but met with a poor reception from the residents, and there were also constant quarrels between the merchants and the fishermen. The island was subject to constant attacks from the French settlers of Acadia, or Nova Scotia as it is now called, and these became more severe when, on the accession of William III., war broke out between England and France. In 1694 an attempt was made to drive the English out of Newfoundland, but though this

was not successful, St. John's was captured and the district around was devastated. The Treaty of Ryswick restored the English to their capital, but left the French in possession of Placentia, and also sanctioned their claims to participate in the fishery.

Note on African Trade: 1603–1702.

James I. encouraged the trade on the Gold Coast. In 1662 The Royal Company of Adventurers was formed to develop this trade, and during the Dutch War we captured *Cape Coast Castle* (1665) which formed a valuable trading base. The Royal African Company was founded in 1672 for a similar purpose.

CHAPTER IV.

Canada: 1608–1702.

Canada was not a British colony during the 17th century, but it will be instructive to briefly trace its history, as opportunity will be afforded of mentioning the earliest struggles for supremacy between the French and English in that part of North America.

Champlain.—Samuel de Champlain was a French naval officer who had served under King Henry of Navarre in the French wars. He was a man of enterprise and ability, and visiting Canada, or New France as it was then called, he discovered the lake which bears his name, and founded the city of Quebec, in 1608. At this time a war was going on between the Iroquois Indians and the Hurons. Champlain somewhat inconsiderately sided with the latter, and thus raised up in the Iroquois an enemy of whose power and ferocity he was little aware, and whose rooted hostility proved a most formidable obstruction in the future prosperity of the French colony. Champlain had always the desire to convert the Indians to Christianity, and he introduced several missions into Canada: at this time general zeal for the Christian instruction of the Indians was excited throughout France, and many individuals of rank and property devoted their lives and fortunes to the cause.

Conflict with the English.—The first of the long series of struggles between the French and the English occurred at Frenchman's Bay, in what is now the state of Maine, in 1613. A Jesuit mission station was attacked by

a British ship from Virginia under the plea that the settlement was upon British territory. The mission station was destroyed, and in 1614 it was abandoned by the French.

Inland Discoveries.—In one of the Huron raids upon the Iroquois, Champlain, still aiding the Hurons, performed a long and perilous journey, during which he visited the river Ottawa, Lake Nipissing, Georgian Bay, Lake Huron, and Lake Ontario. The raid was a failure and Champlain returned to Quebec, which city he commenced to strengthen and fortify.

In 1640 Brebent discovered the Falls of Niagara and traversed Lake Erie. In 1660 Mesnard crossed the Sault St. Mary and proceeded along the South shores of Lake Superior, and the travellers Jolliet and Marquette reached the Upper Mississippi in 1675.

Cardinal Richelieu and Charles I.—In 1627 Richelieu put the colony of New France under the management of a chartered company called the "Company of the Hundred Associates." The company possessed exclusive trading privileges upon condition that they should exclude all Huguenots from their dominions, which were to extend from Florida to Hudson Bay.

About the same time Charles I. of England renewed a patent, previously granted by James I. to the Plymouth Company, conferring all lands between 40° and 48° N. lat. upon Sir William Alexander, and soon afterwards Charles I. founded the Order of "Nova Scotia Baronets" consisting of 150 persons, who were to receive lands in "New Scotland."

Thus it happened that precisely the same territory, called by the French Acadia, and by the English Nova Scotia, had been disposed of by two rival grants, and this rivalry was soon to take a more acute phase by reason of the war between France and England in 1628.

First Capture of Quebec.—In 1628 three English ships, under the command of Sir David Kirk, appeared before Quebec, and at last compelled the French, under Champlain, to capitulate in 1629. Acadia and Cape Breton next submitted to the English, but all these colonies were restored to France by the Treaty of St. Germains in 1632. Champlain died on Christmas Day, 1635.

Foundation of Montreal.—Although the number of French in Canada was small and the trade unimportant, the religious zeal of the French was fervent. "An association called the 'Association of Nôtre Dame de Montreal' was formed, a grant of the island was obtained, and on the 17th of May, 1642, the little company composing the mission, with prayer and thanksgiving, commenced the settlement which is now the flourishing city of Montreal." In almost every Indian town within reach a mission was established, though ever and anon a community was surprised by the war-whoop of the Iroquois, followed by a massacre which spared neither sex, age, nor infancy.

Capture of Nova Scotia by the English.—In 1656 Cromwell sent an expedition under Colonel Sedgwick to Acadia (Nova Scotia), the French forts were soon captured, and for eleven years the colony was governed by the English, but in 1667 the Treaty of Breda restored it to France.

Hudson Bay Company.—The Hudson Bay Company obtained a charter from the English Crown for exclusive trading in 1670. Their forts were frequently attacked by the French, and were quite destroyed in 1686 and again in 1782.*

Character of the French Government. — The Company of the Hundred Associates made a voluntary surrender of its rights to the French king in 1664, and the government being remodelled, forts were built to protect the traders, and reinforcements both in troops and colonists sent from France. But the prosperity of the colony was cramped by monopolies and unjust laws, and the condition of the French colonists contrasted so unfavourably with that of the residents in the New England States that many Frenchmen took refuge in the English settlements, where they had a much better prospect of security and prosperity.

French Explorations.—The French missionaries penetrated far into the Canadian forests, but perhaps the most striking journey was that of La Salle in 1682. Striking south-westward from the great lakes he reached

* The Hudson Bay Company's licence expired in 1859, but a new company was formed without charter in 1863.

the Mississippi, and passing down that river by means of canoes, he and his party reached the Gulf of Mexico. He proclaimed the sovereignty of France over all that vast territory reaching from the Alleghanies to the Rocky Mountains, only he had no exact idea as to how large the territory really was.

Wars with the Indians.—From 1680 to 1689 France was engaged in a deadly struggle with the Iroquois. Terrible deeds of violence were perpetrated on both sides, which culminated in the massacre of Lachine in 1689, when the Iroquois butchered the entire settlement at Montreal, and New France was practically reduced to a few forts, of which Quebec and Three Rivers were the chief.

Frontenac.—The Count de Frontenac, who had previously seen service in Canada, was next sent out as governor; his policy was to treat the Indians with kindness, and to employ them in raids upon the English settlements. The Iroquois were not, however, satisfied, and their risings, together with the English reprisals, called for all the resistance Frontenac was able to make. Sir William Phips came from Massachusetts and captured Acadia, but failed in an attack upon Quebec. During the years 1695-6 Frontenac made many attempts to subdue the Iroquois, and in 1697 he was successful in his attacks on British forts both in Newfoundland and by Hudson Bay, but the Treaty of Ryswick in 1697 directed that the conquests upon each side should be restored, and thus for a time the country had peace.

CHAPTER V.

The West Indies in the Stuart Period: 1603–1702.

Origin of the Term.—When Columbus reached what is now called Watling Island, in 1492, he thought that he had nearly sailed round the globe and was approaching the shores of India, thus the name "West Indies," was erroneously given to his discoveries, a name which has been a source of confusion ever since.

Extent of the West Indies.—This term formerly included not only the islands off the Gulf of Mexico, but also all the countries along the shores of the continent which were Spanish colonies and which constituted the Spanish Main. But at present the term is restricted, so as to signify only the islands between lat. 10° and 27° N. and long. 60° and 85° W.

The British West Indies.—At the present time we own the following islands in the West Indies:—

1. The *Bahamas.*
2. *Jamaica.*
3. Several islands in the Lesser Antilles:—
   - *a.* In the *Leeward Islands*: Virgin Island, Anguilla, Barbuda, St. Kitts, Nevis, Antigua, Montserrat, Dominica.
   - *b.* In the *Windward Islands:* St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Grenada.
   - *c.* In the *Venezuela Coast Islands:* Barbadoes, Tobago, Trinidad.

These islands have been mentioned in their geographical order from north to south, so that they may be easily located upon the map, but in the following paragraphs the

historical order of acquisition is followed. It will be noticed that almost all of our West Indian possessions were acquired during the Stuart Period.

Early History of the West Indies.—When Columbus visited the West Indies in his voyages of 1492-3-4, he found these islands occupied by a red-skinned people called Caribs, and although the Spaniards made many promises of protection to the Caribs these promises were not kept, and the usual consequence of Spanish rule, the extinction of the native race, soon commenced. To compensate for this loss of native labour the Spaniards introduced negro slaves from Africa in 1525, thus laying the foundations of the slave trade, which lasted down to the nineteenth century. There was but one English attack upon the West Indies previous to the Stuart Period, and that was in 1595, when Sir Walter Raleigh made an unsuccessful attack upon the Spanish island of Trinidad.

Reign of James I., 1603–1625.—Our first West Indian island is one which throughout all the wars with Spain and France has never been separated from us. In the year 1605 an English vessel touched at *Barbadoes*, and some of the crew, having landed, inscribed upon a tree the words "James, King of England, and of this Island." Thus, Barbadoes is one of the oldest British possessions. It received its first governor in 1625.

The next island to be claimed was *Tobago* in 1608, but the attempts which were made to form settlements there were failures.

In 1609 Sir George Somers was in command of a ship, called the *Sea Venture*, carrying colonists to the new "plantation" in Virginia. He was wrecked upon a sunken reef near an island which had been discovered in 1515 by a Spaniard named Juan Bermudas, and being much struck with the beauty of the place, he determined to return and found a colony there: this he accomplished in the following year. He called the group the *Somers Islands*, and although this name is still in use, the more correct term *Bermudas* is the official name. The islands, after belonging for a time to the Virginia Company, were sold to "The Company of the City of London for the Plantation of the Somers Islands."

The *Bahamas* were the islands first sighted by Columbus, and although nominally belonging to Spain, they were practically neglected by that country. They had been visited by Raleigh, Drake, Hawkins and Gilbert, but it was not until 1612 that a settlement was made, the colonists then coming from Virginia.

As the above-mentioned settlements were not permanent there is some reason in the claim of *St. Christopher* (St. Kitts) to be the "mother colony" of the West Indies, as the settlement made there by Mr. Warner in 1623 was a permanent success. In 1624 settlements were established upon *Barbadoes*, and in 1625 *Nevis*, *Barbuda* and *Anguilla* were occupied, and have remained in uninterrupted possession of the English ever since.

Reign of Charles I., 1625–1649.—During the reign of Charles I. the work of annexation went on, but there were difficulties on account of the native Caribs as well as from French and Spanish opposition.

In 1627 the Earl of Carlisle obtained a patent to plant colonies in *Barbadoes* and the Leeward Islands. The attempt to land upon *Dominica* failed, and although this island became nominally ours in 1748 it was chiefly occupied by Caribs and French.

Montserrat and Antigua were occupied as colonies in 1632. In 1638 the shore of the mainland near *Belize* was visited by some shipwrecked mariners who noted its wealth of timber, and shortly afterwards a permanent settlement was formed in what we now call British Honduras.

In 1639 some Englishmen settled upon *St. Lucia* but they were driven away by the Caribs, and we suffered a further loss in the *Bahamas*, which were attacked by the Spaniards, and all our settlements there were destroyed.

Period of the Commonwealth, 1649–1660.—The downfall of Charles I. brought a large influx of Royalists with their families and possessions to the Royalist colony of *Barbadoes*. This Royalist immigration is still perceptible in the tone and manners of the people of Barbadoes.

The spirited foreign policy of Cromwell produced marked results in the West Indies. He regarded Spain as the leading Catholic power and therefore an enemy of England.

He fitted out an expedition to seize Spanish treasure ships, and particularly to attack the island of Hispaniola. This island is now known as San Domingo and Hayti. The expedition was under the command of Admirals Penn and Venables; in its primary objects it was a failure, and the English were driven from Hispaniola. In order to have something to show for their journey the English leaders in 1655 took *Jamaica*, at that time regarded as of little value, but which afterwards became a great centre of English trade. Cromwell greatly encouraged the prosperity of Jamaica by sending numbers of colonists there. In 1658 the Spaniards made an unsuccessful attempt to retake the island.

Both English and French had been making efforts to capture *St. Vincent*, but in 1660 it was decided that both St. Vincent and Dominica should be cleared of European settlers and left to their original native owners.

Reign of Charles II., 1660–1685.—One of the early effects of the Restoration was to cause many Puritans to leave the country, and large numbers of them went to Jamaica (Cromwell's colony), thus giving a considerable impetus to the trade of that island.

During the war with the Dutch, 1664–1667, which was a struggle for maritime supremacy, Louis XIV. helped Holland, and thus we were drawn into war with France. In the West Indies the fighting was mainly between the English and the French. In 1664 England captured the island of *St. Lucia*, but this was compensated for by the loss of *Montserrat* to France. Our island, *Antigua*, capitulated to the French in 1666, but on the other hand we captured *Tobago* in the same year. The English were subsequently driven out of Tobago, but the island became English again in 1673.

The Treaty of Breda, 1667, concluded the war. By this treaty Antigua and Montserrat were restored to England and St. Lucia was restored to France.

In 1666 some settlers from Anguilla visited the *Virgin Islands*, drove out the buccaneers who resided there, and thus established the English claim to the small islands of Tortola, Virgin Gorda, and Anegada in this group.

Towards the latter part of the reign of Charles II. our West Indian possessions were in a very flourishing state.

Belize is mentioned in a report of the governor of Jamaica dated 1671, as a most prosperous colony producing excellent logwood.

In 1673 Jamaica commenced to send sugar to England; the population of the island was then 18,000. In 1674 Jamaica successfully resisted a French invasion from Hayti.

Reign of James II., 1685–1689. — The Duke of Albemarle became governor of Jamaica in 1687 and took with him Sir Hans Sloane, the naturalist, who commenced that remarkable collection which has since developed into the British Museum. It was in 1687 also that Mr. Phips raised the silver, amounting to 32 tons, from a Spanish treasure ship sunken off the Bahamas. This cargo of silver realised £300,000.

In 1689 the French drove the English out of *St. Christopher*, but the exiles regained their island in the following year.

Reign of William III., 1689–1702.—The year 1690 saw many emigrants leave England, these were people who were dissatisfied with the coming of William, Prince of Orange, and they went mainly to the Bahamas.

The Treaty of Ryswick, 1697, restored a portion of St. Christopher to the French, but they were speedily dispossessed on the outbreak of the Succession War.

Subsequent History.—References to the West Indies will be found in Chapters VI., IX., and XI, but the only British islands not mentioned above are Grenada, which we acquired in 1750 and Trinidad (see page 57). St. Lucia was finally captured in 1778.

CHAPTER VI.

Colonial Expansion During the Period 1702–1756.

The first half of the eighteenth century is not remarkable as a period of colonial extension, and it will suffice if we mention the principal events of that time and then trace the influence of those events in the expansion of our colonies.

The century opens with the great European struggle called the War of the Spanish Succession. In this the traditional enemies, England and France, played leading parts, and their fleets in distant waters, and their colonists in distant lands, were naturally openly antagonistic, but as the question at issue was essentially of a European character, the war did not greatly affect the colonies.

In 1707 the Parliaments of England and Scotland were united, and this union may be considered the germ of that scheme of federation which is a topic of present-day politics.

The latter part of the period now under review was also a time of European war, the War of the Austrian Succession again placing England and France in antagonism, but colonial events were of even less importance than in the previous Succession War.

Period of the Spanish Succession War, 1702–1713.

In the West Indies.—Immediately the war broke out the English seized upon the French portions of the island of *St. Christopher* (1702), but in the following year the French

and Spaniards captured *New Providence*, the chief of the Bahamas, after which for many years the Bahamas were neglected by England, and became the resort of numerous pirates.

In Europe.—Two small, but important additions were made to our Empire in Europe. In July, 1704, Admiral Sir George Rooke captured, by a sudden attack, the rock of *Gibraltar*, then owned and garrisoned by the Spaniards. This fortress has proved of the greatest possible strategic value to us, and has remained in our possession in spite of repeated attacks since 1704. In 1708 General Stanhope captured *Minorca*, but this island had a very chequered story as a British possession, changing hands no less than five times from 1708, until we finally lost it in 1802. These changes will be mentioned in their historical order.

In Canada.—We have seen that the Treaty of Ryswick caused a temporary peace in Canada, and treaties of peace with the Iroquois had also been arranged. When the present war commenced, the French were on the whole successful; they made a descent upon Newfoundland in 1708 and captured St. John's, the capital. The New England colonists then sent home for help, and having leagued with the Iroquois and received troops from the mother country, a large force under Sir Hovendon Walker set out for Quebec in 1711. This expedition was quite a failure, as also was the land expedition, which included six hundred Iroquois warriors, under Colonel Nicholson. Peace was restored by the Treaty of Utrecht.

The Treaty of Utrecht, 1713.—Omitting all references to European politics as foreign to our present subject, the colonial terms of the Treaty of Utrecht were :—

1. England to have *Newfoundland*, *Nova Scotia*, *Hudson Bay*, and the island of *St. Christopher*.
2. France to retain the right of fishing upon the shores of Newfoundland.
3. Spain to surrender *Gibraltar* and *Minorca* and to grant the Assiento to England. (The Assiento was a contract for supplying the Spanish-American colonies with negro slaves.)

The Period Between the Succession Wars, 1713–1741.

For nearly 30 years England enjoyed peace, and largely owing to the wise policy of Robert Walpole trade flourished and prosperity increased. This was particularly the case in the American colonies, to which an addition was made by the settlement of *Vermont* in 1725. One of the most lucrative branches of trade was the slave trade, from which about this time the English made enormous profits.

In 1728 Captain Osborn arrived in Newfoundland as its first regularly appointed Governor. He had great difficulties to meet; the French had obtained, by the Treaty of Utrecht, not only their fishing rights but also liberty to land and cure their fish, and the so-called "Fishing Admirals," who had long administered the civil law in the island, bitterly resented the authority of the new Governor. These "Admirals" were rough sea captains who, by virtue of their first arrival at the fishing ports, claimed the rank of admiral, vice admiral or rear admiral of those ports, under an Act of William III. and Mary II. The Fishery Admirals were gradually brought under the royal authority, though it is not till nearly half a century later that we hear the last of them.

The enormous profits made by the Spaniards in their American trade naturally attracted English competition, and although the trade on the part of the English was contraband and therefore very dangerous, it was persisted in to such an extent that it led to war between England and Spain. In 1739 Admiral Vernon attacked and captured Porto Bello, on the Isthmus of Darien, some treasure was removed, and the fortifications were destroyed, but the English met with nothing but disaster in their attempts upon the Spanish towns of Carthagena (New Grenada) and Santiago (Cuba) in 1741.

Period of the Austrian Succession War, 1741–1748.

We are not now concerned with the story of Maria Theresa and her struggle to retain her dominions, but have to continue the history of the rivalry of the English and French in Canada.

In 1745 an expedition was prepared in England and placed under the command of Captain Warren to proceed to Cape Breton Island and attack *Louisburg*, one of the strongest French stations. The English were successful in taking Louisburg and also took *Prince Edward Island;* although two expeditions were fitted at Rochelle for their recovery, we retained possession until the peace.

Treaty of Aix La Chapelle, 1748.—The Colonial matters dealt with in this treaty were as follows:—

1. Mutual restoration of conquests to be made by France and England. France to regain Cape Breton Island and Prince Edward Island, and England to regain Madras. (See Chapter VIII.)
2. The Island of Dominica to remain neutral.
3. England to surrender the Assiento, but to receive a compensation for so doing.

Various disputed boundaries between French Canada and the New England States and Nova Scotia were left unsettled, as also was the question of the right of the English to trade with Spanish America.

The Period 1748–1756.

British occupation of Nova Scotia.—At the conclusion of the War of the Austrian Succession, Lord Halifax brought forward a scheme for the colonisation of *Nova Scotia*, into possession of which we had come by virtue of the Treaty of Utrecht.

Parliament voted large sums of money, and about 3,000 settlers crossed to the new colony, many of them being discharged soldiers who had seen service in the late wars. The site for the capital was chosen on Chebucto Harbour, and the City of Halifax was founded. Full sovereign rights were claimed on behalf of George II., and even the French residents were required to signify their entire allegiance to his Majesty. These measures stirred up an aggressive policy on the part of the French, and the dissatisfaction spreading southward there soon arose boundary disputes upon a very general scale.

Boundary Disputes.—The valley of the Ohio was a district claimed by both nations. The English tried to make good their claim by building a fort in 1754, which they called Pittsburg. This fort was captured by the French, who changed its name to Fort Duquesne, after the name of the French governor of Canada. George Washington, who afterwards became so famous, endeavoured to retake the fort but failed, as also did General Braddock in 1755, for he fell into an Indian ambuscade and suffered a severe loss. A fierce border warfare broke out, in which Indians were engaged on either side, and the French residents in Nova Scotia (Acadia) made frequent risings. It will thus be seen that when the Seven Years' War began, hostilities had already re-commenced in Canada.

CHAPTER VII.

The Conquest of Canada, 1756–1763.

Loss of Minorca.—Although war was not formally declared until 1757 there were several engagements fought between English and French ships in the preceding years. In May, 1756, the French sent an expedition, numbering 16,000 men, under the Duke de Richelieu, to attempt the capture of Minorca, which island we held by virtue of the Treaty of Utrecht. The forces landed and besieged the governor, General Blakeney, in the castle of St. Philip, and Admiral Byng was ordered to relieve him. Upon the French coming out to give battle, Byng, fearing that he was overmatched, declined to fight. Blakeney then surrendered and Byng was tried by court-martial for cowardice, found guilty, and shot upon the quarter-deck of his ship, the "Monarque," on March 14, 1757. This execution of Byng was, however, more of a party move than an act of justice, the officers who tried him "being bound by their instructions to bring in a verdict of guilty."—*Bright.*

The Seven Years' War.—There were three theatres of strife in the great Seven Years' War. (1) In *Europe.* Here the struggle was one which originated between the great rivals Prussia and Austria. England sided with Prussia; France, Russia and Sweden were allies of Austria. (2) In *India.* The story of the Indian war of this period is told in Chapter VIII. (3) In *America.* We have seen the causes of the strife in America, the determination of the French to dispute our western extension, and their efforts to unite their St. Lawrence settlements with those in Louisiana, at the mouth of the Mississippi.

The Disasters of 1757.—As has frequently been the case, the opening years of the war brought us very little success; in this instance our losses were mainly due to the bad appointments which had been made, officers both in the army and navy having gained exalted positions through party intrigue and not through personal and professional merit.

The British expedition to attack Rochefort, on the west coast of France, was a great failure, and the expedition under Lord Loudon, Governor of Virginia, against Louisburg in Cape Breton Island was likewise without result. Lord Loudon was a most incompetent man, and although he had a force of 12,000 men (2,000 more than the French had), he spent a month making up his mind to attack, and then decided to abandon the idea. For this he was severely censured by the Government. Meanwhile, the French general, Montcalm, captured several of our forts, including Oswego, Ontario and Fort William Henry.

It was in 1757 that the Duke of Cumberland, in command of an English force, was out-generalled by the French near the river Weser, and forced to surrender by the Convention of Klosterseven.

The Campaign of 1758.—Pitt was determined that we should do better than we had done, and he conceived the idea of superseding the generals high in command by men chosen for merit alone. He studied the Canadian question and decided that there were three roads by which he might attack the French in that colony, and that he would attack them along all the roads at once. The three routes were:—1. By the river St. Lawrence, that is the sea route, this would necessitate the capture of Louisburg and Quebec. 2. By the Hudson valley northward from New York, the chief points of difficulty being the French fortresses of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. 3. By the Ohio valley, which was defended by Fort Duquesne.

Pitt accordingly prepared three expeditions:—

1. On June 2nd a powerful British fleet, consisting of 150 vessels under Admiral Boscawen and having on board 12,000 troops under General Amherst and Colonel Wolfe, appeared before Louisburg; a spirited attack was maintained, and on July 26 the fortress capitulated, yielding to the English an enormous quantity of arms and ammunition.

2. The Hudson valley expedition was entrusted to General Abercrombie, but though he made most gallant efforts he could not take Fort Ticonderoga, and retired baffled with a great loss of men.
3. The Ohio valley expedition was under the command of General Forbes. George Washington, who commanded the advance guard, had the honour of planting the British flag upon Fort Duquesne, the name of which was again changed to Pittsburg, and thus effectually broke the French line of communication between the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi.

Capture of Quebec, 1759.—For the next campaign Pitt prepared a plan much similar to that of 1758. Wolfe was to come by sea and attack Quebec, being aided by General Amherst, who was to take Ticonderoga and Crown Point on his way, and by Prideaux and Johnson, who were to take Fort Niagara, and then move down the river.

Ticonderoga, Crown Point and Niagara were all taken during the month of July, 1759, but the difficulties of transport, together with the French opposition, prevented the victorious generals from forming the intended junction with Wolfe.

Wolfe arrived in the St. Lawrence in the month of June and at once occupied Point Levis, opposite Quebec, and the Isle of Orleans in the mid-channel. Although his forces were inferior in numbers to those of General Montcalm, who defended Quebec, they were much superior in discipline and efficiency. It must, however, be remembered that all the advantage of position lay with Montcalm, as an attack upon the citadel of Quebec was well-nigh hopeless. The general conditions governing the struggle may be gleaned from the accompanying plan. Montcalm defended, with troops and batteries, that part of the north shore between the rivers Charles and Montmorenci. The town of Quebec itself was strong enough to resist any attack and its guns were supposed to command the passage of the river, which at that point is only about a mile in width. The high ground to the west, called the Plains of Abraham, bordered the river by a string of precipices which were considered impassable. General Wolfe took full advantage of the

mobility of the English ships; feigned attacks were constantly being made and the French forces were con-

tinually on the move. Fire ships were frequently prepared and sent floating down the river to destroy our fleet, but the sailors were always ready to seize them and tow them

ashore on the south bank, where they were left to burn themselves out. Towards the end of July the English ships ran up the river, past the batteries, and threatened a landing along the western shore, but nothing came of this attempt.

At length the time came when Wolfe determined to make his gallant attack. The fleet had again been taken up the river, and at two o'clock on the morning of September 13th, boats crowded with men came floating silently down with the stream, a landing was effected at a place now called Wolfe's Cove, and the men began to climb the cliffs. By daybreak there were 3,600 men drawn up upon the Plains of Abraham, and Montcalm was forced to give battle. For the English a defeat meant annihilation, but they did not think of defeat. It was an infantry battle entirely, a few volleys and then an orderly but impetuous charge settled the whole matter, the victory costing the life of the brave leader, who received three bullets as he led on his men. As a battle the affair was unimportant, but the results were great, as five days later the fortress of Quebec capitulated, and Canada was soon to pass into English hands.

Further Successes of 1759.—Early in the year the French settlement at *Goree* in Africa had been captured, and soon afterwards we took the island of *Guadeloupe* in the West Indies. In the month of August the English and Prussians defeated the French at the Battle of Minden, and besides the capture at Quebec, there were two other victories to chronicle before the year closed, that of Admiral Boscawen, off Lagos, in the south-west of Portugal, where the Toulon fleet was destroyed, and that of Admiral Hawke, off Quiberon, in the west of France, where the Brest fleet was destroyed. Thus, by the close of the year 1759, the French fleet was practically annihilated.

We had also great success in India in this year (see Chapter VIII).

The Concluding Operations, 1760-63.—In 1760 an attempt, which utterly failed, was made by the French to retake Quebec, and the retreating forces fell back upon Montreal. Toward this point the victorious armies from

Ticonderoga and Fort Niagara were slowly converging. Unaided by any fortifications or natural defences, the French saw that resistance was hopeless. Montreal capitulated on September 8th, 1760, and the conquest of Canada was complete.

In 1761 the war continued, and Keppel and Hodgson captured Belleisle, on the south coast of Brittany, after the garrison had made a desperate resistance.

In 1762 we declared war against Spain, because we found that Spain and France were about to enter into a friendly alliance, and a fleet was sent to the West Indies. Admiral Rodney captured in succession, *Martinique*, *Grenada*, *St. Lucia* and *St. Vincent*, and then started from Port Royal, in Jamaica, to attack the rich Spanish town of Havannah in the island of Cuba. The Spaniards made but a feeble resistance, and the town, together with treasure valued at £3,000,000, fell into our hands. The *Philippine Islands* were also taken from Spain.

In 1763 Sir Richard Munden seized the island of *St. Helena*, which had belonged to the Dutch East India Company.

The Peace of Paris, 1763.—This treaty, which concluded the Seven Years' War, made several important additions to the British Empire. With the political settlement arrived at in Europe we are not now concerned, and the Indian clauses will be dealt with in a subsequent chapter; the remaining clauses were as follows:—

a. *England* was to receive:—

1. *Canada*, *Nova Scotia*, *Cape Breton Island*.
2. *Dominica* (which we captured in 1756), *Tobago*, *St. Vincent*, *Grenada*.
3. *Florida* (from Spain), and the right of cutting logwood in Belize.
4. *Senegal* (from France) in exchange for Goree.
5. *Minorca* (in exchange for Belleisle).

b. *France* was to receive:—

1. The islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon off the south coast of Newfoundland, together with all the fishing rights previously held.

2. Guadeloupe, Martinique and St. Lucia in the West Indies.
3. Belleisle and Goree.

c. *Spain* was to receive:—

1. Havannah and the Philippines.
2. Louisiana (from France, to compensate for the loss of Florida).

Effect of the Treaty.—Attempts were at once made by the British Government to conciliate the French colonists in Canada, and except that as Roman Catholics they could obtain little share in local government, they were much better off than while under French control. Taxes were lighter, prices were better, and there was no grasping governor like their last one, General Bigot, to make an immense fortune out of the toiling colonists.

The British Government made no effort to gain the friendship of the Indians, with the result that there were many serious risings and massacres in the first years of our Canadian rule; one of the chief Indian leaders was Pontiac, who made a very far-reaching attempt to restore the supremacy of the native tribes.

It is much to be regretted that the Newfoundland fishery question was not settled at the favourable opportunity afforded by the drawing up of this treaty. The French rights had never been definitely settled, and the Peace of Paris, instead of putting an end to them, rather confirmed and extended them, as it gave the two islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon as stations for fishing boats. The effect of allowing these French rights upon a British island has produced endless trouble, lasting down to the present day.

CHAPTER VIII.

The Foundation of our Indian Empire, 1600–1765.

It is now time to turn our attention toward the East, and trace the story of the rise of the British power in India, a country, which, from the nature of its climate, would hardly appear to offer a suitable arena for the exploits of the British.

In India we had not, as in North America, to occupy empty lands, or to contend with ignorant savages, but we find our pioneers landing upon the shores of a country remarkable for its ancient civilisation, a land of architectural beauty, of fabulous wealth, and peopled by many millions of industrious workers. To this land the English came as traders, and as traders they remained for many years until they gradually began to acquire property in the land of their commerce.

The East India Company.—In the reign of Queen Elizabeth a body of English merchants prayed their sovereign to grant them exclusive trading rights in India. On December 31st, 1600 (the last day of the 16th century), the Queen granted a Charter to "The Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading to the East Indies," to allow them for a period of 15 years the exclusive trade, as the Charter said, "into the countries and parts of Asia and Africa, and into and from all the islands, ports, towns, and places of Asia, Africa and America, or any of them, beyond the Cape of Bona Esperanza (Cape of Good Hope), or the Straits of Magellan, where any traffic may be used, and to and from every of them." The Company soon began the work which the Charter allowed. An expedition

consisting of five ships sailed from Tor Bay on May 2nd, 1601, with cargoes of merchandise. The results of the voyage were most encouraging, and eight other voyages were performed before 1613, the clear profits of the voyages ranging from 100 to 200 per cent. In 1609 the Company obtained a renewal of its Charter for an indefinite period, subject, however, to its being dissolved by Government upon three years' notice being given.

The chief rivals of the English traders at this time were the Portuguese and the Dutch. The Portuguese had already established a lucrative trade along the west coast of India, and the Dutch held the trade in the various islands of the south-east of Asia.

Our First Foothold.—By a firman, or proclamation, dated August 11th, 1612, the Mogul Emperor allowed the English to establish factories at Surat, Ahmedabad, Cambaya and Goga (see map on page 42), and in 1614 Sir Thomas Roe was sent as first British Ambassador to the Mogul, from whom he obtained considerable privileges for the Company.

Beginnings of British Power.—During the 17th century the English continued to be simply traders, with no cravings for political or territorial aggrandisement—absorbed in the business of buying and selling, and anxious only for the safety of their fleet. This fleet rapidly became more formidable and extensive in proportion to the rich freight it was destined to bear through seas infested with pirates, and frequently pre-occupied by hostile European squadrons.

In 1634 the English obtained from the court of Delhi the privilege of free resort to the port of Piply in Bengal, and in 1640 they founded a trading settlement at Fort St. George, which afterwards formed the nucleus of the great town of Madras. In 1661 a new charter was obtained from Charles II., who ceded to the Company the island of Bombay, and the seat of the Company's government was transferred from Surat to Bombay in 1687.

In 1683 the Company's £100 Shares sold for £500.

In 1698 the Company obtained by bribery a small grant of land upon the Hooghly, near to the native village of

Calcutta, and here was erected the trading station of Fort William, and thus were founded the three main centres of British influence, Madras, Bombay, Calcutta, from which the power was to spread until it embraced the whole vast country.

The Company and its Rival. — This measure of success naturally established an element of rivalry in England, and the enemies of the East India Company founded an association called the "New Company" in 1691. In order to continue their monopoly the East India Company offered to lend money to the Government. Much intrigue and competition went on, until finally the two companies were amalgamated in 1708.

In 1711 a new method of control was introduced. The affairs of the Company were henceforth to be managed in London by a Board of Directors, and the government of each of the three settlements in India was entrusted to a President and Council.

Decay of the Mogul Empire.—It is beyond the scope of this book to trace the early history of India, but it must be stated that the Great Mogul Empire in India was founded by Baber, who came from Cabul about 1520 A.D., and captured Delhi and Agra, and that other Great Moguls were Akber Khan, 1556-1605, Shah Jehan (who built the beautiful Taj Mahal at Agra), 1628-1658, and Aurungzebe, the last of the Great Moguls, 1658-1707.

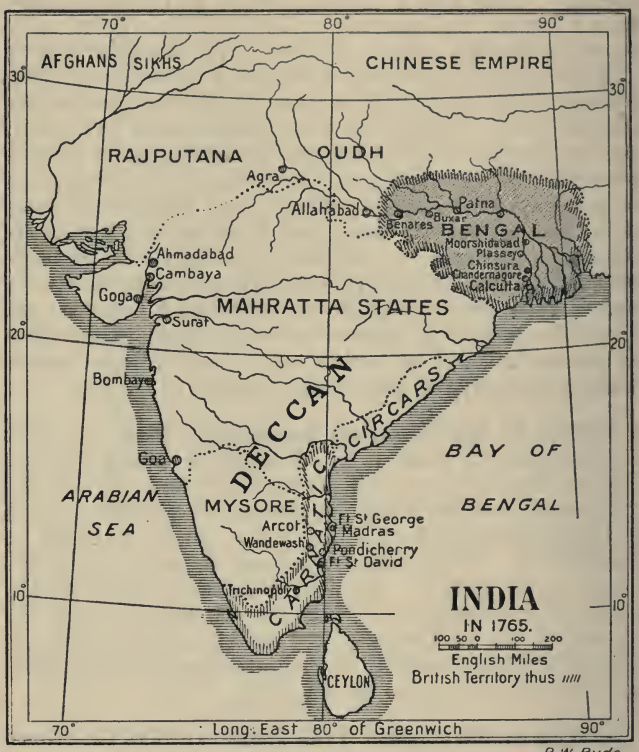
Aurungzebe's dominions reached from 10° to 35° N. lat., and his wealth was immense. His revenue exceeded £32,000,000, but his death was the signal for civil war, which ended in the dispersal of his treasure and the dismemberment of the Mogul Empire. The will of the deceased ruler decreed the division of his dominions among his sons, but the younger sons went to war with their elder brother, who lavished his resources in spreading desolation and ruin through his extensive dominions. Strife and anarchy spread over the length and breadth of India; it was no organised struggle of race or creed, Mussulman fought against Mussulman, Hindoo against Hindoo, and each against the other; Afghan warred with Mogul, Mogul with Rajput, Mahratta with all.

Rise of French Power in India.—A French company had for some years been making the attempt to establish an Indian trade, but their methods were far inferior to those of the English, and the company was not a commercial success. They had a trading station at Chandernagore, near Calcutta, and another at Pondicherry, eighty miles south of Madras. About the year 1744 Dupleix, a most able man, was governor of the French settlements on the mainland, and the gifted La Bourdonnais was governor of the Mauritius. Dupleix and La Bourdonnais saw clearly the opportunity afforded for the establishment of French power in India by taking part in the native quarrels going on around them, by making offensive and defensive alliances with the neighbouring states, and by interfering in cases of disputed succession. Thus came the inevitable struggle between the two European powers, whose unsleeping rivalry had so often been evidenced in strife and bloodshed; the first indications of European war were eagerly seized upon as a cause for direct opposition, and a fierce struggle ensued, which eventually left the English masters of the field.

Period of the Austrian Succession War.—In 1746 La Bourdonnais came from Mauritius to attack Fort St. George (Madras), and after five days' siege the fortress capitulated, and the British prisoners, among them being a civilian named Robert Clive, were led in triumph to Pondicherry. Clive afterwards escaped, and entered the army as an ensign. Admiral Boscawen unsuccessfully besieged Pondicherry in 1748, but on hearing that the Treaty of Aix la Chapelle had been signed, and that it demanded the surrender of all conquests made, Dupleix gave back Fort St. George to the English.

Affairs in the Deccan, 1748-1753.—In 1748 the Nizam of the Deccan died and two claimants to the throne appeared. The heir to the throne was the Nizam's son, Nazir Jung, but the French lent their support to the Nizam's grandson, Mirzaphia. At the same time Chunda Sahib (supported by the French) was endeavouring to supplant the reigning Nabob of the Carnatic. With the aid of their French allies both the usurpers were successful, and thus French influence greatly increased. The Nabob of the

Carnatic was killed, and his son, Mahomet Ali, was besieged in the fortress of Trichinopoly by the French, 1751. Mahomet Ali then sent to the English asking for aid, but no sufficient military force was forthcoming.



Dupleix was rewarded by being made governor of the whole of Southern India.

Affairs were in this condition when Robert Clive proposed an attack upon Arcot, and with a ridiculously small force of only 500 men, 200 of whom were English, he captured that station, 1751, with the greatest ease, and then defended it against a determined native attack made by 10,000 men.

Sallying out from Arcot Clive then twice defeated the French and their allies, and in June, 1752, he relieved the garrison under Mahomet Ali in Trichinopoly.

Clive returned to England in triumph in 1753, and in the same year Dupleix was dismissed from his governorship by the French East India Company.

Period of the Seven Years' War, 1756-1763.—Before war was declared Clive was sent out to India as Governor of Fort St. David, and upon the very day of his arrival at Madras, there occurred a terrible calamity at Calcutta.

Surajah Dowlah had just become Nabob of Bengal, and he at first professed great friendship for the English. The fact was that he coveted the supposed hoards of treasure of the Calcutta merchants, and making a hasty attack upon the English settlements he speedily captured them on June 20th, 1756. That night he thrust 146 prisoners into a small room 18 ft. by 14 ft., and in the morning but 23 remained alive. This awful "*Black Hole of Calcutta*" made the English determine upon a severe revenge, but much time was lost, as the news did not reach Madras until August, and it was the middle of the following January before Clive reached the Hooghly.

Calcutta fell without a blow, and fearing that the enemy would get French assistance Clive reduced the French fortress of Chandernagore. He next moved up to attack Moorshidabad, Surajah's capital, and was opposed at *Plassey*, June 23rd, 1757, by an immense army of 50,000 men. The force under Clive consisted of 1,000 British troops, 2,000 sepoys, and 10 pieces of artillery. The issue was never in doubt; Surajah Dowlah was utterly defeated, and the Battle of Plassey made us masters of Bengal and laid the foundation of our Empire in India.

Meantime hostilities broke out in Southern India owing to an attempt being made upon the part of the French to re-establish themselves in the Carnatic. Count Lally, an Irish officer in the French service, captured Fort St. David in 1758, but failed in his attack upon Madras.

In 1759 command of the English forces was given to Colonel Coote, who, refusing the aid of native troops, met

the French and defeated them at the great battle of Wandewash, January 22nd, 1760. This victory made the English supreme in the Carnatic.

The last French stronghold, Pondicherry, submitted in 1761, and thenceforward our growth was at the expense of native states as no European power appeared as our rivals in India.

The Peace of Paris, 1763.—The chief clauses referring to India were:—

1. France to be restricted to her trading stations of 1749, *i.e.*, to Pondicherry, Chandernagore and Chinsurah.
2. No French troops to be allowed in India, and no French fortresses to be erected.

English Government, 1763-1765.—The first English governor after the war was Mr. Vansittart, a somewhat weak man, who soon became entangled in quarrels with the Nabob of Bengal, Meer Cossim. On October 5th, 1763, the natives rose against the English, seized 150 prisoners and killed them without mercy; this is known as the *Massacre of Patna*. Major Munro was sent to avenge this slaughter; at *Buxar*, near Patna, he met and defeated a large native force (October, 1764), which victory extended the English boundary as far as Allahabad.

Clive's Return to India.—Corruption and mismanagement were rife in the Company's affairs, both in India and in London, but after a severe struggle Clive's friends were able to get him appointed Governor with very full powers. Clive quickly set matters upon a better footing; he took over the financial management of the country, pensioned some of the native princes, reduced the military expenditure, suppressed a mutiny, prohibited the receiving of presents by the Company's servants, and also prohibited them from engaging in private trading on their own account, thus at the same time depriving them of the opportunity of being unjust to the natives and unfaithful to their employers, the East India Company.

Note.—"We did not conquer India by violence; we came as peaceful traders, and spent long years in that capacity; and during that time we succeeded in impressing upon the minds of the natives a lively conviction of our energy and ability. When the crisis came—as come it did, without our knowledge, and greatly to our discomfiture—counting houses were turned into barracks, bales of piece goods helped to make barricades, clerks and writers were metamorphosed into military leaders, and, while themselves but learners, drilled the natives round them into a state of discipline before unknown."—(Martin's "Indian Empire," vol. i.)

(*The continuation of the history of India as a British possession will be found in Chapter* XII.)

CHAPTER IX.

The Secession of the United States, 1763–1789.

After the Peace of Paris nearly the whole of the then known North American continent was in British possession, and we are now to trace briefly the story of the loss of the southern portion of that great territory.

Causes of the Quarrel.—The old opinion upon the use of colonies was that they existed for the benefit of the mother country, and the navigation laws which were in force imposed various vexatious restrictions upon colonial trade. To evade these laws the colonists were in the habit of practising "smuggling," which consisted in carrying on branches of trade such as those with Spanish America and the West Indies in defiance of the navigation laws.

In 1765 Grenville, the Prime Minister, determined to put down this smuggling, and, in addition, Parliament passed the Stamp Act, which was a direct method of attempting to raise a revenue from the colonies. This Act aroused much opposition in America, and even in England Pitt spoke strongly against it. The Stamp Act was therefore repealed in the following year.

The American Duties Bill.—In 1767 Charles Townshend, Chancellor of the Exchequer, imposed taxes upon tea, glass, paper, and painters' colours, which taxes were estimated to yield an annual revenue of £40,000. The colonists determined not to use any of these articles, and thus defeat the intention of the Government. Massachusetts took the lead in this popular agitation, and various "Societies of Liberty" were formed, thus laying the foundation of organised opposition.

In 1770 Lord North repealed all the taxes except that upon tea, which alone would yield the paltry sum of £300 a year, and Edmund Burke prophetically declared that it was not the amount but the principle "no taxation without representation" for which the colonists would contend.

The matter remained in a quiet stage for a few years, but the bitterness of feeling was not dead in America.

During this period of quiet England seized the Falkland Islands, alleging that they had been left abandoned by Spain.

Renewed Dissatisfaction.—In 1773 some tea from the surplus stock of the East Indian Company was ordered to be sent to America, and sold at such a cheap rate that even with the added duty the price was a low one. But the colonists refused to be taken in by the scheme, the tea ships in Boston harbour were boarded by men disguised as Mohawk Indians, and the tea was thrown overboard. By way of punishment for this outrage, the Government, in 1774, determined to remove the Custom House from Boston to Salem, and thus, by diverting the trade, ruin the port of Boston. The old charter of Massachusetts was also annulled, the settlement was made a Crown Colony, and a Governor, General Gage, was appointed from England.

A general congress then met at Philadelphia, at which all the colonies were represented except Georgia, and this congress issued a Declaration of Rights, which clearly defined the attitude which the colonists had determined to adopt.

Commencement of Hostilities.—Hearing that war material was being collected at Concord, General Gage sent there to destroy it, but on the return of the party the Government soldiers were attacked at Lexington, April, 1775, and suffered somewhat severely. There was also fighting at Ticonderoga and Crown Point.

The second congress met at Philadelphia, and the question was "Should these acts of war be acknowledged?" There was little hesitation, "The United Colonies" determined to abide by these acts of rebellion and war, and proceeded to elect as commander of their forces, a Virginian gentleman, whom we have before mentioned, George Washington.

On June 17th, 1775, General Gage attacked and defeated the colonists at the Battle of *Bunker's Hill*, but so well did the colonists fight, and such loss did they inflict upon the royal troops that high hopes were entertained of future success.

P W. Ryde

Had General Gage acted with rapidity and precision the rising might have been crushed, but thinking that reconciliation was possible he really allowed the rebels time to organise their forces.

The Americans then made an attack upon Canada, but were checked upon the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, by General Carleton.

General Gage was recalled and General Howe sent out to replace him, but in 1776 the colonists attacked and took Boston, and Howe retired to Halifax and thence moved to New York, near which he established his head-quarters.

The Declaration of Independence.—In June, 1776, it was proposed in Congress that the colonies should declare themselves independent, and the motion was finally passed by a majority of one only. On July 4th, 1776, now celebrated in America as "Independence Day," Congress issued the *Declaration of Independence*, a document which set forth the grievances of the colonists, and concluded "In the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies we do solemnly publish and declare that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states."

Thirteen states agreed to this (see page 93) and Congress decided that the national flag should be thirteen stripes (red and white) and thirteen stars (white in a blue field), "representing a new constellation."

Progress of the War.—In 1776, near New York, the first pitched battle of the war took place. At *Brooklyn*, on August 27th, the superiority of the English troops over the American militia was very apparent, and Howe took possession of the city of New York, and drove Washington beyond the Delaware, thus opening the road to Philadelphia. During the winter Washington recovered much of this lost ground, and by minor victories at *Trenton* and *Princetown* he drove Howe back to New York.

In 1777 General Howe embarked his troops at New York, and sailed round to the head of Chesapeake Bay; then defeating Washington at *Brandywine*, he captured Philadelphia, and so far our arms were successful; but we suffered a great disaster in the north. General Burgoyne brought an English force from Canada by way of Lake Champlain and the River Hudson, but he advanced too far from his base.

trusting to help from New York, which he did not receive, and being surrounded by American troops he surrendered at *Saratoga*, October 17th.

The American army at this time was in a very wretched condition; supplies of all kinds, especially clothing, were badly needed, and appeals were made to France for assistance.

France, Spain and Holland support the Colonists.—In December, 1777, France acknowledged the United Colonies as an independent country, and in the following May, William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, made his memorable speech against our yielding before France—and died at its close.

Early in 1778 a French fleet under Admiral d'Estaing went to the relief of the colonists, but there was little harmony between the new allies, and d'Estaing departed for the West Indies.

Before the close of the year Spain joined with the colonists, being anxious to retake Gibraltar, thus seizing upon what seemed a period of England's weakness.

In 1780 Admiral Rodney was sent to the West Indies with orders to call at Gibraltar with supplies. He gained a complete victory over the Spanish fleet at *St. Vincent*, and then relieved Gibraltar and Minorca.

In the same year the war was continued in the southern part of the new United States and the two fortresses of *Charleston* and *Savannah* fell into our hands.

Holland agreed to help the Americans in 1780.

In 1781 we were engaged in strife all over the world and generally with but little success. It was a most eventful year in the States, but the details cannot be fully described here. Events culminated in the surrender of the English general, Lord Cornwallis, at *Yorktown* on October 18th, 1781, and the war was practically over.

The War in the West Indies.—In Chapter V. we saw the rivalry between the French and the English in the West Indies, and the declaration of French friendship for the United States by acknowledging the new republic as independent at once caused the outbreak of hostilities in the islands.

In 1778 St. Lucia was captured from the French by the English; the American States made an attack upon *Tobago*, which failed. In 1779 Admiral d'Estaing came with a large force, and captured our island of *Grenada*.

In 1781 we took the Dutch island of *St. Eustatia*, though we lost *Tobago* to the French, but news came that Rodney had arrived, and the prospects of the English brightened.

The French, under de Grasse, were preparing an attack upon Jamaica, and Admiral Rodney gave them battle near that island on April 12th, 1782. The English won a most complete victory, which was chiefly remarkable for the introduction of the manœuvre called "breaking the line," which was afterwards used with such success by Lord Nelson. In the same year the French took our island of *Montserrat*.

Great Attack on Gibraltar.—A powerful combined French and Spanish fleet was collected to attack Gibraltar. The siege began in 1779, and lasted till 1783. The grand effort was made on September 13th, 1782. Immense floating batteries were employed, but all efforts were useless. Sir George Elliott gallantly defended his charge, and beat off his powerful assailants. The Spaniards succeeded in taking Minorca in 1782.

The Treaty of Versailles, 1783.—At length England decided to give way and acknowledge the independence of the United States. The chief clauses in the treaty which ended the war were:—

1. *England* to recognise the United States as an independent country, and allow them fishing rights off Newfoundland.
2. *France* to have Tobago and St. Lucia in the West Indies; St. Pierre and Miquelon (see page 36), together with the fishing rights near Newfoundland, Senegal and Goree in Africa.
3. *Spain* to keep Minorca and Florida.
4. *England* to have *Grenada*, *Dominica*, and *Montserrat* in the West Indies, and the right of cutting mahogany in Belize.

Thus we suffered our first, indeed our only, great loss in colonial dominion, and thus was founded a new state based

upon principle, cemented with the blood of those who placed liberty before life and fortune, and which has since grown into one of the greatest commercial countries the world has ever seen.

Sierra Leone.—Attempts were being made in England to minimise the horrors of the slave trade, and in 1787 an English company purchased Sierra Leone from a native chief and established therein Freetown as a home for freed negro slaves.

CHAPTER X.

Early Settlement in Australasia, 1787–1815.

First Glimpses of Australasia.—Vague rumours of lands sighted by Portuguese voyagers constitute our earliest glimpses of Australasia, but these rumours culminate in a definite discovery in 1606 by Torres of the lands bordering the straits which bear his name. In the same year a Dutch vessel, the *Duyfken*, also sighted the shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria. The south-west point of Australia was discovered by the Dutch in 1619, and in 1627 these hardy adventurers, under Nuyts, sailed along a portion of the southern shores.

In 1642-1644 Abel Tasman coasted along the western shores of Australia and sailed round the greater part of the island of Van Diemen's Land (now rightly called Tasmania), though he failed to determine its insular character. Tasman then sighted New Zealand, hitherto an unknown land.

In 1699 H.M.S. Roebuck visited and explored the north-west coasts of Australia.

The Discoveries of Captain Cook.—It was reserved for Cook to lead the way in the exploration of the east Australian seaboard. In 1769 Captain Cook was in command of the *Endeavour*, which was sent to Otaheite, in the Pacific, to observe the transit of Venus. On April 28th, 1770, Cook reached Botany Bay, a landing was effected and possession taken in the name of King George III. He then sailed northward between the mainland and the Great Barrier Reef, penetrated into Torres Strait, and placed beyond a doubt the insular character of both New Guinea and Australia.

Cook also surveyed a great part of the coasts of New Zealand between the years 1767 and 1777.

The First Penal Settlements.—The loss of our American colonies caused the Government to look for a new locality to which to send convicts. Botany Bay had been favourably reported on by Captain Cook, and it was determined to found a penal settlement there. The earliest convoy arrived at Botany Bay in January, 1788. It consisted of six convict ships, three store ships, and H. M. S. *Sirius*. The convoy took eight months to make the voyage, and carried 757 convicts, 200 of whom were women.

Captain Philip of the *Sirius* decided to form the settlement at *Port Jackson*, upon which Sydney now stands, a few miles to the north of Botany Bay.

"The early days of the colony were clouded with many difficulties, which arose from the special circumstances attending the foundation of a settlement under such abnormal conditions; and the records of life at the colony during the first few years are mainly an account of the control of a lawless body of men by the strong arm of military despotism."

Repeated convoys of prisoners were sent out, making a total up to June, 1800, of 37 vessels and about 5,000 convicts, one-fifth of whom were females.

Further Discoveries.—In 1797 Mr. Bass sailed through the shallow strait which bears his name, thus proving Van Diemen's Land to be an island, and in 1802 H. M. S. *Investigator* made a survey voyage along the south coast of Australia.

In 1803 we formally took possession of *Van Diemen's Land*, and in 1804 it was determined to use it as an auxiliary penal settlement to New South Wales. Capt. Collins arrived with a batch of convicts from Port Jackson, and founded the present city of Hobart (1804).

The Wretched Condition of the Convict Settlements.—In the early years agriculture made very little progress, and the settlements were frequently on the verge of starvation. After several military governors had held office we see the first step towards prosperity in 1806 under Governor Hunter. He encouraged settlers, other than

convicts, to visit Australia, brought much land under cultivation, introduced sheep from the Cape, and leased out the convicts to the "squatters" as labourers. But the progress made was slow indeed, as may be judged from the following extract dated 1810 from the report of Governor Macquarie:—"I find the colony barely emerging from infantile imbecility, suffering from various privations and disabilities; the country impenetrable beyond 40 miles from Sydney; agriculture in a yet languishing state; commerce in its early dawn; revenue unknown; threatened with famine; distracted by faction; the public buildings dilapidated; the few roads and bridges almost impassable; the population, in general, depressed by poverty; no credit, public or private; the morals of the great mass of the people in the lowest state of debasement, and religious worship almost wholly neglected."

Missionary Enterprise in New Zealand.—It is a relief to turn from the wretched convicts of Australia to a different type of settlement such as we see in New Zealand. Captain Cook had found that the natives were a highly intelligent race, and he is said to have had a scheme for colonising those distant islands, but New Zealand seems to have dropped into temporary obscurity. The visits of whaling and sealing vessels, and the efforts to obtain New Zealand flax for Australia, are the only incidents until 1814, when the earliest representatives of the English Church Missionary Society landed in North Island with the intention of converting the Maories to Christianity, and at once met with a considerable measure of success. This work was the idea of the Rev. Samuel Marsden, Colonial Chaplain at Sydney, who founded the first mission station on the Bay-of-Islands, North Island, in 1814.

CHAPTER XI.

Colonial Growth during the Napoleonic Wars, 1793–1815.

The struggles of the French people to rid themselves of monarchical oppression roused, at first, much sympathy in England, but when the excesses of the mob had culminated in the execution of Louis XVI., and the republicans were endeavouring to assist revolution in England, we were bound in the interests of humanity and for our own protection to declare war against France in 1793. Holland became the subject ally of France in 1795, Spain formed a French alliance in 1796, and upon those respective dates we extended our declaration of war against Holland and Spain.

With the progress of the war in Europe we have little to do, but in various other parts of the world we must proceed to take note of colonial acquisitions.

The First Period of the War, 1793–1802.

In the West Indies.—*Tobago*, which had been ceded to France in 1783, was recaptured by the English, under Admiral Lefroy, in 1793. In 1795 the French colonists in *Grenada* rebelled, and the island being but insufficiently garrisoned by British troops, the revolutionary anarchists effected massacres of British subjects almost unexampled in the annals of civilised nations. A fleet under Sir Ralph Abercrombie arrived in 1796, and the rebels were immediately conquered.

The Dutch Colonies of *Demerara* and *Essequibo* (now British Guiana) were taken by the British, under Major General Whyte in April, 1796.

The island of *Trinidad* was taken from the Spaniards in 1797. This island was discovered by Columbus in 1496, and became a Spanish colony in 1584. Its capital had been attacked and burnt by Raleigh in 1595. Trinidad was a very valuable acquisition as it had an excellent harbour with good trade.

In September, 1798, the Spaniards attacked the harbour of *Belize* with a fleet of 15 ships, and after two days severe fighting were totally defeated in the "Battle of St. George's Cay."*

In Africa.—In 1794 we seized *Mauritius*, upon which Admiral Boscawen had made an unsuccessful attempt in 1748, and the *Seychelles Islands*, then in possession of the French.

In 1652 the Dutch East India Company had formed settlements at Table Bay. The colony grew slowly, but was strengthened by the French Huguenot refugees in 1688. Upon the declaration of war against Holland in 1795 a British force at once took possession of the *Cape Colony*, and with the exception of the period 1803-1806 it has ever since been in English hands.

In Europe.—In November, 1798, General Stuart took *Minorca* from Spain. As this island has had a very varied history it will be convenient to detail the various changes at this point :—

1708. Minorca captured from Spain by General Stanhope.
1756. Taken from the English by the French.
(1757. Admiral Byng was shot for failing to relieve Minorca.)
1763. England regained possession of the island by the Peace of Paris.
1782. Minorca captured by Spain.
1798. Retaken (as above) by England.
1802. Finally restored to Spain by the Treaty of Amiens.

The island of *Malta* had been taken by Napoleon at the outset of his expedition to Egypt (1798), he found in it an enormous quantity of military stores besides an immense

**Cay*, spelt also kay, key, from Spanish *Cayo*, a shelf, a sandbank or rocky islet in the sea.

treasure. The inhabitants rose against the French and confined them to the fortified towns, but on the British appearing in September, 1800, Malta fell into their hands.

In Asia.—The island of *Ceylon* had been held first by the Portuguese (1505) and next by the Dutch (1656), it was captured by the British in 1795 and placed under the control of the East India Company as part of the Presidency of Madras. It became a separate colony under Government rule in 1801.

Malacca had a somewhat similar history. The Portuguese established themselves there in 1511, the Dutch acquired it in 1641, and the British captured it in 1795.

We had acquired from native rulers settlements at *Penang* in 1785 and these were enlarged by the addition of *Wellesley Province* in 1798.

For a brief period we also held the island of Perim, 1799-1800, but it was not permanently occupied until 1857.

The Treaty of Amiens, 1802.—This treaty marked only a temporary cessation of hostilities, but it is necessary to state here the colonial changes :—

1. England to retain *Trinidad* and *Ceylon*, but to restore Malta to the Knights of St. John.
2. France to receive back Tobago, Mauritius and the Seychelles.
3. Spain to have Minorca.
4. Holland to have Cape Colony, Demerara, Essequibo and Malacca.

As the English refused to evacuate Malta until France left Holland and Switzerland (as they had agreed to do) the war was renewed.

The Second Period of the War, 1803-1815.

In the West Indies.—Immediately the war was renewed England seized the Dutch colonies, *Demerara* and *Essequibo*, and the French islands of *Tobago* and *St. Lucia*; in 1805 we also captured *Dominica*.

In Africa.—On the 19th of January, 1806, the Netherlands Governor of the *Cape Colony* after a short and vigorous resistance surrendered to the English, and thus the Dutch rule of this territory finally passed away.

We had considerable trouble with the Kaffirs in South Africa, but in 1812 Sir John Cradock drove them back beyond the Fish River and enlarged our dominions to that extent.

The settlement for freed negroes (see page 52) at *Sierra Leone* was transferred to the Crown upon the passing of the Act to abolish the Slave Trade in 1807.

In 1810 General Abercrombie, acting for the East India Company, took *Bourbon*, *Mauritius* and *Diego Garcia* or the *Chagos* Archipelago, and in 1814 we also took *Rodrigues*, which lies to the north of Mauritius.

In Europe.—We continued to hold Malta and added to our European possessions by seizing *Heligoland* in 1807, this was confirmed to us by the treaty of Kiel in 1814. Heligoland remained in our possession until 1890, when it was restored to the German Empire in exchange for a large district in East Africa.

In Asia.—In 1806 Penang was made a separate presidency under the East India Company, ranking equal to the presidencies of Madras and Bombay.

In 1811 we sent an army to *Java*, then held by the Dutch. Batavia, the capital, surrendered and was placed under the governorship of Mr. Raffles. We held this island until 1817, when it was restored.

During 1815 trouble arose in Ceylon; the native king was defeated and the whole of the island was then placed under British rule.

The Treaty of Paris, 1815.—This treaty was chiefly concerned with the rearrangement of the political boundaries of Europe. The minor colonial clauses were:—

1. England to have *Malta*, *Cape Colony*, *Mauritius*, and neighbouring islands, *Tobago*, *St. Lucia*, *Dominica;* also the three Dutch colonies, Demerara, Essequibo and Berbice (these made up *British Guiana*).
2. France to retain her Newfoundland fishing rights.
3. Holland to receive back Java.

Napoleon's Exile.—The island of *St. Helena*, a possession of the East India Company, was leased to the Government to serve as a prison for Napoleon 1815-1821, and the islands of *Ascension and Tristan d'Acunha* were also garrisoned by parties of marines.

CHAPTER XII.

Indian Affairs, 1765–1815.

Our last chapter upon India concluded with a reference to the tranquillity procured by the just rule of Lord Clive, but the warlike character of the inhabitants of the country did not allow the peace to be long continued.

War with Hyder Ali.—Hyder Ali was the son of a petty chief; he was an adventurer who, by his daring activity and energetic policy, had made himself Rajah of Mysore. He conceived the plan of further extending his conquests and of driving the British out of India; his raids continued from 1767 until his death at the age of 80 in 1782.

His opponent during 1767-69 was Colonel Smith, in command of the Company's forces, but no engagements of the first importance were fought.

The Regulating Act, 1773.—The war with Hyder Ali proved an expensive one, and the stock of the Company was quoted as low as 60. A Committee of Enquiry, appointed in 1772, proposed some alterations in the method of government, and these were embodied in the Regulating Act of 1773.

This Act provided :—

1. That the Governor of Bengal should henceforth be supreme also in Madras and Bombay, and have the title of Governor-General of India.
2. That a sum of money be lent to the Company to assist them in their financial crisis.
3. That a Council consisting of four members be appointed to assist the Governor-General in the management of Indian affairs.

Warren Hastings, Governor-General 1773-1785.—The Governor of Bengal since 1772 had been Warren Hastings, and by virtue of the Regulating Act he became Governor of the whole of India. He had done excellent work in India, established local courts of justice, checked the raiding by robber bands, and managed to effect several economies in finance. But the circumstances under which he was placed were peculiar. The Company looked to him to obtain good dividends, and thus he stooped to many doubtful expedients to obtain money; the Government and public looked to him to rule with justice, and he found frequent collisions between these opposing interests.

The Rohilla War, 1774.—One of the first questionable acts of Warren Hastings was to hire out the Company's troops to Sujah Dowlah for £400,000 so that they might be used by that prince to crush his enemies the Rohillas, who were at the time also threatening the Company's territory. This work the English speedily did, Colonel Champion, who was in command, capturing Rohilcund, the territory of the Rohillas.

The members of the Council appointed by the Regulating Act arrived in India in 1774; one of them was Mr. Philip Francis, the reputed author of the "Letters of Junius." These councillors, for a time, greatly restricted the power of Hastings, as three of the four members constantly voted against him in council, but their resistance to his measures was much more detrimental than otherwise to the good government of the Company's dominions.

First Mahratta War, 1778-1782.—The Mahratta States occupied the whole of Central India, and the greatest of the Mahratta chiefs was the Peshwa, who resided at Poonah. Hearing that the Peshwa was intriguing with the French, Hastings sent an army into the Mahratta States. A few engagements were fought, but the British troops were soon withdrawn because of the serious troubles in South India.

Revival of French Influence.—About this time it began to be noted that there was a great improvement in the drill and discipline of the native forces. This was due to the very general introduction of French officers, who drilled the troops upon European methods. Operations

against the French were therefore decided upon, and taking advantage of the declaration of war with France in connection with the War of American Independence the English seized *Chandernagore*, and after a resistance of

P. W. Ryde

seven weeks they took *Pondicherry*, October 17th, 1778. Several naval engagements took place along the shores of the Carnatic in 1782–1783.

We also captured the Dutch settlement of *Negapatam* in 1781.

Second War with Hyder Ali, 1780–1783.—When Hyder Ali heard of the Mahratta War (see above) he swept through the Carnatic, seizing, plundering, and burning villages. The few English troops stationed there seemed helpless, and the French-led regiments of Hyder Ali gained many successes. Assistance came in 1781 under the veteran victor of Wandewash, Sir Eyre Coote.

Four battles were fought between Coote and Hyder, in each of which the English were victorious, but upon the death of Hyder in 1782 we found a new and active enemy in his son, Tippu Saib.

The treaty of Versailles closed the general war, and the *Treaty of Mangalore*, 1783, closed the Indian section of it. Each side being bound to make restitution we gave back Pondicherry and Chandernagore to the French.

Hastings' Oppressive Rule.—It must be remembered that Warren Hastings had to make India pay, and this will explain, though it will not excuse, the severity of his exactions.

The Rajah of Benares, by name Cheyte Sing, was a very wealthy man, and had on several occasions contributed to the Company's expenses. In 1781 Hastings made a demand upon him for £500,000, and being refused, he had Cheyte Sing arrested and imprisoned. His palace was searched and about half the required amount discovered; his dominions were ultimately annexed to those of the Company.

The late ruler of Oude, Sujah Dowlah, was known to have amassed great treasure, and his wife and mother, called the Begums of Oude, were thought to have hidden it. The gates of their palace at Fyzabad were broken down, and the Begums, with their servants, imprisoned and illtreated. Tortures practised upon two of the chief servants caused them to reveal the hiding place of an amount equal to £1,200,000, which Hastings appropriated for the Company's exchequer.

Warren Hastings was, upon his return to England, impeached for "alleged cruelty and oppression," his treatment of the Begums of Oude being one of the charges against him. The trial commenced in 1788 and lasted until 1795, when Hastings was acquitted on all the charges.

Pitt's India Bill, 1784.—Rumours of these and many other exactions reached England, and there was a general

desire that the method of government in India should be entirely recast. After several attempts at legislation the India Bill, introduced by Pitt, was passed. It provided :—

1. The establishment of the **Board of Control**, a Government body sitting in London, to manage Indian affairs—civil, military, and financial.
2. The appointment of the Governor General to be approved by the Crown.

Lord Cornwallis, 1786–1793.—This Governor devoted the early part of his rule to financial reform, but on the outbreak of the war of the French Revolution, it was evident that there would be strife in India, so he threw his energies into military matters, and was rewarded by seeing a well-equipped army ready to take the field,

In 1789 Tippu Saib appeared in arms, but was forced to retire into his capital.

Seringapatam, 1790.—Cornwallis advanced in 1791, and captured *Bangalore*, and in the following year commenced the *Siege of Seringapatam*. This city he captured, and forced humiliating terms of peace from Tippu, who agreed to cede one-half of his dominions and pay £3,000,000. Seringapatam was then restored to Tippu Saib.

In 1793 we again captured *Pondicherry*.

Sir John Shore was Governor General of India in the period 1793–1798.

Lord Wellesley, 1798–1805.—Lord Wellesley was the elder brother of Colonel Arthur Wellesley, who afterwards became so famous as the Duke of Wellington. The new Governor was a most fitting man to hold authority at this time.

He saw that Napoleon's expedition to Egypt was a mere stepping stone towards India, and he adopted useful measures to make India safe. He seized and fortified the island of *Perim* (see page 58), and he determined to crush Napoleon's Indian ally, Tippu Saib.

War with Tippu Saib, 1799. — The fortress of Seringapatam had been greatly strengthened, so Wellesley decided to attack it immediately. After several important

skirmishes the English appeared before *Seringapatam* for the second time, on April 5th, 1799. The siege lasted until May 4th, when the storming party, gallantly headed by Sir David Baird, entered the city. Tippu fell during the assault, and the whole of his territory passed into our hands.

With Tippu Saib ended the powerful kingdom of Mysore, and by its fall the designs of France against the British Empire were totally frustrated.

Second Mahratta War, 1803–1805.—Two Mahratta chiefs, Sindia and Holkar, rebelled against the Peshwa, who, in December, 1802, requested British help in order to subdue them. The Peshwa promised to bear the expenses of the war and to cede a large territory to the English.

Four armies were prepared to aid the Peshwa; the first to move was that under General Arthur Wellesley who, in the month of August, 1803, advanced into Gujerat and captured the great fortress of *Ahmednuggur* and then against enormous odds won the Battle of *Assaye*, September 23rd, the first great victory of the future "Iron Duke." The Mahrattas under Sindia still fought bravely, but after losing the Battle of *Argaum*, November 28th, they saw their great fortress of *Gwalior* taken by Wellesley on December 15th, 1803, and could hold the field no longer.

Meantime General Lake had pursued a most successful campaign in the Ganges valley. He took *Delhi* on September 11th and *Agra* on October 18th, besides winning many battles with the Mahrattas, who were led by French officers.

When peace was finally concluded, the English became possessed of Cuttack, Ahmednuggur, and the Doab district, and brought the Mahratta chiefs under British influence as "subsidiary pensioners."

The rule of Lord Cornwallis (second time), 1805, and of Sir George Barlow, 1805-1807, call for no special mention.

Lord Minto, 1807-1813.—During this administration we first made our power felt in the Punjaub. This district is peopled by the Warlike Sikhs, and when peace had been made in Southern India, we sent an armed force to stop the

encroachments upon friendly tribes in the North-West. No battles were fought, but Runjeet Singh agreed to enter into a "perpetual friendship" with the English.

Lord Moira, 1813–1822.—Lord Moira's first troubles came from the North, whence the Goorkhas of Nepaul made constant attacks upon our territory. Sir David Ochterlony was sent against them, and the hill fighting was very severe. The Goorkhas were then (as now) fine soldiers; but ultimately they were beaten, and British India was extended to the foot of the Himalayas.

(*For continuation of Indian Affairs see Chapter XV.*)

CHAPTER XIII.

The Development of Canada, 1763–1858.

For several years after the Conquest of Canada great difficulties appeared in the way of British trade. The Indian tribes, in particular, carried on a desultory and destructive warfare which rendered all intercourse with the interior extremely hazardous, and prevented the extension of settlements, either for purposes of trade or cultivation.

The Quebec Act, 1774.—If we call to mind the tone adopted by the British Government towards the New England Colonies, we obtain a good idea of the early treatment to which Canada was subjected, and we can only wonder that the revolt did not spread into that colony as well. The Quebec Act prevented the Canadians from holding an Assembly for local government, and it revived the old French laws, thus depriving English colonists of the rights of *habeas corpus* and trial by jury. Lord Chatham described the Act as "a most cruel, oppressive, and odious measure, tearing up justice and every good principle by the roots."

Period of the War, 1774–1783.—During the War of American Independence, mainly owing to the wise rule of Sir Guy Carleton, Canada remained loyal, and although at one time the Americans invaded the country and captured every fortress except Quebec, they were ultimately repelled. The southern boundary of Canada was fixed by the Treaty of Versailles, 1783.

The Constitution Act, 1791.—Agitation for a greater measure of just government in Canada had been continual

since the passing of the Quebec Act, numerous petitions had been sent by the colonists to the Home Government, and at last, in 1791, a new Constitution was granted.

This Act divided Canada into the two portions, Upper Canada and Lower Canada, the former containing a majority of English settlers, the latter a majority of French. It was arranged that each province should have a Lieutenant Governor, a Legislative Council, and an elected House of Assembly, which had the power to raise taxes.

The House of Assembly of Upper Canada passed, among its earliest laws, an Act to abolish negro slavery, thus being the first public body to legislate in that direction.

There soon appeared a considerable amount of friction between the English and French sections of Canada, although during the war between England and the United States, in 1812–1815, the colonists showed a united and bold front against southern invasion and carried on the border warfare with much spirit.

Abolition of Slavery, 1833.—In 1807 the British Parliament declared the slave trade to be illegal and ordered the Royal Navy to put a stop to it wherever found. In 1833 another step was taken and all slaves in British dominions were ordered to be set free, compensation being paid to their former owners. Slavery was not abolished in the United States until the conclusion of the civil war of 1860–1865, and up to that period Canada was the refuge of many escaped negro slaves.

Rebellion in Canada, 1837.—Lower Canada in French occupation held fast to old laws, old manners, and old customs; Upper Canada was on the contrary full of modern ideas and desire for commercial activity. The French of Lower Canada regarded with great jealousy any legislation which appeared to favour the commercial English, and their Assembly complained of the arbitrary conduct of the Governor and Legislative Council.

Louis Papineau was the principal agitator. He used very strong language in his speeches, openly counselled rebellion and referred to the story of the United States as a guiding example. An attempt was made to arrest him, but his

friends offered an armed resistance and the affair became open rebellion. The movement soon spread and even in Upper Canada skirmishes became common.

At this crisis Lord Durham was sent out to Canada as Governor; he arrived at Quebec in May, 1838. His mission was to obtain full information upon the state of affairs and to provide correct remedies. He seems to have pleased no one and he was soon recalled, but his report was an excellent one and was the foundation for future successful legislation.

The Act of Union, 1840.—This Act was passed to unite Upper and Lower Canada under one government, with a parliament sitting alternately at Toronto and Quebec for periods of four years in each place. In 1858 Ottawa was selected as the permanent seat of government, and the present handsome Houses of Parliament were completed in 1865. This Act is important as it established the principle of colonial self-government, which has done so much to make our colonies prosperous. Lord Durham had said, "the experiment of keeping colonies and governing them well ought at least to have a trial ere we abandon for ever the vast domain which might supply the wants of our surplus population, and raise up millions of fresh consumers of our manufactures and producers of a supply for our wants."

Arrangements were made by the Act of Union which provided that other North American colonies could join if their people were so disposed.

Vancouver Island was discovered in 1592 by Juan de Fuca, and visited in 1792 by Captain George Vancouver, R.N., but the first permanent settlements were not made until 1843, when the Hudson Bay Company built a fort where Victoria now stands. Very few colonists arrived until 1849, when the whole Pacific coast received an accession of population owing to the gold discoveries.

British Columbia was practically under the control of the Hudson Bay Company until 1858, when owing to the discovery of gold it was made a Crown colony. Vancouver Island was united with it in 1866.

The British North America Act, 1867.—This Act of Parliament is beyond the period with which we are now dealing, but it will be interesting to mention here that this measure created the present *Dominion of Canada*. There were originally only four states in the Dominion, Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, but Manitoba joined in 1870, British Columbia in 1871, and Prince Edward Island in 1873. The Hudson Bay Company's territories were added to the Dominion in 1868.

Thus we have traced the growth of one of our principal colonies from the earliest historic times to the formation of the Dominion of Canada, "a growth accomplished in spite of innumerable dangers, hardships and obstacles, overcome by the most dauntless courage and persistency, with too little encouragement and assistance from the mother country from which the dominant race has sprung."

CHAPTER XIV.

Minor Possessions in Asia, 1815–1858.

The Straits Settlements.—*Malacca* had been taken by the English from the Dutch in 1795, but was restored to them in 1818. At one time Malacca was the principal trading depôt of the East Indies, but its trade subsequently centred at Singapore.

In 1819 Sir Stamford Raffles took the island of *Singapore* and founded thereon the present city of that name. At first its progress was slow, but it is now the most important trading place in south-eastern Asia.

In 1824 we again obtained the town and port of Malacca, exchanging for it the East India Company's station at Bencoolen, on the west coast of Sumatra.

Penang, Malacca and Singapore were placed under one government in 1826, the central authority being located at Penang. (Singapore was made the seat of government of the Straits Settlements in 1867.)

Burma.—From 1795 down to 1824 the Indian Government had experienced trouble upon the Burmese frontier, and in the latter year matters reached a climax. Some European and American missionaries had been seized by the Burmese, encroachments had been made upon our territory, and some English traders had been ill-treated. A force landed at Rangun, which became an easy capture. Aracan was taken in 1825, and then the English penetrated to Martaban, which also fell. The entire Burmese army was then met and defeated, and a peace most advantageous to the conquerors was concluded, called the Treaty of Yandabu.

By this treaty we acquired the fertile province of *Assam*, as well as *Aracan* and *Tenasserim*, large trading rights, and treasure to the amount of £1,250,000.

A second Burmese war broke out in 1852, when Martaban, Rangun, Bassein and Pegu were taken by General Goodwin, and the Province of *Pegu* containing the towns of *Martaban* and *Rangun* was annexed to our dominions.

(Upper Burma was not acquired until 1886.)

Ceylon.—We have already dealt (page 58) with the capture of this island. In 1817 a serious native rebellion broke out, which was not quelled until 1819, since which date uninterrupted tranquillity has reigned. The present form of government was introduced in 1833.

Aden.—In the 10th, 11th and 12th centuries the trade of Aden was very great, but in the days of the Cape Route to India it declined and became a place of little importance. When the English established the "Overland Route" to India, *via* Alexandria and Suez, Aden again became of value as a military, naval, and commercial station. In 1839 it was seized by the British and strongly fortified. It is now an important coaling station.

The island of *Socotra* was held by us during the period 1835-1839. (A Protectorate was again declared in 1876, and we annexed it in 1886.)

Borneo.—The island of Borneo has never formed a political unit and there is no native name for the island as a whole, the name Borneo being applied only to the north-west portion.

In 1839 Sir James Brooke arrived at Borneo in his yacht the "Royalist." He was a great traveller and naturalist, and while staying at the island he entered into native quarrels to such an extent that he was finally appointed Rajah of Sarawak. He constantly applied for Government recognition and assistance, but much ill-feeling was aroused against him in England owing to his alleged cruelties, which accounts for the long time which elapsed before the Government took over his territories. Sarawak finally became a British Protectorate in 1888. The Sultan of Borneo ceded the coal-producing island of *Labuan* to the English in 1847.

Hong Kong.—The opium traffic was responsible for the first China War, 1839-1842. Opium was one of the chief products of India—"reduced to plain words, the principle for which we fought in the China War was the right of Great Britain to force a peculiar trade upon a foreign people in spite of the protestations of the Government." (*Justin McCarthy's History of our Own Times.*)

The Chinese were practically helpless against our fleet, and the Treaty of Nankin, 1842, gave us the island of *Hong Kong*, threw open five treaty ports for our trade and provided for the payment of a war indemnity of £4,500,000.

The second Chinese War, 1856-58, increased the number of treaty ports but did not extend our dominions.

The growing importance of our Eastern trade has led us to strengthen the sea route as much as possible. Two such additions, besides Aden, fall within our period:—

Perim.—This island (see page 64) was finally annexed in 1857. Perim was taken on account of its excellent harbour; it is now a coaling station.

The Kamaran Islands, opposite Massowah, in the Red Sea, were annexed in 1858.

CHAPTER XV.

Indian Affairs, 1815–1858.

Lord Moira, 1813-1822.—After subduing the Goorkhas of Nepaul (see page 66), Lord Moira turned his attention to the Pindarees, a freebooting people living between the Nerbudda and the Vindhya Hills. Large armies were employed, and these raiders were successfully suppressed during the years 1817-1818.

Earl Amherst, 1823-1828.—During the rule of this Governor we acquired Lower Burma (see page 71), and had to deal with a mutiny at Barrackpore, November, 1824, in which many Sepoys were killed.

Lord Bentinck, 1828-1835.—Lord Bentinck made many reforms in the social condition of the Hindoos, the chief being the suppression of the practice of Suttee or the burning of widows on the funeral pyre of their deceased husbands.

In 1833, upon the renewal of the Charter of the East India Company, the trade with India and China was thrown open to all; this marks a new era in British commerce.

The Rajah of Coorg was deposed and Coorg was annexed in 1834.

After the short rule of Lord Metcalfe, 1835-1836, we reach the important period of the administration of

The Earl of Auckland, 1836-1842.—The English were at this time very friendly with the Sikhs of the Punjab, but their ruler Runjeet Singh was on bad terms with Dost Mahomed ruler of Afghanistan. Captain Burnes was sent

by Lord Auckland to Cabul to endeavour to establish commercial relations with the Afghan people, but he found Dost Mahomed much under Russian influence, and there was an impression in India that the Russians were pressing forward towards our north-west frontier.

Lord Auckland determined to treat Dost Mahomed as an enemy, he therefore made a treaty with Runjeet Singh, drove Dost Mahomed from his throne and established Shah Soojah in his place.

The Afghan War, 1839-1842.—A force of only 8,000 British troops, under Major General Elphinstone, remained at Cabul to support Shah Soojah, and what might have been expected, soon happened—in November, 1841, the Afghans under Akbar Khan, son of Dost Mahomed, rose in rebellion and drove the British from Cabul. In the retreat from Cabul through the Kyber Pass all the English soldiers, together with their wives and children, were massacred, and only one man, Dr. Brydon, came to Jellalabad "faint and reeling on his jaded horse to bear the tidings of our pain and shame."

Generals Sale and Pollock avenged their slaughtered countrymen in the following year. They defeated Akbar Khan, re-took Cabul in September, 1842, and burnt the principal buildings of that city. Meantime Shah Soojah had been killed, and on the final withdrawal of the British forces Dost Mahomed again occupied the throne of Cabul.

Lord Ellenborough, 1842-1844.—Lord Ellenborough was a man of great ability and energy, though he displeased many by his determination to retire from Afghanistan; public opinion, loudly expressed, induced him to change his mind, and thus the expedition of Generals Sale and Pollock, mentioned above, was carried out.

While the Afghan War was in progress, it had been found necessary to use Karachi as a base for stores, which were despatched northward by the Indus, through Scinde. This was contrary to existing treaties with the Ameers of Scinde and caused trouble with those rulers. Sir Charles Napier was sent to Scinde with very full military and civil powers, and when the British Residency was attacked, he

met and defeated the Ameers at the battles of *Miani* (February, 1843), and *Hyderabad* (March, 1843). The town of Hyderabad then surrendered, treasure to the value of £1,000,000 sterling was captured, and *Scinde* was declared a conquered country and *permanently annexed* to our Indian Empire.

Sir Henry Hardinge, 1844-1848.—Sir Henry (afterwards Viscount) Hardinge was a keen soldier. He had taken part in the Peninsular War and the Waterloo Campaigns, losing one hand at the Battle of Ligny; it was natural that military matters should be much to the fore during his rule; indeed, during the Sikh War he was constantly by the side of Lord Gough, the Commander-in-Chief.

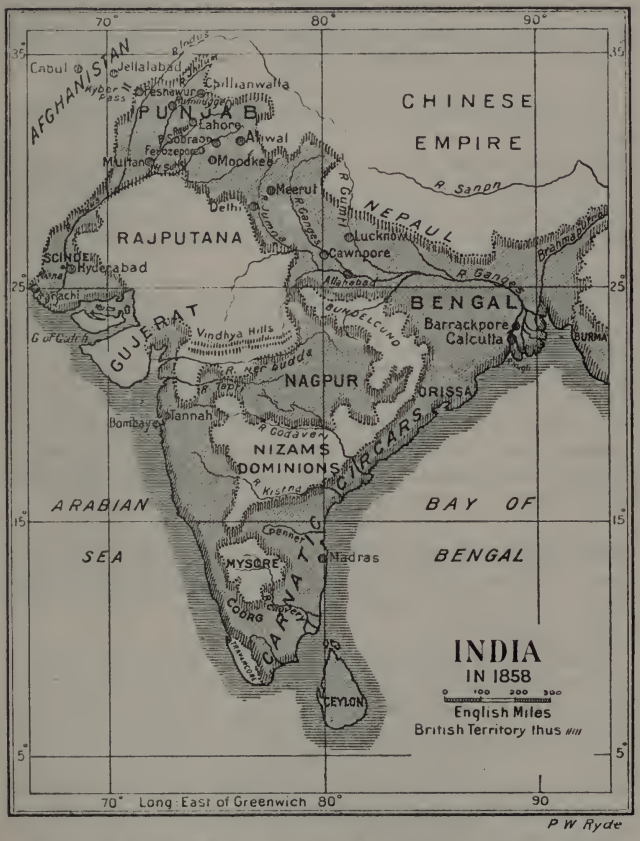
First Sikh War, 1845-1846.—Our old ally, Runjeet Singh, ruler of the Sikhs of the Punjab, died in 1839. During the minority of Dhuleep Singh, his successor, there was a strong animosity shown towards the English by the Sikh military chiefs. This culminated in a sudden attack upon the English post at *Ferozepore*, December 14th, 1845.

Sir Henry Hardinge and Sir Hugh Gough reached *Moodkee* and gave battle on December 18th, and upon the Sikhs retiring, Gough again engaged them at *Ferozepore* on December 21st. In these battles it became apparent that the Sikhs were the finest soldiers we had met in India. Their discipline was splendid, their courage superb, and the descendants of these men now form the flower of our Indian Native Army.

Two more battles, *Aliwal*, January, 1846, and *Sobraon*, February, 1846, preceded the attack upon the Sikh capital, *Lahore*, which was entered on February 20th, 1846, and terms of peace were then arranged. Both Hardinge and Gough were raised to the peerage and received the thanks of the East India Company for their successes during this campaign.

Lord Dalhousie, 1848-1855, was one of the most able administrators sent out to India. He established roads, lines of railway, telegraphs and irrigation works on a large scale; reformed and cheapened the postal service; improved

the system of education, and placed the various sects in the country on a more rational footing towards each other. He greatly extended our territory in India, adding wide districts in Oude, Pegu, and the Punjab, in consequence of which he has been called "the great annexer."



Second Sikh War, 1848-1849.—In April, 1848, two English officers were killed by the Sikhs at Multan, where they had gone upon Government business. An immediate

rising took place and the various English posts were at once besieged. Lord Gough arrived with the relief in November, he drove Shere Singh out of *Ramnugger* (November 22nd) and then fought the great battle of *Chillianwallah*, January 13th, 1849, in which, however, he could not claim an entire victory. Better fortune awaited him at *Goojerat*, where, on February 21st, he inflicted a crushing defeat upon Shere Singh, which was followed by the unconditional surrender of the entire Sikh army.

This war resulted in the *Annexation of the Punjab*.

In 1850 the 66th Bengal Native Infantry were disbanded for mutiny.

The first Indian railway, Bombay to Tannah, was opened on April 16th, 1853, the Ganges Canal was opened in 1854, and the Calcutta Railway on February 3rd, 1855. All these owed their existence to the policy of Lord Dalhousie.

Viscount Canning, 1855-1863.—This Governor holds a unique position among Indian administrators, as during his rule the terrible Indian Mutiny took place. It is said that he was repeatedly warned of what was impending, but he refused to believe it. When the storm burst he met it with a stern, silent fearlessness, and when the hour of triumph came, nothing moved him to rage or revenge. Thus by his moderation and clemency he assisted Havelock and Campbell to re-establish the British authority.

The Indian Mutiny, 1857.—Early in 1857 there were signs of dissatisfaction in our native regiments; in the month of March several regiments were disbanded for mutiny at Barrackpore.

In May the great mutiny broke out. It was not merely a military mutiny but a combination of military grievances, national hatred, and religious fanaticism against the English occupiers of India. The actual cause of outbreak was the refusal of the Sepoys to use the cartridges which had been served out to them, it being alleged that the fat with which the cartridges were greased was degrading to them from a religious point of view.

On May 10th the Sepoys at Meerut fired upon their officers, massacred many Europeans, and proclaimed a native

prince at Delhi as ruler of India. At once the flame spread throughout northern India, at Lucknow, Cawnpore, and throughout Bengal the Europeans were attacked, and even Calcutta was, for a time, a prey to panic; but Lord Canning was equal to the emergency, and, intercepting troops on their way to China and calling in the aid of Sir James Outram, then newly come from a war in Persia, he prepared to strike at Delhi. He was also able to depend upon the Sikhs, among whom, owing to the wise measures of Sir John Lawrence, the mutiny had not spread.

The mutiny centred at Cawnpore, which was captured on June 28th by Nana Sahib and the garrison killed, but the English relief was approaching. Neill had recaptured Allahabad (June 4th) and cleared the country all round it of any trace of rebellion. Havelock was moving from Allahabad to Cawnpore with six cannon and about 1,000 English soldiers. Havelock's march was a series of victories, and he entered Cawnpore on July 17th, 1857, too late, unfortunately, to save the English residents, who were butchered by Nana Sahib.

The work of rescue and reconquest went on rapidly. Delhi was taken by Brigadier Nicholson on September 20th, and Havelock relieved Lucknow on September 25th. Sir Colin Campbell arrived to take command in November, but the gallant Havelock died during the same month. Cawnpore was again captured by the Gwalior rebels, November 27th, but retaken by Sir Colin Campbell the next day. The second relief of Lucknow was accomplished by Campbell, after severe fighting, during March, 1858, and the main part of the work of reconquest was complete.

End of the East India Company.—Since 1784 the Board of Control had supervised the actions of the Directors of the East India Company, and at every renewal of the Company's Charter some privileges were lost to them. The last renewal was in 1853, and that was for 5 years only, not twenty years, as had long been the custom. During the mutiny the impression grew in the public mind that something must be done for India, and after many attempts at legislation, Parliament passed, in the autumn of 1858, "An Act for the Better Government of India."

This Act provided:—

1. That all territories previously under the government of the East India Company were to be vested in the Queen.
2. That a Secretary of State should exercise all powers previously held by the Board of Control.

On November 1st, 1858, Queen Victoria was proclaimed as supreme ruler in all parts of India, and Viscount Canning became the first "Viceroy."

"On December 20th, 1858, Lord Clyde (Sir Colin Campbell) announced to the Viceroy that the rebellion was at an end, and on May 1st, 1859, there was a public thanksgiving in England for the pacification of India."

Thus ended the rule of a Chartered Company which had begun operations more than two-and-a-half centuries before, and had become transformed from a commercial corporation to a wealthy governing body, owning enormous territories, managing imperial interests, and exercising sovereign power over millions of the inhabitants of a country to which they were first admitted merely as traders.

CHAPTER XVI.

Growth of British South Africa, 1815–1858.

At the present time, when so much public attention is directed towards South Africa, the circumstances of its early history are of peculiar interest. We shall consider first the development of the Cape Colony, and then turn our attention to Natal.

Cape Colony.—The First British Emigrants.—We have seen that Cape Colony finally became British in 1814, the recognised territory extending eastward to the Fish River, but it was not until 1820 that the first British colonists arrived. About 4,000 settlers were given farm lands, chiefly in the neighbourhood of Graham's Town, which was then the most easterly town in the Colony.

The Kaffir War, 1834.—For many years the colonists and the Kaffirs carried on hostilities against each other on the north and east frontiers of the Colony. The colonists seized the lands, and in many instances the cattle of the Kaffirs, and they retaliated by incursions into British territory.

In 1834 a great Kaffir raid took place, and it is asserted that they carried off 1,000 horses and many thousand head of cattle. The Governor of the Cape, Sir Benjamin D'Urban, therefore declared war against them and speedily compelled their apparent submission. He also declared the district between the Fish River and the Kei River to be British territory, but this annexation was afterwards disallowed by the Government.

The Great "Trek," 1835–36.—The great majority of the inhabitants of the Cape Colony were, as they are at the present time, of Dutch origin, being the descendants of the Dutch colonists who were the original possessors of the country. These Boers, as they were called, were much dissatisfied with the English rule. Their chief grievances were :—

1. The inadequate compensation allowed them on the forcible emancipation of their slaves in 1833. (Slave emancipation did not harmonise at all with Boer ideas.)
2. The inadequate protection provided by the Government against the Kaffirs.
3. The small amount of the compensation received for losses of cattle and horses during the Kaffir war of 1834.

As no redress of these stated grievances was forthcoming, the Boers decided to leave the Cape Colony in a body, under the leadership of Louis Triechard. Their waggons were accordingly packed, and they began their great "trek" or journey, to seek a new home towards the north-east. Crossing the Orange River, the main body kept on the west side of the Drakensberg Range, and formed their settlements along the banks of the river Vaal. Some of them in 1838 crossed the mountains and entered Natal. Here they were subjected to fierce attacks from the warlike Matabili, under the great king Moselekatse, but receiving aid from fresh bands of "trekkers," they were at length able to hold their own.

Proposed Convict Settlement at the Cape.—The colonists in Australia had determined in 1846 to receive no more convicts, and thus great numbers of prisoners were sent from England to the remaining convict station at Bermuda. This station becoming inconveniently overcrowded, the Government proposed in 1849 to send convicts to the Cape. The opposition to the scheme in the colony was so resolute that the idea was quickly abandoned.

The Orange Free State.—Many of the trekkers settled between the Orange River and the Vaal River, but the English authority followed them there, and in 1848

British sovereignty was officially proclaimed in the country lying north of the Orange River, and the Boers were defeated at the battle of Boomplaats. Some of the Boers of the Orange Free State refused to accept British supremacy with the compulsory condition of abolishing slavery; they therefore trekked again and joined the Boers across the Vaal. But with the increase in our territory there was a decided increase in the expenses incurred through border warfare with the Matabili and this caused dissatisfaction at home, and a strong feeling of opposition to the policy of annexation.

Finally in 1854 it was agreed to give up the Orange Free State to the Boers.

The South African Republic or Transvaal.—The courage of the Boers gained for them a firm foothold beyond the Vaal, and they drove the Matabili beyond the river Limpopo, but they were still subject to native raids and were compelled to follow their herds, arms in hand. When the Boers arrived from the Orange Free State in 1848 Pretorius, their leader, was elected President of the new republic, and the independence of the Transvaal was recognised by the British Government in 1852.*

End of the Kaffir Power.—The appearance of the native prophet Mhlakaza heralded one of the most extraordinary events recorded in the annals of any nation. In August, 1856, this fanatic proclaimed that all the dead Kaffir leaders and warriors would rise from their graves to drive the strangers from the land. Immense herds of cattle would also appear and a general era of native prosperity would ensue. This teaching would have done little harm, but Mhlakaza further stated that to show their faith, the Kaffirs must proceed to destroy their present possessions, including their cattle. This they did, but no miracle of restoration happened, and "despair took

* The Transvaal was re-annexed as a British Colony in 1877. After the Boer rebellion of 1880, the British Government surrendered the Transvaal, retaining, however, the control of all the foreign relations of that State. By the Convention of London, 1884, Queen Victoria was recognised as Suzerain of the Transvaal.

possession of the survivors. Their bravest warriors became crestfallen mendicants, and their love of freedom, their very manhood, was broken for ever."

Natal.—Natal was first sighted by Vasco de Gama in 1497, no settlement was made there until 1721, when the Dutch arrived, but their attempt at colonising ended in failure.

English Occupation.—In 1824 Lieutenant Farewell brought a party of men from Cape Town, who settled on the spot where the city of Durban now stands. The great Zulu king, Chaka, had but recently devastated the land, driving the native inhabitants southwards, but the English were well received by him and a small grant of land made over to them. This trading settlement was maintained by successive drafts from Cape Town.

Arrival of the Boers.—The Boers first appeared in Natal in 1838, having crossed the Drakensberg Mountains with their long strings of cattle and waggons from the north-west. Dingaan, who had succeeded Chaka as king of the Zulus, fell upon them at Weenen and inflicted a severe defeat upon them, but the Boers, although constantly at war with the Zulus, were not driven away. Fighting ensued with the English in 1839, and the Dutch hoisted their flag at Port Natal. They founded Pietermaritzburg as their capital. This name commemorates two of the chief pioneers of the great trek, *Pieter* Retief and Gevrit *Maritz*. English reinforcements arrived from the Cape in May, 1843, and the Boers were forced to submit to our rule ; many of them, however, enraged at seeing a country wrested from them which they had won by so much hardship and bloodshed, preferred to recross the Drakensberg in order to escape from English interference.

Establishment of the Colony.—Natal was proclaimed a British Colony in 1843, but was at first subordinate to the Cape. It was granted a separate government in 1856, and though there have been frequent troubles with the neighbouring Boers and Zulus it is now one of our most prosperous possessions.

CHAPTER XVII.

The Development of Australasia, 1815–1858.

In this chapter the various Australasian colonies are dealt with in the order of their historic importance.

Tasmania.—Previous to 1815 Tasmania, then called Van Diemen's Land, was nothing but a penal station, and the first ship carrying free emigrants from New South Wales reached Hobart in 1816. The suitability of the country for the production of wool and wheat attracted other settlers, and the prosperity of Tasmania was assured. The wool export from Tasmania commenced as early as 1821.

This colony was separated from New South Wales in 1825, Colonel Arthur being its first Governor; he was not popular, as he carried on with much severity the Black War against the natives and also endeavoured to interfere with the liberty of the press. The next Governor was Sir John Franklin, who afterwards gained such great fame as an Arctic explorer.

Transportation of convicts to Tasmania ceased in 1853.

New South Wales, 1815–1846.—In 1815 Governor Macquarie was in authority in New South Wales; he devoted much attention to the making of roads and the founding of towns; Bathurst, Richmond, and Windsor owe their existence to his energy.

During General Brisbane's Government, 1821–1825, a Legislative Council was appointed to assist the Governor, and some improvement was noticed in the class of settlers attracted to the colony.

General Darling, 1825–1831, succeeded, but was unfortunate in ruling during a period of excessive drought and consequent depression of trade. He sent colonising expeditions to New Zealand and to West Australia.

Under Sir Richard Bourke, 1831–1837, many improvements were made in the leasing and selling of land to colonists, and the number of convicts allowed to each squatter as labourers was made to depend upon the amount of land held.

While Sir George Gipps, 1837–1846, was Governor, an Act of Parliament provided a constitution for the colony, which came into force January 1st, 1843. This Act established a Council of 36 members, 24 of whom were elected, 6 Crown nominees, and 6 Government officials.

New South Wales ceased to receive convicts in 1841.

West Australia.—The expedition sent by General Darling to West Australia consisted of a part of the 39th Regiment under Major Lockyer, and a party of convicts. They landed upon the banks of the Swan River, and in 1829 the Government proclaimed the Swan River Settlement to be a separate colony, and Perth, the capital, was founded. Little progress was made, and owing to the want of labour the colony was never in a prosperous state. In 1848 the colonists *petitioned* the Government for a supply of convicts to act as labourers, and convicts were sent there down to 1868, thus making West Australia the last convict colony. The great "boom" of the West Australian goldfields did not take place until 1896–1897.

South Australia was the next to develop signs of progress. In 1829 Captain Sturt commenced his exploring journeys along the Murray, Murrumbidgee and Darling, and the accounts of his discoveries led to the formation of the South Australian Colonization Company, whose object was to sell small plots of land to squatters, and to admit no convicts.

An Act of Parliament to legalise the scheme having been obtained, emigrants left England in 1836 and established themselves on the spot now occupied by the city of Adelaide. The young colony was greatly assisted by the

discovery of copper in enormous quantities at Kapunda, 1842, and Burra Burra, 1845. The Wallaroo Mines were opened in 1860.

New Zealand.—Nothing effective was done with regard to New Zealand until 1840, when the New Zealand Land Company commenced their operations by purchasing land from native chiefs and letting it to emigrants. At first the Home Government was opposed to the scheme, but finally Captain Hobson was sent out as Consul.

He rigorously enforced the conditions of land purchase, so that New Zealand forms a unique example among our colonies of land acquired by the ordinary processes of bargain and sale.

The country was then, by arrangement with the native chiefs, proclaimed a British Colony, and Captain Hobson became first Governor.

In 1842–1843 we were at war with the Maories of New Zealand, the original cause being a massacre of white settlers at Wairu in South Island.

Gold was discovered in 1842 in New Zealand, and this naturally attracted an increased number of settlers.

Up to 1847 this country remained a Crown Colony and Auckland was the seat of Government.

In 1852 a new constitution which is still in force was granted; this came into operation in 1853, and under it the colonists enjoy responsible government with practically household suffrage.

New South Wales, 1846–1858.—Sir Charles Fitzroy (1846-1855) witnessed some remarkable changes in New South Wales. In 1851 gold was discovered in Lewis Pond's Creek near Bathurst. When it was made known that the possible amount was incalculable the discovery threw the whole social system of the colony out of gear; a perfect exodus took place from the agricultural regions, this enormous increase in the wealth of the colony caused a corresponding increase in the price of provisions, and the whole financial system of New South Wales was, for a time, disorganised. Railways were soon laid, and the trade of Sydney rapidly increased. The southern portion of the colony had long been showing signs of dissatisfaction, and in 1851 it was constituted a separate colony under the name of Victoria.

Sir William Denison, 1855-1861, is the last Governor we have to mention. When he began his rule a new constitution, now in force, was granted. This constitution conferred the benefits of responsible government upon the colony.

Internal Exploration.—We have seen in Chapter X. the chief steps in the discovery of the coasts of Australia; it will be convenient to collect here the names of the principal gallant explorers who have revealed to us the secrets of the interior.

The Blue Mountains were crossed in 1813 when some stock breeders were driven by a long drought to seek fresh pastures inland, and this was the first step of inland discovery. Mention has already been made of Captain Sturt's journeys. In 1845 Dr. Leichhardt, a German naturalist, travelled from Sydney to the south-east of the Gulf of Carpentaria. In 1860 the Victorian Government Expedition started from Melbourne under the charge of Messrs. Burke and Wills. They penetrated into the interior

as far as Cooper's Creek, but both died from exhaustion, only one white man of the party, named King, living to return.

In 1861 MacDouall Stewart after two failures crossed from Adelaide to the north coast opposite Melville Island, and along this route the trans-continental telegraph wire now runs.

Warburton explored West Australia from Alice Springs to the Grey River in 1873 and Giles journeyed from Adelaide to the Swan River in 1875.

"Thus the inland regions are now known in their main features, while the details are being gradually filled up by the partial explorations undertaken in connection with the telegraph service, or in quest of gold, springs, or grazing grounds. Altogether the history of Australian exploration forms a chapter in the record of heroism which gives the most exalted idea of the greatness of man." (*Reclus.*)

Victoria.—This colony was originally known as the Port Philip district of New South Wales, and the earliest settlements were made therein in 1834. Two years after this the city of Melbourne was founded, being named after Lord Melbourne, the Prime Minister of Britain. As early as 1841 agitation for separation commenced, which separation was accomplished in 1851. In the same year gold was discovered, and it is now affirmed that two-thirds of the area of Victoria is occupied by gold-bearing rocks. The first Governor of Victoria, Mr. Latrobe, was replaced by Sir Charles Hotham in 1854, who had to deal with the serious Ballarat riots, in which, for a time, the miners defied the Government.

The new constitution, granting responsible government, came into force in 1855.

"Victoria had scarcely drawn the first breath of its separate colonial existence before gold in large quantities came pouring into Melbourne, weekly and monthly. Population was attracted to the colony by thousands, by tens of thousands, by hundreds of thousands from all parts of the world during the first ten years after gold was discovered. Its flocks and herds were multiplied, and the cultivation of its land was extended. Manufactures of various kinds sprang up almost spontaneously."—*Allen's History of Australia.*

Queensland.— As this colony had no separate existence until 1859, it has no place as a distinct state in our present review, but the Moreton Bay district, as it was originally called, requires a brief notice.

The mouth of the Brisbane River was discovered in 1823, and it was at once decided to found a penal settlement in the neighbourhood. In 1824 a party of the most desperate and hardened criminals was despatched to Moreton Bay. Successive batches of violent characters were sent out, and the early convict history of this colony was marked by the most harsh measures on the part of the military governors.

Moreton Bay was thrown open to free colonists in 1842, and after much opposition was made a self-governing colony under the name of Queensland in 1859.

THE FOLLOWING TABLE SHOWS THE STATE OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN 1858 :—

	Country.	Area in Square Miles.	Total Square Miles.	Population.	Total Population.
EUROPE.	The United Kingdom ..	121,115		30,000,000	
	The Channel Islands ..	76		90,000	
	Gibraltar	2		16,000	
	Malta	117		143,000	
	Heligoland..	5		2,000	
	Ionian Islands	1,097	122,412	232,000	30,483,000
	(Heligoland separated from the British Empire in 1891, and the Ionian Islands in 1863.)				
ASIA.	British India	960,160		195,000,000	
	Ceylon..	25,365		1,870,000	
	Straits Settlements	1,472		50,000	
	Hong Kong and Labuan..	63		102,000	
	Aden, Perim, Kuria Muria Islands	98	987,158	50,000	197,072,000
AFRICA.	Cape Colony	217,000		264,000	
	Natal	32,961		153,000	
	Gambia	2,700		6,700	
	Sierra Leone	30,000		42,000	
	Mauritius	705		310,000	
	Rodriguez, Seychelles, Chagos	172	283,538	9,000	784,700
	(Our present African possessions cover upwards of 2,000,000 square miles.)				
AMERICA.	Canada and Eastern States	614,350		3,650,000	
	N.W. Territory, British Columbia and Vancouver Island	2,395,750		185,000	
	Newfoundland & Labrador	162,200		125,000	
	West Indies	13,504		938,500	
	British Honduras	7,562		26,000	
	British Guiana	109,000		150,000	
	Islands in Atlantic	7,600	3,309,966	1,000	5,075,500
AUST.	Australia and Tasmania..	2,972,528		1,346,000	
	New Zealand	104,409	3,076,937	170,000	1,516,000
	GRAND TOTALS ..		7,780,011		234,931,200

In 1897 the British Empire covered an area of 11,250,000 square miles.

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

Reign of Queen Elizabeth, 1558-1603.

1558 Our only Colonial Possession was **Newfoundland** (discovered by John Cabot, 1497).

1576 Martin Frobisher attempted to find the North-West Passage.

1583 Sir Humphrey Gilbert visited Newfoundland and proclaimed the Sovereignty of Queen Elizabeth.

1585 John Davis reached Davis Strait, North America. Sir Walter Raleigh made his first attempt to colonise Virginia.

1587 Sir Walter Raleigh again attempted to plant a Colony; this was at Roanoke, North Carolina.

1588 Trade established with Gambia by some Exeter merchants.

1595 Third failure of Sir Walter Raleigh; this time in South America.

1598 French Convict Settlement founded in Canada.

1600 Foundation of the East India Company.

THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

1601 The East India Company despatched their first ships to India.

Reign of James I., 1603-1625.

1608 Foundation of Quebec by the French.
1609 Renewal of the East India Company's Charter.
1612 First English "Factory" established at Surat.

SETTLEMENT AND ACQUISITION OF THE "UNITED STATES."

Date.	Reign.	State.	First Settled at.	Founders.
1607	JAMES I.	Virginia ..	Jamestown ..	Wingfield.
1620		Massachusetts..	New Plymouth	Pilgrim Fathers.
1620		New Jersey ..	Bergen	Quakers from Massachusetts.
1622		Maine	Saco.	
1623		New Hampshire	Dover.	
1632	CHARLES I.	Maryland ..	St. Mary's and Baltimore.	Lord Baltimore.
1635		Connecticut ..	Hartford ..	Puritans from Massachusetts.
1636		Rhode Island ..	Providence ..	Roger Williams.
1663	CHARLES II.	North Carolina	Albemarle.	
1664		New York ..	Albany ..	The Dutch in 1614.
1664		Delaware ..	Wilmington ..	The Swedes in 1638.
1664		Pennsylvania ..	Chester.. ..	The Swedes in 1638.
1680		South Carolina	Charleston ..	William Sayle.

Vermont was settled in 1725 and Georgia in 1733.
(Exchanging Maine for Georgia, the table contains the names of the States which declared their Independence on July 4th, 1776.)

Reign of Charles I., 1625-1649.

1628 Capture of Quebec by the English. It was restored to France in 1632.
1640 Fort St. George (Madras) founded.
1642 Foundation of Montreal by the French.

Settlement and Acquisition of the West Indies.

Date.	Reign.	Island.	Note.
1605	JAMES I.	Barbadoes	The first permanent settlements were made in 1624.
1610		Bermudas	Settlement by Sir George Somers.
1612		Bahamas	Occupied by settlers from Virginia.
1623		St. Christopher ..	First permanent settlement in the West Indies.
1625	CHARLES I.	Anguilla, Nevis & Barbuda.	Uninterrupted British possession since this date.
1632		Antigua & Montserrat.	The French captured Montserrat in 1664 and Antigua in 1666—we re-took both islands in 1673.
1640		British Honduras..	Visited for timber.
1655		Jamaica	Captured by Penn and Venables. Spanish attack in 1658.
1664	CHARLES II.	St. Lucia	Taken from the French.
1666		Virgin Islands ..	Occupied by settlers from Anguilla.
1666		Tobago	Taken from the French; after several changes it finally became ours in 1763.

In 1762 St. Vincent and Grenada, and in 1797 Trinidad, were taken from the French.

Reign of Charles II., 1660-1685.

1661 Bombay ceded by Charles II. to the East India Company.

1665 Cape Coast Castle captured from the Dutch.

1670 Foundation of "The Hudson Bay Company."

1682 La Salle journeyed from the great lakes down the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico.

Reign of William III., 1689-1702.

1694 The French captured St. John's, Newfoundland.
(It was restored to England by the Treaty of Ryswick, 1697.)

1698 Fort William (Calcutta) founded.

1699 Survey of the North-West Coast of Australia by H.M.S. Roebuck.

THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

Reign of Queen Anne, 1702-1714.

1704 Sir George Rooke captured Gibraltar.

1708 Minorca captured by General Stanhope.
The French took Minorca in 1756, we regained it in 1763.
The Spaniards took it in 1782, we regained it in 1798.
It was finally given back to Spain in 1802.
The French again captured St. John's, Newfoundland.
(It was restored by the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713.)

1711 Government of India remodelled (see page 40).

1713 Treaty of Utrecht (see page 27).

Reign of George I., 1714-172-.

1725 Disputes with the "Fishing Admirals" in Newfoundland (see page 28).

Reign of George II., 1727–1760.

1739 Capture of Porto Bello by Admiral Vernon.

1741 English defeats at Carthagena and Santiago.

1745 Louisburg (Cape Breton Is.) captured by the English.
(This fortress was restored in 1748.)

1746 Fort St. David in Madras captured by the French.

1748 Treaty of Aix la Chapelle (see page 29).

1751 Dupleix made Governor of Southern India.

Clive captured Arcot.

1752 Clive relieved Trichinopoly.

1754 Pittsburg founded by the English. It was taken by the French, and called Fort Duquesne.

The Seven Years' War.

1756 The tragedy of the "Black Hole of Calcutta."

1757 Unsuccessful English attacks upon Rochefort and Louisburg.

Clive's great victory at Plassey.

1758 Capture of Louisburg and Fort Duquesne.

Fort St. David (Madras) captured by Count Lally.

Capture of Forts Ticonderoga, Crown Point, and Niagara.

1759 Capture of Quebec.

Goree (West Africa) and Guadeloupe taken from France.

Naval victories off **Lagos** and **Quiberon** (see page 35).

1760 Capitulation of Montreal.

Great victory by Colonel Coote at **Wandewash** (Carnatic).

Reign of George III., 1760-1820.

1761 Belleisle (Bay of Biscay) captured by the English.

Pondicherry (South India) captured by the English.

1763 St. Helena taken from the Dutch East India Company.

The Peace of Paris (see page 36).

Major Munro's victory at Buxar (Bengal) to avenge the Massacre of Patna.

The American War.

1765 Grenville's Stamp Act. Repealed 1766.

1767 The American Duties Bill.

1770 Lord North repealed all the Taxes of 1767 except that upon Tea.

Captain Cook reached Botany Bay. He surveyed the coasts of Australia and New Zealand in this and the following years.

1773 Destruction of tea in Boston Harbour.

The Regulating Act (India) passed (see page 60).

Warren Hastings became Governor-General of India.

1774 The Rohilla War in India.

The Quebec Act (see page 67).

1775 The affair at **Lexington** (April).

Defeat of the Colonists at **Bunker's Hill** (June).

1776 The Colonists took Boston, General Howe retired to Halifax.

July 4th, Declaration of Independence by the American Colonists.

Battle of **Brooklyn,** English victorious.

1777 General Washington defeated at **Brandywine.**

General Burgoyne surrendered to the Colonists at **Saratoga.**

France agreed to help the United Colonists.

The English seized Chandernagore (India).

1778 Spain promised help to the Colonists.

The English took Pondicherry from the French.

1779 Siege of Gibraltar commenced.

1780 Rodney's victory off **Cape St. Vincent.**

The English captured Charleston and Savannah.

Holland agreed to help the Colonists.

1781 Surrender of Lord Cornwallis to the Colonists at **Yorktown.**

War in the Carnatic with Hyder Ali.

1782 Great victory near **Jamaica,** Admiral Rodney defeated the French (April 12th).
The grand **attack upon Gibraltar,** September 13th, defeated.
1783 **Treaty of Versailles** (see page 51).
Treaty of Mangalore (see page 63).

1784 Pitt's **India Bill** instituted the **Board of Control** (see page 63).
1785 Penang District acquired from native rulers.
1787 Sierra Leone purchased by English philanthropists.
1788 Arrival of the first convicts at Botany Bay.
1789 Appearance of Tippu Saib in India.
1790 **Seringapatam** captured by Lord Cornwallis.
1791 The Constitution Act remodelled the government of Canada.
1792 Captain Vancouver visited the island named after him.
1793 Pondicherry again captured from the French.

The Napoleonic Wars, 1793-1815.

1794 The English captured Mauritius.
1795 **Cape Colony,** Malacca and Ceylon taken from the Dutch.
1796 Demerara and Essequibo taken from the Dutch.
1797 Captain Bass sailed through Bass Strait.
Trinidad taken from the French.
1798 Wellesley Province added to Penang.
1799 Perim occupied (see page 64).
Second capture of **Seringapatam.** Death of **Tippu Saib.**
1800 Capture of **Malta.**

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

1802 **Treaty of Amiens** (see page 58).

1803 The English took possession of Van Diemen's Land.

Wellesley's great victory over the Mahrattas at **Assaye** (September).

Delhi and **Agra** captured by General Lake.

Wellesley captured the great Fortress of **Gwalior** (December).

1804 Convicts first sent to Van Diemen's Land, the city of Hobart founded.

1806 The **Cape Colony** again **taken from the Dutch** (see 1795 and 1802).

1807 The Slave Trade abolished. Sierra Leone transferred to the Crown.

Heligoland captured (see page 59).

1810 General Abercrombie captured Bourbon and Mauritius.

1811 Capture of Batavia (Java) from the Dutch. Restored in 1819.

1812 The Kaffirs driven to the east of the Fish River.

1813 The Blue Mountains of New South Wales first crossed.

1814 Arrival of English Missionaries in New Zealand.

1815 **The Treaty of Paris** (see page 59).

1816 Arrival of the first free emigrants at Hobart.

1818 Malacca restored to the Dutch.

Lord Moira suppressed the Pindarees.

1819 **Singapore** captured by Sir Stamford Raffles.

Native rebellion in Ceylon suppressed.

1820 Arrival of the **first British Colonists in Cape Colony.**

Reign of George IV., 1820-1830.

1824 Convict Settlement founded at Moreton Bay (Brisbane).
Mutiny in India at Barrackpore.
Lieutenant Farewell made the first English Settlement in **Natal**.

1825 Treaty of Yandabu (see page 71).
Tasmania separated from New South Wales.

1826 Penang, Malacca and Singapore placed under a central authority at Penang.

1829 The Swan River Settlements (West Australia) proclaimed a separate Colony.
Captain Sturt explored the Murray, Murrumbidgee, and Darling.

Reign of William IV., 1830-1837.

1833 Slavery abolished in the British Dominions.
The China Trade thrown open.

1834 Coorg (India) annexed.
War with the Kaffirs in Cape Colony.
Earliest settlements at Port Philip (Victoria).

1835—1836 **The Great Trek** or journey of the Boers toward the north-east.

1836 The city of **Adelaide** (South Australia) founded.
The city of **Melbourne** founded.

Reign of Queen Victoria, 1837-1858.

1837 Rebellion in Canada.

1838 Lord Durham's mission to Canada.
Arrival of the Boers in Natal.

1839 Boer War in Natal.

1839 **Aden** seized by the British and strongly fortified.

1839—1842 First China War, **Hong Kong** acquired.

1839 Outbreak of the **War in Afghanistan.**

1840 Upper and Lower Canada united by the **Act of Union.**

The New Zealand Land Company commenced to purchase land.

1841 Massacre of the English in the Kyber Pass.

Transport of convicts to New South Wales ceased.

1842 The English under Sale and Pollock captured Cabul.

Outbreak of the War with the Maories in New Zealand.

Discovery of Gold in New Zealand.

1843 Annexation of Scinde.

The Boers of Natal forced to submit to English rule.

Natal proclaimed a British Colony.

Representative government granted to New South Wales.

The Hudson Bay Company built a fort at Victoria (Vancouver Is.)

1845 Discovery of Copper at Burra Burra (South Australia).

Dr. Leichhardt journeyed from Sydney to the Gulf of Carpentaria.

1845—1846 The First Sikh War.

1846 Sir Hugh Gough's victories at Aliwal, Sobraon, and Lahore.

1848—1849 The Second Sikh War. Lord Gough's victories at Chillianwallah and Goojerat. This War resulted in the **Annexation of the Punjab in 1849.**

1848 Convicts first sent to the Swan River Settlements.

British Sovereignty proclaimed in the Orange Free State.

Numerous Boers left the Free State and entered the Transvaal.

The Transvaal Republic established.

1849 Proposal to use Cape Colony as a convict station abandoned.

1851 Gold discovered near Bathurst, New South Wales.
Victoria separated from New South Wales.

1852 The Transvaal Republic recognised by the British Government.
Responsible government established in New Zealand.

1853 Opening of the First Indian Railway.
Transport of convicts to Tasmania ceased.

1854 The Orange Free State became independent.
Opening of the Ganges Canal.

1855 Responsible government established in New South Wales.
Responsible government established in Victoria.

1856 Natal separated in government from Cape Colony.
Extraordinary predictions of the Kaffir prophet Mhlakaza.

1856—1858 Second China War.

1857 Perim annexed.
The Indian Mutiny broke out (May 10th).

1857 Nana Sahib captured Cawnpore (June 28th).
General Havelock recaptured **Cawnpore** (July 17th).
Brigadier Nicholson recaptured **Delhi** (September 20th).
First Relief of Lucknow by General Havelock (September 25th).

1858 **Second Relief of Lucknow** by Sir Colin Campbell (March 14th to 19th).
An **Act for the better Government of India**. This terminated the rule of the East India Company.
Queen Victoria proclaimed ruler of India (November 1st).
Ottawa selected as the seat of Canadian Government.
British Columbia made a Crown Colony.

GLOSSARY OF TERMS.

A Selection from the *Complete Glossary* of Historical and Geographical Terms sent to Certificate Students.
Session: 1898–1899.

Arbour Day.—June 11th. Instituted in 1888. Upon this day in Canada everyone is supposed to plant a tree. It is a general holiday.

Aryan.—A Sanskrit word signifying "noble." A term frequently used to include all the races (Indo-Persic, Greek, Roman, Celtic, Slavonic, &c.) who speak languages belonging to the same family as Sanskrit (see Sanskrit).

Begum.—A lady, a queen.

Blackbirder.—A trading schooner (or the captain thereof) formerly engaged in carrying Kanakas to work in the Queensland sugar plantations. This species of slave-trade has now been suppressed.

Boer.—German, Bauern, a peasant, a boor.

Boomerang. — A remarkable hunting instrument and weapon used by the aborigines of Australia. It has been discovered that similar instruments were used by the Dravidians of the Deccan and by some Indian tribes of California.

Brahmans.—See Caste.

Brahminism is nature worship, external phenomena being personified as conscious beings and worshipped as the Devas or shining ones.

Buddhism is a religion essentially a revolt against Brahminism. A Buddha is a deified man and he is reverenced for his sanctity. Sakya Muni, fourth Buddha, was born 662 B.C., died 543 B.C. The Thousand Years of Buddha, when Buddhism was the chief religion of India, were 250 B.C. to 750 A.D.

Bureaucracy (*eauc* pronounced as *oc*) is government by state departments, acting with some measure of independence of each other, instead of government by the heads of those departments acting as a cabinet upon their joint responsibility.

Bushrangers.—Australian, or more strictly speaking, New South Wales highwaymen, who ranged the "Bush" lying in wait for travellers. Gold finders were the great objects of attack.

Caste.—A distinct section of society in India. In the laws of Menu the Hindus are divided into four castes—Brahmans (sacred caste), Kshatrya (military caste), Vaisya (commercial caste), Sudras (servile caste).

Char Minar.—The mosque at Hyderabad, capital of the Nizam's Dominions; it is an exact copy of the mosque at Mecca. Hyderabad is the chief Mohammedan city in India.

Crown Colony.—A colony in which all the Government officials are appointed by the Crown; there is no Parliament, and no share in the Government is held by the population.

Doab (Persian, *do*, two, and *ab*, water).—A name given in India to a tract of country lying between the confluence of two rivers. It is specially applied to the tract of country in Upper India situated between the Ganges and the Jumna.

Dōm.—The name of a very low caste representing some old aboriginal race spread all over India. In many places they perform such offices as carrying dead bodies, removing carrion, &c.

Dominion Day.—July 1st, upon which the declaration of the Dominion of Canada is celebrated. The first Dominion Day was July 1st, 1867.

Durbar.—An Indian term for an audience chamber or reception. A durbar is held when the Governor General or Viceroy wishes to confer with native princes.

Empire Day.—"In the public schools of the Province of Ontario, Canada, a day is set apart each year as 'Empire Day.' This year, according to a circular which the Education Department has just issued to the school Inspectors throughout the province, May 23rd has been chosen. It is proposed to devote the morning of the 23rd to a familiar talk upon Canada's relation to the Empire, together with readings from Canadian and British authors. In the afternoon patriotic recitations, songs and speeches will be given. The public will be invited to attend these exercises."

Daily Chronicle, April 7, 1899.

Fakir (Arabic, *faquir*, poor), applied in India to religious mendicants who wander through the country and are universally respected for their sanctity and self-mortification.

Firman.—A decree, mandate or order of an Eastern monarch issued for any purpose, as a passport, permit or licence. It is a Persian word, *farman*, a mandate.

Forefather's Day.—December 20th: An American festival to commemorate the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers.

French Shore.—The western shore of Newfoundland, where the French still enjoy full fishing rights although Newfoundland is a British Colony.

Goorkhas.—The dominant race of Nepal, subdued by the British in 1814. They are brave and faithful soldiers,

and have given valuable aid to the British before, at, and since the Mutiny. Taken as a body of men, and as soldiers, the Goorkhas are among the best, if not the best of the Queen's foreign subjects.

Hinterland.—*Hinder land*, or land in the interior, considered with respect to its coast line. The "Hinterland Policy" is a policy first proposed by Germany and adopted by other European nations. It implies that when a power has made good its claim to the coast of a new country, the "hinter-land" or "inland" districts may also be claimed. Africa has been to a great extent divided among European nations according to this policy.

Independence Day.—July 4th. A great festival in the United States of America (see page 49).

Jama Musjid.—The Grand Mosque at Delhi; it is one of the architectural glories of India; it was erected by Shah Jehan (1628-1658). The old palace of Shah Jehan at Delhi is commonly called the Fort; it covers 120 acres of ground and is now used as barracks. The entrance hall is 380 feet long, and forms one of the grandest apartments in the world. The buildings are a marvel of grace and elegance.

Koh-i-Noor, or "Mountain of Light," a large diamond variously valued at from £120,000 to £140,000, now in possession of the Queen. It was discovered near the Godaveri in 1550, and passed into the possession of Shah Jehan. Its name was given to it by Nadir Shah, who owned it in 1739. It passed from Dhuleep Sing to the British in 1849, and was a prominent object in the great International Exhibition held in London in 1851.

Kutab's Tower of Victory at Delhi dates from the thirteenth century. This great column is divided into five stories by circular galleries, sculptures and inscriptions in relief. The tower diminishes in diameter upwards, so that its absolute height is apparently increased by the laws of perspective.

Maharajah (Sanskrit: *mahat*, great, and *rajam*, a king).—A title assumed by some Indian princes.

Mahrattas.—A people of India living in the N.W. of the Deccan, which they overran in 1676. They made an alliance with the East India Company in 1767, made war against it in 1774, and were not subdued till 1818.

Mogul.—The Mogul Dynasty was founded in India by Baber, the first of the Great Moguls. These rulers governed in Delhi from 1526 to 1857. Travellers constantly speak of the Great Mogul, but the court title was Badshah, the Persian for king. The word Mogul is a corruption of Mongol, and Baber was a Tartar, being descended from Timur the Tartar. The greatest of the Moguls was Akbar, and the last to have real power was Aurungzebe. The ruler of Delhi, Behaudur, was deposed and executed in 1857 for his share in the Mutiny.

Mosques.—Mohammedan places of worship. They are commonly rectangular buildings surmounted by a dome (of Byzantine origin) and flanked by minarets. The interior has only a matted floor and decorated walls.

Nova Scotia Baronets.—(See page 18.)

Panj Mahal, 21 miles west of Agra.—A splendidly preserved Indian monument built by Akbar.

Parsees.—Inhabitants of Pars or Persia, a name now given to those who follow the ancient faith of Persia or Zoroastrianism. The name of Fire Worshippers, which is applied to the Parsees, they repudiate. They believe in one God, and regard fire as an emblem of divinity. Their creed is—pure thoughts, pure words, pure deeds.

Pemmican.—A kind of preserved meat, originally prepared by the North American Indians. Similar preparations of greater feeding value have been made for the various Polar expeditions.

Protectorate.—A position sometimes assumed by a strong country towards a weak one. The word is occasionally used to describe the weaker country. The protecting state upholds the interests of the weaker country, taking in return a greater or less interest in the management of its domestic and foreign affairs.

Protocol.—An original draft or copy. The protocol of a charter or convention is sometimes referred to in political geography.

Rajah (Sanskrit, *rajam*, a king).—A Hindoo king or chief.

Rajput (Sanskrit, the son of a king or of kings).—An Indian aristocratic and military caste. Their main seat is Rajputana, in which are various protected Rajput states.

Rohillas.—An Afghan tribe who established themselves at the end of the 17th century in the eastern parts of Delhi. They were defeated by the English in 1774 and finally subdued in 1849.

Rupee.—The silver coin which is the standard measure of value throughout India. It was first struck by the Afghan Emperor, Shere Shah, and forthwith adopted by Akbar and the Mogul dynasty.

Sanatorium (Lat., *sanator*, a healer).—A place to which people resort for the sake of their health: a hospital for convalescents.

Sanskrit.—The language of the Brahmins of India spoken at the time of Solomon. Many translations of the Sanskrit Vedas (which see) have been published by the East India Company, Philologists have discovered an intimate connection between the Sanskrit, Persian, Greek, Latin, Teutonic, Slavonian, Celtic and Scandinavian languages.

Shway-Dagon.—The most beautiful and most venerated of Burmese pagodas: built in the 6th century B.C. at Rangun.

Sikhs.—A warlike people of the Punjab.

Singhalese.—The people of Ceylon. They are Buddhist Aryans, and number two-thirds of the population.

Sphere of Influence.—Circuit or range of action. Certain territory allowed by treaty to be under the influence of a particular nation. A "sphere of influence" frequently becomes a "Protectorate," and may become a "Colony."

Squatter.—This word is probably American, but is now exclusively applied to the holders (on lease from the Government) of large sheep and cattle "runs" in Australia and New Zealand.

Sudras.—See Caste.

Sunderbunds.—The name of the tract of intersecting creeks and channels, swampy islands and jungles which constitutes that part of the Ganges Delta nearest the sea.

Sunnites.—The principal sect among the Mohammedans, so called because they acknowledge the authority of the Sunnat, or collection of Traditions.

Suttee.—The rite of widow-burning, *i.e.*, the burning of the living widow along with the corpse of her husband, as formerly practised by people of certain castes among the Hindus, and particularly by the Rajputs.

Suzerain.—A title signifying lord paramount, or superior lord.

Taj Mahal.—The tomb raised by Shah Jehan (see also Jama Musjid) to his wife Arjaman Benu at Agra. It is the most finished monument of Persian art. With the harmony of its lines it combines a lavish wealth of costly materials and exquisite details, although many of the precious stones decorating its surface, together with its silver gates, were carried off by the Mahrattas.

Tamils.—A native race inhabiting the South of India and Ceylon, and belonging to the Dravidian stock. The Tamil language is highly polysyllabic and very soft and harmonious in utterance.

Vaisya.—See Caste.

Vedas.—The sacred books of the Hindoos, written in Sanskrit, and probably produced 1000 B.C. Veda means knowledge. These books comprise hymns, prayers, and liturgical formulæ.

Veddahs.—An ancient people of Ceylon. They are of the lowest type of human beings.

Viceroy (Lat., *vice*, in place of, and *rex*, king).—The title of an officer representing the regal authority in a dependency, as the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland.

Victoria Bridge, 1¾ miles long, crosses the St. Lawrence at Montreal; erected 1854-59.

White Elephant.—"King of the White Elephant" is the proudest title borne by the kings of Ava and Siam. In Ava the white elephant bears the title of "Lord," and has a minister of high rank to superintend his household. The King of Siam is said to make a present of a white elephant to such of his courtiers as he wishes to ruin; thus the expression means to have an expensive and unprofitable dignity to support.

Wigwam.—An Indian hut or cabin. It is generally of a conical shape, formed of bark or mats laid over stakes planted in the ground, and converging towards the top, where there is an opening for the escape of smoke.

Zenana.—Belonging to women: that part of the house among the Hindus of good caste which is set apart for the use of women. The Zenana Mission, which has done so much to better the lot of Hindu women, was founded by the Rev. J. Fordyce and Mrs. Mullens.

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES.

Abercrombie, General, 1734–1801.— Sir Ralph Abercrombie was born in Scotland, and entered the army in 1756. He saw service in Holland, and in 1795 was given the chief command in the East Indies. He took from the enemy there Grenada, Trinidad, St. Lucia and St. Vincent. He was killed in action near the Bay of Aboukir, in Egypt.

Auckland.—George Eden, **Earl of Auckland,** born 1784, died 1849, held successively several public offices, the chief being that of Governor-General of India. During his rule, 1836–1842, the Government was chiefly engaged in the Afghan war.

Baffin, William, discovered in 1616 the Bay which now bears his name. During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the honesty of Baffin was disbelieved, and his discoveries were expunged from the charts, but Sir John Ross, by sailing over the same seas, established the truth of Baffin's claims in 1818.

Bass, Mr., was surgeon of H.M.S. *Reliance*. He borrowed a small sloop from the Governor of New South Wales and in it first circumnavigated Tasmania. This was in 1798, and the Strait to the north of Tasmania is named after him.

Boscawen, Edward, 1711–1761, was a distinguished British admiral. He was present at Porto Bello and Carthagena, and took part in the Battle of Finisterre, 1747. His great victory over the French in the Bay of Lagos occurred in 1759; for this he received the thanks of Parliament.

Brooke, Sir James, 1803–1868.—He was born at Benares, and first saw service in the Burmese war of 1823. He visited Sarawak in 1839, and ultimately became Rajah of Sarawak. He continually urged upon the British Government the advisability of annexing Borneo and Labuan.

Burgoyne, John, 1730–1792.—A British general of note during the war of American Independence. He led an army from Canada into the United States, but was compelled to surrender at Saratoga. He was afterwards made Commander-in-Chief in Ireland, and he devoted much time to literary pursuits. He was one of the original managers of the impeachment of Warren Hastings.

Cabot, John, was a Venetian sailor in the employ of Henry VII. He set sail from Bristol in 1497 to find a North-West passage to China. He touched at Newfoundland and Labrador and coasted down to Florida.

Campbell, Sir Colin, afterwards **Lord Clyde,** 1792–1863.—He was born at Glasgow, and entered the army in 1808. He distinguished himself in the United States, China and India, and commanded the Highland Brigade during the Crimean War. His "thin red line" of the 93rd Highlanders at Balaklava beat back masses of Russian cavalry. He was immensely popular with his men and reached the height of his fame when he quelled the Indian Mutiny and saved the English Empire in India.

Canning, Earl, (Charles John), 1812–1862, son of the great orator, George Canning, was elected as M.P. for Warwick in 1836, and subsequently held several Government offices. He was appointed Governor-General of India in 1856 (see page 78).

Carver, John, was the first Governor of New Plymouth. He was an elder in the Church, and sailed with the Pilgrim Fathers in the *Mayflower*. He was a firm and prudent ruler; he died in 1621.

Chatham, Earl of, see Pitt.

Clive, Lord, 1725–1774.—Robert Clive was born near Market Drayton, in Shropshire; his father was a lawyer,

but young Robert showed no early signs of his future greatness. He became a "Writer" in the service of the East India Company, and on the outbreak of the war with the French he entered the Company's army. His conquests have been already detailed (see pages 42, 43), and he finally returned to England in 1767. He lived for a time in great state, became addicted to opium-smoking, and at last committed suicide.

Cook, Captain James, 1728–1779.—He was born in Yorkshire, and first went to sea in coasting vessels. He entered the Royal Navy, and received rapid promotion. He was employed in many important voyages of survey and discovery. He made known much of the geography of Australasia and of the Pacific Ocean. He was stabbed in the back by a native on the shores of Hawaii, February 14th, 1779.

Cornwallis, Charles, Marquis, 1738–1804.—He had a remarkable career in the public service. While still a young man he received many good appointments, including that of Governor of the Tower of London. At the age of 39 he was appointed to supreme command of the forces engaged in the war with the United States, but was, in 1781, compelled to surrender with all his troops, at York Town, in Virginia. He received no censure for this, but was appointed Governor-General of India (1786–1793), where he showed himself an able, honest and industrious ruler. When he returned to England he was made Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and it was he who put down the Irish Rebellion of 1798. He was again appointed Governor-General of India in 1804, but did not live long to enjoy the honour.

Dalhousie, Marquis of, 1812–1860.—James Andrew Brown Ramsay was one of the most energetic Indian administrators that Britain has produced. He is first known as Lord Ramsay, and as such he entered Parliament in 1837. For an account of his Indian rule see page 76.

Davis, John, was born near Dartmouth, in Devonshire. Between 1585 and 1588 he made three voyages in search of the North-West Passage, and discovered the Strait

which bears his name. He was killed in 1605 in Malacca. He wrote several books dealing with the principles of seamanship.

Drake, Sir Francis, 1540–1595, was born at Tavistock, in Devonshire. "More than any other man Drake was the founder of England's naval greatness." He was "chaste in his life, just in his dealings, true of his word, merciful to those who were under him, and hating nothing so much as idleness."—*Fuller.*

Durham, Lord, 1792–1840.—John Georgé Lambton was born at Lambton Hall, Durham, and entered Parliament as an advanced Liberal in 1813. He was created a peer in 1828, and was almost the sole supporter of the Reform Bill in the House of Lords in 1832. He was sent out to Canada as Governor-General in 1837 (see page 69). He was afterwards censured by the House of Commons for transporting the leaders of the Canadian Rebellion to the Bermudas.

Ellenborough, Lord, 1790–1871.—Edward Law, orator and statesman, was President of the Board of Control before he was appointed Governor-General of India. For the account of the Afghan war see page 75. After his return from India he held several appointments, the chief being First Lord of the Admiralty and Indian Minister.

Elliott, George Augustus, 1718–1790.—He entered the army at the age of fifteen, and was present at the Battle of Dettingen. In 1775 he was appointed Governor of Gibraltar, which fortress he gallantly defended against the combined French and Spanish attack in 1782. He was created Lord Heathfield.

Franklin, Sir John, 1786–1847.—He was born at Spilsby, in Lincolnshire, and entered the Royal Navy as a midshipman. He was present at the Battle of Copenhagen in 1800, and then went with Captain Flinders in the *Investigator* to explore the coasts of Australia. He was at Trafalgar in the *Bellerophon.* He commanded the *Trent* in the Arctic expedition of 1818, and performed many wonders of discovery and endurance. He was Governor of Van Diemen's Land, 1838–1844, where he was very

popular. His last Arctic Expedition, consisting of the *Erebus* and *Terror*, sailed in 1845; from this he never returned.

Frobisher, Sir Martin, was born at Doncaster about the middle of the sixteenth century. Under the patronage of Dudley, Earl of Warwick, he sailed in 1576 to discover the North-West Passage. He conducted two other expeditions with the same object in the two following years, but all were unsuccessful. He died in 1594 of a wound received during an attack upon Brest.

Gage, General, was made Governor of Montreal in 1760, and upon the outbreak of the American war he was given command of the British forces and made Governor of Massachusetts. He was greatly disliked by the Americans. After the battle of Bunker's Hill he was superseded by General Howe. He died in 1787.

Gilbert, Sir Humphrey, 1539–1583, took a prominent part in laying the early foundations of our American colonies. In 1579, and again in 1583, he conducted expeditions to Newfoundland.

Gough, Lord, 1779–1869.—Hugh Gough was born in Limerick County, and entered the army in 1794. He was present at many of Wellington's victories in the Peninsula. From 1843 till 1850 he was Commander-in-Chief in India, and conducted the two wars with the Sikhs which secured to us the Punjab.

Hardinge, Henry, Viscount, 1785–1856.—He was born in Durham, and entered the army in 1800, serving through the Peninsula and at Waterloo. Upon the death of the Duke of Wellington he became Commander-in-Chief of the British army. He was Governor-General of India 1844–1848 (see page 76).

Hastings, Warren, 1732–1818.—Warren Hastings was born at Daylesford, in Worcestershire. In 1750 he entered the service of the East India Company as a "Writer." His first promotion came from the hands of Clive; he was made Agent at the Court of Meer Affier. From 1761 to 1764 he was member of the Council which sat at

Calcutta. In 1769 he became member of the Madras Council, and in 1772 he was appointed President of the Supreme Council of Bengal, where he proved himself a zealous servant of the Company (see pages 61–63). The expenses of his great trial ruined him, but he received a handsome annuity from the Company, and retired to Daylesford, where he spent the closing years of his life.

Havelock, Sir Henry, 1795–1857.—He was born at Bishopwearmouth, in Durham, and entered the army in 1815. He served during the Burmese, Afghan and Sikh wars, and was sent by Lord Canning in 1857 to relieve Cawnpore. He arrived too late to prevent the massacre, but he defeated Nana Sahib in several battles. He then fought his way into Lucknow, where he was in turn relieved by Sir Colin Campbell. He died of dysentery a few days after this relief. He is ever remembered as the true type of a Christian gentleman and soldier.

Hawkins, Sir John, 1520–1595, was one of the great seamen of the age of Elizabeth. He was a fierce enemy of the Spaniards, but he was generous and kind in his private life. He founded a hospital at Chatham for the relief of distressed mariners. He originated the slave trade.

Howe, Lord, 1725–1799.—Richard Howe was a famous British admiral. He entered the navy at the age of fourteen, where he soon became conspicuous as a gallant and intelligent officer. He is described as the ablest sea-captain of his day. He fought the French at Quiberon in 1759, took New York and Philadelphia in 1776, defeated D'Estaing off Rhode Island 1778, and relieved Gibraltar in 1782. His greatest victory was that of "the glorious first of June" off Ushant, 1794.

Napier, Sir Charles, 1782–1853, was born in London, and entered the army in 1794. He served through the Peninsula, and was on more than one occasion severely wounded. (Napier's History of the Peninsular War was written by his brother, Sir William Napier). In 1841, Sir Charles was made Commander-in-Chief of the Bombay army, and while holding this office he conquered Scinde, winning the brilliant battle of Miani. There is a statue to his memory in Trafalgar Square.

Penn, William, 1644–1718, was the son of Admiral Penn, and was expelled from Oxford for having adopted and given expression to extreme Quaker views. He published many books, and was on more than one occasion sent to prison. The Government owed his father £16,000, and when this claim passed to William he took, instead of the money, a large grant of land in North America, where he founded the Quaker State of Pennsylvania. In 1681 he went to America, and in 1682 he issued a set of constitutional laws for the government of his colony. He has been always known as a good man and a conscientious administrator.

Pitt, William, 1708–1778, also known as "the Elder Pitt," "the Great Commoner," and the Earl of Chatham. He entered Parliament as member for Old Sarum, and soon made his mark as leader of the "Boys," as the younger Whigs were called. In 1756 he was Secretary of State, and was really the head of the Government. Again, in 1757, he managed Foreign Affairs under Newcastle, and entered upon the most brilliant period of his career. His policy was war, and everywhere the British arms were victorious. In India, in Canada, and on the high seas, France was defeated by the wise measures of Pitt. Owing to his health failing he resigned office in 1768, but came once more into the House of Lords in 1778, to speak against a motion of the Duke of Richmond for making peace with America. He was carried dying from the House.

Pitt, William, the younger, 1759–1806, was the second son of the Earl of Chatham. He entered Parliament as member for Appleby in 1781. He became Chancellor of the Exchequer at the age of 24. He made many efforts to procure better government for India, and is said to be the "first English minister who really grasped the part which industry was to play in the welfare of the world." He was a supporter of the movement for the abolition of the slave trade. He was at the head of the Government when the war of the French Revolution broke out, and the anxieties of his position hastened his end. Macaulay says of him: "He was the greatest master of the whole art of Parliamentary government that ever existed."

Raffles, Sir Thomas Stamford, 1781–1826.—Thomas S. Raffles was a clerk in the service of the East India Company. In 1807 he was made Secretary and Registrar of Penang. He did excellent work in the development of the Straits Settlements, and formed the settlement at Singapore. He was the founder and first president of the Zoological Society, whose gardens are in the Regent's Park, London.

Raleigh, Sir Walter, 1552–1618, sailed with Sir Humphrey Gilbert in 1578, saw military service in Ireland and in the Netherlands, and sent three separate expeditions to colonise North America (see page 9). He was sentenced to death by James I. for conspiracy against Spain, though it is now known that he was perfectly innocent. He was executed at Whitehall in 1618.

Rodney, Admiral, 1718–1792.—George Rodney entered the Royal Navy at the age of twelve, and soon rose to the command of the Newfoundland station, 1748. He destroyed the fortifications at Havre in 1759, and captured Grenada, Martinique and St. Lucia in 1761. He defeated the Spaniards off Cape St. Vincent, and the French off Martinique, both in 1780, and captured many Dutch ships and much treasure. In 1782 he won his great victory over De Grasse near Jamaica (see page 51).

Rooke, Sir George, 1650–1708.—He was a gallant navy officer, and did great execution in a night attack at the battle of La Hogue, 1692. He pillaged Vigo at the outbreak of the Spanish Succession War. In 1704 he captured Gibraltar.

Sloane, Sir Hans, 1660–1752, was a London physician. He accompanied the Duke of Albemarle to Jamaica, and upon his return entered upon a most successful practice. He was President of the Royal Society in 1727. He was a great naturalist and collector (see page 25).

Wellesley, Marquis of, 1760–1842.—Richard Wellesley was nine years older than his famous brother Arthur. He was the eldest son of the Earl of Mornington, of County Meath, Ireland. He became Governor-General of India (1798–1805), and finally made England supreme in India

by breaking the power of the Mahrattas and by destroying French influence. He built the present Government House at Calcutta. Upon his return to England he was made Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

Wellesley, Arthur, Duke of Wellington, 1769–1852. —Arthur Wellesley was the third son of the Earl of Mornington. He was educated at the military college at Angers, in France, and entered the British army in 1787. He first saw service in the Netherlands, and next against Tippu Saib in India (see page 64). At the close of the Mahratta War (page 65) he returned to England. His brilliant military career was during the Peninsular War, when he defeated all Napoleon's best generals, and finally (at Waterloo) Napoleon himself. He received the public thanks of Parliament on thirteen separate occasions, and he rapidly rose through all the grades of the peerage.

Wolfe, James, 1727–1759.—He was a gallant and successful English general. He entered the army at a very early age, and was present at Dettingen, Fontenoy, Falkirk and Culloden. He greatly distinguished himself at the capture of Louisburg (see page 32). He was chosen by Pitt to attack Quebec (see page 33). He was a man of singularly pure and lofty character, and gave promise of a brilliant career, which was unfortunately broken off by his early death.

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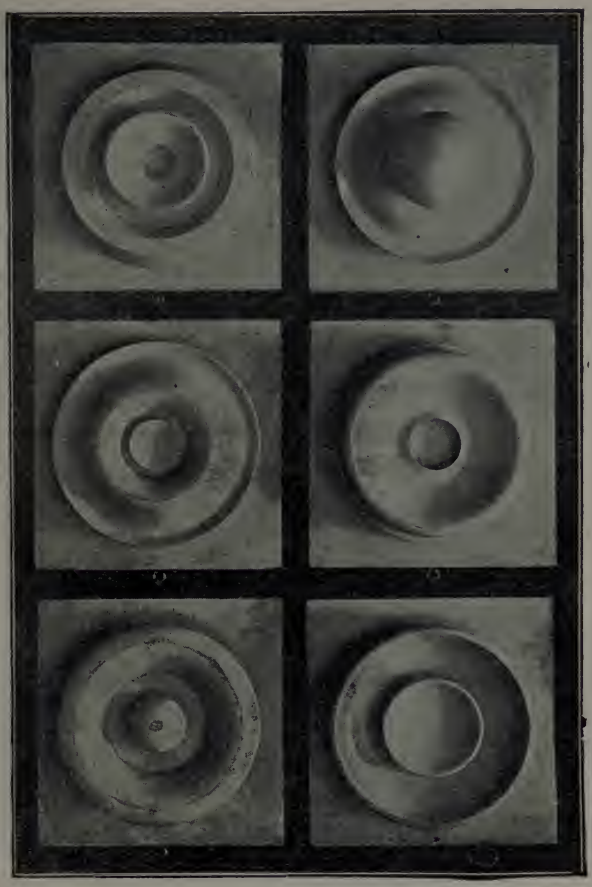

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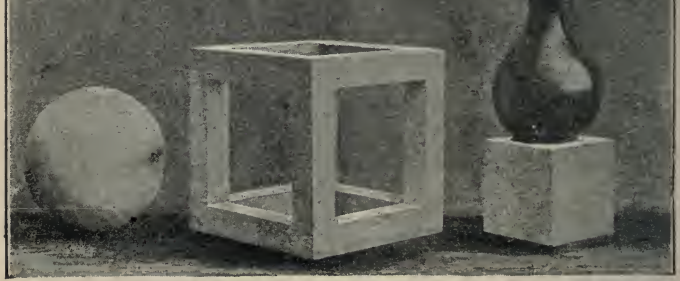

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