





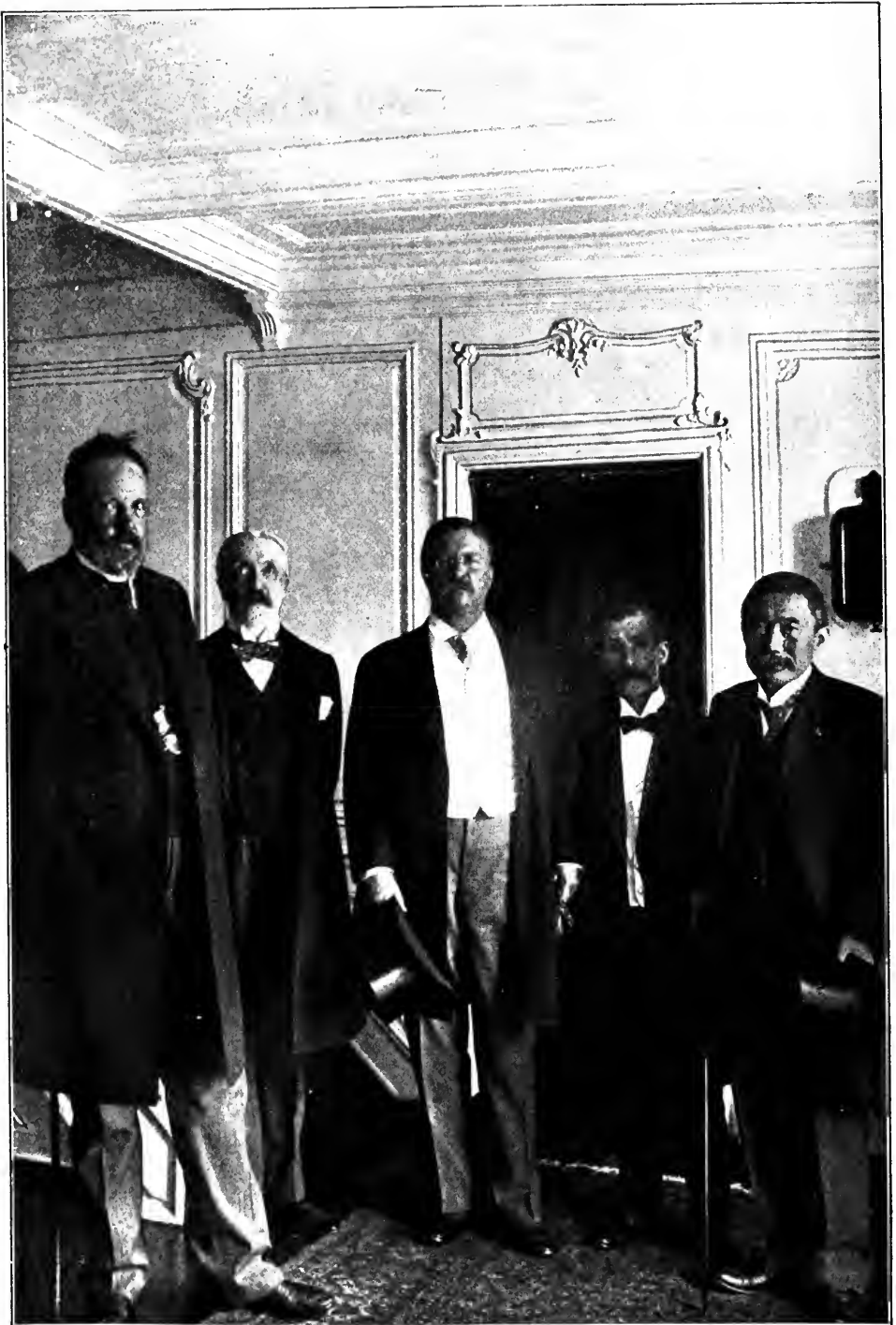
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THE RUSSIAN AND JAPANESE PEACE COMMISSIONERS

Introduced by President Roosevelt, August 5, 1905

From left to right: Count Serge Witte, Baron Rosen, The President, Baron Komura and Minister Takahira

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CONTAINING

A RECORD OF THE HUMAN RACE FROM THE
EARLIEST HISTORICAL PERIOD TO THE PRESENT TIME;
EMBRACING A GENERAL SURVEY OF THE PROGRESS OF MANKIND
IN NATIONAL AND SOCIAL LIFE, CIVIL GOVERNMENT,
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HUBERT HOWE BANCROFT
HISTORIAN
GEORGE EDWIN RINES
MANAGING EDITOR

*Reviewed and Endorsed by Fifteen Professors in History and Educators in
American Universities, among whom are the following:*

GEORGE EMORY FELLOWS, Ph.D.,
LL.D.

President, University of Maine

KEMP PLUMMER BATTLE, A.M.,
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SON, Ph.D.

Professor of History, University of Georgia

RICHARD HEATH DABNEY, A.M.,
Ph.D.

Professor of History, University of Virginia

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CHAPTER XLIV.

LATIN AMERICAN REPUBLICS.

SECTION I.—THE SPANISH AMERICAN WARS OF INDEPENDENCE (A. D. 1810–1826).

MEXICO, or New Spain, and South America, during the three centuries that they were dependencies of Spain, were to a great extent isolated from the rest of the world. The most exclusive policy was pursued by Spain toward her American colonies. No foreigners, except such as desired to make discoveries in natural history, were permitted to travel in Spanish America, and then only with the written consent of the King of Spain. The commerce of the Spanish American colonies was crippled by the most severe restrictions, and most of the wealth of the colonies flowed into the mother country. The *Council of the Indies*, in Spain, controlled the affairs of the Spanish American colonies, their political and commercial affairs, etc., all in the interest of the mother country, to the impoverishment and ruin of the colonies. The Spanish Americans were taught to look upon Spain as the mother of nations. The condition of the Creoles and Indians of Spanish America was the most deplorable imaginable. The natives were the victims of the most cruel oppression; being forced to work in the mines, where many of them perished. The influence of priestcraft and Jesuitism contributed to keep the inhabitants of Spanish America in intellectual darkness, and ignorance and superstition enabled Spain to uphold her dominion in Spanish America for three centuries. The condition of the Spanish Americans was far worse than that of the Anglo-Americans, as in the case of the former the intellect was enslaved. In 1780 the standard of revolt was raised in Peru by Tupac Amaru, a descendant of the Incas, who endeavored to restore his country's independence; but, after a bloody struggle of two years, the insurrection was suppressed, and Tupac Amaru was put to a cruel death, his body being drawn in quarters by horses.

Deplorable
condition
of
Spanish
America.

Tupac
Amaru's
Revolt in
Peru.

The immediate cause of the Spanish American Revolution had its origin in Europe. When intelligence of the dethronement of the legiti-

Spanish
American
Rise
against
Napo-
leon's
Usurpa-
tion.

mate royal family of Spain, by the Emperor Napoleon I., reached Spanish America, in 1808, the inhabitants there, who since the first conquest of the country had been loyal to Spain, declared in favor of the patriots of Spain, who had taken up arms against the French invaders of their country and in defense of their rightful sovereign, Ferdinand VII. The Spanish Americans also took up arms for Ferdinand VII., for the purpose of preventing Spanish America from being placed under the dominion of Joseph Bonaparte, the so-called King of Spain; and they prepared to resist the viceroys, who, in order to retain their offices, for the most part sided with the French and acquiesced in the usurpation of Napoleon. But the motives of the Spanish Americans were misunderstood by the Provisional Junta in Spain, which sent out armies for their subjugation and which by its tyranny soon alienated the Spanish American colonies from the mother country; and the struggle assumed the shape of a war for independence on the part of the Spanish Americans.

The
Creoles of
Mexico
and the
European
Span-
iards.

In Mexico, or New Spain, all offices were in the possession of European Spaniards; while the Creoles, or Mexican Spaniards, were deprived of all share in the government. The Viceroy of New Spain allowed the Creoles a share in the government, in order to secure their support to Ferdinand VII., the lawful King of Spain. This measure was opposed by the provincial court of the Audiencia, which, siding with the European Spaniards, seized and imprisoned the Viceroy and again deprived the Mexican Creoles of their rights and privileges. These arbitrary proceedings increased the bitterness on the part of the Creoles toward the European Spaniards.

Revolu-
tion in
Mexico
under
Hidalgo.

On the 16th of September, 1810, the Revolution in Mexico was begun, in the little town of Dolores, by a priest named Hidalgo. The insurrection spread with wonderful rapidity, and Hidalgo soon had one hundred thousand men under arms. With this immense force, Hidalgo advanced toward the city of Mexico and gained some victories, but soon made a hasty and unaccountable retreat.

His
Cruelties
and
Over-
throw.

Hidalgo gained some victories during the latter part of the same year, 1810, but tarnished his glory by his atrocities. The number of Spaniards put to death by his orders amounted to several thousand. After being defeated several times, Hidalgo was taken prisoner, and was shot by order of the Spanish authorities, in July, 1811. After the death of Hidalgo, Morelos, a warlike priest, who was as generous as brave, gained many brilliant victories over the Spaniards, during the years 1811 and 1812; but he was defeated, captured and shot in 1813.

Victories
of
Morelos.

Mexican
Guerrilla
Leaders.

In 1813 a Congress which assembled at Chilpanzingo declared Mexico an independent nation. Various partisan leaders, such as Victoria, Bravo, Guerrero, Tcran, Rayon and Torres, carried on a guer-

rilla warfare against the royalists until 1819, when the patriots were defeated, and Spanish authority was reëstablished temporarily in Mexico.

On the 24th of February, 1821, Don Augustin Iturbide, who previously had fought on the side of the Spaniards, proclaimed the celebrated *Plan of Iguala*, which declared Mexico independent of Spain, its government a constitutional monarchy and its religion Roman Catholic, while all Mexicans who ranged themselves on the side of independence were invested with the rights of citizenship. After a feeble resistance on the part of the Spaniards, Spanish authority was overthrown; and Mexico became an independent nation, in 1821, exactly three centuries after the Spanish conquest of the country by Fernando Cortez, in 1521.

General Guadalupe Victoria, a very good man and a thorough patriot, concealed himself in the mountains for two and a half years, to escape capture by the Spanish troops who were in constant search of him. When the revolution under Iturbide broke out in 1821 the Mexican patriots searched for the long-lost General Victoria, who finally was found in a lonely mountain retreat, ragged and emaciated, being reduced to a mere skeleton, having subsisted on what he could find during his concealment in his secluded mountain hiding-place. He at once joined in the second and successful effort for his country's liberation, and his name and memory have been cherished ever since by his countrymen.

In August, 1809, a junta was established at Quito by the inhabitants of that city. The junta was suppressed by the Viceroy of New Grenada; and, on the 2d of August, 1810, about three hundred of the supporters of the junta were massacred treacherously by the royalist troops. During the same year, 1810, a junta was established at Caracas, where a declaration of independence was promulgated. Caracas was blockaded by order of the regency of Spain. In their conduct the colonists were acting in the name of King Ferdinand VII. and in opposition to the various juntas in Spain and to the French, who had almost subdued the Spanish peninsula. While the war was raging in the Spanish peninsula, Spanish troops were sent to America to reduce the colonists to submission. A sanguinary war of twelve years' duration desolated New Grenada, Ecuador and Venezuela, which three provinces soon were united with the title of Colombia. In the course of this war the most shocking atrocities were perpetrated by the Spaniards.

The Colombians, provoked at the tyranny of the mother country, now resolved upon a political separation from Spain; and on the 5th of July, 1811, a Congress assembled at Caracas declared Venezuela independent of Spain. Soon afterward the provinces composing New Grenada declared their independence; and their example was followed by Mexico, in 1813, and Buenos Ayres, in 1816. Still Spain blindly

Iturbide and the Plan of Iguala.

Mexican Independence.

General Guadalupe Victoria.

Juntas at Quito and Caracas.

Revolution in Colombia.

Declarations of Independence.

- Policy of the Bonapartes.** persisted in her despotic course until her American colonies were lost to her forever. Napoleon and Joseph Bonaparte were doing all in their power to promote the cause of Spanish American independence, with the view of strengthening themselves in Spain.
- Juntas in Colombia.** A frightful conspiracy against the provisional government of Venezuela was suppressed in 1810. A constitution was adopted in Venezuela in 1812. A junta which had been established in Bogota, in July, 1810, gave place to a congress which conducted the affairs of the Revolution. A junta had been formed at Popayan and Santa Martha.
- Dissensions in Colombia.** A junta had been established at Carthagena in 1810. The various provinces, acting separately from their federal governments and often at war with them, prosecuted the war against the royalists with vigor. The royalists in Popayan, after defeating the patriots, themselves were defeated.
- Earthquake at Caracas in 1812.** The earthquake in Venezuela in March, 1812, which destroyed Caracas, greatly injured the cause of the Revolution; as many of the patriots, believing the earthquake to be a punishment inflicted upon them from Heaven for their rebellious conduct, joined the royal cause. Space will not permit us to give an account of the many conflicts between the Colombians and the Spaniards, and the changes of government and civil wars among the Colombians themselves, while struggling for freedom against their common enemy.
- Civil Wars.**
- Subjection of Venezuela.** After the earthquake at Caracas that city was taken by the Spaniards, who reestablished their authority in Venezuela and who filled the dungeons of Puerto Cabello with the defeated patriots. The resistance to Spanish power was renewed in Venezuela by the illustrious Simon Bolivar, who soon defeated the Spaniards and liberated Venezuela from their yoke. The royalists then armed the slaves against the patriots; and the war was renewed with vigor and ended in the triumph of the patriots, who, under Bolivar, gained the battle of Carabobo on the 28th of May, 1814; but soon afterward Bolivar was defeated at La Puerta, and the royalists recovered Venezuela and held possession of that colony for some time.
- Simon Bolivar's Revolt.**
- Tyranny of King Ferdinand VII.** In 1814 the Emperor Napoleon I. was overthrown in Europe by the allied powers, and Ferdinand VII. came in undisputed possession of the throne of Spain. The tyrannical measures of Ferdinand toward the rebellious Americans rendered forever impossible all hopes of a reconciliation between Spain and her revolted colonies. The patriots greatly weakened their cause by their internal dissensions. When the province of Cundinamarca refused to join the Colombian confederacy the Colombian Congress resorted to military force and sent General Bolivar with an army to compel Cundinamarca to unite with the other provinces of Colombia. Bolivar compelled the city of Bogota, the capital of
- Civil Wars in Colombia.**

Cundinamarca, to surrender; whereupon the rebellious province was obliged to join the confederation.

In 1815 a Spanish army under the brutal Morillo arrived from Cadiz, conquered the island of Margarita, on the Colombian coast, and captured the city of Carthagena. General Bolivar again attempted to liberate Venezuela, but he was defeated and compelled to evacuate the province; and the Spaniards under General Morillo conquered New Grenada, captured Bogota and massacred many of the patriots. On the 5th of April, 1817, the city of Barcelona, in Venezuela, was taken by the Spaniards after a furious assault; but soon afterward the Colombian army under Generals Bolivar and Piar took the town of Angostura, in Guiana; and Morillo made an unsuccessful attack on the island of Margarita, which again had revolted.

On the 16th of October, 1817, General Piar, who had fought bravely for freedom in Colombia, having been detected in a conspiracy for obtaining the supreme power, was executed. The Colombian patriots now received assistance from enthusiastic individuals from Great Britain, who joined the Colombian armies and fought heroically for freedom in Colombia. Zealous persons from the United States also aided the Colombians.

General Bolivar, after marching his army into New Grenada, gained the most brilliant victory of the whole war in the battle of Boyaca, on the 7th of August, 1819. Soon afterward Bolivar entered Bogota, where he established a provisional government for New Grenada, after which he entered Venezuela. On the 17th of December, 1819, the Congress sitting at Angostura passed the fundamental law which united New Grenada and Venezuela into one state with the title of the *Republic of Colombia*. General McGregor, with a patriot force, after taking Puerto Cabello, was defeated by the royalists. The army and navy of Colombia captured Rio de la Hacha in April, 1820. An armistice was now concluded, and General Morillo was succeeded in command of the Spanish army by General Morales.

The Colombian patriots captured Coro on the 11th of May, 1821; and on the 24th of June of the same year Bolivar defeated the Spaniards in the battle of Carabobo. The Congress of New Grenada, which shortly after convened at Cucuta, ratified the union with Venezuela. A Spanish flotilla was destroyed on the 30th of the same month, June, 1821, by the Colombian squadron under Admiral Biron, who compelled the city of Carthagena to capitulate on the 23d of September of the same year, 1821.

On the 1st of June, 1822, the Colombians under General Sucre defeated the Spaniards in the bloody battle of Pinchincha, which liberated Quito, or Ecuador, from Spanish authority. The Colombian squadron

Spanish
Victories
and
Defeats
under
Morilla.

General
Piar's
Defection.

Foreign
Aid.

Battle of
Boyaca.

Republic
of
Colombia.

Battle of
Carabobo.

Other
Colom-
bian
Victories.

Battle of
Pinchin-
cha.

Capture of Maracaybo.

destroyed the Spanish flotilla in Lake Maracaybo on the 23d of July, 1823, and captured the town of Maracaybo, with the Spanish army under General Morales.

Capture of Puerto Cabello.

Finally the long war was closed and the independence of Colombia secured by the surrender of Puerto Cabello to the patriots, in the beginning of December, 1823. The United States already had acknow-

Battle of Ayacucho.

ledged the independence of Colombia in 1822. In 1824 Bolivar marched into Peru; and a part of his army under General Sucre gained the battle of Ayacucho, which put an end to Spanish power in America.

Revolution in Buenos Ayres.

The news of the dethronement of the legitimate King of Spain by Napoleon, and the rise of the Spanish people against the usurpation of the Bonapartes, occasioned popular movements in Buenos Ayres. The Revolution in Buenos Ayres, or the provinces of La Plata, began on the 25th of May, 1810, when the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres established a provisional junta. In March, 1811, a new junta was appointed. The Spaniards of Montevideo were opposed to this proceeding, and sent an army against Buenos Ayres; and war was commenced.

Revolt in the Banda Oriental.

The royalists of Buenos Ayres were defeated; and a revolt was inaugurated in the Banda Oriental, of which Montevideo was the capital.

Dissensions in Buenos Ayres.

The patriots of Buenos Ayres, like those of all other parts of Spanish America, soon quarreled among themselves; and for ten years, while prosecuting the war against the Spaniards in Upper Peru and Chili, Buenos Ayres was distracted by numerous revolutions and civil wars.

Banda Oriental and Paraguay.

The Banda Oriental, with Artigas at its head, was often at war with Buenos Ayres and with the Brazilians, who claimed its territory. Paraguay became independent in 1812, with Dr. Francia as Dictator.

Independence of Buenos Ayres.

On the 9th of July, 1816, a Congress at Buenos Ayres declared the confederated provinces of the La Plata independent of Spain. Civil war and anarchy continued in the provinces until 1821, when a period of tranquillity and prosperity returned. In 1829 Spain acknowledged the independence of La Plata, or the Argentine Republic.

Revolution in Bolivia.

Bolivia, or Upper Peru, as it was called at the time, was the first of the Spanish American colonies to rise in rebellion against the despotism of Old Spain. On the 25th of March, 1809, the citizens of the wealthy and enterprising city of La Paz established a provisional junta. The

Revolts of La Paz.

city of La Paz was attacked by the royalists from Buenos Ayres, and, after a heroic defense, was forced to surrender, when many of the unfortunate inhabitants suffered death on the scaffold. The people of La Paz revolted a second time, but were subdued again. The neighboring cities of Cochabamba and Potosi, which also had risen in insurrection, were reduced likewise.

Battle of Ayacucho.

The bloody war between the patriots and the royalists in Upper Peru continued with various success until the close of 1824, when the



INCA CIVILIZATION
Lake Titicaca and Inca Ruins, in Bolivia

memorable battle of Ayacucho put an end to Spanish authority in South America, and Upper Peru became an independent republic, and was named *Bolivia*, in honor of the great Colombian President and Dictator, General Simon Bolivar, who framed a constitution for the Republic.

Independence of Bolivia.

The revolutionary movement in Chili began in July, 1810, when the people of Santiago deposed their Captain-General and put another in his place. A junta was formed, which assembled a Congress to consider the condition of the country. Disturbances took place in 1811, which resulted in the exile of the opponents of the Revolution. The three ambitious brothers named Carrera soon overthrew the Congress and took the government of Chili into their own hands. In 1812 a Spanish army invaded Chili from Peru; and, through the dissensions of the Chilian leaders, O'Higgins and the Carreras, the authority of the royalists was reëstablished in Chili.

Revolution in Chili.

The Carreras and O'Higgins.

In 1817 the struggling Chilians found a deliverer in the valiant and patriotic San Martin, who, after crossing the Andes from Buenos Ayres at the head of a patriot army, overthrew the Spaniards in the battle of Chacabaco, which was fought on the 12th of February, 1817, and which gave independence to Chili. The Spaniards reconquered Chili; but their power was hopelessly broken and the independence of Chili permanently secured in the decisive battle of Maypu, fought on the 5th of April, 1818.

San Martin.

Battles of Chacabaco and Maypu.

Peru, the land of the Incas, was the last of the Spanish American colonies to strike for freedom. The government of Chili, convinced that Chilian independence was not secure so long as the royalists held Peru, sent an army under San Martin into Peru, in 1820, for the purpose of expelling the Spaniards and encouraging the Peruvians to throw off the Spanish yoke. A Chilian squadron, under the command of the British admiral, Lord Cochrane, whose standard was joined by many Englishmen and Americans, harassed the royalists on the coast of Peru, capturing many Spanish vessels. On San Martin's appearance in Peru the Peruvians rose almost unanimously, and the independence of Peru was declared. The Chilians everywhere defeated the Spaniards; and San Martin, after nobly proving his disinterestedness by declining the proffered Dictatorship, returned to Chili.

Revolution in Peru.

San Martin in Peru.

Lord Cochrane's Squadron.

The Spaniards soon regained their lost power in Peru, which they held until the Colombian army under Bolivar marched to the rescue of the Peruvians. On the 6th of August, 1824, the Colombians, under General Sucre, gained a victory in the battle of Junin; and, on the 9th of December of the same year, 1824, Sucre annihilated the Spaniards in the decisive battle of Ayacucho, which secured the independence of Peru and which swept away forever every vestige of Spanish power on

Battles of Junin and Ayacucho.

Spanish American Independence.

the American continent. In 1826, Callao, the last stronghold of the Spaniards in South America, surrendered to the Peruvians, and Spanish America became free.

SECTION II.—CENTRAL AMERICAN REPUBLICS.

**Aztec
Civiliza-
tion in
Central
America.**

**Spanish
Do-
minion.**

**The
Central
American
Repub-
lics.**

LIKE Mexico, Central America was peopled by the Aztecs at the time of the discovery of the New World; and the massive ruins of their cities amid their luxuriant tropical forests still astonish the traveler. This region was subdued by the Spaniards soon after their conquest of Mexico, and it remained in their possession until 1821, when it became a portion of Mexico. After Iturbide's fall, in 1823, Central America was separated from Mexico, and the five Central American states—Guatemala, Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Costa Rica—became separate independent republics and formed a federal union under the title of *The United States of Central America*; but this union was dissolved in 1839, and the five Central American states became separate independent republics. In the latter years of the nineteenth century several unsuccessful attempts were made to form a new Central American union. Like Mexico and the South American republics, the little Central American republics have been distracted ever since their liberation by domestic revolutions and civil wars and by wars with each other. Their populations, like those of Mexico and South America, consist of the few whites of Spanish descent, along with the mixed races of Spanish and Indian extraction and the pure Indian tribes established there for centuries.

SECTION III.—THE WEST INDIES.

**Discovery
of the
West
Indies.**

**Founding
of San
Domingo.**

**Spanish
Coloniza-
tion in
the West
Indies.**

THE West India Islands were discovered by Columbus in his first voyage in 1492; Guanahani, or San Salvador, being the first spot in the New World on which the great Genoese navigator landed. This discovery gave Spain the exclusive right which she claimed to the possession of the new continent. The other West India Islands were discovered soon afterward by Columbus and others; and in 1493 Columbus founded San Domingo, on the island of Hayti—the first European settlement in the New World.

The Spaniards soon colonized the large West India Islands; and their harsh and cruel treatment of the mild and inoffensive aborigines, whom they enslaved and compelled to labor for them, soon extinguished the native race, after which the Spaniards supplied their places as slaves by

kidnapping negroes from their homes in the wilds of Africa. The smaller islands, left without inhabitants, became the nests of swarms of pirates, or *buccaneers*, who roamed over the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico and were the terror of the Spanish main during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. During the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries many of the smaller West India Islands came into the possession of various European nations—Spain, France, Holland, Denmark and England.

Buccaneers.

During the wars among the European powers in the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the West Indies were the scenes of naval operations between the belligerent nations, and the various small islands frequently changed hands. During Queen Elizabeth's reign in England, Sir Francis Drake made several successful attacks on Porto Rico and other Spanish West India Islands. In 1655, during Oliver Cromwell's Lord Protectorship in England, an English fleet and army under Admiral Sir William Penn and General Venables conquered Jamaica from the Spaniards; and that island has remained in England's possession ever since, slavery having been abolished in the island by act of the British Parliament in 1833. A negro rising in 1865 was crushed by the severe measures of Governor Eyre. During the Seven years' War in Europe the British army and navy stormed and took Havana, in 1762, but it was restored to Spain by the Peace of Paris in 1763.

European Possessions in the West Indies.

European Struggles in the West Indies.

English Conquest of Jamaica.

Hayti, or Hispaniola (Little Spain), was discovered by Columbus on his first voyage and was owned exclusively by Spain until 1697, when the western part of the island was ceded to France by the Peace of Ryswick. The French part of the island prospered, while the Spanish part languished and declined. During the French Revolution the negro slaves in the French part of the island revolted under Toussaint Louverture, who first proclaimed himself Emperor, but finally was seized by order of Napoleon and was carried to France, where he died in 1803, after less than a year's captivity. In 1822 the Republic of Hayti was established and the Spanish part of the island was annexed to it, and in 1825 France acknowledged the independence of the island republic, but in 1844 the people of the Spanish part of the island revolted and founded the independent Republic of Dominica. In 1849 President Soulouque, of Hayti, made a feeble effort to conquer Dominica, and in 1850 he made himself Emperor of Hayti under the title of Faustin I., but in 1859 he was forced to abdicate and the Republic of Hayti was restored. Both Hayti and Dominica have been torn almost constantly by revolutions and civil wars.

Hayti and San Domingo.

During the nineteenth century Cuba frequently revolted against Spain, the most noted revolts being the ten years' war of 1868-1878 and the revolt of 1895-1898, the last of which brought on the Spanish-

Cuba's Revolts and Liberation.

American War in 1898, which ended in the liberation of Cuba through the intervention of the United States, Cuba becoming an independent republic, while Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands were ceded by Spain to the United States.

SECTION IV.—FIRST MEXICAN EMPIRE AND REPUBLIC (A. D. 1821–1861).

**Iturbide,
Emperor.**

ON the 24th of September, 1821, the Mexican capital was entered in triumph by Iturbide. A Congress which was assembled in 1822 elevated Iturbide to the dignity of *Emperor of Mexico* with the title of AUGUSTIN I. Soon a dispute arose between the Emperor and the Congress. Iturbide ended the dispute by dissolving the Congress; but his arbitrary conduct produced a revolution which resulted in compelling him to abdicate his crown and to flee from the country, May, 1823. He retired to Europe, but returned to Mexico in February, 1824; and, after making a fruitless effort to regain his former power, he was shot by order of the provincial congress of Tamaulipas.

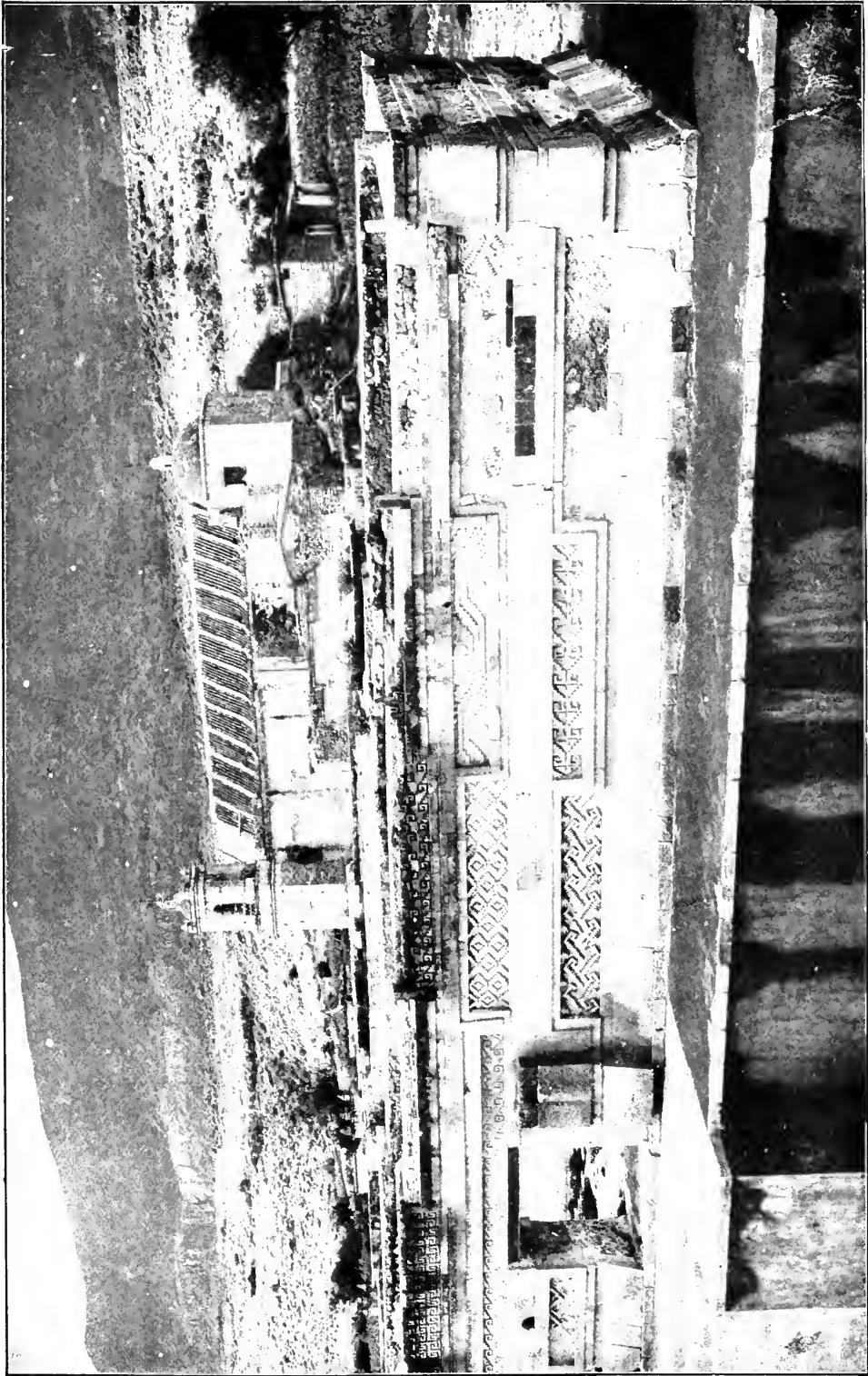
**His
Over-
throw
and
Death.**

**Mexico's
Federal
Constitu-
tion of
1824.**

After the overthrow and flight of Iturbide, in 1823, a Congress was convened, and a new constitution was established, by which Mexico became a federal republic. This Federal Constitution, which was somewhat modeled after the Constitution of the United States of America, declared the *United States of Mexico* a federal republic, and divided the government into three departments—legislative, executive and judicial. The legislative power was vested in a National Congress, consisting of a Senate and a House of Representatives; the Senate to be composed of two members from each State, elected for a term of four years by the Legislatures of the States; and the House of Representatives to consist of members elected for a term of two years by the citizens of the several States. The executive power was vested in a President, who, with a Vice President, was to be elected by the Legislatures of the several Mexican States for a term of four years. The President was to be a Mexican born and thirty-five years of age. The judicial power was vested in a Supreme Court, consisting of eleven Judges and one Attorney-General, who were to be elected by the State Legislatures and who were not to be removed except in cases specified by law. With many excellent features, this constitution did not provide for trial by jury; and it declared the religion of Mexico to be perpetually the "Roman Catholic Apostolic," to the exclusion of all other religious systems.

**President
Guada-
lupe
Victoria.**

After the adoption of the Mexican Federal Constitution of 1824, General Guadalupe Victoria was elected President of Mexico, with Gen-



MAYA CIVILIZATION IN MEXICO
Ruins of the Palace at Mitla. The Church in Background is Modern

eral Nicholas Bravo as Vice President. Victoria and Bravo were installed into office on the 1st of January, 1825.

The administration of President Victoria was very prosperous, and the Mexican Republic then enjoyed a greater degree of prosperity than at any previous or subsequent period. The Mexican nation, however, was divided into two political parties, each of which was controlled by a Masonic lodge. The *Escoces*, or aristocratic party, desired a strong central government, like the Federalists of the United States, and were accused by their opponents of aiming at the establishment of a constitutional monarchy. The *Yorkinos*, or democratic party, desired the preservation of the federal system as opposed to centralism, like the Jefferson Republicans of the United States, and were charged with being anarchists and subverters of public order.

In the Mexican elections of 1826 bribery, corruption and all sorts of disreputable means were resorted to by the two great political parties which divided the nation; and many of the elections were declared null and void, in consequence of the illegal proceedings by which they had been effected. In the same year, 1826, the *Escoces* brought about an insurrection against the government; but the movement was suppressed very easily.

Another Presidential election took place in Mexico in the year 1828. The candidate of the *Escoces*, or aristocratic party, was General Pedraza; and the nominee of the *Yorkinos*, or democratic party, was General Guerrero. To the surprise of all, Pedraza was elected by a majority of only two electoral votes over his opponent. The *Yorkinos*, thus defeated in the election, which they declared to have been accomplished by fraud and bribery, determined to place themselves in power by force of arms. The youthful general, Santa Anna, declared that the election of Pedraza had been secured by corruption and bribery; and, at the head of five hundred men, he took possession of the castle of Peroté and proclaimed Guerrero President. During the last day of November and the first three days of December, 1828, a sanguinary conflict took place in the Mexican capital between the government guard and a large body of insurgents, which ended in the flight of Pedraza, the President-elect, who, rather than involve his country in civil war on his own account, advised his partisans to submit to an unconstitutional President, and left the country. Thus revolutionary force was triumphant over the constitution and laws of the Mexican Republic.

When the Mexican Congress met, that body declared General Guerrero, the defeated candidate of the *Yorkinos*, President of Mexico; he having, next to General Pedraza, the highest number of votes. In 1829 a Spanish army of four thousand men landed at Tampico for the

**Escoces
and
Yorkinos.**

**Election
Corruption
and
Frauds
in 1826.**

**Presi-
dential
Election
of 1828.**

**Revolu-
tion and
Civil
War.**

**Flight of
Pedraza.**

**President
Guerrero.**

Spanish Invasion.

invasion of the Mexican Republic; but, after a four months' occupation, the invading army surrendered to Santa Anna, on the 10th of September, 1829.

Guerrero's Overthrow and Death.

As President Guerrero refused to relinquish the dictatorial powers which had been conferred upon him for the purpose of meeting the Spanish invasion, General Bustamente, the Vice President, headed a revolution, which resulted in the overthrow of Guerrero and the assumption of the Presidency by Bustamente. Guerrero afterward attempted to recover his authority, but he was made a prisoner and was shot as a traitor to the established government of the Mexican Republic.

President Bustamente.

In 1832 another revolution occurred in Mexico, headed by Santa Anna, who had declared against the arbitrary encroachments of President Bustamente. After a short contest, the revolution ended in the downfall of Bustamente, who retired to France; whereupon the exiled Pedraza, who had been elected constitutionally in 1828, was recalled to serve out the remaining three months of his unexpired Presidential term.

Santa Anna's First Presidency.

Early in 1833 Santa Anna himself was raised to the Presidency of Mexico, with Gomez Farias as Vice President. In less than a fortnight after Santa Anna had entered upon the duties of his office, an insurrection broke out within twenty miles of the Mexican capital, supposed to have been instigated by the President himself, as the avowed object of the insurgents was to make Santa Anna Dictator; but he took the command of a large force against the insurgents, whom he defeated completely. Not long afterward Santa Anna left the executive authority in the hands of the Vice President, Gomez Farias, and retired to his estate, to wait for a more favorable occasion to strike a blow for dictatorial power.

Unsuccessful Insurrections.**Abolition of the Federal Constitution of 1824.**

Early in 1834 Santa Anna, placing himself at the head of the military chiefs and the army, dissolved the Congress and summoned another; and, taking into his own hands all the powers of government, he trampled under foot the Constitution which he had sworn to defend. The Mexican States were convulsed more or less by these arbitrary proceedings; but the Centralist party, headed by Santa Anna, after much opposition, succeeded in abolishing the Federal Constitution of 1824 and established a "Strong Central Republic." The State Legislatures were declared to be abolished, and the States were converted into departments and placed under the charge of military commanders, who were to be responsible to the chief authorities of the Mexican nation. The supreme power was to be centralized in the hands of a single individual whose will was law. At the head of this new government, republican only in name, was Santa Anna as President. Gomez Farias, who, at the head of the Federalist party, supported the Constitution of

Santa Anna's Dictatorship.

1824, was thrown into prison; and General Barragan, a leading Centralist, was made Vice President. Several of the Mexican States rose in arms to uphold the Federal Constitution; but all, with the exception of Texas, were speedily reduced to complete submission by the arms of Santa Anna.

The arbitrary and usurping conduct of Santa Anna led to a rebellion of the province of Texas, which was inhabited almost exclusively by emigrants from the United States. These emigrants refused to submit to Santa Anna's military rule and began a rebellion for the purpose of achieving their independence of Mexican authority. The Mexican troops who invaded Texas were repulsed by the Texans at Gonzales on the 2d of October, 1835. Before the end of the year 1835 the Texans captured the strong fortresses of Goliad and the Alamo. The following year, 1836, Santa Anna invaded Texas with eight thousand Mexican troops. For two weeks four thousand Mexicans under Santa Anna had vainly besieged the Alamo, when, at length, on the 6th of March, 1836, they assaulted the fortress, which they entered only over the dead bodies of the one hundred and fifty Texans who had defended it so gallantly.

On the 2d of April, 1836, a convention of delegates assembled at Washington, on the Colorado, declared Texas independent. In the meantime a Mexican force under General Urrea was committing the most shocking atrocities along the coast of Texas, massacring small bodies of Texans after they had surrendered. On the 21st of April, 1836, was fought the celebrated battle of San Jacinto, in which sixteen hundred Mexicans under Santa Anna were defeated by seven hundred and eighty-three Texans commanded by General Sam Houston, after a fierce struggle of twenty minutes. On the day after the battle Santa Anna was found in the woods by the victorious Texans and was made a prisoner. On being brought before General Houston, Santa Anna exclaimed: "You were born to no ordinary destiny; you conquered the Napoleon of the West."

In order to obtain his release, Santa Anna ordered the Mexican army to retire beyond the Rio Grande and acknowledged the independence of Texas; but the Mexican Congress refused to confirm the agreement which Santa Anna had made with the Texans, and even Santa Anna himself, on his arrival in Mexico, disavowed all treaties which he had made while a prisoner. Although Mexico refused to acknowledge the independence of Texas, she did not make another vigorous effort to reconquer her lost province. Texas remained an independent republic for nine years, recognized by France, Great Britain and the United States; after which it became a State of the American Union, A. D. 1845.

**Texas
War of
Independence.**

**Santa
Anna's
Invasion
of Texas.**

**Fall
of the
Alamo.**

**Texas
Declara-
tion of
Independence.**

**Battle of
San
Jacinto.**

**Santa
Anna's
Cap-
tivity.**

**Santa
Anna's
Release.**

**Texas,
an Inde-
pendent
Republic.**

President Bustamente.

After Santa Anna's departure from Mexico for the invasion of Texas the executive authority of the Mexican Republic devolved upon the Vice President, General Barragan; and after the death of the latter, soon afterward, General Bustamente, who just had returned from France, was invested with the functions of the Presidency. Santa Anna, by his failure to subdue the Texans, having lost the confidence and favor of the Mexican people, was obliged to retire to private life, until another revolution in his unhappy country restored him to power.

General Mexia's Rebellion and Death.

A rebellion which broke out in Mexico in 1838 was speedily quelled by Santa Anna, whom President Bustamente had entrusted with the command of the government army; and General Mexia, the leader of the rebellion, was shot after he had surrendered. In November of the same year, 1838, a French fleet appeared before Vera Cruz; and, when the Mexican authorities rejected a demand for the reparation of the losses sustained by French subjects during the domestic convulsions in Mexico, the fleet blockaded the harbor of Vera Cruz and French troops were landed before that city. During the retreat of the invaders from Vera Cruz, Santa Anna had one of his legs taken off by a cannon-ball.

French Fleet at Vera Cruz.**Insurrection of 1840.**

In July, 1840, an insurrection of the Federalists, headed by General Urrea and Gomez Farias, broke out in the city of Mexico; and, after a bloody contest of twelve days in the streets of the city between the opposing factions, a universal amnesty was agreed upon. During the same year, 1840, the province of Yucatan seceded from Mexico; but, after a struggle of three years against the Mexican forces, it was again united with Mexico.

Secession of Yucatan.**Overthrow of Bustamente.**

In August, 1841, another revolution broke out in Mexico, headed by General Paredes and Santa Anna. The revolutionary forces bombarded the capital; and, after a struggle of one month in the streets of the city, the revolution ended in the downfall and flight of President Bustamente.

Santa Anna's Second Presidency.

In September, 1841, a convention of military officers at Tacubaya provided for the assembling of a Congress to frame a new constitution; but this Congress, which met in June, 1842, was soon dissolved by Santa Anna, whom a junta had made Provisional President; and in June, 1843, a national junta, or council, selected by him, framed a new constitution, establishing an intricate representative system of government, leaving to the Mexican people but a shadow of power. The Mexican Republic was divided into Departments. The Roman Catholic religion was to be protected to the exclusion of all others. The executive power was vested in a President to be elected for five years, who was to be assisted by a Council of Government, composed of seventeen members selected by the President, and whose tenure of office was to be perpetual. The legislative power was vested in a Congress, con-

Mexican Constitution of 1842.

sisting of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. An annual income of two hundred dollars was required for the enjoyment of all the rights of citizenship. Every five hundred inhabitants of a Department were to be allowed one elector; twenty of these electors were to choose one member of the electoral college of the Department, and the electoral college was to elect the members of the Chamber of Deputies. One-third of the members of the Senate were to be chosen by the Chamber of Deputies and the President of the Republic, and the remaining two-thirds were to be elected by the Assemblies of the Departments. Under this complicated representative system, Santa Anna was made President, or, with more propriety, virtual Dictator of Mexico, in 1843.

The almost absolute government of Santa Anna produced a widespread secret dissatisfaction throughout the Mexican nation. In October, 1844, Santa Anna retired to his farm on private business; and the National Senate appointed the Minister of War, Canalizo, to perform the executive duties in the absence of the President. In November, 1844, General Paredes, the adherent of Santa Anna in the revolution of 1841, pronounced against the Dictator and took the field against him. The National Congress siding with Paredes, that body was dissolved and the members were shut up in prison by order of Canalizo, the acting President; but they soon were released by a body of insurgents; and in the capital the revolutionists caused Santa Anna's amputated leg, which had been buried with military honors, to be carried about the streets and torn in pieces. After a short civil war, Santa Anna was made a prisoner by the revolutionists, in January, 1845, while attempting to escape from the country; and, after an imprisonment of several months, the National Congress decreed his perpetual banishment from the country.

After the overthrow of Santa Anna, in January, 1845, General Herrera was appointed Provisional President of Mexico. In August of the same year he was elected President, and on the 16th of September he was sworn into office in the presence of the Mexican Congress. During Herrera's Provisional Presidency, the Republic of Texas was annexed to the United States of America, July 4, 1845; whereupon General Almonte, the Mexican Minister at Washington, demanded his passports; and, when intelligence of the annexation reached Mexico, President Herrera issued a proclamation calling upon the Mexican people to defend the integrity and unity of their country, which were represented as being seriously threatened by the aggressions of the United States. War between Mexico and the United States broke out in the spring of the following year, 1846.

When President Herrera, convinced of the inability of Mexico to prosecute a successful war against the United States, manifested a de-

Revolution and Civil War of 1844.

Overthrow of Santa Anna by Paredes.

President Herrera.

Rupture with the United States.

Over-
throw of
Herrera
by
Paredes.

President
Paredes.

sire for a peaceful settlement of the difficulty between the two nations, General Paredes, who had the command of the army marching northward to drive the United States forces from Texas, took the occasion to arouse the patriotism of his countrymen to prevent the dismemberment of the Mexican Republic, and pronounced against the administration of Herrera. Upon the approach of Paredes to the capital the army there declared in favor of the revolution, and Herrera was driven from power and Paredes was elevated to the Presidency.

War
with the
United
States.

President Paredes no sooner had entered upon the duties of his office than he made the most energetic preparations to carry on the war against the United States. The first bloodshed between the military forces of the United States and Mexico occurred on the 24th of April, 1846, when an American reconnoitering party under Captain Thornton was captured by the Mexicans on the Texas bank of the Rio Grande. The Americans under General Taylor defeated the Mexicans under General Arista in the battles of Palo Alto, May 8, 1846, and Resaca de la Palma, the next day, May 9, 1846; and during the same month the American and Mexican governments formally declared war against each other. On the 18th of May, 1846, the American army under General Taylor captured the Mexican city of Matamoras; and on the 24th of September, 1846, Monterey, after a defense of four days, also surrendered to Taylor.

Mexican
Defeats.

Over-
throw of
Paredes.

Santa
Anna's
Third
Presi-
dency.

In the midst of her war with the United States, Mexico was not free from domestic dissensions. While President Paredes was engaged in preparations to prosecute a vigorous war against the United States his administration was cut short, as Santa Anna had been recalled by the revolutionary party; and in December, 1846, that notorious leader was again raised to the Presidency of the Mexican Republic. Immediately after his elevation to power, Santa Anna, notwithstanding his former professions of a desire for the restoration of peace between the two nations, took the field in person against the invading forces of the United States.

Occupation of
Mexico
by the
United
States
Army.

Disasters befell the Mexican arms in rapid succession. The Americans conquered New Mexico and Upper, or New California; while General Taylor, with five thousand Americans, defeated twenty-two thousand Mexicans under Santa Anna in the famous battle of Buena Vista, on the 22d and 23d of February, 1847. General Scott, with an American army of ten thousand men, captured Vera Cruz, March 26, 1847; defeated thirty thousand Mexicans under Santa Anna in the battles of Cerro Gordo, April 18, 1847; San Antonio, Contreras and Churubusco, August 20, 1847; Molino del Rey, September 8, 1847, and Chapultepec, September 13, 1847; and on the 14th of September, 1847, he entered the Mexican capital in triumph, and Santa Anna fled

from the country. On the 2d of February, 1848, a treaty of peace was concluded at Guadalupe Hidalgo, by which Mexico ceded New Mexico and Upper California to the United States, receiving fifteen million dollars as compensation for the ceded territory.

Peace of
Guada-
lupe
Hidalgo.

In the autumn of 1848 General Herrera again became President of Mexico, and he remained in office until January, 1851, when he was succeeded by General Arista. In January, 1853, Mexico again became disturbed by a domestic revolution, which resulted in the overthrow of President Arista's administration by Santa Anna, who had just returned to Mexico.

Presi-
dents
Herrera
and
Arista.

After the overthrow of Arista, Santa Anna was again made President of Mexico; but adversity had not curbed his ambition. Soon after his restoration to the Presidency he was accused of a design to assume imperial power, and the consequence was another revolution in his unhappy country. The leader of this revolution was General Alvarez, "the Panther of the Pacific." After a short civil war Santa Anna was hurled from power, and his public career was ended forever.

Santa
Anna's
Fourth
Presi-
dency
and Over-
throw.

After the overthrow of Santa Anna in 1855, General Alvarez, his antagonist, was invested with the office of President; but Alvarez was soon succeeded by General Comonfort. On the 11th of March, 1857, a new constitution was promulgated by the Mexican Congress; but President Comonfort, supported by the army, violently opposed this constitution, because it greatly restricted the Presidential power; and, in January, 1858, Mexico again became a prey to the horrors of revolution and civil war.

Presi-
dents
Alvarez
and
Comon-
fort.

Civil
War.

In 1858 President Comonfort resigned; whereupon General Zuloaga made himself President, in utter disregard of the constitutional rights of Benito Juarez, who, as President of the Supreme Court of Justice, was the legitimate successor of Comonfort. Civil war continued to distract the unhappy country; and Juarez, being defeated, retired from the country; but he afterward returned and asserted his constitutional rights to the Presidency of the Mexican Republic.

President
Zuloaga.

Civil
War.

The civil war in Mexico, between the Liberals, headed by Benito Juarez, and the Conservatives, headed by Comonfort, Miramon, Marquez, Almonte and others, continued throughout 1860. Juarez finally triumphed over his enemies and secured possession of the office of President, to which he had a legitimate right; but the defeat of his unprincipled antagonists did not restore peace to his distracted country. Juarez was an able statesman and possessed the qualities essential in a patriotic leader in one of the most momentous crises of his country's history. It has been said that he was a descendant of the ill-fated Aztec Emperor, Montezuma II., who was killed by his enraged subjects for his failure to resist the Spanish conquerors under Fernando Cortez,

President
Benito
Juarez.

Civil
War.

SECTION V.—SECOND MEXICAN EMPIRE AND RESTORED REPUBLIC (SINCE A. D. 1861).

British,
French
and
Spanish
Invasion
of
Mexico.

DURING the civil war between the Liberals and the Conservatives both parties seized on the property of foreigners in Mexico, and the Mexican Congress passed an act suspending for two years the payment of certain foreign obligations of debt. In consequence of this action of the Mexican Congress, the governments of Great Britain, France and Spain concluded a Triple Alliance, at London, with the view of forcing Mexico to fulfill her foreign obligations; and, in December, 1861, a combined British, French and Spanish expedition arrived at Vera Cruz. The allied troops occupied Vera Cruz without resistance, that city having been evacuated previously by the Mexican forces. The troops of the expedition suffered severely from the excessive heat of the climate; and negotiations were soon opened for a peaceful settlement of difficulties, while the invading army, with the concurrence of the Mexican authorities, occupied more salubrious and healthful quarters in Cordova, Orizaba and Tehuacan, with the understanding that if hostilities should be renewed the allied expeditionary troops should first retire to the positions which they had occupied before the commencement of negotiations.

Allied
Occupation
of
Vera
Cruz.

British
and
Spanish
Evacuation
of
Mexico.

At a meeting of the representatives of the three allied nations in Mexico, just previous to the opening of the peace negotiations, the French Minister to Mexico presented the enormous Jecker claim. This surprised the British Minister and General Prim, the Spanish commander; and the presentation of this claim, with other disclosures made to them, leading to the belief that the Emperor Napoleon III. intended to interfere in the domestic affairs of the Mexican nation, caused the British Minister and the Spanish commander, on the 9th of April, 1862, to declare the Convention of London transgressed and to withdraw the British and Spanish troops from Mexico; from which time the invasion and military occupation of Mexico was continued by the French alone.

Siege and
Capture
of Puebla
by the
French.

After the withdrawal of the British and Spanish troops hostilities were renewed by the French and the Mexicans; and the French did not return to their original positions as agreed upon with the Mexican authorities, but retained possession of Orizaba. On the 24th of February, 1863, the French marched from Orizaba to Puebla, to which they laid siege on the 18th of March. Finally, on the 18th of May, 1863, after a vigorous siege and a heroic defense of two months, during which the garrison repulsed many of the assaults of the besiegers, Puebla and its garrison of seventeen thousand men under General Ortega were surrendered to the French.

On the 10th of June, 1863, the French under General Forey entered the city of Mexico, after it had been evacuated by the Republican forces under President Juarez, who retired to San Luis Potosi, afterward to Monterey and still later to Chihuahua. Soon after the capture of the Mexican capital by the French, General Forey established a junta of thirty-five Mexicans, which junta selected an *Assembly of Notables*, which assembly, by a vote of two hundred and thirty-one to nineteen, declared that the future government of Mexico should be a limited hereditary monarchy, with a Roman Catholic prince for sovereign, to bear the title of Emperor, and that the crown should be offered first to the Archduke Maximilian of Austria, of the Imperial House of Hapsburg.

French Occupation of the City of Mexico.

Action of General Forey's Junta.

The French were now firmly established in the heart of Mexico, but the Juarists were still dominant in the southern and western portions of the country; and the contest between the Juarists and the Imperialists continued with various success until the early part of 1864, when the Archduke Maximilian of Austria arrived in the Mexican capital and was proclaimed Emperor of Mexico. Maximilian had been placed on the Mexican throne through the instrumentality of the Emperor Napoleon III. of France; and his throne was upheld by the French expeditionary troops and their Austrian auxiliaries and by the Mexican Imperialists; but the Juarists, or Mexican Republicans, kept the field in defense of their free institutions and waged a sanguinary guerrilla warfare against their foreign and domestic foes, having with them the sympathy of the friends of republican government everywhere. The war was carried on with great barbarity by both parties, the shooting of prisoners being of frequent occurrence, regardless of the usages of modern warfare.

Archduke Maximilian of Austria, Emperor of Mexico.

His War with President Juarez.

The year 1864 was an eventful one in the history of Mexico. The French captured the city of Matamoras, and the whole Mexican army under General Cortina was forced to surrender as prisoners of war. This misfortune to the Liberal cause, together with disasters to the arms of the Juarists in other quarters, seemed to leave the cause of the Mexican Republic hopeless; and Maximilian's Empire appeared to be on a fair way to become secure.

Mexican Republican Disasters.

With the downfall of the Great Rebellion in the United States the vitality of Maximilian's Empire decayed; while President Juarez, who in the meantime had been driven into the extreme north-eastern limits of Mexico, gathered new strength, and by the autumn of 1865 he had recovered a large amount of territory from the Mexican Imperialists and their French and Austrian allies. In November, 1865, the Imperialists evacuated Chihuahua, which soon was taken possession of by the Juarists.

Decline of Maximilian's Empire.

The
United
States
and the
Monroe
Doctrine.

The progress of events in Mexico was watched with interest by the government and people of the United States; as the conduct of the Emperor of the French in attempting the establishment of a Latin empire on the American continent was in defiance of the Monroe Doctrine, proclaimed by the President of the United States at the time of the emancipation of Spanish America from the yoke of Spain. The United States government, engaged in a gigantic struggle against domestic foes for its own preservation, was not in a position to oppose the unprincipled schemes of the French Emperor from the beginning; but, finally, after having crushed the Great Rebellion against its own authority, the United States government resolved upon the enforcement of the Monroe Doctrine, and demanded of the Emperor Napoleon III. the withdrawal of the French expeditionary forces from Mexican territory. After some negotiation Napoleon III. agreed to abandon the cause of his dupe, Maximilian; and the French troops, about twenty-six thousand in number, were withdrawn gradually from Mexican soil. Early in 1867 Marshal Bazaine, with the last French contingent, evacuated Mexico; thus leaving Maximilian and the Mexican Imperialists alone to contend against the Juarists.

French
Evacua-
tion of
Mexico.

Over-
throw
and
Execution
of Maxi-
milian.

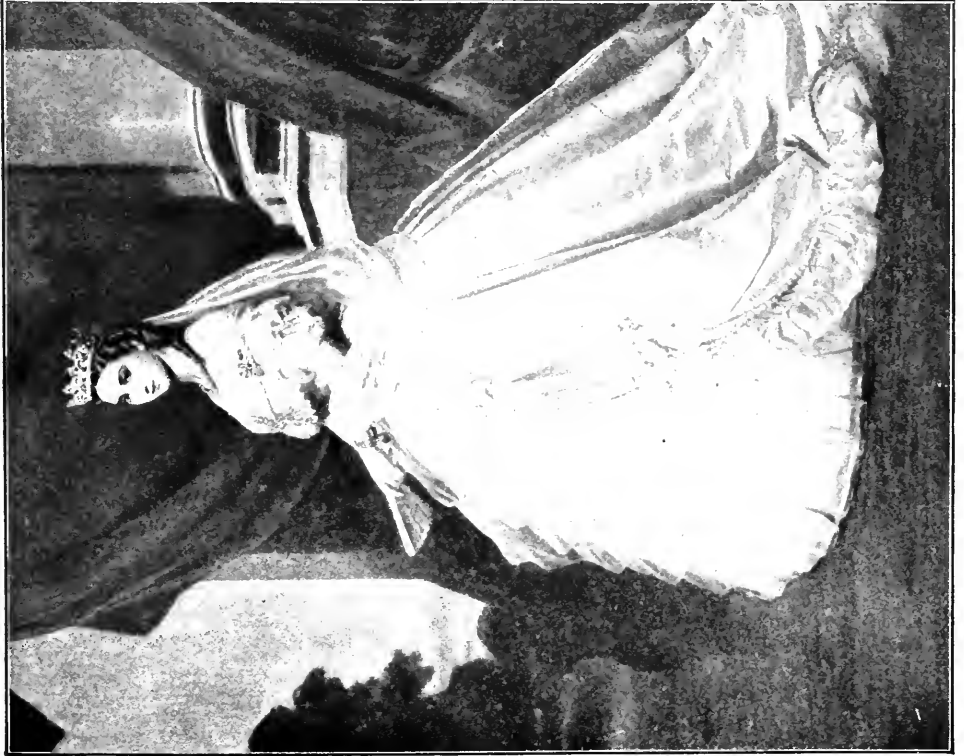
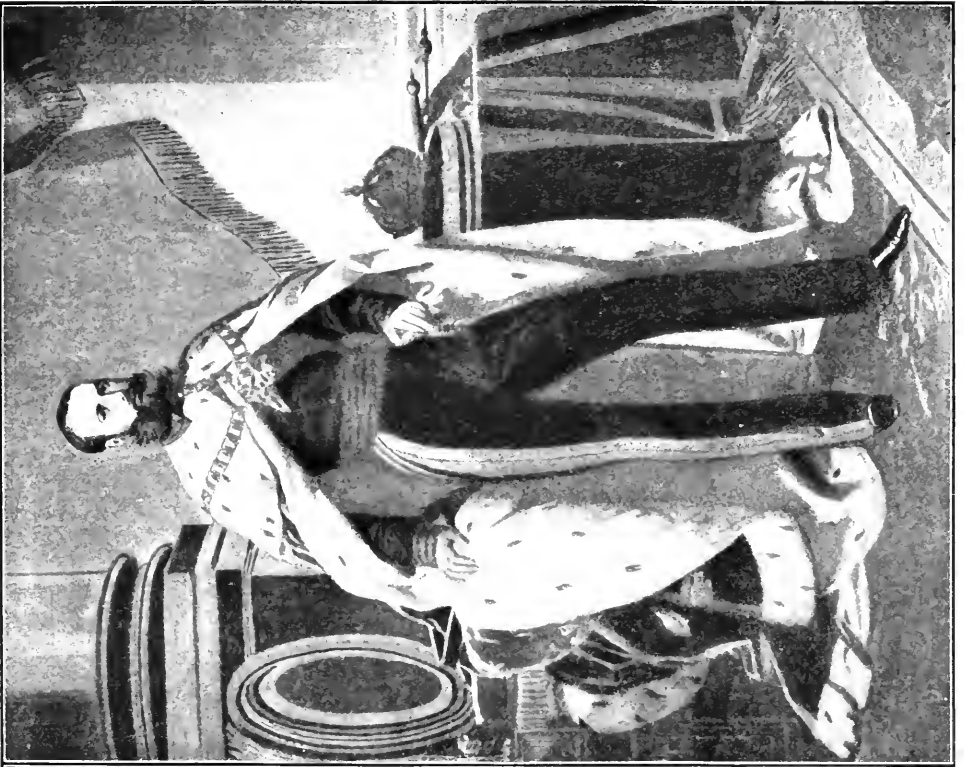
After the departure of the French forces from Mexico, Maximilian's Empire rapidly tottered to its fall. Vera Cruz, Puebla and the capital were besieged by the Liberals; and the Imperialists were gradually hemmed in at Queretaro, which city the Republican forces entered on the 15th of May, 1867, making prisoners of Maximilian, his staff and the small remnant of his army. On the 19th of June, 1867, Maximilian was shot at Queretaro by the triumphant Juarists. The two Mexican Imperial generals, Miramon and Mejia, were also shot. On the 15th of July, 1867, President Juarez returned to the capital, amid popular rejoicings, and issued a memorable and eloquent address to his countrymen.

Re-elec-
tion of
President
Juarez
in 1868.

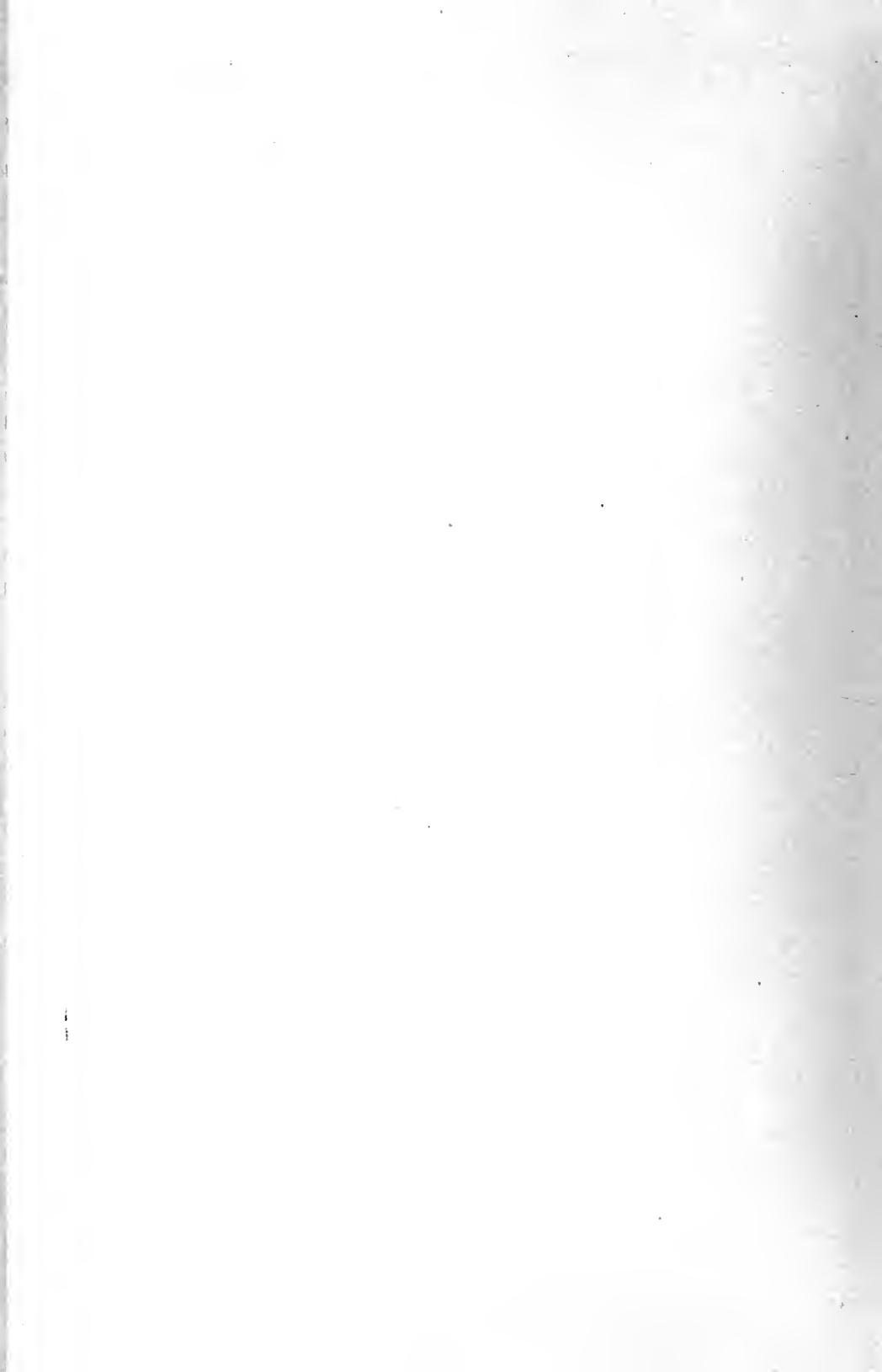
Revolts.

On the 6th of October, 1867, Benito Juarez was reelected President of Mexico over the opposing candidate, General Porfirio Diaz; and in December of the same year the Mexican Congress was assembled again for the first time in three years. After Mexico's triumph over her enemies the nation rapidly recuperated under the wise administration of Juarez, but this prosperity of the Republic was disturbed continually by revolutionary movements of more or less importance. A strong combination was formed against Juarez in May, 1868, when Rivero pronounced against the President; but the revolutionists frittered away their strength, and the movement failed.

In the spring of 1871 another Presidential election took place in Mexico. There were three rival candidates in the field—President Benito Juarez, General Porfirio Diaz and Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada.



MAXIMILIAN AND CARLOTTA



Bribery, corruption and all sorts of frauds were resorted to by each party to secure the election of its favorite candidate; but, as none of the three candidates had received a majority of votes, the duty of choosing a President devolved upon the National Congress, which re-elected President Juarez, who was installed on the 1st of October, 1871. On that day a sanguinary insurrection burst forth in the capital; but the revolt was quelled by General Rocha, who attacked and captured the citadel after a severe conflict; and about two hundred and fifty insurgents were shot after their surrender. The partisans of the unsuccessful candidates throughout the country rose in arms and involved the Republic in the horrors of another civil war. Military chiefs in various States pronounced against Juarez and took the field at the head of revolutionary bands, and many of the Mexican States pronounced in favor of the revolution. The National Congress granted dictatorial powers to Juarez to enable him to quell the rebellion. In December, 1871, the city of Oaxaca was taken by the government forces under General Rocha, after a stubborn resistance on the part of the insurgents. The city of Zacatecas was reduced by the rebels under General Guerra, on the 13th of January, 1872. A battle was fought at San Luis Potosi, and Matamoras was captured by the revolutionists. The revolutionary General Trevino defeated the Juarist General Cevalles at Monterey.

On the 18th of June, 1872, President Juarez died of apoplexy; and Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada, as President of the Supreme Court of Justice, became President of the Mexican Republic. From the time of the death of Juarez the rebellion declined; the revolutionary chiefs gradually laid down their arms, and in a few months the whole country was quiet, so that once more Mexico was relieved from anarchy and restored to peace. In the autumn of 1872 Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada was elected President almost unanimously, and on December 16th of that year he entered upon his regular term.

Late in January, 1876, a revolutionary movement against President Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada broke out in the northern and central States of Mexico. The leader of the rebellion was General Porfirio Diaz. General Herrera pronounced for the revolution and surprised the authorities at Parras. There was severe fighting at Oaxaca, in March, 1876. Jalapa was captured by the revolutionists on March 12th, and Vera Cruz was declared in a state of siege on the 13th. On the 2d of April, 1876, the revolutionists under Diaz captured Matamoras, the government troops making little resistance. New Laredo was captured by the revolutionists, April 11th. General Alatorre was defeated by the rebels in an attempt to retake Oaxaca. The State of Chiapas was declared in a state of siege. The Mexican Congress, before adjourn-

Re-election of President Juarez in 1871.

Revolt of Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada and Civil War of 1871-1872.

Death of Juarez.

President Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada.

Revolt of General Porfirio Diaz and Civil War of 1876.

ing, granted the President extraordinary powers to meet the rebellion. Escobedo, Alatorre and other generals were operating vigorously against the insurgents. General Porfirio Diaz issued a manifesto assigning his reasons for opposing President Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada. General Escobedo, with three thousand government troops, and Generals Guerra and Quirago, with two thousand men, advanced on Matamoras, of which they took possession on the 10th of May; the revolutionists under General Gonzales retiring.

Decline
of the
Revolt.

The rebellion was waning rapidly thereafter, the insurgents having met with reverses everywhere. General Alatorre gained a great victory on May 2d, at Oaxaca, over the revolutionists, who lost four thousand men in killed and wounded, and many being taken prisoners. The government army lost six hundred men in killed and wounded. The government troops also gained a victory in Tlaxco on the 28th of May. The rebels under Generals Figuerora, Cortina and Martinez were defeated completely at Queretaro, on May 31st, with a loss of five hundred men. The revolutionary army under Generals Rivas and Palacio was surprised and defeated by Colonel Adolfo Valle in the interior of Mexico. On July 15th General Alatorre defeated and captured the revolutionary General Hernandez with six hundred of his troops near Orizaba. The government troops reoccupied Jalapa. The revolutionary General Trevino was captured in the North of Mexico. In the beginning of August a formidable revolt broke out in the interior of Mexico. The insurgents defeated sixteen thousand government troops. The revolutionary General Cortina besieged Matamoras in September, 1876.

Re-election
of
President
Sebastian
Lerdo de
Tejada.

In the Presidential election in Mexico in July, 1876, there were five candidates in the field—President Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada, Chief Justice Iglesias and General Mejia by the government party, and Generals Porfirio Diaz and Gomez Palacio by the revolutionary party. President Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada was reelected by an overwhelming majority. The opposition declared the election illegal on account of prevailing lawlessness in many parts of the country, but the Mexican Congress sustained the election as valid; whereupon Chief Justice Iglesias pronounced against President Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada and declared himself Provisional President, establishing himself at Leon, in the State of Guanajuato. On the 16th of November, 1876, General Porfirio Diaz annihilated the government army under Generals Alatorre and Gonzales, near Huamantla, about one hundred miles from the city of Mexico. President Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada fled from the capital on November 21, 1876, with his Cabinet, accompanied by about one thousand men, the greater part of whom afterward deserted. Diaz entered the capital amid the greatest demonstrations. Puebla, Vera Cruz

His
Over-
throw
by the
Revolution
of
1876-
1877.



PORFIRIO DIAZ, President



LIMANTOUR, Secretary of the Treasury

and other cities declared for Diaz, who proclaimed himself Provisional President, November 30, 1876. The Presidential succession was now disputed between Diaz and Iglesias; but the followers of Iglesias deserted to Diaz, who soon had fifty thousand men under arms. Both President Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada and Chief Justice Iglesias escaped to the United States. In February, 1877, under an order from Diaz, a new election was held in Mexico, and Diaz was elected President by an overwhelming majority.

President
Porfirio
Diaz.

The Presidential election in Mexico in July, 1880, resulted in the choice of General Gonzales by a large majority. Revolutionary outbreaks in consequence of the election of Gonzales were suppressed very easily by the Mexican government, and the Mexican Congress declared General Gonzales elected President of the Mexican Republic. He was inaugurated early in December, 1880, being the first Mexican President under the constitution of 1857 who peacefully succeeded to the Presidency. All his predecessors except President Diaz were deposed violently.

President
Gonzales.

In July, 1884, General Porfirio Diaz was again elected President of Mexico; and he was inaugurated in December of that year. In 1887 the Mexican constitution was so amended as to make the President eligible to reelection; and in July, 1888, Diaz was reelected for another term, being inaugurated in December of the same year. In July, 1892, he was again reelected, and was again inaugurated in December of that year. He was again reelected in July, 1896, and again inaugurated in December following. In July, 1900, he was again reelected, being inaugurated for his sixth term in the following December. In July, 1904, he was again reelected, and was inaugurated for the seventh time in December of the same year.

President
Diaz and
His Many
Re-elections.

In 1896 and 1897 the Yaqui Indians in Sonora revolted against the Mexican government, but were subdued by the Mexican troops after a series of bloody conflicts; and their flight into Arizona caused the United States troops to come to the assistance of the Mexican authorities. In 1899 and 1900 another Yaqui outbreak was suppressed by the Mexican troops after a series of sanguinary encounters.

Yaqui
Indian
Out-
breaks.

Under President Diaz's wise and able administration of more than twenty years Mexico has been at peace internally and externally, and for the first time in her history as an independent republic the country has been free from revolutions and civil wars and has made wonderful progress industrially and materially, the resources of the country being developed by foreign capital and railroads being built, the most prominent being the great Mexican Central Railway, connecting the city of Mexico with the United States, and the railway across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, connecting the Gulf of Mexico with the Pacific Ocean.

Mexico's
Prosperity
and
Material
Progress

SECTION VI.—WARS OF THE SOUTH AMERICAN
REPUBLICS (A. D. 1822–1881).Brazil's
Independence.

BRAZIL peacefully secured a political separation from Portugal in 1822, with DOM PEDRO I., of the royal House of Braganza, as Emperor. In 1831 the Brazilians, becoming dissatisfied with the government of Dom Pedro I., compelled him to abdicate his crown in favor of his son, DOM PEDRO II., who was then only five years old. During the minority of Dom Pedro II. the government of Brazil was conducted by a regency.

Bolivar's
Ambition.

General Bolivar cherished the grand design of the formation of a confederation of all the Spanish American republics, with himself at its head as Dictator; and in 1826 a Congress composed of representatives of all the Spanish American republics convened at Panama, on the Isthmus of Darien. The deliberations of this Congress were not attended with any important result, and the plan of a Spanish American confederacy failed.

Congress
at
Panama.War
between
Brazil
and
Argentina.

For several years war raged between the Empire of Brazil and the Republic of La Plata, or the Argentine Confederation, respecting the possession of the Banda Oriental, situated between the two countries. Through the mediation of Great Britain, peace was concluded in 1828, by which it was agreed to erect the Banda Oriental into an independent republic under the name of Uruguay. The Dictator, General Rosas, governed the Argentine Confederation from 1835 to 1855. Both the Argentine Republic and Uruguay have been disturbed very much by civil wars.

Republic
of
Uruguay.War
between
Colombia
and Peru.

A war broke out between the Republics of Colombia and Peru in 1829, which resulted in the defeat of the Peruvians. General Bolivar's ambition created for him many enemies and greatly weakened his popularity with his countrymen; and a civil war was prevented only by his death, in 1830. In 1831 the Republic of Colombia was dissolved; and its three great divisions—New Grenada, Venezuela and Ecuador—became separate republics. Since their separation, all of these republics, like all the other Spanish American states, have been distracted by almost constant revolutions and civil wars. In 1861 the title of New Grenada was changed, and that republic has since been known as the *United States of Colombia*. Early in November, 1903, the State of Panama seceded from Colombia, on account of the refusal of the Colombian Senate to ratify the Hay-Herran Treaty for the construction of the Panama Canal by the United States of America.

Dissolu-
tion
of the
Republic
of
Colombia.Secession
of
Panama.

Paraguay declared its independence in 1810. In 1812 Dr. Francia made himself Dictator; and he ruled Paraguay for twenty-eight years

with almost absolute and despotic power, until 1840, when he died. Under the government of Dr. Francia foreigners were not permitted to travel in Paraguay and every inhabitant was compelled to learn to read and write. Francia's rule, though despotic, was beneficial to Paraguay.

Republic
of
Paraguay
under Dr.
Francia.

In 1836 Peru and Bolivia were united in a league called the *Peru-Bolivian Confederation*, at the head of which was General Santa Cruz as Dictator. In 1836 a war broke out between this confederation and Chili. The Chilians defeated the Peruvians in the battle of Yungay, on the 11th of July, 1839. General Santa Cruz was overthrown and was obliged to flee from Peru; whereupon the Peru-Bolivian Confederation was dissolved, and Peru and Bolivia again became separate republics. Both these republics have since been the scenes of revolution and anarchy.

Peru-
Bolivian
Confed-
eration
and Its
War with
Chili.

In 1864 a war broke out between Spain and Peru. The following year, 1865, Chili joined Peru in the war. The towns on the coast of Chili and Peru were bombarded by the Spanish fleets. Valparaiso, in Chili, and Callao, in Peru, withstood these attacks. In January, 1866, the Republics of Venezuela, Ecuador and Bolivia concluded an alliance with Peru and Chili in the war. Active hostilities closed with the year 1866, but peace was not formally made until the beginning of 1871.

War of
Peru and
Chili
against
Spain.

The interference of the Paraguayan Dictator, Francisco Lopez, in the domestic affairs of Uruguay led to a war of Brazil, Uruguay and the Argentine Confederation against Paraguay in 1864. Bloody battles were fought on Paraguayan soil with various results. Under the leadership of their able Dictator, the Paraguayans fought heroically for the preservation of their national existence, which was threatened by the encroachments of their enemies. But Lopez was driven from one stronghold to another; and, after an enormous expenditure of blood and treasure, this terrible war closed, in the early part of 1870, in the defeat and humiliation of Paraguay. The hard-hearted Lopez, refusing to surrender, was put to death by a Brazilian soldier. The conquerors established a provisional government in Paraguay.

War of
Brazil,
Uruguay
and Ar-
gentina
against
Para-
guay.

In the spring of 1879 a dispute arose between Chili and Bolivia, with regard to the transfer of certain territory by Chili to Bolivia on condition that Bolivia should not tax the Chilian residents therein. Bolivia ceased to impose taxation, but confiscated certain nitrate works owned by a Chilian company. Chili retaliated by sending troops into Bolivia and by blockading the Bolivian ports. Peru formed an alliance with Bolivia.

War of
Peru and
Bolivia
against
Chili.

The Peruvians entered upon the war with a great deal of enthusiasm. President Daza, of Bolivia, marched against the Chilians with five thousand men. The Chilians had nine thousand men in Bolivia. The

Naval
Battle
of
Iquique.

Bolivians took Atacama, April 18, 1879. On May 27, 1879, a fierce naval engagement occurred off Iquique, in Peru, between the Chilean wooden vessels *Esmeralda* and *Covadonga* and the Peruvian iron-clads *Independencia* and *Huascar*; all the vessels except the *Huascar* being sunk. The Peruvian ironclads *Huascar* and *Union* afterward visited Chilean ports, destroying launches and capturing the Chilean steamer *Rimac*, with a Chilean cavalry regiment fully equipped and supplied with horses, besides three vessels loaded with coal and copper. The Chileans resumed the blockade of Iquique and threatened an attack on Lima, in consequence of which there was a general call to arms in the Peruvian capital. Pisagua, in Peru, was bombarded by the Chileans. The Peruvian and Bolivian armies under General Campero forced the Chileans to evacuate Calama and defeated the Chilean corps under Colonel Ruiz. The *Huascar* attacked Antofagasta, August 28, 1879, and, after a four hours' engagement, silenced the Chilean fire and dismantled the principal Chilean battery.

Bombardments of Pisagua and Antofagasta.

Capture of the *Huascar*.

A severe engagement between the Peruvian and Chilean fleets occurred off Mejillones, October 8, 1879, in which the famous Peruvian ram *Huascar* was captured by the Chileans. The loss of the *Huascar* caused a riot in Lima, which led to the resignation of the Peruvian Cabinet. On November 6, 1879, Pisagua, in Peru, was captured by the Chilean land and naval forces, after a severe bombardment of five hours, five hundred Chileans being killed and wounded. On November 16, 1879, a desperate battle was fought at Iquique, in Peru, in which the allied Peruvian and Bolivian army was defeated by the Chileans, who occupied Iquique after the town had been burned by the allies. On November 19, 1879, an allied Peruvian and Bolivian army of eleven thousand men under General Buendia was defeated in an attack on Dolores, near Aqua Santo, by a Chilean corps of six thousand men, which, after receiving reinforcements, routed the allies and occupied their positions; the allies losing four thousand men killed, wounded and missing, while the Chileans lost three thousand men. On November 27, 1879, the allies were again defeated by the Chileans with heavy loss at Tarapaca.

Chilean Victories at Pisagua, Iquique, Dolores and Tarapaca.

Revolutions in Peru and Bolivia.

The Chilean victories caused intense excitement and consternation in Lima, the capital of Peru. President Prado fled from the country; and on December 22, 1879, Don Nicolas Pierola was proclaimed Dictator of Peru. President Daza, of Bolivia, was also deposed, and fled from the country; whereupon General Jamacho made himself President of Bolivia.

Naval Battles off Arica.

Late in February, 1880, the Chilean forces occupied Ilo and Moquegua, in Peru, taking the garrison of the latter place prisoners. On February 25, 1880, a Chilean army of twelve thousand men landed near

Arica, in Peru, and the Chilians made a naval demonstration against the town; but the *Huascar* was driven off by the Peruvian corvette *Manco Capac*. On March 11, 1880, the Peruvian corvette *Union* forced the blockade of Arica, fighting seven hours with two Chilian iron-clads and a transport. On April 14, 1880, a naval encounter occurred off the river Loa between the Chilian corvette *Magalaneo* on one side and the Peruvian corvettes *Union* and *Pilcomayo* on the other, the Chilian vessel being obliged to retreat. In the meantime Callao, in Peru, was blockaded by the Chilian fleet, and the Peruvians made great preparations for defense. Callao was bombarded by the Chilian navy, April 22, 1880. The allied Peruvian and Bolivian forces under General Campero were defeated in a terrible battle at Tacna, in Peru, May 25, 1880; the allies being compelled to evacuate Tacna, which then was occupied by the victorious Chilians. On June 7, 1880, the Chilians captured Arica, after a desperate hand-to-hand fight in the outlying forts; the town being sacked and burned, and the Peruvian soldiers being bayoneted to the last man. The fight between the fleets was also severe. The Peruvian corvette *Manco Capac* was sunk.

Bombardment of Callao.

Chilian Victories at Tacna and Arica.

In June, 1880, a confederation was proposed, by which Peru and Bolivia were to be united in a league called *The United States of Peru and Bolivia*. In July, 1880, the Chilian Admiral Riveros threatened to bombard Lima; but the Peruvians made energetic preparations for the defense of their capital. The Chilians devastated the northern provinces of Peru, in September, 1880. The Chilians opened a bombardment on Callao, September 22, 1880. Peru and Chili accepted the proffered mediation of the United States early in September, 1880; and Great Britain, France and Italy forbade an attack upon Lima until the Chilians promised to respect neutral property in the Peruvian capital.

Lima Threatened.

Foreign Intervention.

At a peace conference at Arica, in Peru, Chili's demands were rejected by Bolivia and Peru, and Peru's motion to refer the whole question to arbitration was rejected by Chili. The Chilian army, thirty thousand strong, then renewed its advance on Peru, and captured Pisco after a stubborn fight, November 19, 1880. On the approach of the Chilians the principal families of Lima fled from the city, and the Chilians met with little opposition.

Chili's Demands Rejected.

Capture of Pisco.

The Chilians marched on Lima in three divisions. The Chilians defeated the Peruvians in a sanguinary battle at Chorillos, January 13, 1881, the Peruvians losing nine thousand men killed, wounded and missing. The Chilians again defeated the Peruvians in a bloody battle at Miraflores, January 15, 1881, the Peruvian army being cut to pieces. The victorious Chilians entered Lima two days later, January 17, 1881, and organized a municipal government for the preservation of order. Dictator Pierola, of Peru, fled from the city on the ap-

Battles of Chorillos and Miraflores.

Capture of Lima.

proach of the invaders; and his brother, the Minister of War, was captured.

**Anarchy
in Peru.**

A great riot occurred in Lima just two days before the capture of the city, January 15, 1881, causing a loss of about six million dollars' worth of property. On the night of January 16th about three hundred Chinamen were massacred by a lawless mob in Lima. Callao was sacked by natives and was defended by the Chilian invaders; the natives robbing and murdering, and the Chilians endeavoring to enforce order. Peru was in a state of anarchy, being virtually without any government. President Pierola, having fled from the capital on the approach of the invaders, issued his useless edicts and proclamations from beyond the Cordilleras; and the Peruvian finances had depreciated almost to worthlessness. The Chilians levied contributions upon the people of Lima. A war of races broke out in the valley of Canette, where more than two thousand Chinamen were massacred by negroes and others, and all the cane-fields, sugar-houses and machinery were destroyed. Many foreigners were murdered by the mob.

**Peru's
Provis-
ional
Govern-
ment.**

About the middle of March, 1881, a provisional government under Dr. Francisco Garcia Calderon was established in Peru, under the protection of the Chilians. President Calderon's decrees were resisted by the Peruvian war party, which still adhered to the fugitive Dictator Pierola. Chili's terms of peace were the cession of Antofagasta, Tarapaca and Tacna; a war indemnity; indemnification for Chilians expelled from Peru and Bolivia; reciprocal commercial advantages between Chili and Peru and Bolivia; the extraction of guano to be carried on for account of the Chilian government, and Peru not to fortify her ports for fifty years nor to acquire a navy for forty years. About the middle of May, 1881, the Chilians withdrew from Lima and its vicinity. Peru and Bolivia finally were obliged to accept Chili's terms of peace.

**Chili's
Harsh
Terms of
Peace.**

**Slavery
Abolished
in Brazil.**

In 1871 the Brazilian Chambers passed a bill for the gradual abolition of slavery in Brazil, and in 1888 the Chambers passed a measure for the total extinction of slavery within that Empire.

SECTION VII.—THE GREAT CIVIL WAR IN CHILI (A. D. 1891).

**President
Balma-
ceda
and the
Chilian
Congress.**

THE most important event in South American history during 1891 was the bloody civil war in Chili between President José Manuel Balmaceda and the Congress of that republic. This sanguinary struggle began with the first day of the year and lasted eight months, and was caused by the arbitrary and despotic rule of President Balmaceda, who virtually acted as dictator, endeavoring constantly to establish practi-

cally his own will as the law of the republic, and repeatedly overriding the constitution and laws of the land.

Chili always has been the most enlightened of all the Spanish American nations, and has been usually little disturbed by such revolutions and civil wars as constantly have distracted the other Latin American republics. That republic has been internally at peace from 1851 to 1891, a period of forty years, during which period she, in alliance with Peru, carried on a war against Spain, and in 1881 she vanquished both Peru and Bolivia in a bloody war of two years, as already noted.

It was apparent to careful observers from the beginning of the recent internal struggle that the rebel, or Congressional party must succeed eventually, as four-fifths of the Chilian people were on the side of the Congress against President Balmaceda. The Chilian Congress and people were fighting for the cause of popular government against a one-man power as represented by the dictator Balmaceda. The Congress and people of Chili had as good a cause in their armed opposition to President Balmaceda as the English Parliament and people two and a half centuries ago had against King Charles I. As their adherents outnumbered the partisans of Balmaceda four to one, the success of the rebels was only a question of time.

The insurgents had a formidable naval armament and thus were superior to the dictator Balmaceda on the water. Their land forces held possession of the country both north and south of Santiago and Valparaiso, the capital and the chief seaport of the country, which were held by President Balmaceda's forces until just before the end of the war. The possession of the great nitrate deposits, the chief source of wealth to the country, was of immense advantage to the Congressionalists, who worked those mines for all they were worth and thus obtained the cash necessary for carrying on the struggle against the dictator Balmaceda.

Balmaceda's weak points were his inferior navy and his want of money. As he was unable to borrow money, he seized the silver in the national treasury at Santiago, which was stored there as security for the fiduciary circulation, in order to be able to pay sums due to European contractors who had supplied him with ships, arms and ammunition. This destructive civil war in Chili began January 1, 1891. Most of the army supported President Balmaceda, but the rest of the army and almost the entire navy sided with the Congress. Portions of the dictator's army at different times deserted to the insurgents. The Congressional proclamation against the President was issued January 5, 1891. The President's proclamation was issued two days later, and three hundred citizens were imprisoned by the President. The Congressional navy blockaded the ports.

Chili's
Usual
Peaceful
Condition.

The Issue
in the
Civil
War of
1891.

The
Congressional
Forces.

President
Balma-
ceda's
Weak-
ness.

Outbreak
of the
Civil
War.

Congressional Victories.

The Congressionalists won three victories at Coquimbo, in January, 1891. The Congressional fleet captured the ship *Cleopatra* with five thousand rifles and a large quantity of ammunition, January 9, 1891. There were a number of indecisive conflicts in Chili during January and February, 1891. Tarapaca and Atacama, in the North of Chili, were occupied by the Congressionalists. The Congressionalists won a

Bombardment and Capture of Pisagua and Iquique.

victory at Dolores, February 15, 1891. The Congressional fleet bombarded Pisagua and burned the town, February 6, 1891, and captured Iquique after a fierce bombardment, February 16, 1891. Over two hundred women and children were killed during this bombardment, and the business part of Iquique was fired by incendiaries the same evening. By the mediation of the British Admiral Hotham, a short armistice was

Congressional Defeats.

concluded until the 20th (February, 1891). The Congressionalists were repulsed at Huara, February 17, 1891, and were defeated the next day. The Congressionalists were victorious at Iquique, where the President's troops surrendered, February 20, 1891. Pisagua was recaptured by the Balmacedist troops, and one hundred Congressional troops were killed and eight hundred were captured, of whom eighteen officers were shot in cold blood, in utter disregard of the usages of modern warfare.

President Balmaceda's Cruelties.

President Balmaceda issued a decree confiscating all the property of rebel Senators and Deputies and threatened to shoot several relatives of Senators and Deputies. The rebels seized several prominent friends of Balmaceda and threatened to take life for life, even threatening to shoot his particular friend, the Bishop of Serena. The prisons of

Congressional Reprisals.

Santiago were crowded with political prisoners. Three hundred fled from Balmaceda's clutches across the Andes into the Argentine Republic. President Balmaceda convoked a new Presidential election for the first Sunday in March and declared the members of Congress rebels. Balmaceda's cruelties, imprisonments, floggings of Congressional leaders and the massacre by Colonel Robles at Tarapaca justified Congressional reprisals.

More Congressional Victories.

The Congressionalists captured Ancud and Antofagasta in February, 1891. Their land forces numbered twelve thousand men. The Peruvian steamer *Santa Rosa*, with arms for Balmaceda, was captured by the insurgents. The Congressionalists won a victory on March 6, 1891, and the President's troops deserted to the rebels. Tarapaca and all Southern Chili were in the possession of the Congressionalists. The Congressionalists were victorious at Pozo Almonte, near Iquique, March

Capture of Antofagasta, Arica and Tacna.

8, 1891. The Mayor and garrison of Valparaiso joined the rebels, seized the Balmacedist transport *Maida* and sailed northward. The Congressionalists bombarded and took Antofagasta, March 23, 1891, and captured Arica and Tacna without resistance, April 7, 1891.

On April 18, 1891, there was naval fighting near Valparaiso. The Balmacedist tug *Florence* was blown out of the water and her crew drowned by a shell from the Congressional iron-clad *Blanca Encalada*, and the Balmacedist torpedo-boat was knocked to pieces by a broadside from the Congressional sloop-of-war *O'Higgins*. The Congressional vessels then attacked the forts of Valparaiso, and a lively battle ensued. Several shells from the forts tore the deck of the *O'Higgins* to pieces and blew nine of her guns and twelve of her crew to pieces. The *Blanca Encalada* was sunk in Caldera Bay by the Balmacedist vessels *Sergeanto Aldea*, *Almirante Condell* and *Almirante Lynch*, April 23, 1891. The Congressional cruiser *Magellanes* defeated the President's flotilla at Chanaral, April 24, 1891. There was indecisive fighting at Taltal between the citizens and the President's vessels, *Imperial* and *Almirante Condell*, May 21, 1891. These vessels bombarded Iquique and engaged the Congressional fleet on the same day. On land the Congressionalists were gaining ground continually, and the President's troops were deserting to them constantly.

Naval Battles of Valparaiso.

Other Naval Battles.

Naval Battle off Iquique.

The Congressional transport *Itata* escaped from San Diego, California, after her seizure by the United States authorities on the charge of violating the neutrality laws of the United States by carrying arms to the Congressional party, and was pursued by the United States cruiser *Charleston*, May, 1891. The *Itata* was finally surrendered to the United States consul at Iquique, in June, 1891.

The *Itata* at San Diego, California.

Balmaceda's new Congress passed several acts legalizing all he had done thus far, June, 1891. The efforts of the European Ministers at Santiago, and those of the United States and Brazil, to bring about a peace, failed, June, 1891.

Foreign Mediation.

The Balmacedist vessels *Almirante Lynch* and *Almirante Condell* bombarded Iquique, June 9, 1891, but soon were driven off by Congressional vessels. The Congressional squadron bombarded Pisagua, June 8, 1891, and Iquique, June 9, 1891; occupied Tocopilla, June 10, 1891; bombarded Antofagasta, occupied Chanaral and silenced the land batteries.

Bombardment of Iquique, Pisagua and Antofagasta.

The Congressionalists were repulsed in two battles near Huasco, in Northern Chili, July 8, 1891. A few days later the Congressionalists were defeated after a desperate battle. The Congressionalists captured the town of Coronel, but the Balmacedists retook Vallemar from the Congressionalists. The Congressional fleet arrived at Valparaiso, July 10, 1891. Several of the President's vessels were defeated by the Congressional cruiser *Magellanes* in a fierce battle off the Chilian coast, July 12, 1891.

Congressional Defeats and Victories.

In the meantime Balmaceda had several large iron-clad cruisers built in France. The *Presidente Pinto* was detained at Kiel, in Germany,

Balmaceda's New Cruisers.

late in August, 1891; and the *Presidente Errazuriz* was detained at Lisbon, in Portugal, in July and August.

Congressional
Victories
near Val-
paraiso.

The Congressionalists now determined to end the war by a decisive and effective blow directed against Valparaiso and Santiago. Accordingly a Congressional force of eight thousand men under General Canto landed at Quintero Bay, twenty miles north from Valparaiso, August 20, 1891. President Balmaceda and his generals were completely taken by surprise, but Balmacedist troops were sent against the insurgents, and terrific fighting followed the next day and lasted for a full week, August 21-28, 1891. The losses were heavy on both sides. The rebels, though greatly outnumbered, were victorious from the start, and advanced to within five miles of Valparaiso, amid constant fighting. Balmaceda's forces occupied vantage-ground, and his army was backed up by the guns from Fort Callao; but the Congressional artillery did terrible execution. General Canto, the Congressional commander, was a veteran who commanded the Chilian forces in the war with Peru and Bolivia ten years before. Balmaceda's forces outnumbered the Congressionalists two to one; but the superiority of the Congressionalist firearms gave that party the final success, their troops being armed with Remingtons and Winchesters, twenty thousand of which were brought from the United States by the *Esmeralda* on her return to Chili.

Battles of
Vina del
Mar and
Placilla.

In the sanguinary and decisive battles of Vina del Mar and Placilla, August 24-28, 1891, the most desperate valor was shown on both sides, as it was to be a life-and-death struggle. The Congressional fleet actively aided General Canto's army. The Congressionalists drove back the Balmacedists and surrounded Valparaiso. Many of Balmaceda's troops deserted to the Congressionalists during the fighting. In the final and decisive battle of Placilla, seven miles from Valparaiso, August 28, 1891, the Balmacedists were utterly routed and driven into Valparaiso, with the loss of fifteen hundred killed and wounded and three thousand prisoners. Balmaceda's leading commanders, Generals Barbosa and Alzeweca, were killed while leading their troops against the rebels. The dictator's army was crushed and dispersed, beyond all hope of reorganization, and he was practically a fugitive. Balmaceda's power was thus utterly broken, without any chances of recovery; and the victorious Congressionalists took possession of Valparaiso, August 28, 1891, and of Santiago, Sunday, August 30, 1891.

Congressional
Capture
of Val-
paraiso
and
Santiago.

Flight
of Bal-
macedist
Leaders.

Señor Claudio Vicuña, President-elect, and Señor Viel, Intendente of Valparaiso, fled for refuge to the German warship *Leipsic*. The *Almirante Lynch* and other Balmacedist warships fell into the hands of the victors. Other Balmacedist refugees went on board the German and American warships in the harbor of Valparaiso and to the American legation in Santiago. Señor Vicuña finally reached New York.

After surrendering his capital to the victorious rebels, President Balmaceda fled to the mountains for the purpose of escaping from the country. The residences of Balmaceda, his mother, the dead General Barbosa and other obnoxious individuals were burned by an infuriated mob, which held the capital at its mercy. There was also riot and incendiarism in Valparaiso, where almost two million dollars' worth of property was destroyed; but order was finally restored after two hundred rioters had been shot down by troops.

Balmaceda's Flight.

Pillage of Valparaiso.

The defeat of Balmaceda, the fall of Valparaiso and Santiago, the flight of Balmaceda and the complete triumph of the Congressional cause occasioned great rejoicings in Valparaiso and Santiago; and the festivities in honor of the great victory lasted several days. The victorious Congressionalists established a provisional government at Santiago, under Admiral Jorge Montt, September 4, 1891. The new government was soon recognized by the United States, Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy and other powers. The Balmacedist torpedo boat *Almirante Condell* and the armed transport *Imperial* surrendered at Callao, Peru, September 4, 1891.

Complete Triumph of the Congressionalists.

In the meantime the fallen dictator Balmaceda attempted to escape across the Andes into the Argentine Republic; but, as his escape was cut off by his victorious foes, he committed suicide at the Argentine legation in Santiago, September 20, 1891, and his body was buried secretly in that city. He left letters to his mother, his wife, the Argentine Minister and a friend, stating that he would not receive fair treatment from his triumphant enemies, who thirsted for his blood. His death caused intense excitement and general joy in Santiago and Valparaiso, and those cities were brilliantly illuminated.

Balmaceda's Suicide.

Chili was recovering rapidly from the effects of the destructive civil war through which the country had just passed. The belief among the victorious party that the United States Minister at Santiago, Patrick Egan, was a friend of Balmaceda, and that the Americans in Chili had given sympathy and aid to Balmaceda, gave rise to a bitter feeling toward Americans, which was heightened by the American Minister's action in affording an asylum to the Balmacedist refugees at the American legation in Santiago. The legation was surrounded and watched by police and detectives to prevent the escape of the refugees. Finally a riot at Valparaiso, October 16, 1891, when a party of American sailors were attacked by a mob and two of them killed, brought matters to a crisis and threatened war with the United States. The Chilian provisional government was very defiant at first; but after several months' negotiation, conducted at Washington by Señor Pedro Montt, a brother of Admiral Jorge Montt, on the part of Chili, the dispute was settled by Chili making a satisfactory apology and agree-

The New Chilian Government's Dispute with the United States

ing to pay an indemnity of seventy-five thousand dollars to the families of the victims of the riot, January, 1892.

President
Jorge
Montt.

The Liberals triumphed in elections for a new Congress, which resulted in returning thirty Liberals and two Clericals to the Senate and sixty-two Liberals and thirty-two Clericals to the Chamber of Deputies. Admiral Jorge Montt was unanimously elected President of Chili by the electoral colleges of the republic, November 18, 1891. He was inaugurated in the Plaza Independencia amid three salvos of artillery, December 26, 1891. The Balmacedist refugees at the United States legation attempted to throw railway cars off the track and to throw bombs into the procession. The American residents at Santiago were indignant at the attempted outrages and held meetings to denounce the refugees.

Balmacedist
Outrages.

General
Amnesty.

In a few days after his inauguration the new President completed his Cabinet. In accordance with the recommendation of the provisional government, a general amnesty bill was passed by Congress, from which a few of the Balmacedist leaders were excepted.

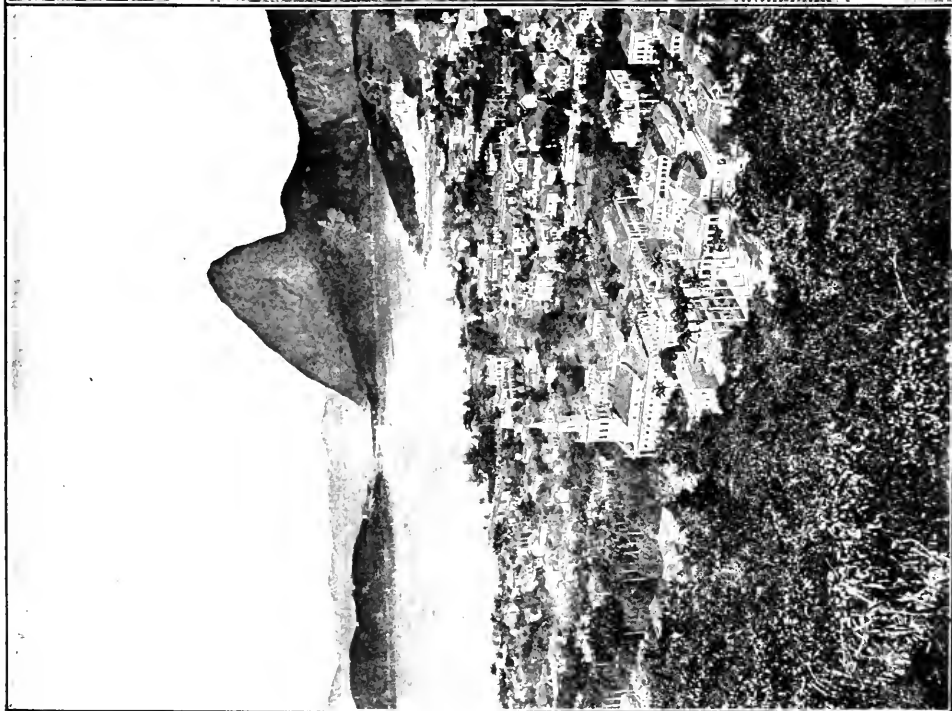
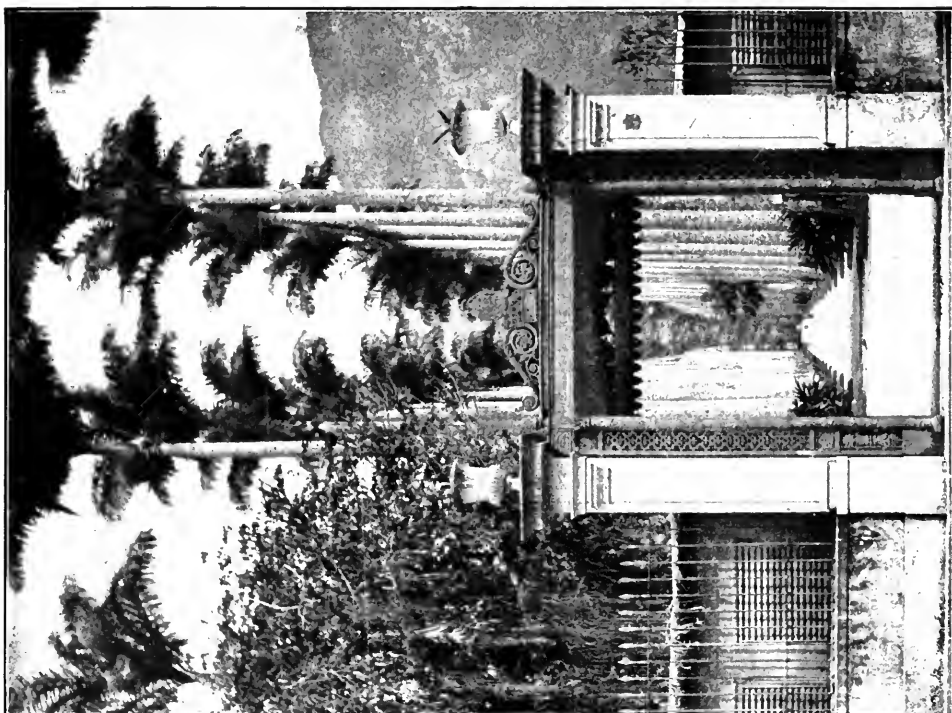
Other
South
American
Dictators.

The times seemed inauspicious for dictators in South America. In July, 1890, a formidable military and naval revolt at Buenos Ayres, in which several thousand lives were lost, forced President Celman, of the Argentine Republic, to resign; and in the summer of 1892 President Palacio, of Venezuela, was overthrown, after a bloody civil war of many months, during which his forces were defeated constantly by his rival, General Crespo, who finally captured Caracas, after a desperate battle, and made himself President.

SECTION VIII.—NEW REPUBLIC OF BRAZIL AND ITS CIVIL WARS (A. D. 1889–1894).

Long
Reign of
Emperor
Dom
Pedro II.,
A. D.
1831–
1889.

THE most important event in the recent history of South America has been the revolution in Brazil which has transformed that vast Empire into a Republic. The long chain of causes leading to that result include the whole forty-eight years of the reign of the Emperor Dom Pedro II. The Emperor was a man of liberal impulses and aspirations, whose great achievement in the work of social and political reform was the abolition of slavery within his dominions without compensation to the slaveholders. Ever since the accomplishment of that result, in March, 1888, Dom Pedro II. felt the opposition of a powerful aristocratic party. His advancing years, and the evidence of the decay of his physical powers, furnished by the recent illness that almost proved fatal, tended to make the aristocratic party arrogant. This party looked forward with pleasure to the prospect of the succession



RIO DE JANEIRO, BRAZIL



of the Emperor's daughter *Isabella*, Countess d'Eu, who was extremely unpopular on account of her reactionary sympathies and who therefore was distrusted by the republicans of Brazil, who for many years had longed for the establishment of a republican form of government in that vast South American country.

The imperial government behaved in such a manner as to disgust the Brazilian army by always evincing a marked distrust of the loyalty of the troops. The Brazilian masses also felt considerable antipathy to the clerical influence at court, which had grown quite marked and which was certain to assume vast proportions if the Count d'Eu was permitted to become the successor of Dom Pedro II. This sentiment caused the great mass of the poor and common people to sympathize with the republicans in their desire to depose the Emperor, while the emancipation of the slaves had undermined the loyalty of the higher classes by depriving them of a great portion of their wealth.

By a peaceful and bloodless revolution at Rio Janeiro, November 15, 1889, the Emperor Dom Pedro II. was deposed and Brazil was proclaimed a Republic. The Brazilian army was in control. The Ministry resigned, and a provisional government was organized under the leadership of *Senhor da Fonseca* as President. The situation was entirely peaceful, and the Brazilian people accepted the Republic. The imperial machinery of internal administration was unmolested for the time. The deposed Emperor's Ministers were arrested and kept in close confinement. The provisional government guaranteed protection to the members of the deposed imperial family. The ex-Emperor was then at his summer palace at *Petropolis*, twenty-five miles north of Rio Janeiro. All business in Rio Janeiro was suspended, but there was no disorder.

The dethroned Dom Pedro II. was ordered to leave the country. He accordingly sailed from Brazil for Portugal, November 19, 1889. The new Republic allowed the ex-Emperor eight hundred centes de reis (about four hundred thousand dollars) per annum during his life. The scene when the ex-Emperor embarked at Rio Janeiro for Lisbon was a sad one. The vast crowd was kept back by a quadruple cordon of soldiers. Nearly every head was uncovered, and hundreds shed tears. Dom Pedro himself was visibly affected and his emotion seemed intense, as he repeatedly lifted his hat in response to the farewell greeting which came from the vast multitude and as he shook the hands of some intimate friends. The ex-Empress, a kind, motherly old lady, appeared to be intensely interested in the many traveling impediments which she was obliged to encounter. The Count and Countess d'Eu proceeded from their carriage to the man-of-war with the air of *Sulla* departing from Rome.

His
Growing
Unpopu-
larity.

Deposi-
tion of
Dom
Pedro II.

Brazil a
Republic.

Dom
Pedro's
Farewell
to Brazil
and Sail
for
Portugal.

The
Republic
of the
United
States of
Brazil.

The new republican government of Brazil announced that it would firmly maintain order. The new Republic adopted the name of the *United States of Brazil*. The five articles of the government decree were:

1. The Republic is proclaimed.
2. The provinces of Brazil, united by federation, compose the United States of Brazil.
3. Each State will form its own local government.
4. Each State will send a representative to the Congress which will convene shortly, and the final decision of which the provisional government will await.
5. Meantime the Governors of the States will adopt means to maintain order and protect the citizens' rights.
6. The nation's internal and external relations will be represented meanwhile by the provisional government.

President
Fonseca.

On November 19, 1889, Senhor da Fonseca, the President of the new Republic, formally announced Dom Pedro's departure for Lisbon. The President also announced that he would continue to exercise supreme executive authority until the country should have decided definitely upon a new government. He also announced that the ordinary functions of administration would continue as under the Empire.

Universal
Suffrage.

On November 21, 1889, the provisional government issued a decree establishing universal suffrage throughout the new Republic. Brazil's population being about twenty million, this decree gave the country about three and a half million voters. Under the Empire there had been only about two hundred thousand voters, as the suffrage was restricted by a provision denying the franchise to all having an income amounting to less than two hundred and twenty-five dollars annually.

Brazil's
New
Flag.

The flag of the new Republic of the United States of Brazil, which was adopted in the place of the old imperial emblem with its crown and coffee leaf, is composed of green and yellow stripes, with a blue field, on which twenty-one stars are represented.

United
States of
Brazil
Recognized
by the
United
States of
America.

The new Republic of the United States of Brazil was recognized definitely by the government of the United States of America, November 21, 1889, when Dr. Valente, the Brazilian Minister at Washington, called at the State Department and informed Secretary Blaine that peace and tranquillity reigned in Brazil and that the new republican government was receiving the support of the Brazilian people. Dr. Valente was also authorized by the provisional government of Brazil to instruct the Brazilian representatives to the International American Congress to continue to act for their country in the sessions of the Congress. The new credentials of the Brazilian envoys, both ordinary and extraordinary, were tendered to and accepted by Secretary Blaine.

The ex-Emperor Dom Pedro II. and his family arrived at Lisbon, Portugal, December 7, 1889. The ex-Emperor and the ex-Empress; their son-in-law and daughter, the Count and Countess d'Eu, with their three sons; and Prince August of Saxe-Coburg, the other son-in-law of the ex-Emperor, come ashore immediately after leaving the steamer *Alagoas*, in which they had sailed from Rio Janeiro. The fallen imperial family were welcomed warmly by their relative, King Charles, who had ascended the throne of Portugal less than two months before.

**Dom
Pedro's
Arrival in
Portugal.**

The deposed Dom Pedro II. refused the pension which the officials of the new Republic had offered him, and so informed the authorities of the Republic by cable and through the Brazilian legation at Lisbon, stating that he declined to accept any sum beyond that authorized by law. He ascribed the cause of his overthrow to the abolition of slavery, as his championship of the cause of emancipation had alienated the slaveholders from their loyalty to him and his government. He expressed his willingness to return to Brazil if recalled, whether as Emperor, President or private citizen. He set about the preparation of his memoirs of his life and reign, to be published after his death.

**His
Attitude.**

The new republican government of Brazil soon promulgated a decree banishing the ex-Emperor and the entire imperial family from Brazil, canceling the grant of five million millreis to Dom Pedro II. and suspending his allowance in the civil list. The authorities of the new Republic, however, promised to secure to him his personal property, worth a million and a half. The ex-Empress died suddenly at Oporto, during a visit to that city in company with her husband, December 28, 1889, exactly three weeks after her arrival in Portugal.

**Attitude
of the
Republic
toward
the Fallen
Emperor.**

Thus ended the reign of the Emperor Dom Pedro II., one of the best monarchs that ever wore a crown. He immortalized his reign by his unselfish efforts to benefit his subjects, instead of seeking his own personal aggrandizement; and he quietly acquiesced in the logic of events which involved the sacrifice of his throne.

**Dom
Pedro's
Goodness.**

A new constitution proclaimed in Brazil in the summer of 1890 made the President responsible to the nation, the Cabinet members to be styled Secretaries of State and to be responsible to the President.

**Brazil's
New Con-
stitution.**

Like Chili, Brazil had a struggle between its President and its Congress in 1891, because President Deodora da Fonseca assumed the role of dictator, as President Balmaceda had done in Chili. The trouble in Brazil was caused by the attempt of the Congress to deprive President Fonseca of his constitutional veto power. The Congress persisted in its scheme; and the President sought to save his veto power by adopting the heroic course of forcibly dissolving the Congress by military power, thus imitating Cromwell in England, the Bonapartes in France and Iturbide in Mexico.

**Quarrel
between
President
Fonseca
and the
Brazilian
Congress.**

**President
Fonseca
Makes
Himself
Dictator.**

President Fonseca dissolved the Congress, declared martial law, suspended all constitutional guarantees and made himself dictator, November 4, 1891. Soldiers guarded the public buildings, and a rigorous censorship was exercised over all dispatches sent abroad. In consequence of the President's action, four States of Brazil at once seceded from the Republic and declared their independence. Several garrisons revolted against Fonseca's dictatorship. The rebels fortified the city of Rio Grande do Sul, in the streets of which a battle was fought in which the dictator's forces were defeated with heavy loss. The disaffection throughout the country was spreading rapidly and the dictator's power was becoming more precarious daily. Many of the National Guards and volunteers joined the revolt, and the flotilla in the Uruguay river sided with the rebels. The Deputies in Congress from the State of Rio Grande do Sul were jailed. Three other States revolted and seceded. Finally a revolt broke out in Rio de Janeiro, November 21, 1891. The navy joined the rebels two days later, thus forcing President Fonseca to resign, November 23, 1891. General Floriano Peixoto was at once elected his successor. The new President convoked Congress for December 18, 1891, annulled the state of siege and revoked his predecessor's arbitrary acts.

**Revolts
in Conse-
quence.**

**Over-
throw of
Fonseca.**

**President
Peixoto.**

**Forced
Resigna-
tions of
Governors
of
Brazilian
States.**

Peace was not restored immediately throughout the Republic. A revolutionary provisional government was established in the State of Rio de Janeiro; and there was a conflict on the Campos at Rio de Janeiro, December 8, 1891. The Governor of Sao Paulo was forced to resign, December 13, 1891. The citizens of Pernambuco had a conflict with the police and the military, December, 1891, and forced the Governor to resign. In all, eleven States deposed their Governors. The States of Rio Grande do Sul and Matto Grasso remained rebellious for over a year, but finally were subdued by the national troops after many conflicts. The ex-Emperor Dom Pedro II. died in Portugal, December 5, 1891, two years after his arrival in Portugal.

**President
Peixoto's
Unconsti-
tutional
Re-elec-
tion
Scheme.**

The time for the election of a new President in Brazil was now approaching; and President Floriano Peixoto was seeking reelection, in spite of the provision of the Brazilian Constitution which forbade the reelection of a President during his term of office. The President justified his course on the ground that as he had not become President by election, but as Vice President having succeeded to the office of President only to fill out the unexpired term of the late President Fonseca, the constitutional provision against the reelection of a President did not apply in his case. But all Brazilians did not accept the very forced construction of the Brazilian Constitution put upon it by President Peixoto; and his veto of a bill passed by the Brazilian Congress rendering any Vice President who became President ineligible

to election as President caused a formidable revolt of the Brazilian navy, which broke out at Rio de Janeiro early in September, 1893, and which endangered the existence of Peixoto's government and even of the Brazilian Republic for five months. The leader of this revolt at first was Rear-Admiral Custodio de Mello, and afterwards Admiral da Gama, both of whom successively bombarded the capital for five months during the fall of 1893 and the ensuing winter.

Naval
Revolt.

The revolt was effected very quietly a little before midnight on September 5, 1893, when Admiral de Mello boarded the iron-clad *Aquidaban* and took possession of that large battleship without meeting any resistance. Admiral de Mello's men obtained possession of the formidable cruiser *Republica*, two torpedo-boats, some other warships and merchant vessels in the harbor of Rio de Janeiro, the same night; and thus the standard of rebellion was raised against the existing government in Brazil by the larger part of the navy of that country.

Admiral
Mello's
Outbreak.

Early on the morning of the next day the insurgents landed at Nictheroy, the capital of the State of Rio de Janeiro, seized the naval depot there and removed a large quantity of artillery, ammunition and supplies to the ships in their possession. Before ten o'clock that morning Admiral de Mello had a fleet of twenty-four ships, among which were twelve iron-clad battleships and five torpedo-boats. The twelve battleships were the *Aquidaban*, the *Republica*, the *Trajano*, the *Orion*, the *Javary*, the *Marajó*, the *Marcilio Diaz*, the *Amazonas*, the *Madeira*, the *Sete de Setembro*, the *Iguatemy* and the *Araguary*.

His
Fleet at
Rio de
Janeiro.

Upon hearing of the revolt, President Peixoto at once summoned his Cabinet and the officials of the war and naval departments; and preparations were made to defend the city against attack from the revolted navy. Detachments of police were sent to the water front to prevent communication with the revolted ships. The Brazilian Congress held secret sessions, and the Senate voted in favor of the establishment of martial law.

President
Peixoto's
Prepara-
tions.

The insurgents attempted landings at various points, but were repulsed everywhere. Admiral de Mello called upon the garrison in the fort of Santa Cruz to join in the revolt, but the garrison decidedly refused to take part in the rebellion. The rebel squadron, dispersed over the harbor, was held in check by the forts and could not get out to sea. On September 11, 1893, the insurgents were repulsed with great loss in killed and wounded in an attempt to land at Nictheroy, the capital of the State of Rio de Janeiro; after which the rebel fleet attempted to run past the port of Santa Cruz and the shore batteries to gain the open sea, but was fired upon by the forts and batteries and compelled to return to its former anchorage. The insurgents were repulsed afterward in a second attempt to land.

Insurgent
Repulses.

Admiral Mello's Bombardment of Rio de Janeiro.

On September 13, 1893, Admiral de Mello opened a fierce bombardment on Rio de Janeiro, which inflicted considerable damage on the city. The rebels landed at Nictheroy, seized the arsenal and custom house and silenced the forts in the harbor. The States of Bahia, Pernambuco, Parana and Santa Catharina joined in the rebellion; and the squadron sent by the government to fight the rebels in the State of Rio Grande do Sul declared in favor of Admiral de Mello. The rebels in Rio Grande do Sul defeated the government troops in battle.

Proclamations of Mello and Brazilian Congressmen.

Admiral de Mello renewed his blockade of Rio de Janeiro and his bombardment of the city. He was repulsed in an attack on Santos, but completely blockaded that port and captured Desterro. He issued a proclamation accusing President Peixoto of "trying to place Brazil under the rule of an absolute tyranny," and promising to hand the government over to those honorable men who gave freedom to the nation before, if he succeeded in his fight for liberty. A number of members of the Brazilian Congress, on board the rebel warships, issued an address to the Brazilian people accusing President Peixoto and his Cabinet of stealing the public funds, destroying the autonomy of the States and fomenting civil war to further their own ends. These rebel members of Congress gave Admiral de Mello the command of their forces, for the purpose of restoring peace and reestablishing republican government. The other prominent leaders of the rebellion were Senhor Serzedello and Senhor Ruy Barbosa.

Insurgent Capture of Forts.

At the close of September, 1893, the fort of San Gabriel, in the State of Para, surrendered to the rebels under General Saraiva, with its garrison of six hundred men and fourteen Krupp cannon. The garrison of Fort Villegaignon, on an island in the bay of Rio de Janeiro, declared in favor of the rebellion.

Mello's Renewed Bombardment.

During the early part of October there was some desultory firing between the rebel fleet and the forts. At the middle of October, 1893, Admiral de Mello renewed the bombardment of the Brazilian capital, inflicting much damage on the city and killing people in the streets, thus causing many of the inhabitants to flee from the city. The government forces captured the iron-clad *Sete de Setembro*, one of Admiral de Mello's warships, after the vessel had run aground on the coast. The rebels in Rio Grande do Sul defeated the government troops at Quarahy with heavy loss, killing two hundred of them. A few days later the government forces were defeated by the rebels at Ibicuy, with the loss of about a thousand killed.

Insurgent Successes.

Provisional Government

On October 22, 1893, Admiral de Mello established a provisional government at Desterro, and proclaimed one of his captains, Senhor Frederico Lorena, Provincial President of Brazil. Admiral Stanton, commanding United States war vessels in the harbor of Rio de Janeiro,

saluted Admiral de Mello, for which he was promptly suspended from command by Mr. Herbert, Secretary of the Navy in President Cleveland's Cabinet; and the United States government made ample apology to the Brazilian government for this act of impropriety of an American naval officer toward a friendly government. Admiral Stanton said in his defense that he merely saluted the Brazilian flag; and he appears to have thought that by saluting both parties in the struggle he was literally obeying the orders of his government to observe strict neutrality.

**Conduct
of the
American
Admiral
Stanton.**

During the latter part of October, 1893, the rebel fleet and the revolted garrison in Fort Villegaignon bombarded Nictheroy and the harbor forts daily. The rebel fleet met with several reverses, and both the fleet and Fort Villegaignon were badly damaged by the fire from the government forts. The rebel armed steamer *Urano*, when leaving Rio de Janeiro, October 15, 1893, on its way to Desterro, was fired upon, and forty of her crew were killed. The rebel cruiser *Republica* rammed a transport which was conveying eleven hundred government troops to Santos, and five hundred men were drowned.

**Fighting
between
the Forts
and the
Rebel
Fleet.**

The rebel provisional government at Desterro, the capital of the State of Santa Catharina, was organizing an army and increasing its navy and obtained cannon and other supplies. Its agents in the United States purchased steamers and steam tugs. President Peixoto's agents were also active in the United States, engaging crews for the government vessels, offering large monthly pay and additional bounties to all who would enlist in the Brazilian government service; but considerable precaution was necessary to avoid violating the United States neutrality laws.

**Agents
of Both
Parties
in the
United
States.**

By the middle of November, 1893, the revolt against the Peixoto government had spread throughout Brazil, making progress in the North; and Pernambuco was declared in a state of siege. The rebels bombarded Fort Lage, in the harbor of Rio de Janeiro; and a heavy artillery fire was kept up between the government batteries and the rebel batteries, inflicting considerable injury. There was skirmishing daily at Nictheroy.

**Spread
and
Progress
of the
Revolt.**

President Peixoto was making the most vigorous preparations at his command for the defense of his capital; but the financial position of the government was becoming more difficult daily, the national treasury being empty. The foreign Ministers at Rio de Janeiro exerted themselves to protect the lives and property of foreign residents, and the United States and the various European powers had warships in the harbor.

**President
Peixoto's
Finances.**

**Foreign
Ministers.**

About the middle of November, 1893, Admiral Saldanha da Gama, Chief of the Naval College, the ablest admiral in Brazil, openly joined

**Revolt of
Admiral
de Gama.**

the insurgents, carrying with him great sympathy, along with many adherents in the army and navy belonging to the best families in Brazil. The result of Admiral da Gama's action was the placing of the islands of Cobras and Inchadas in the possession of the rebels. Admiral da Gama took command of the insurgent operations before the Brazilian capital, and was the chief leader of the rebellion against the Peixoto administration, thus eclipsing Admiral de Mello, who had been the head of the revolt thus far.

Insurgent
Losses.

A party of insurgent sailors who landed near Armacao, November 20, 1893, were attacked by government troops, who lost thirty-two killed, while five of the rebel sailors were wounded. The rebels met with a great loss in the sinking of the iron-clad monitor *Javary* by the fire from the government batteries, November 22, 1893. The firing of a shell by a government battery at a steam launch flying a white ensign and having a British commissioned officer and crew on board brought forth a protest from the British Minister at Rio de Janeiro. The British flag was fired upon constantly.

British
Flag
Fired on.

Revolt of
Para.

The city of Para revolted late in November, 1893, and its artillery and naval forces declared for the insurgents, thus depriving the government of the large revenue which it derived from that city. The rebels at Desterro captured Curitiba, the chief town of the State of Parana, in the latter part of November, 1893. The insurgents also defeated the government forces in Rio Grande do Sul. A rebel force of six thousand men marched into the State of São Paulo, and the National Guard of that State refused to offer any opposition to this force.

Insurgent
Victories.

Fighting
between
the Rebel
Fleet and
the Forts.

Early in December, 1893, Admiral de Mello sailed southward with the *Aquidaban* and an armed merchant vessel, after a sharp fight with the government forts, but soon returned to Rio de Janeiro harbor. The fighting between the government forts and the insurgent fleet went on daily. The government was continually arresting persons accused of disloyalty, and there were fifteen hundred political prisoners in Brazil early in December, 1893.

Admiral
da Gama's
Mani-
festo.

Admiral da Gama was joined daily by fresh adherents at the island of Cobras, which was fortified strongly and garrisoned by three hundred sailors. Admiral da Gama issued a manifesto assigning his reasons for joining the revolutionary movement, which were to free his country from tyranny and militarism, the address concluding with these words: "I hope to fulfill my duty, though the end be death. Let others do theirs." The entire medical staff of the navy joined Admiral da Gama, and his influence was very great.

Govern-
ment
Repulses.

The government troops were repulsed in an attack on Fort Ville-gaignon near the middle of December. On December 16, 1893, the

government troops captured the island of Bom Jesus, after a general engagement, thus depriving the insurgents of their water supply. One thousand government troops under General Telles was repulsed in an attack upon the rebels on the island of Governador, in the bay of Rio de Janeiro, General Telles himself being wounded. In repelling this assault Admiral da Gama lost only seven men wounded, none being killed on his side. The fighting in the harbor went on daily.

President Peixoto was becoming more unpopular daily on account of his arbitrary and despotic course. Fifteen officers and the crew of the guardship *Parahyba*, stationed at Pernambuco, were arrested through news found upon an officer seized on a British steamer seized at Rio de Janeiro. There was no evidence of their intention to join Admiral de Mello, but they were ordered to be shot without trial. Exasperated at the injustice of the sentence, they all shouted at the moment of firing: "Long live Mello!" This produced such an impression on the troops, who obeyed orders reluctantly, that they tried not to hit them, and only five were killed. The troops refused to shoot the remainder, who then were imprisoned. The captain was sent to Rio de Janeiro immediately. The people of Pernambuco were shocked at the brutality of the execution and were incensed greatly against President Peixoto.

President Peixoto sent orders to the State government of Minas Geraes to arrest the Visconde de Ouro Preto, the head of the monarchist party in Brazil. The State authorities refused point blank to execute the order, thus indicating plainly the state of public feeling in that State. The government suspended the *Gazeta de Noticias*, the only journal showing any fairness toward foreigners at Rio de Janeiro. The government also suspended the *Echo de Brésil*, a French newspaper, and the *Rio News*, an English newspaper with an American editor. The government refused to allow the *London Times* correspondent to establish Red Cross aid for the rebel wounded, on the ground that if cured they would again fight against the government.

On December 9, 1893, the steamer *Parahyba*, flying the Argentine flag, while carrying war material and provisions from Santos to Rio Grande, was fired upon by the insurgents for refusing to heave to, one man being killed and four wounded, after which she was boarded and seized by the insurgents.

All business at Rio de Janeiro had ceased practically for some time, on account of the bombardment of the city by the rebel fleet. Fort Villegaignon was injured very much by the bombardment from the government batteries. A severe engagement occurred at Itajahy, north of Desterro, late in December, four hundred being killed. A general engagement between the hostile fleets in the harbor of Rio de

President Peixoto's Brutal Executions at Pernambuco.

His Suspensions of Newspapers.

Insurgent Attack on an Argentine Steamer.

Various Successes.

Janeiro occurred on Sunday, December 24, 1893. The insurgent vessel *Meteoro* was captured and her crew was shot.

Progress
of the
Bombard-
ment of
Rio de
Janeiro.

At the close of December, 1893, the Brazilian government appeared to have made little headway in the suppression of the naval revolt, which seemed as formidable as ever. The bombardment of Rio de Janeiro by the insurgent fleet under Admiral da Gama continued vigorously during January, 1894. On January 16, 1894, the insurgents were repulsed in one attack on the government batteries at Nictheroy; but they captured a government battery on the same day and turned it against the government forces.

Insurgent
Victories.

The *Aquidaban* opened a heavy fire upon Rio de Janeiro. After a sharp fight the government troops on the island of Mucangue surrendered. The insurgents occupied the town of Paranagua after a severe fight, and the government garrison surrendered. General Lima, the government commander and Governor of the State of Parana, fled to Rio Paulo. The Brazilian government continued to arrest rebel sympathizers.

Admiral
da
Gama's
Conflict
with the
American
Admiral
Benham.

In the meantime American vessels were fired upon by the rebel warships for attempting to break the blockade. Admiral Benham, the United States naval commander at Rio de Janeiro, protested against the reckless firing of the insurgent war vessels and demanded that forty-eight hours' notice be given before opening a bombardment upon the city. Admiral da Gama defiantly answered that he would bombard the city whenever he saw fit, with or without notice. The firing upon American merchant vessels engaged in loading a cargo of coffee led to a conflict between Admiral Benham and Admiral da Gama, musket shots being fired on both sides, January 29, 1894. Admiral da Gama offered to surrender to Admiral Benham; but the American admiral refused to accept any surrender, as he did not want to interfere in the domestic struggle, but only to defend the rights and interests of American citizens. Admiral Benham was sustained by President Cleveland and his Cabinet and by the American people.

Its
Effect.

The conflict between Admiral da Gama and the United States navy inflicted a blow upon the Brazilian naval revolt from which it never recovered; and, though the insurrection lasted several months longer, the insurgents gradually lost ground after that occurrence.

Insurgent
Victories.

Admiral de Mello organized a provisional government at Curitiba, in the State of Parana; and the government forces were defeated there early in February, 1894. The rebels repulsed an attack on Armacã, near Nictheroy, February 9, 1894, and Admiral da Gama was wounded. The government forces were defeated at Omru with the loss of five hundred and fifty killed and wounded. The State of Parana was conquered by the government forces after some fighting in February, 1894.

A plot for the assassination of President Peixoto was punished by the military execution of the accused, who were shot, and their property was confiscated.

Late in February, 1894, the government battery at Ponto Madana sunk the insurgent transport *Mercurio*, several of the crew being killed by the bursting of a boiler as the vessel went down. The government batteries at Nictheroy sunk the insurgent steamer *Jupiter*, the crew perishing with the sinking of the vessel. An explosion on the insurgent warship *Venus* caused the death of thirty-three of the officers and crew and wounded fifty.

**Insurgent
Vessels
Sunk.**

The revolt in the State of Rio Grande do Sul was spreading, and the insurgents entered Santa Anna. The insurgents had complete control of the States of Parana, Santa Catharina and Rio Grande do Sul.

**Insurgent
Strength.**

The commander of the British steamer *Nasmyth* solicited the aid of the commander of the British squadron at Rio de Janeiro in order to be able to take in a fresh supply of water. The commander refused to grant the request; whereupon the captains of the *Nasmyth* and some other British merchant vessels in the harbor applied to Admiral Benham, the United States commander, for protection, which the American admiral at once granted, and the British seamen landed under American protection.

**American
Protec-
tion to
British
Seamen.**

In the Presidential election throughout the United States of Brazil, March 1, 1894, Dr. Prudente de Moraes, a large landholder and an ex-President of the Brazilian Senate, was elected President of the Republic, and Senhor Victorino Pereira, a prominent lawyer, was chosen Vice President. There was no organized opposition to these candidates.

**President
Moraes.**

President Peixoto reestablished martial law until April 30, 1894. He also issued an address providing for the increase of the regular army of Brazil and for the trial by court-martial of persons accused of treason against the Republic.

**Peixoto's
Actions.**

The Church party now supplied Admiral de Mello with funds to carry on the rebellion, as he had promised the aid of the government in restoring the Roman Catholic Church to its former powerful position in Brazil, in the event of the success of the revolt.

The government troops defeated the rebels in the State of Rio Grande do Sul, killing four hundred insurgents and taking many prisoners and cannon; but the insurgents defeated the government troops at São Paulo.

**Various
Suc-
cesses.**

The naval revolt collapsed as soon as the government prepared to strike a vigorous blow. On March 10, 1894, the government fleet arrived off Rio de Janeiro; and the next morning the government informed the foreign Ministers at the Brazilian capital that military

**Final
Suppres-
sion of
the Naval
Revolt at
Rio de
Janeiro.**

operations would be begun against the insurgents in the harbor. The government also issued a decree asking the inhabitants of the capital to leave the city for their own safety. This was done, and the city was almost deserted. On March 13, 1894, the government forts opened fire on the rebel forts and the rebel fleet; but the rebels did not reply and soon afterward surrendered. Admiral da Gama took refuge on board a Portuguese man-of-war, after sending a message to President Peixoto, offering to surrender the insurgent fleet and forts, with all the prisoners in his possession, on condition that he and his officers be allowed to retire from the country and that the lives of the insurgent soldiers and sailors be spared. President Peixoto refused to accept these conditions and demanded an unconditional surrender of the insurgents.

Admiral
da
Gama's
Request
Refused.

His
Flight on
a Portu-
guese
Ship to
Buenos
Ayres.

The insurgent officers took refuge on board the French and Portuguese warships, and the French vessels put to sea with a number of these refugee officers on board just before the entrance of the government fleet. Admiral da Gama was on board a Portuguese vessel. President Peixoto requested the Portuguese admiral to surrender Admiral da Gama and the other refugee insurgent officers on board the two Portuguese warships, promising that they would be tried by the ordinary tribunal; but the Portuguese admiral refused to comply with the President's request, and sailed to Buenos Ayres on the afternoon of Sunday, March 11, 1894, with Admiral da Gama and seventy other refugee insurgent officers on board. The Portuguese government refused to surrender the refugees to the Brazilian government, but informed Admiral da Gama that he and his companions could be landed on Portuguese territory only under conditions that would prevent their returning to Brazil to take part in the revolt. The Portuguese transports sailed from Buenos Ayres for the island of Ascension with nearly two hundred refugees late in April, but Admiral da Gama and two hundred and twenty others escaped to Montevideo. Many of them recrossed into Brazil.

British,
Italian
and
American
Policy.

Great Britain and Italy recommended that the asylum obtained by the insurgent officers on board the Portuguese vessels be respected, and requested the United States to join them in that recommendation; but the United States government refused to interfere on the ground that Admiral da Gama was a rebel, and resolved to adhere to a policy of non-intervention.

Diplo-
matic
Rupture
between
Brazil
and
Portugal.

The escape of the Brazilian refugees from the Portuguese vessels to Montevideo caused a diplomatic rupture between Brazil and Portugal. President Peixoto broke off diplomatic relations with Portugal by giving the Portuguese Minister at Rio de Janeiro his passports and by recalling the Brazilian Minister from Lisbon. The Portuguese govern-



BUENOS AYRES, ARGENTINA

Upper: Plaza and Cathedral
Lower: Main Business Street

ment endeavored to give satisfaction to Brazil by dismissing the officers who allowed the refugees to escape. Portugal solicited the mediation of Great Britain in her dispute with Brazil, and it was many months before diplomatic relations were restored between Brazil and Portugal.

The termination of the naval revolt at Rio de Janeiro caused the greatest joy among the inhabitants of that capital, crowds thronging the streets on the day of the surrender and shouting: "Viva Peixoto!" But the surrender of Admiral da Gama's fleet did not end the struggle on land; and Admiral de Mello, with his flagship, the *Aquidaban*, was at Ilha Grande. About sixty men of the rebel force surrendered, the rest having escaped. President Peixoto liberated five hundred rebel prisoners.

The insurgents in the South held out and fortified their positions on the frontier of the State of Rio Grande do Sul. The insurgents in that State under General Saraiva captured the fortress of Itavarea with its garrison of three thousand men. The insurgents had four thousand troops in the State of Parana preparing to invade São Paulo and two thousand for the defense of Parana itself.

General Saraiva refused to acknowledge the authority of the provisional government at Desterro. He and all other revolutionary leaders, except Admiral de Mello, recognized Senhor Silveira Martins as the revolutionary chief. Senhor Martins and his supporters declined to recognize the provisional government, which they declared abolished; a triumvirate being established instead, consisting of Dr. West, Dr. Ferreira Mello and Senhor Marceil.

The government candidates for Congress in the State of Pernambuco were defeated by the Autonomists; but the Autonomist leaders were still in prison, and the State was in the control of the government. Martial law still continued at Rio de Janeiro, but few prisoners were shot and few foreigners were arrested. The government transport *Itaipu* captured the rebel tug *Santa Luzia* at sea.

Admiral de Mello was proclaimed head of the provisional government at Desterro. The government troops moved southward in São Paulo, and the insurgents retreated before them. The rebel general Selgado was defeated. Early in April an insurgent torpedo-boat and four transports landed four thousand men at Rio Grande, but this force was defeated with the loss of three hundred and fifty killed and wounded.

The naval revolt in Brazil was ended fully in the latter part of April, 1894, when the *Aquidaban* was disabled by a torpedo and abandoned, and when Admiral de Mello with the remainder of the rebel squadron surrendered to the Argentine authorities as political refugees, April 19, 1894. About eleven hundred of the insurgents were brought from

Rejoicing
at
Rio de
Janeiro.

The
Revolt in
Rio
Grande
do Sul.

Insurgent
Dissen-
sions.

Auton-
omist
Congress-
men.

Martial
Law.

Insurgent
Defeats.

Admiral
Mello's
Surren-
der.

Castillos, on the east coast of Uruguay, to Montevideo, in a destitute condition.

Insurgent Defeat in Rio Grande do Sul. A number of skirmishes occurred in Rio Grande do Sul in April and May, 1894. Finally the government army under General Lima completely defeated the rebel army under General Saraiva with the loss of over a thousand men, near Passo Fundo, in the State of Rio Grande do Sul, June 27, 1894.

Admiral da Gama's Suicide. A year later (June, 1895) Admiral Saldanha da Gama, who in the meantime had escaped from Montevideo and had become one of the rebel leaders in Rio Grande do Sul, committed suicide after being signally defeated by the government troops.

Argentina's Civil War of 1893-1894. Four other South American republics were disturbed by civil war during this period. Early in September, 1893, when Admiral de Mello's revolt broke out in Brazil, a revolt broke out in Argentina. The rebels in the province of Tucuman attacked the barracks of the provincial capital and seized ammunition, and desultory fighting followed for several days, both sides being reinforced. The national troops fraternized with the rebels and imprisoned the governor. The rebels in the province of Santa Fé were defeated after two days' fighting, while an iron-clad taken up the Rosario by the rebels was captured, and the revolt was soon crushed. In 1894 Peru, Colombia and Venezuela were disturbed by rebellion and civil war. In 1895 Ecuador was distracted by similar troubles.

SECTION IX.—CUBA AND HER STRUGGLES FOR INDEPENDENCE (A. D. 1492-1902).

Spanish Colonization of Cuba. CUBA was discovered by Christopher Columbus, October 28, 1492; and his son, Diego Columbus, made the first effort to colonize the island in 1511 by sending an expedition of three hundred Spaniards under Diego Velasquez, who founded the town of Baracoa in that year and the towns of Trinidad and Santiago de Cuba a few years later, and still later was founded the town of San Cristobal de la Habana, now called Batabano, on the southern coast of the island, directly south of Havana. In 1519 the present city of Havana, the capital and metropolis of the island, was founded, the original name of which was Puerto de Caranas. It was at Batabano where Fernando Cortez prepared his expedition for the conquest of Mexico, sailing from that Cuban town in February, 1519. Those who remained at Batabano afterward removed to Cabanas, which they named Havana, celebrating a mass under a great ceiba tree, the site of which is still marked with a large stone column and a small temple at the east side of the Plaza de Armas. The

island was first called Juana, in honor of Prince Juan, son of Ferdinand and Isabella. After Ferdinand's death it was named Fernandino, and afterward it was called Santiago—the same as San Diego or San Jago, meaning St. James—the patron saint of Spain. Still later the island was called Ava Maria, in honor of the Holy Virgin. But all these Spanish names for this beautiful island were finally superseded by the name *Cuba*, its original native appellation and its present designation.

Velasquez commenced the settlement of Cuba by massacring all the natives who resisted Spanish conquest or slavery, sparing all who submitted and making them slaves and beasts of burden. Hatuey, a noted Indian chief who had fled from San Domingo to Cuba to escape Spanish tyranny in the former island, organized an army in Cuba to fight the Spaniards, but was captured afterwards and cruelly burned at the stake by his Spanish captors, meeting his fate bravely. Before the fire was kindled the condemned chief was approached by a Spanish priest, who exhorted him to believe in Christ so that his soul might go to heaven. The chief asked the priest: "Where do the souls of the Spaniards go?" The priest replied: "To heaven." The chief then said: "Then I prefer to go to hell."

Bartholomew Las Casas, the celebrated "Apostle of the Indies," who came to Cuba with Velasquez, endeavored to mitigate the horrors of the Spanish conquest and enslavement of the Indians of Cuba, first beginning to work for the abolition of native slavery. He returned to Spain and appealed to his government, thus securing the appointment of a commission to go to Cuba to investigate the condition of the natives and institute effective reforms, Las Casas himself being the head of the commission with the title of "Protector of the Indians." His associates on the commission were as indifferent to reform as were the Spaniards ever afterward, so that practically nothing was accomplished in ameliorating the condition of the native Indian population of Cuba. Las Casas then conceived the idea of abolishing the slavery of the Indians by substituting negro slavery and proposed a system of colonization from Spain giving each Spanish colonist in Cuba the right to bring with him to the island twelve negro slaves from Africa; but his project ended in total failure, as the Spaniards insisted that the Indians should purchase their freedom with gold-dust, which they were unable to do, as they had no gold-dust. The Indians of Cuba, who were of slight physique, died by wholesale from the effects of the ill treatment which they received at the hands of their cruel Spanish masters, and such of them as endeavored to escape from slavery were hunted down with bloodhounds and were harassed, many of them being torn to pieces by the ferocious dogs; so that in about half a century the entire native Indian population of Cuba was exterminated.

**Spanish
Cruelty.**

**Fruitless
Efforts
of Las
Casas
for the
Indians
of Cuba.**

**Exter-
mination
of the
Indians.**

Testi-
mony of
Colum-
bus.

The testimony of Columbus and others represented the Indians of Cuba as peaceable, attractable and affectionate. Said the great discoverer of America concerning the natives of the island of Hayti, who were of the same race and habits as those of Cuba, that there was not a better race of men in the world, his description of them being partly as follows: "They love their neighbors as themselves. Their conversation is the sweetest and mildest in the world and always accompanied by a smile. And although it is true that they go naked, yet Your Highness may be assured that they have commendable customs. The king is served with state, and his behavior is so decent that it is pleasant to see him, as it is likewise the wonderful memory which these people have, and their desire of knowing everything, which leads them to inquire into its causes and effects."

Testi-
mony
of Las
Casas and
Others.

The good Queen Isabella protected the Indians during her lifetime. Las Casas said concerning their fate after her time: "Her death was the signal for their destruction. * * * The toils and sufferings of this weak and unoffending race dissolved them, as it were, from the face of the earth. Even mothers forgot the powerful instincts of nature and destroyed the infants at their breasts to spare them a life of wretchedness. * * * I found many dead in the road, and others, gasping under the trees in the pangs of hunger, faintly crying: 'Hunger! hunger!'" A merciful Spaniard wrote: "The native orphans are as numerous as the stars of the heavens and the sands of the sea." Said another writer concerning the cruelty of the Spaniards: "Their behavior to the Indians, and, indeed, to those who afterward became in their turn 'The Natives' brought down the retribution of Heaven, which has seen fit to turn this fountain of inexorable wealth and prosperity to the nation into the waters of bitterness." Vasco Nunez wrote: "On one expedition I hanged thirty native chiefs and would hang as many as I could seize because the Spaniards were so few in proportion to the natives that there was no other means of securing their safety." In his history of Columbus, Washington Irving describes in horrible colors the Spanish cruelty to the natives whom they reduced to slavery, stating that they were required to perform much labor but were supplied with very little food, and if they fled from incessant toil and insufficient nourishment and sought refuge in the mountains they were hunted out and scourged and laden with chains to prevent another escape. In their massacres of the natives their Spanish conquerors frequently slaughtered parents and children together. Indeed, it is doubtful whether there can be found in the history of the world another instance of more causeless and wanton bloodshed than can be found in the extirpation of the native Indian population of Cuba by their Spanish conquerors and masters. When Columbus first saw the unsurpassed beauty and the natural rich-

ness of the island and received the hospitality of the gentle and docile aborigines of Cuba the island had about a million native Indians; but fifteen years later the number of these native inhabitants had been reduced to sixty thousand. MacKenzie places the number of victims to Spanish inhumanity at ten million.

The genial climate and the fertile soil of Cuba naturally attracted many Spanish colonists to the island, and its settlement and prosperity were very rapid. The new settlers founded many towns, and Cuba became the center of commerce for the New World. Nevertheless, the adventurous Spanish settlers were actuated by a thirst for further conquest and the acquisition of wealth by quicker methods than the slow ones of agriculture and grazing. With such incentives Diego Velasquez designed the conquest of Mexico and Florida, although those results were accomplished and the fame thereof secured by Fernando Cortez and Ferdinand De Soto. The expeditions conducted by these two Spanish adventurers deprived Cuba of many of its most enterprising Spanish colonists. The conquest of Peru by Francisco Pizarro attracted many of the Spanish settlers in Cuba to the land of the Incas because Cuba produced no gold or silver, a Spanish official in Cuba asserting that the conquest of Peru menaced the island with depopulation. Thus Cuba was neglected, and the island degenerated into a kind of way-station between Spain and Mexico, so that for a period of two centuries the largest isle in the West Indies had very little history, the colonists devoting themselves simply to cattle-raising.

Santiago de Cuba was the first Spanish capital of the island. In 1538 French pirates burned Havana and massacred its inhabitants. Seventeen years later, in 1555, Havana was destroyed a second time, by a French pirate named De Sores, who landed at San Lazara and burned the city and slaughtered its inhabitants. To protect the city against such hostile raids, Morro Castle was built, the work embracing a period of eight years, from 1589 to 1597. However, as Cuba had no gold or silver, the island escaped the raids of the buccaneers, or pirates, who infested the West Indies and preyed upon the Spanish main.

At the beginning of the eighteenth century Cuba had less than a hundred thousand inhabitants and twenty or thirty thousand negro slaves, the aboriginal native Indians all having been exterminated. In 1762 Havana was captured by a British expedition under Lord Albemarle, who took Morro Castle after a gallant resistance by its Spanish garrison under Don Luis de Velasco and the Marquis de Gonzales, both of whom lost their lives in defense of the fortress. By the Peace of Paris of 1763 Havana and the island of Cuba were restored to the Spaniards, to the great misfortune of the inhabitants. Pezuela, a Spanish his-

**Effect
of the
Spanish
Conquest
of Mexico
and Peru
on Cuba.**

**French
Piratical
Raids on
Havana.**

**Cuba's
Depopu-
lation**

**British
Capture
and
Restora-
tion of
Havana.**

torian, wrote: "During the nine months that the British held the capital of Cuba they introduced nearly one thousand loaded vessels in a port which up to that time had received only ten or twelve a year. They also imported several thousand negroes, began the establishment of extensive agricultural operations and augmented the productions and exports of the island. * * * After the restitution of Havana the government then secured its possessions, with the superb fortifications which now defend it, and slowly and jealously began the concessions of commercial privileges."

**New
Fortifica-
tion of
Havana.**

After the restitution of Havana to Spain by the Peace of Paris in 1763 Cuban ports were closed to foreign ships and the commerce of the island was restricted exclusively to Spain, while the defense of Havana was at once further strengthened by the construction of the Cabanas fortress, the work being completed in 1841 at a cost of fourteen million dollars. Fort Atares and the Castillo del Principe were erected about the same time. Hundreds of slaves and convicts were brought to Havana to build these forts, being brought over in foul ships, packed closely regardless of health or cleanliness, thus exposing them to the ravages of a terrible pestilence, which soon became a permanent epidemic at Havana and other coast towns and gave to the world the dreadful scourge ever since called *yellow fever*. In the latter part of the eighteenth century many handsome public edifices were erected in Havana, among which were the palace which thereafter was occupied by the Spanish Captains-General of Cuba. Fine parks and boulevards also were constructed, and the entire city was vastly improved and adorned.

**Yellow
Fever.**

**Improve-
ment of
Havana.**

**Governor-
General
Las
Casas.**

In 1790 a second Las Casas became Captain-General of Cuba, and under his administration many great public works were executed and much progress was made in the arts and industry. The revolution in Hayti in 1796, under the valiant Toussaint Louverture, drove many white people from that island, multitudes of them seeking refuge in Cuba. In 1818 the ports of Cuba were opened to foreign commerce for the first time, and the Spanish monopoly of the tobacco trade was revoked, thus having a remarkable effect upon its growth, while the sugar trade also experienced a remarkable increase in its prosperity, four times as much tobacco and sugar being exported thereafter as formerly; but as Spain lost all her American colonies except Cuba and Porto Rico a few years later she sought to make these two island possessions supply her with the revenue which she thus far had obtained from her colonies on the American continent, and acts of injustice and oppression soon began to coneract the promise of prosperity and happiness which the decree of freedom of commerce for the island had inaugurated.

**Freedom
of Com-
merce for
Cuba.**

As Cuba remained true to King Ferdinand VII. of Spain after he had been driven from Spain by Napoleon Bonaparte, who placed his own brother Joseph upon the Spanish throne in 1808, the island was called "The Ever Faithful Isle." Still Cuba was governed as a conquered province by Ferdinand VII. after his restoration to the throne of Spain in 1814; and the Spanish Constitution of 1812, which granted Cuba representation in the Spanish Cortes, was abrogated by the restored Ferdinand VII. and was restored only in 1836, three years after his death.

Continued Spanish Oppression of Cuba.

From the time of the Spanish-American struggles for independence, between 1810 and 1825, Cuba began to attract the attention of the United States, partly on account of its geographical situation; the United States assuming the position that Cuba must do one of three things—remain a possession of Spain, become an independent republic or be annexed to the United States. The United States then declared that she would oppose any attempt by any other European power to seize the island. In 1817 fourteen Americans who were captured by the Spaniards on the charge of being privateers appealed to the President of the United States, saying: "We were cut and mangled to pieces with cutlasses, bound back until blood ran from under our finger-nails, and are at present in a Cuban jail on an allowance of Spanish ration of one pint of rice and beans, half cooked, for twenty-four hours, and without clothing."

Early Attitude of the United States toward Cuba.

The Cubans began to aspire for independence, and in 1819 an insurrection broke out in the island, in which some Americans participated; and twenty-two American citizens were arrested and imprisoned in Havana for complicity in the revolt.

Cuban Revolt of 1819.

Finally Cuban deputies were permitted to take seats in the Spanish Cortes, and in 1821 they protested vigorously against the burdensome and oppressive tariff which the Spanish government proposed to place on the island. They asserted that commercial freedom should be of the greatest interest to Spain as well as to Cuba; that the island could support twelve times the population it then had, and urged the adoption of measures that would attract more settlers. They asserted boldly that Spain would lose Cuba if she persisted in her arbitrary policy. This Cuban protest was fruitless, as Spain continued her oppressive measures and repelled emigration to Cuba instead of encouraging it, thus increasing the spirit of discontent among the Cuban people.

Protest of Cuban Deputies in the Spanish Cortes.

At the beginning of 1822 the Captain-General decreed that every immigrant into Cuba, before landing, must present a memorial to the authorities stating the object of his presence in the island, this memorial to be indorsed by some responsible person, who would be answerable for his conduct while he was in the island. Spanish soldiers enforced

Arbitrary Decree by the Captain-General.

all the orders of the Captain-General and very often took the law into their own hands. In 1822 a newspaper in Havana printed in moderate language what many persons considered a well-merited criticism of some features of the Captain-General's policy. The next day some soldiers entered the office of the newspaper, destroyed the press and the type and personally abused the editor and his staff. The Captain-General approved of the outrage, and the people of the city felt that they were at the mercy of a violent and lawless soldiery.

**Outrage
by the
Soldiery.**

More than three thousand of the best citizens of Havana warned the Captain-General that if such practices continued a revolution would occur sooner or later, but this remonstrance was effectual only in calling forth more tyranny. Two parties at once arose in Cuba, one consisting of native Cubans and the other being composed of Spanish officials; the Cuban party advocating home rule—and even independence, if necessary to secure such home rule; while the Spanish party resisted such demands.

**The
Captain-
General's
Power.**

There was no material change in the Spanish rule in Cuba thereafter. The Captain-General of the island was appointed by the Spanish crown, and his office was considered a very desirable position financially. Under a decree of the Spanish government issued May 28, 1825, he was vested with absolute authority over the island and practically had the lives and liberties of its inhabitants at his disposal. This decree was as follows:

**Decree
Defining
His
Power.**

“His Majesty the King, our Lord, desiring to obviate the inconveniences that might, in extraordinary cases, result from a division of command and from the interferences and prerogatives of the respective officers, for the important end of preserving, in that precious island, his legitimate sovereign authority and the public tranquillity, through proper means has resolved, in accordance with the opinion of his Council of Ministers, to give to Your Excellency the fullest authority, bestowing upon you all the powers which, by the royal ordinances, are granted to governors of besieged cities. In consequence of this, His Majesty gives to Your Excellency the most ample and unbounded power, not only to send away from the island any person in office; whatever their occupation, rank, class or condition, whose continuance therein Your Excellency may deem injurious, or whose conduct, public or private, may alarm you, replacing them with persons faithful to His Majesty and deserving all the confidence of Your Excellency, and also to suspend the execution of any order whatsoever or any general provision made concerning any branch of the administration, as Your Excellency may think most suitable to the royal service.”

**Cuban
Rebel-
lions.**

Though investing a despotic ruler with the most absolute authority, the foregoing decree did not have the effect for which it was designed;

but, instead, it had the contrary effect of being the cause of a series of rebellions that eventually ended in the war which resulted in the complete overthrow of Spanish dominion in Cuba. The first real rebellion in Cuba occurred in 1823 and was organized by a secret association called *The Soles de Bolívar*, being inspired to some degree by the "Great South American Liberator." This revolt was soon nipped in the bud, and all its leaders and participants were punished; but this unfortunate result did not prevent other rebellions in 1826, 1828, 1830, 1848, 1850, 1851, 1855, 1868, 1879 and lastly the successful one with the aid of the United States in 1895.

Revolt
of 1823.

After 1823 secret societies in Cuba were forbidden by law, and those who persisted in their membership in such orders were condemned for high treason and put to death, many innocent men being garroted for that capital offense. A military commission was clothed with the power of investigating and punishing suspected cases of treason, being thus a kind of Holy Inquisition in dealing with political offenses. King Ferdinand VII. of Spain himself suggested this commission, for the purpose of preserving his American dominions from what he considered the horror of ruin with which they were menaced by the spirit of reform, as the spirits of reform and justice for Cuba were regarded as disloyal to Spain.

Law
against
Secret
Societies
and
Military
Commis-
sion.

Spain had already grown uneasy about the stability of her dominion in Cuba. The Bishop of Havana had been forced to flee to New Orleans for refuge, as he was suspected by the Captain-General of being liberal in his political ideas. In 1825 an English newspaper characterized Cuba as "the Turkey of Trans-Atlantic politics, tottering to its fall and kept from falling only by the struggles of those who contend for the right to catch her in her descent."

Spain's
Anxiety
about
Cuba.

The Cuban rebellion of 1826 was planned by Cuban refugees in Mexico and Colombia and was led by the famous South American Liberator, General Simon Bolivar; but it ended in utter failure, as it did not receive the expected encouragement from the United States. The rebellion of 1828 was a more serious affair and was organized by the leaders of the revolt of 1826, who formed a secret league called *The Black Eagle*, with headquarters in Mexico and branches in the United States. A considerable army was recruited, but the United States opposed the project, and many of the soldiers in the conspiracy were captured and put to death by the Spaniards.

Revolts
of 1826
and 1828

Another revolt occurred in 1844, but it was an outbreak of the negro slaves at Matanzas, and not a movement for Cuban independence. A general negro revolt was planned, but it ended in the arrest of thousands of slaves and their torture by the thumbscrew and the rack to force them to testify; and, as a result of the evidence thus obtained,

Slave
Revolt
of 1844.

one thousand three hundred and forty-six persons were convicted, seventy-eight of them being executed.

**Lopez's
Raid of
1848.**

In 1848 the noted Narciso Lopez, of Venezuela, headed a revolt in Cuba, having the base of his operations in the United States, where he organized a force of six hundred well-disciplined recruits, who constituted the nucleus of his army in Cuba. He evaded the United States neutrality laws and landed his force in Cuba, where he was joined by many Cubans, both white and black; but his small army was unable to cope with the Spaniards, and he was obliged to make a precipitate flight from the island. Through Lopez's representations and his actions, the United States government, directly after his return from Cuba, offered to buy the island from Spain for one hundred million dollars in cash.

**Lopez's
Raids of
1849 and
1850.**

The adventurous Lopez made another attempt to organize an expedition in the United States for Cuba in 1849, but failed, as the United States government prevented the sailing of his recruits. In 1850 Lopez succeeded in eluding the vigilance of the United States authorities and effected a landing on the Cuban coast at Cardenas with about six hundred men, but he was attacked there by an overwhelming Spanish force and obliged to return to his ships and to take refuge at Key West, where he disbanded his little army.

**Lopez's
and Crittenden's
Raid of
1851.**

In 1851 the indomitable Lopez proceeded from New Orleans to Cuba, with Colonel William Logan Crittenden, of Kentucky, at the head of four hundred and fifty men, landing near Havana, where they were attacked by a superior Spanish force. Lopez was garroted, but some of his followers were released, and a detachment of one hundred and fifty men under Crittenden fought until only fifty of their number remained, and as these had exhausted their ammunition they were captured and executed. Colonel William Logan Crittenden was a nephew of the distinguished John Jordan Crittenden, so long a United States Senator from Kentucky, and was a brother of Thomas Theodore Crittenden, afterward Governor of Missouri. He met his death heroically. His hands and the hands of his men were bound tightly with cords, and they remained in this condition eighteen hours, when, on the morning of August 16, 1851, they were taken out and shot in platoons of six at a time, after having been made to kneel with their backs to the firing squad of Spanish soldiers. Crittenden was the last one shot, and when he was ordered to kneel he refused to do so and said scornfully: "An American kneels only to his God and always faces his enemies." He was accordingly shot down with his face toward his executioners.

**Revolt
of 1855**

In 1855 Cuba was disturbed by another insurrection, which was headed by a Spaniard named Pinto and two-associates named Estambes and Aguero, all three of these leaders being captured and executed.

The Captains-General's proclamations also have been singular productions, as their descriptions of "The Ever Faithful Isle" have been very flattering, the isle being referred to as an abode of peace and plenty and loyalty because it always had enjoyed the mild government of a king and the blessings which flow from the security of property and the uninterrupted progress of the arts and the sciences. Said one of these Captains-General: "All men of sense in this isle are faithful to the king, our master, from affection and a conviction that loyalty to the parent state is the only guarantee for their well-being, and that the day which severs these sacred bonds will be the last day of the happiness of Cuba, and even of her existence, and that the heart of the king only throbs with pleasure when it contemplates the people of Cuba as contented and happy."

Captains-General's Proclamations.

These frequent revolts in Cuba occasioned constantly-increasing bitterness of feeling between Spain and the United States, and this animosity between the two nations was intensified by the seizure of the American steamer *Black Warrior* in Cuban waters by the Spanish authorities in February, 1854. The *Black Warrior* had been plying regularly between United States ports and Havana as a commercial vessel. Under strict interpretation of Spanish law a steamship reaching a Cuban port was required to show a manifest of her cargo, but the provision had been dispensed with by the Spanish authorities in Cuba in the case of regular liners. Thirty-six times successively did the *Black Warrior* enter and leave the port of Havana without exhibiting a manifest, but calling herself "in ballast," with the full knowledge and at the suggestion of the Spanish authorities because they desired to save themselves unnecessary labor. On the occasion of her seizure the steamer entered the port of Havana with a cargo of cotton from Mobile for New York. As on her previous voyages, the steamer was reported "in ballast"; whereupon the Spanish authorities seized her, confiscated her cargo and took it ashore, after which they imposed a fine upon her twice the value of her cargo. The captain of the steamer refused to pay the fine and protested against the whole proceeding as illegal. Finally he hauled down his flag and relinquished the ship, after which he reported to the United States government that the Spanish authorities had forcibly seized the vessel. In 1859, after five years of negotiation, Spain finally paid an indemnity of three hundred thousand dollars to the United States for the seizure of the vessel.

Seizure of the American Steamer Black Warrior.

It was inevitable that Cuba should attract the interest of the United States from the early part of the nineteenth century because of the proximity of the island to the southern coast of the United States. It was perceived that there would be active commercial intercourse between the United States and this rich island and that a hostile nation's

The United States and Cuba

possession of Cuba would be a dangerous menace to the peace and welfare of the United States. The great problem demanding solution was the continuance of the conditions in Cuba and the length of time required before any interference should be undertaken by the United States in the interest of humanity, peace, law and order. The grievances of the Cubans continued, and there was no change in Spanish policy and methods. Outside intervention was only a question of time. The United States would permit no interference by any other foreign power. Thus the sole responsibility of outside intervention rested with the United States government. From the time that the Spanish colonies of North and South America had cast off the Spanish yoke the great statesmen of the United States had taken the position that the great American Republic could not tolerate the acquisition of Cuba by any other power. In 1823 John Quincy Adams, as Secretary of State in President Monroe's Cabinet, took the ground that Cuba, on account of her geographical situation and other considerations, naturally gravitated toward the United States; that the annexation of the island to the United States eventually would be indispensable to the peace and integrity of the Union itself, and that the United States could not permit any other power to acquire possession of the island under any circumstances. A few years later Thomas Jefferson, in a letter to President Monroe, took the same ground, saying the annexation of Cuba to the United States "is exactly what is wanted to round out our power as a Nation to the point of its utmost interest." In 1825 Henry Clay, as Secretary of State in President John Quincy Adams's Cabinet, assumed a similar attitude in an official letter to the United States Ministers in Europe, saying in regard to Cuba and Porto Rico: "We could not consent to the occupation of those islands by any other European power than Spain under any contingency whatever." President Van Buren, in one of his state papers, took a similar view. The United States on several occasions prevented the other European powers from forcibly wresting Cuba from Spain by warning those powers that such a proceeding would be regarded by the United States as an unfriendly act. In 1840 the American Secretary of State wrote to the American Minister to Spain as follows: "You are authorized to assure the Spanish government that in case of any attempt from whatever quarter to wrest from her this portion of her territory she may securely depend upon the military and naval resources of the United States to aid her either in preserving or recovering it." In 1847 James Buchanan, as Secretary of State in President Polk's Cabinet, wrote: "The United States will not tolerate any invasion of Cuba by citizens of neutral states." Mr. Buchanan always was very decided in his opposition to European absorption of Cuba.

For a long time the United States had been considering the question of purchasing Cuba from Spain; and in 1848 James Buchanan, as Secretary of State, wrote to the American Minister to Spain, offering one hundred million dollars for the island, but Spain declined the offer. Cuba was then wanted by the pro-slavery people of the United States because it was slave territory in order to add another Slave State to the Union. In the summer of 1854 three United States Ministers in Europe—James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, in Great Britain; James Murray Mason, of Virginia, in France, and Pierre Soulé, of Louisiana, in Spain—met at Ostend, in Belgium; and from that fashionable European watering-place these three American diplomats issued the famous *Ostend Manifesto*, a letter signed by them and addressed to the Secretary of State in President Pierce's Cabinet, urging immediate action for the acquisition of Cuba by the United States, their plan being to offer to purchase the island from Spain for one hundred and twenty million dollars and to seize the island by force if Spain refused to sell it. Their language in this celebrated manifesto was as follows: "Our past history forbids that we should acquire the island of Cuba without the consent of Spain unless justified by the great law of self-preservation. We must, in any event, preserve our own conscious rectitude and our self-respect. While pursuing this course we can afford to disregard the censures of the world, to which we have been so often and so unjustly exposed. After we shall have offered Spain a price for Cuba far beyond its present value, and this shall have been refused, it will then be time to consider the question: 'Does Cuba, in the possession of Spain, seriously endanger our internal peace and the existence of our cherished Union?' Should this question be answered in the affirmative, then, by every law, human and divine, we shall be justified in wresting it from Spain, if we possess the power; and this upon the very same principle that would justify an individual in tearing down the burning house of his neighbor if there were no other means of preventing the flames from destroying his own home. Under such circumstances we ought neither to count the cost nor regard the odds which Spain might enlist against us."

The United States government did not act upon the recommendation given in the Ostend Manifesto; but a few years afterward, when Mr. Buchanan had become President of the United States, he repeatedly referred to the subject and urged the desirability of the possession of Cuba by the United States, strongly recommending the purchase of the island in all his annual messages to Congress. In 1859 the Hon. Judah Philip Benjamin, of Louisiana, in a speech in the United States Senate, spoke at great length on the grievances of the Cubans under the cruel and oppressive rule of Spain. The Civil War in the United

**American
Offers to
Purchase
Cuba.**

**Ostend
Mani-
festo.**

**President
Buchan-
an's
Recom-
menda-
tions.**

**Senator
Benja-
min's
Speech.**

**Secretary
Fish's
Utter-
ances.**

States drew American attention away from Cuba for the time, but after the close of that gigantic internal struggle and upon the opening of the Cuban ten years' revolt of 1868-1878 the affairs of Cuba were again forced upon the attention of the American people. In 1874 the Hon. Hamilton Fish, Secretary of State in President Grant's Cabinet, wrote to the American Minister in Spain that "Cuba ought to belong to the great family of American republics."

**Cuba's
Ten
Years'
War for
Independ-
ence,
A. D.
1868-
1878.**

The Revolution of September, 1868, in Spain, which drove Queen Isabella II. from the throne of that kingdom, was the signal for an outbreak in Cuba, which was the beginning of a war for the independence of the island, a struggle which lasted ten years, from 1868 to 1878. On October 10, 1868, Carlos M. de Cespedes, a lawyer of Bayamo, Cuba, with one hundred and twenty-eight poorly-armed followers, unfurled the standard of revolt against the Spanish dominion in Cuba and issued a formal proclamation of his intentions and of the reasons for his action. A week after the issuance of this proclamation the insurgents were reinforced by a number of men sufficient to enable them to capture the town of Bayamo. Ten days later the entire district of Holguin was in rebellion against Spanish authority, and by the end of another month Cespedes had an army of fifteen thousand resolute men, though they were poorly armed and poorly disciplined, his chief subordinate leaders being the Marquis of Santa Lucia, General Quesada, Maximo Gomez, Calixto Garcia, Antonio Maceo and others who became identified with Cuba's final and successful struggle for independence in 1895-1898. The Cuban revolutionists were recognized promptly by most of the South American republics as belligerents; and on April 10, 1869, they organized a regular government with an elected legislature and also promulgated a national constitution. Cespedes was elected President of the newly-proclaimed Cuban Republic.

**Revolt of
Cespedes.**

**The
Captain-
General's
Concili-
atory
Attitude.**

The Spanish Captain-General at Havana was alarmed very seriously, and he had good reason to be. At first he endeavored to stem the movement by appealing to the people of Cuba to remain loyal to Spain and by promising them all possible reforms and favors if they would be steadfast in their loyalty. Said he: "I will brave every danger, accept every responsibility for your welfare." He congratulated the Cuban people on the fact that the revolution in Spain had expelled the Bourbon dynasty from the mother country, "tearing up by the roots a plant so poisonous that it putrified the air we breathed." He promised them all the reforms which they demanded, saying that thenceforth Cubans and Spaniards should live together as brothers; that Cuba would be regarded as a province of Spain, and that freedom of the press, the right of public meetings and equal representation in the Spanish Cortes should be granted to them. The only effect of the

Captain-General's proclamation was to excite the derision and contempt of the Cuban people and to strengthen their resolution to liberate the "Queen of the Antilles" from the dominion of Spain forever. When the Captain-General found that smooth words and fair promises had no effect on the Cuban rebels he sent to Spain for a large military force, abolished freedom of the press, proclaimed martial law throughout the island and at the point of the bayonet compelled the citizens of Havana to contribute a sum equivalent to twenty-five million dollars for the use of the Spanish government.

**Change
in His
Policy.**

Serious fighting commenced in February, 1869, and lasted several months, during which the insurgents were generally successful. Their first notable victory was at San Cristobal, about sixty-five miles west of Havana. The second occurred at Guanajay, on the coast, near Havana. They almost captured Santiago de Cuba, which was saved only by the prompt arrival of General Valmaseda with Spanish reinforcements. A few weeks afterward the rebels threatened Havana itself. The Cuban insurgents conducted the war in guerrilla style and thus proved very troublesome to the Spanish forces. When they found the Spanish army to be far superior to them they moved quickly from one point to another, thus baffling the pursuing Spaniards and striking severe blows wherever they had the opportunity to do so. The Spanish government dispatched tens of thousands of troops to the island and commenced a most cruel and destructive system of warfare. The Spanish policy was to grant no quarter and to kill all prisoners immediately, even the sick and wounded insurgents in the hospitals being put to death. The Spanish garrisons contrived to retain possession of the cities, large towns and fortified camps; but the greater portion of the open country and the small towns were soon abandoned to the insurgents.

**Progress
of the
Revolt.**

In March, 1869, the Cuban insurgent government formally decreed the absolute abolition of slavery in the island, providing that the Cubans must compensate the slaveholders and that the freed colored people might become farmers or join the Cuban army, as they desired. Very many of them entered the army and became excellent soldiers. President Céspedes then sent an address to President Grant, of the United States, stating the object of the insurrection in Cuba and the causes which gave rise to it, while also arguing strongly in favor of the recognition of the Cuban rebels as belligerents and as an independent nation. This address was an eloquent and logical document, and its appeal to the President and people of the United States produced some effect, but the Cuban insurgent government at that time did not exhibit sufficient stability to justify the recognition of belligerency and independence then asked for. Nevertheless, Mexico recognized the

**Cuban
Abolition
of
Slavery.**

**Address
of
President
Céspedes
to
President
Grant.**

Cubans as belligerents; and Peru recognized their independence as a nation, June 13, 1869.

Inaugural
Address
of
President
Céspedes.

In his inaugural address President Céspedes said: "Compatriots—The establishment of a free government in Cuba, on the basis of democratic principles, was the most fervent wish of my heart. The effective realization of this wish was, therefore, enough to satisfy my aspirations and amply repay the services which, jointly with you, I may have been able to devote to the cause of Cuban independence. But the will of my compatriots has gone far beyond this, by investing me with the most honored of all duties, the supreme magistracy of the Republic. I am not blind to the great labors required in the exercise of the high functions which you have placed in my charge in these critical moments, notwithstanding the aid that may be derived from the other powers of the state. I am not ignorant of the responsibility which I assume in accepting the presidency of our new-born republic. I know that my weak powers would be far from being equal to the demand if left to themselves alone. But this will not occur, and that conviction fills me with faith in the future."

Address
of
General
Quesada.

After being appointed to the chief command of the Cuban army General Quesada issued the following address to his troops: "In the act of beginning the struggle with the oppressors, Cuba has assumed the solemn duty to consummate her independence or perish in the attempt; and, in giving herself a democratic government, she obligates herself to become a republic. This double obligation, contracted in the presence of free America, before the liberal world, and, what is more, before our own conscience, signifies our determination to be heroic and to be virtuous. On your heroism I rely for the consummation of our independence, and on your virtue I count to consolidate the republic. I implore you, sons of Cuba, to recollect at all hours the proclamation of Valmaseda. That document will shorten the time necessary for the triumph of our cause. That document is an additional proof of the character of our enemies. Those beings appear deprived even of those gifts which nature has conceded to the irrational—the instinct of foresight and of warning. We have to struggle with tyrants, always such—the very same ones of the Inquisition, of the conquest and of Spanish domination in America. We have to combat with the assassins of women and children, with the mutilators of the dead, with the idolators of gold. If you would save your honor and that of your families, if you would conquer forever your liberty, be soldiers."

Captain-
General
Valma-
seda's
Bloody
Order.

Captain-General Valmaseda issued the bloody order which gave him the name of "The Butcher" and which was as follows: "Inhabitants of the country—The reinforcements of troops that I have been waiting for have arrived. With them I shall give protection to the good and

punish promptly those that still remain in rebellion against the government of the metropolis. You know that I have pardoned those who have fought us with arms; that your wives, mothers and sisters have found in me the unexpected protection that you have refused them. You know, also, that many of those we have pardoned turned against us again. Before such ingratitude, such villainy, it is not possible for me to be the man that I have been. There is no longer a place for a falsified neutrality. *He that is not for me is against me.* And that my soldiers may know how to distinguish, you hear the order they carry."

Thus it was war to the knife, and the knife to the hilt. The Cubans usually had the advantage throughout the year 1869. The Spaniards committed many outrages and desolated a very considerable portion of the island. In the fall of that year a Cuban junta was organized in New York, and this junta afterward did very excellent work for the Cuban cause in enlisting American sympathy and in obtaining and sending supplies of arms and ammunition. By the summer of 1870 it was apparent that the Cuban struggle would be one of great duration and bitterness. The Cuban insurgents then had more than fifty thousand men under arms, who were mainly in small bodies, poorly armed and carrying on a system of guerrilla warfare, which was exceedingly effectual in harassing and injuring the Spanish government.

The first serious Cuban reverse occurred in the spring of 1871, when a large body of insurgents who were operating in the district of Camaguey, in the central portion of the island, surrendered to the Spanish authorities on condition that their lives should be spared. Their commander, General Agramonte, refused to surrender, but organized another insurgent band and continued the struggle two years longer, being finally killed in battle.

The year 1873 evidently was the bloodiest of the war, fighting being incessant and there being much bloodshed in an innumerable number of small engagements. In the fall of that year President Cespedes was removed from his office by the Cuban Congress, whereupon he retired to private life. Some time later the Spaniards found him living in peace and quiet and taking no part in the struggle, but they put him to death. The Marquis of Santa Lucia was elected President of the Cuban Republic as the successor of Cespedes. In the meantime the Spanish government had confiscated his estates; and he now renounced his title, being known thereafter simply as Señor Cisneros.

The Spaniards fully carried out Captain-General Valmaseda's cruel order and deliberately endeavored to exterminate the whole Cuban population, making no exception in regard to age or sex, massacring infirm old men, helpless women and infants in the cradle, often

**Bloody
Character
of the
Struggle.**

**Cuban
Reverse.**

**Removal
and
Murder of
President
Cespedes.**

**President
Cisneros.**

**Spanish
Cruelty.**

slaughtering their victims with the utmost cruelty and with every species of insult and torture. One Spanish military officer wrote as follows concerning an engagement in the fall of 1869: "We captured seventeen, thirteen of whom were shot outright. On dying they shouted: 'Hurrah for free Cuba! Hurrah for independence!' A mulatto said: 'Hurrah for Cespedes!' On the following day we killed a Cuban officer and another man. Among the thirteen that we shot the first day were found three sons and their father. The father witnessed the execution of his sons without even changing color, and when his turn came he said he died for the independence of his country. On coming back we brought along with us three carts filled with women and children, the families of those we had shot; and they asked us to shoot them, because they would rather die than live among Spaniards." Another Spanish military officer wrote thus: "Not a single Cuban will remain in this island. We shoot all those we find in the fields, on the farms and in every house. We do not leave a creature alive when we pass, be it man or animal."

Cruelties
on Both
Sides.

The Spaniards committed thousands of acts of similar atrocity throughout the island during this sanguinary ten years' struggle, and the Cubans retaliated in kind whenever they had the opportunity. It was a common practice with them to kill the prisoners they captured, especially the officers, by hanging them by their feet to the branches of trees and kindling fires under their heads. Said a trustworthy observer of the struggle: "It could not be expected that the insurgents on their own side should abstain from taking a fearful revenge. Indeed it would not be easy to ascertain on which side the atrocities first began or are carried to greater lengths. The rule is that all prisoners be shot without discrimination. Nay, the conquerors even grudge their powder and shot, and the victims are usually dispatched with machetes, a kind of long chopping-knife or cutless peculiar to a cane-growing country and to be almost invariably seen at the side of every combatant as well as in every laborer's hand. Some of the soldiers and volunteers have acquired such skill in the use of this weapon that they cut off a man's head with all the mastery of a professional executioner. These men march in the rear of their detachments; and, upon any suspected person being apprehended, the officer in command, after a brief examination, orders the prisoner to the rear, where he is immediately hacked to pieces by the inexorable *macheteros*. As a rule, also, the bodies of the slain are left unburied on the spot where they fall. The turkey-buzzards, swarming everywhere in the island and whose life is protected by law on account of their usefulness as public scavengers, fatten on the rotting human carcasses; and it is not without a shudder that one sees these foul birds hovering everywhere in the air and poisoning

themselves on their wings above the forests where the remains of their hideous feasts in every stage of decomposition still attract them.”

During the entire struggle the Cubans obtained much aid from their friends and sympathizers in the United States, arms and ammunition thus being sent to the insurgents wherever possible. The neutrality laws of the United States permitted this, though the vessels carrying such supplies of war material were in constant danger of being seized by the Spaniards upon reaching the Cuban coast. Some of these vessels were seized thus, but many more contrived to elude the Spaniards and to land their supplies of arms and ammunition on the Cuban shores.

Late in 1873 the whole civilized world, and the United States particularly, was startled by the capture of the American steamer *Virginus* and the execution of a portion of her crew by the Spanish military authorities at Santiago de Cuba. The *Virginus* was an English-built, side-wheel steamer, originally called the *Virgin* and distinguished as a daring blockade-runner during the Civil War in the United States. In 1870 the *Virgin* was sold in Washington to an agent of the Cuban Junta, and her name was changed to that of *Virginus*. For three years thenceforth she made many daring and successful voyages to the shores of Cuba, conveying food, clothing, arms and ammunition to the insurgents. On October 23, 1873, the *Virginus* cleared from the United States consulate at Kingston, in the island of Jamaica, as a United States steamer bound for Fort Simon, Costa Rica, with a crew composed of Americans, Cubans and others, among them being Cuban insurgents and enlisted men to join the Cuban army, the commander of the crew being Captain Joseph Fry, a citizen of the United States. The Spanish gunboat *Tornado*—which had been constructed by the same English firm which had built the *Virginus*—discovered the *Virginus* on the last day of October, 1873, as the steamer was nearing the Cuban coast, pursued her for eight hours and finally captured her at ten o'clock that night, taking the steamer and her crew to Santiago de Cuba, in spite of the fact that Captain Fry claimed that his vessel was an American ship with an American crew and that she was flying the American flag. The one hundred and fifty-five men captured were landed on shore, imprisoned, court-martialed and most of them were sentenced to be shot; the entire proceeding being very summary and hasty. Four days later—November 3, 1873—four of the condemned men were shot, one of whom was Brigadier-General Ryan, who claimed to be a Canadian and therefore a British subject. Twelve days later—November 15, 1873—twelve more were shot; and five days later—November 20, 1873—thirty-seven more were shot, these last being the officers and crew of the *Virginus* and some of them being American citizens. The fifty-three victims were shot in the back, in

American
Aid to the
Cubans.

Case
of the
Virginus.

the usual Spanish style, and afterwards their heads were cut off and exhibited on spikes, while their bodies were trampled by horses. It was said that the American flag was not flying from its staff and the United States consul was ordered to keep it in his office. Captain Fry was one of the first ten men shot; and it was said that some of the victims were not killed by the firing, but afterward were shot through their mouths by the Spanish soldiers. General Burriel, the Spanish commander at Santiago de Cuba, would not listen to any protests of the American and British vice-consuls and refused to allow them to use the telegraph to communicate with their governments. It was said that the American vice-consul, Schmidt, wrote a number of communications to General Burriel, but received a reply to only one of them, and that was that Mr. Schmidt should have known that the previous day was a religious festival day when he and all his officers were engaged in mediation on the divine mysteries and could not consider temporal affairs. Very fortunately, news of these proceedings reached the island of Jamaica; whereupon the British gunboat *Mobe*, commanded by Sir Lambton Lorraine, sailed at once to Santiago de Cuba. The captain landed on shore at Santiago almost before his vessel had anchored and threatened to bombard the city if any more of the *Virginus* crew were shot. The British consul had made the same threat. Thus the lives of the ninety-three condemned men who were still alive were spared, through the energetic action of the British consul at Santiago and the captain of the British gunboat *Mobe*.

Settle-
ment
of the
Virginus
Affair.

These executions of the *Virginus* victims aroused the most intense indignation in the United States, and mass meetings were held in the leading American cities demanding war with Spain. Admiral Polo y Bernabe, the father of the Spanish Minister of the same name at Washington just before the Spanish-American War in 1898, desired to submit the *Virginus* affair to arbitration; but Hamilton Fish, Secretary of State in President Grant's Cabinet, replied that the capture of a vessel bearing the register and papers of an American ship on the high seas in a time of peace was not a subject for arbitration and that the United States must be the judge and the custodian of its own honor. On November 4, 1873, Secretary of State Fish cabled to General Daniel Edgar Sickles, the United States Minister in Spain, as follows: "In case of refusal of satisfactory reparation within twelve days, close your legation and leave Madrid. If Spain cannot redress these outrages the United States will." Finally the affair was adjusted by Spain consenting to surrender the *Virginus* and the survivors of her crew and passengers to an American ship and agreeing that the *Tornado* should salute the United States flag on November 25, 1873. Instead of surrendering the *Virginus* at Santiago de Cuba, as contemplated in the

protocol signed at Washington, the Spaniards took the steamer to the obscure harbor of Bahia Honda, west of Havana, and there delivered the vessel to Captain W. D. Whiting, chief of staff of the United States North Atlantic Squadron. The salute to the American flag never occurred, and no indemnity was ever paid by Spain to the United States for the families of the *Virginus* victims, as provided for.

The *Ten Years' War* was ended in 1878 by negotiations conducted by General Martinez Campos, who was sent to Cuba as Captain-General for the express purpose of pacifying the island. He was a humane man, of a character entirely different from the cruel Valmaseda. He induced the insurgent leaders to lay down their arms and abandon the struggle for independence, partly by bribery and partly by promising reforms in the government of the island; and the conditions of peace were agreed upon at Zanjon, the peace agreement thus being called the *Treaty of Zanjon*.

**Treaty of
Zanjon.**

Undoubtedly Captain-General Martinez Campos was sincere in his promises of reforms for the Cubans, as he strenuously urged the Spanish government to fulfill these promises to the letter, saying in his report to the government as follows:

**Captain-
General
Martinez
Campos's
Wise
Words.**

"I do not wish to make a momentary peace. I desire that this peace be the beginning of a bond of common interests between Spain and her Cuban provinces, and that this bond be drawn continually closer by the identity of aspirations and the good faith of both. Let not the Cubans be considered as pariahs or minors, but put on an equality with other Spaniards in everything not inconsistent with their present condition.

"It was, on the other hand impossible, according to my judgment and conscience, not to grant the first condition; not to do it was to postpone indefinitely the fulfillment of a promise made in our present constitution. It was not possible that this island, richer, more populous and more advanced morally and materially than her sister, Porto Rico, should remain without the advantages and liberties long ago planted in the latter with good results; and the spirit of the age, and the decision of the country gradually to assimilate the colonies to the Peninsula, made it necessary to grant the promised reforms, which would have been already established, and surely more amply, if the abnormal state of things had not concentrated all the attention of government on the extirpation of the evil which was devouring this rich province.

"I did not make the last constitution; I had no part in the discussion of it. It is now the law, and as such I respect it, and as such endeavor to apply it. But there was in it something conditional, which I think a danger, a motive of distrust; and I have wished that it might disappear. Nothing assures me that the present Ministry will continue

in power, and I do not know whether that which replaces it would believe the fit moment to have arrived for fulfilling the precept of the constitution.

“I desire the peace of Spain, and this will not be firm while there is war or disturbance in the richest jewel of her crown. Perhaps the insurgents would have accepted promises less liberal and more vague than those set forth in this condition; but even had this been done, it would have been but a brief postponement, because those liberties are destined to come, for the reasons already given, with the difference that Spain now shows herself generous and magnanimous, satisfying just aspirations which she might deny, and a little later, probably very soon, would have been obliged to grant them, compelled by the force of ideas and of the age.

“Moreover, she has promised over and over again to enter on the path of assimilation, and if the promise were more vague, even though the fulfillment of this promise were begun, these people would have the right to doubt our good faith and to show a distrust, unfortunately warranted by the failings of human nature itself.

“The not adding another one hundred thousand to the one hundred thousand families that mourn their sons slain in this pitiless war, and the cry of peace that will resound in the hearts of the eighty thousand mothers who have sons in Cuba or liable to conscription, would be a full equivalent for the payment of a debt of justice.”

Results
of the
Ten
Years'
War.

Instead of heeding Captain-General Martinez Campos's good advice, the Spanish government repudiated almost all the promises of reform that he had made, and as a result Cuba's condition soon became as bad as it had been before the Ten Years' War. That struggle had cost Spain and Cuba enormously in blood and treasure. The official Spanish statements showed that one hundred and forty-five thousand troops were sent from Spain to Cuba. The Cubans lost more than forty-five thousand men killed, most of whom were massacred in cold blood in prison after they had surrendered. About thirteen thousand estates belonging to Cubans were confiscated. The estimated financial cost of the war was about a billion dollars. The Spanish losses in killed in battle and from disease amounted to at least eighty-five thousand. During the war a university professor at Havana kept a careful record of the number of Cubans whom the Spaniards reported as killed, wounded or captured; and at the end of the war the totals exceeded considerably more than the whole population of the island, thus furnishing a fair illustration of the unreliability of Spanish reports.

Spanish
Official
Corruption
in
Cuba.

After the Ten Years' War the Spanish misrule in Cuba continued as bad as before and was worse than before in many respects. All the expense of the war was saddled upon Cuba as a public debt. Dis-



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HAVANA, CUBA

Upper: Cabanas, La Punta, and Mouth of Harbor
Lower: Cathedral, where Columbus was Buried

honesty and corruption were more flagrant than before—a fact recognized at Madrid by Spanish statesmen themselves. In 1890 Señor Romero Robledo said in the Spanish Cortes that certain defalcations by the public officials at Havana amounted almost to twenty million dollars. The Spanish government was aware of it, but did nothing in regard to it. About the same time General Prando said in the Cortes: “How can any one doubt that corruption exists in the island of Cuba?” A list of three hundred and fifty persons employed in the custom-house and the civil administration against whom proceedings were taken was found, and not one of these delinquent officials was punished. In 1895 another member of the Spanish Cortes stated that since 1878 custom-house frauds in Cuba amounted to more than one hundred million dollars. This was the way in which the Spanish government repudiated its own solemn pledges and reduced the Cuban people to despair, thus preparing the way for the final and successful struggle for independence on the part of “The Ever Faithful Isle,” “The Queen of the Antilles.”

The greed, injustice, bribery and cruelty practiced by the Spanish officials in Cuba were so frequent that the details thereof would fill volumes. Thrice did Spain endeavor to exterminate the whole native population. The first of these attempts was upon the helpless aborigines and was successful. The second attempt was made during the Ten Years' War by Captain-General Valmaseda, who wrote: “Not a single Cuban will remain on this island, because we shoot all those we find in the fields, on their farms and in every hovel. * * * We do not leave a creature alive where we pass, be it man or animal. If we find cows we kill them; if horses, ditto; if hogs, ditto; men, women or children, ditto. As to the houses, we burn them. So every one receives what he deserves—the men with bullets, the animals with the bayonet. The island will remain a desert.” The cruel Valmaseda's brutal intentions were frustrated only by the arousing of foreign public sentiment against him and by his removal and the appointment of the more humane General Martinez Campos in his stead. The third and last attempt at the wholesale extermination of the Cuban population was that of the cruel Captain-General Valeriano Weyler in 1896 and 1897, during Cuba's final and successful struggle for independence, as we shall see more fully in the progress of the narrative of this interesting subject.

General Martinez Campos, who had the reputation of being the best Spaniard who was ever sent to Cuba as Captain-General, was wholly sincere when he concluded the Treaty of Zanjón with the Cuban leaders in 1878, and he thought that the Spanish government was sincere in its liberal promises of reforms, which generally were expected in good faith by a majority of the Cuban people, but as years passed away it

**Spain's
Policy of
Extermination
in Cuba.**

**Spanish
Insincerity.**

became evident that the entire program of reform was a delusion and a deception. The few deputies which Cuba was permitted to send to the Spanish Cortes had no influence or standing in that body, and any protests which they made were either ignored or scorned. The Spanish administration in Cuba grew worse constantly, taxes being increased, public works being more neglected, jobbery and corruption being prevalent in all branches of the island's government. Spain's interests were considered first under all circumstances—Cuba's welfare being regarded last.

**Cuba's
Grievances.**

The Treaty of Zanjón, which put an end to the Ten Years' War—as the ten years' struggle for independence in Cuba, from 1868 to 1878, was called—was a compromise which provided mainly that the Spaniards should introduce the same reforms in Cuba that they had inaugurated in Porto Rico. These reforms, some of which were instituted apparently afterwards, were a mere sham, failing to redress the grievances of which the Cubans complained. As a matter of fact, the policy which Spain pursued reestablished, in a different manner, the very wrongs from which the Cubans had suffered previously. Cuba was represented in the Spanish Cortes, in accordance with a royal decree issued June 9, 1878, at the termination of the Ten Years' War. This royal edict provided that Cuba should send one deputy to the Spanish Cortes for every forty thousand inhabitants paying a certain annual tax; but, as the Cubans were so impoverished by the Ten Years' War, and as the elections were conducted in such a manner, in accordance with a royal decree issued August 16, 1878, that few representative Cubans in sympathy with the needs and aspirations of the Cuban people were sent to the Spanish Cortes at any time, the deputies from Cuba, almost without exception, were Spaniards who had interests in the island. The previous burdensome taxation still remained, and in fact was increased, as the revenues of the island were absorbed by the whole expense of the Ten Years' War. In addition to this, the government offices were held by Spaniards, with the exception of the least important ones, which were the only ones filled by Cubans, who could obtain even these only by paying money to high officials in Madrid. As before, Cuba became the resort of young Spaniards who left the mother country to join the militia in Cuba to obtain, by three years' service in that island, immunity from conscriptions and consequent five years' service in the Spanish army. This volunteer army of fifty thousand men consisted of young Spaniards who filled the civil offices which the Cubans claimed the right to hold. These and other grievances which usually caused Spanish colonial disturbances finally caused the revolt in Cuba which began in the early part of 1895 and which eventually ended in the liberation of Cuba through the intervention of the United States.

**Cuba's
Final
Struggle
for Inde-
pendence.**

The outbreak of a new revolt in Cuba warned Spain that she must make some concession to save her dominion in that island, and she accordingly went through the form of granting a more just and liberal autonomous government for the island, preparing and inaugurating a home rule scheme in all apparent earnestness, while being really a huge joke. This home rule bill, as finally published on February 24, 1895, would have riveted the Spanish yoke upon Cuba more firmly than ever. Its diffuseness and elaborateness indicated that much time must have been required to prepare it. Many rumors of this great and generous concession on Spain's part reached Cuba, and many reports that it would soon be put in operation were received likewise. But the Cubans were not deceived by the snare set for them, as Marti's insurrection had already made headway, and the new Cuban Republic was proclaimed officially but a few weeks after the promulgation of the delusive home rule scheme.

**Proposed
Home
Rule for
Cuba.**

Said one of the Cuban leaders: "We have not counted the number of our enemies; but we have cast up an account of our grievances—we have weighed the mass of injustice which crushes us. We may find ruin and death a few steps ahead. So be it. We do our duty. The people of Cuba require liberty and independence to become a factor in the community of civilized nations. The field lies entirely with Spain. Cuba is the defender of its rights."

**A Cuban
Leader's
Declara-
tion.**

José Marti, the principal organizer of the new revolt, had been in New York city for many years, acquiring knowledge in literary and artistic pursuits. After trying to organize a filibustering expedition to Cuba, which was stopped by the United States authorities at Fernandina, Florida, he went to San Domingo to see Maximo Gomez, who had been one of the Cuban leaders in the Ten Years' War of 1868–1878; and both Marti and Gomez landed in Cuba in May, 1895, and raised the flag of the Cuban Republic at Cubitas, a small town among the mountains of the province of Puerto Principe, near the eastern extremity of the island. There were then nineteen thousand Spanish regular troops and fifty thousand volunteer militia in Cuba. The magnitude of the outbreak was realized only when Marti, Gomez and the other Cuban leaders had landed in the island. When the Spanish authorities had learned that another revolt was fairly under way in Cuba they sent seven thousand more troops to the island, thus raising Spain's available military forces in the island to seventy-six thousand men.

**José
Marti's
Revolt
in 1895.**

**Spanish
Forces
in Cuba.**

At the outbreak of the Ten Years' War, in 1868, Marti was only thirteen years of age, but appeared to be regarded as a dangerous person, as he was sent to Spain for plotting against the Spanish authority in Cuba and was confined in an unhealthy prison until his life

**Marti's
Record.**

was in peril, when he was liberated on condition of remaining in Spain during the remainder of his lifetime. While in Spain he attended the University of Saragossa, where he graduated with high honors, after which he went to France, whence he proceeded to the United States, at a time when the Ten Years' War was nearing its close, but he at once joined it. He afterward organized an expedition in Mexico for the inauguration of a new revolt in Cuba, but the enterprise ended in failure; whereupon he proceeded to Central America, and there he became a university professor. He afterward went to New York city; and, after being there some years, he went to San Domingo, where he and Maximo Gomez organized the final and successful Cuban revolt of 1895-1898, losing his life in a skirmish early in the struggle, in the spring of 1895.

Generals
Maximo
Gomez,
Calixto
Garcia
and
Antonio
Maceo.

General Maximo Gomez—whom Marti in the meantime had invested with the chief command of the Cuban Army of Liberation—at once organized the scattered revolutionary bands into an army. Gomez's principal assistants were two noted Cuban leaders who, like himself, were veterans of the Ten Years' War—Calixto Garcia and Antonio Maceo. These three Cuban chieftans were perfectly familiar with the peculiar method of guerrilla warfare which had enabled their bands to prolong their resistance to the immensely-superior numbers of the Spanish forces. Early in the summer of 1895 announcement was made that a provisional government had been organized, composed of the following members: General Bartolomé Maso, President of the Republic of Cuba; General Maximo Gomez, Vice President and Minister of War; General Antonio Maceo, General-in-Chief; Señor Gonzalo Quesada, Secretary of Foreign Relations, and the Marquis of Santa Lucia, Minister of the Interior.

Guerrilla
Warfare.

As the Cuban rebels were not in possession of any important seaport town of the island and had no war vessels, their operations were confined to the interior, and wholly to the eastern and central parts of the island in the early part of the struggle. In consequence of the inadequate means of transportation into the interior of the island and insufficient knowledge of the country, the Spanish forces were practically unable to locate and reach the Cuban insurgents so as to force a decisive battle. Desultory skirmishes were frequent, these being magnified into victories by each party for political effect on the outside world. The insurgents declared their purpose of playing a waiting game until the beginning of the hot season in May, when it was expected that yellow fever and other diseases incident to the heated period in the island would carry destruction through the unacclimated ranks of the Spanish army, as had been the case in the Ten Years' War. Accordingly, during the summer, or rainy season, practically a truce prevailed. The prevalence of yellow fever and other diseases, the intense

The Wet
Season.

heat, the daily thunderstorms and incessant rains forced the suspension of hostilities to a great extent, though the Cubans suffered less than the Spaniards from these climatic changes. Before the opening of the fall campaign the Spanish army was reinforced very largely, for the purpose of promptly suppressing the revolt. In the meantime the Cubans had been recruiting and drilling, thus being made the more effective for the resumption of hostilities with the Spanish forces in the fall.

On September 19, 1895, a Cuban declaration of independence was promulgated at Anton, in the province of Puerto Principe; and a republican form of government was organized, and a national constitution for the Cuban Republic was proclaimed. The officers of the new Cuban provisional government were the following: President, Salvador Cisneros Betancourt, of Puerto Principe; Vice President, Bartolomé Maso, of Manzanillo; Secretary of War, Carlos Roloff, of Santa Clara; Vice Secretary of War, Mario Menocal, of Matanzas; Secretary of Foreign Relations, Rafael Portuondo y Tamayo, of Santiago de Cuba; Vice Secretary of Foreign Relations, Fermin Valdis Dominguez, of Havana; Secretary of Finance, Joaquin Castillo Duany, of Santiago de Cuba; Secretary of the Interior, Santiago Canizares, of Remedios; Vice Secretary of the Interior, Carlos du Bois, of Baracoa; General-in-Chief, Maximo Gomez; Lieutenant-General, Antonio Maceo; Major-Generals, José Maceo, Maso, Capote, Serafin, Sanchez and Rodriguez. José Maceo was to conduct the operations in Baracoa, Guantanamo, Mayari and Santiago de Cuba; Maso in Manzanillo, Bayamo and Holguin; Sanchez in the Villas, and Rodriguez in Camaguey.

President Salvador Cisneros Betancourt had been Cespedes's successor as President during the Ten Years' War and had been the former Marquis of Santa Lucia. Vice President Maso has been alluded to already. Secretary of War Roloff was born in Poland, but came to Cuba when very young, and likewise fought in the Ten Years' War, after which he became a prominent citizen of Cienfuegos. Menocal belonged to an illustrious family, a member of which had been in the United States service for a long time and had been well known in connection with the Nicaragua Canal project before the Nicaragua route had been abandoned for the Panama route.

Spain, as mistress of Cuban waters, immediately adopted measures to prevent the Cuban insurgents from procuring munitions of war and reinforcements from abroad, especially from the United States, where the Cuban Junta had established itself. The Spaniards closely watched all incoming and outgoing vessels, and early in the struggle almost came to a rupture with the United States government during President Cleveland's second administration, in consequence of their firing upon the *Allianca*, an American vessel engaged in the West In-

**New
Cuban
Provis-
ional
Govern-
ment.**

**Pedigrees
of the
Officials.**

**Spanish
Vigilance
and the
Allianca
Affair.**

dian carrying trade. A protest from the United States government called forth an apology from Spain; but the Spaniards did not relax their vigilance in the least, and they even purchased several light-draft vessels to patrol the Cuban coast more thoroughly.

American
Filibus-
tering
Expedi-
tions.

In the United States, particularly in the South and the West, there was much openly-avowed sympathy for the Cuban revolutionists; but the United States government, from the beginning of the Cuban revolt, warned its citizens and others not to fit out filibustering expeditions or engage in acts violating the treaty rights of the United States with Spain. Notwithstanding these warnings and precautions of the United States government, the agents and friends of the Cuban rebels were very active and fitted out and sent several vessels, which effected landings at unfrequented points along the Cuban coast with reinforcements and war material obtained in the United States. In consequence of this aid and because of constant accessions to the insurgent ranks from the interior of the island, the insurgent cause improved gradually and suffered no important military reverse during the year 1895; and, although Spain had been able to relieve her financial distress by means of a large loan and constantly had been sending reinforcements to Cuba, it was apparent that the Cuban cause was gaining headway steadily and that a state of war practically existed. In the United States there was a strong public sentiment in favor of recognizing the belligerency of the Cuban insurgents, and many business men favored a plan for the United States to guarantee bonds to be issued by the Cuban rebels for the purpose of raising money to buy their independence from Spain. The agents of the Cuban rebels were active also, and negotiations for war vessels were in progress in Europe and in the United States. Altogether the Cuban war for independence was gaining ground very fast.

Progress
of the
Revolt.

In the meantime the Cubans became more aggressive; their operations at first being confined to the eastern and central provinces of Cuba, but afterward being extended to the western extremity of the island and to the vicinity of Havana. The operations of Generals Maximo Gomez and Antonio Maceo afforded a constant series of surprises to the Spaniards, who never were able to force the insurgent Cubans to engage in a pitched battle. Late in August, 1895, the Spaniards under Colonel Canellas attacked and defeated the Cubans under José Maceo halfway between Santiago de Cuba and Guantánamo. Afterward the Spaniards under Captain-General Martinez Campos routed the Cubans under Antonio Maceo with heavy loss at Peralejo, Campos himself having a narrow escape from being made a prisoner. A little later the Cubans took the town of Baire and won a victory at Decanso del Muerto. Gomez then wished to advance west-

ward toward Havana, declaring that he would eat his Christmas dinner between Havana and Matanzas.

Gomez issued an order to the sugar planters in the provinces of Havana, Matanzas and Santa Clara forbidding them to grind cane or to manufacture sugar, in order to deprive the Spanish government of the immense revenue derived from the sugar trade. This order was as follows:

**Gomez's
Order
to the
Sugar
Planters.**

“In accordance with orders of the provisional government and to the end that no one may allege ignorance, I hereby make known to the sugar manufacturers, cane planters (Colonos) and proprietors of the zone under my command:

“First. The buildings and canefields of all plantations will be considered and respected, provided no work is given to any able-bodied laborer nor the operations of grinding begun.

“Second. When there are no fortifications nor forces located in the same for their protection.

“Third. A term of ten days is hereby granted for the suspension of all work, the destruction of the fortifications and the withdrawal of the troops.

“Fourth. Those who contravene this order will be severely punished and their buildings and canefields reduced to ashes.”

This order of Gomez was met by Captain-General Martinez Campos with a counter proclamation ordering the planters to proceed with their usual work and promising them full protection. As the planters first complied with the Captain-General's order, Gomez's troops desolated the richest portions of the island, marking the line of his march with the smoke of burning plantations, thus forcing the planters to obey Gomez's order by stopping the grinding of cane. Thereupon Gomez issued a new order to the planters, as follows:

**His
Devastations
and
His New
Order.**

“In consideration that the crop has been suspended in the western districts, and, whereas, it is not necessary that the burning of the canefields should continue, I dispose the following:

“Article 1. The burning of the canefields is now prohibited.

“Article 2. Those who contravene this disposition, whatsoever be their category or rank in the army, will be treated with the utmost severity of military discipline in behalf of the moral order of the revolution.

“Article 3. The buildings and machinery of the sugar estates will be destroyed, if, in spite of this disposition, they should intend to renew their work.

“Article 4. The pacific inhabitants of the island of Cuba, whatsoever their nationality, will be respected, and agricultural laborers will not be interfered with.”

**Cuban
Ravages.**

Early in 1896 the Cuban rebels had entered Pinar del Rio, the most western province of Cuba, and had established a field of operations within fifty miles of Havana. Gomez's Cuban force captured several garrisoned towns near the frontiers of the province of Havana, burned villages and destroyed a part of the sugar-cane crop, and afterward also destroyed the tobacco crop; the object of these devastations being to deprive Spain of revenue and to bring pressure to bear upon the United States by the scarcity of Cuban sugar and tobacco. The Cuban forces also tore up railway tracks near Havana and burned cars and bridges. Cuban reinforcements under Maceo were hastening from the eastern provinces of the island to join Gomez's force in the western portion of Cuba, and a Spanish detachment of twelve hundred men was caught between the Cuban forces of Maceo and those of Gomez, but the arrival of Spanish reinforcements cut short the insurgent victory and prevented the junction of the Cuban forces under Gomez with those under Maceo.

**Movements of
Maceo
and
Gomez.****General
Martinez
Campos
Super-
seded by
General
Valeriano
Weyler.**

Captain-General Martinez Campos was too honest, conscientious and humane to please the Spanish official ring by adopting the cruel policy or enforcing the cruel methods toward the Cubans they desired. He was therefore recalled from Cuba; and General Valeriano Weyler, who had been one of Captain-General Valmaseda's commanders in the Ten Years' War, was appointed Captain-General of Cuba. It is said that Campos said at the time that if Weyler ever returned to Cuba the very dead would rise to fight against him. Weyler arrived at Havana, February 10, 1896, on the steamer *Alfonso XIII.*, and was received by the Spaniards there with very great enthusiasm. On landing he made a short speech to the Spanish soldiers at Cuba's capital, in which he said: "You know my record. Well, I intend to live up to it." The next day he issued a formal address to the Spanish army in Cuba, as follows:

**His
Address
to the
Spanish
Army.**

"The address which I made yesterday will give you an idea of the spirit and policy of your new Captain-General, and similarly the direction of the general opinion of Spain favoring the bringing of all necessary means to bear upon the suppression of the insurrection. Knowing these and knowing my character, I would add nothing else to direct the line of conduct which you may follow. But I think it convenient to add some instructions at present and to state that the insurrection and the recent march of the principal leaders thereof without it being possible for the Spanish columns to prevent it indicates indifference on the part of the inhabitants and also fear and discouragement. I cannot understand their inactivity while their property is being destroyed. Spaniards cannot sympathize with insurgents. It is necessary, at any cost, to oppose this state of things and reanimate the spirit of the inhabitants. I have come disposed to help all loyal citi-

zens. I am at the same time disposed to make use of all the rigor of the law against those who in any form help the enemy, speak well of them or discredit the prestige of Spain, of its army or volunteers. All who are with our side must demonstrate the fact with acts and leave in their attitude no place for doubt in proving that they are Spaniards. Because the defense of the country demands sacrifices, it is necessary that towns should establish their own defenses. They should not fail to provide guides for the army and to give news of the enemy when they are in the vicinity. The case should not be repeated that the enemy be better informed than ourselves. The enemy and the vigor which they employ should serve as an example to show us the line of conduct which we must follow in all circumstances. You will detain and put at my disposal, or submit to the tribunals, those who, in any way I have described, show help or sympathize with the rebels. I promise myself that you, by fulfilling these instructions, will give valuable help to the good of the Spanish cause."

Captain-General Weyler also issued an address to the people of Cuba, as follows:

"I take charge with the confidence which never abandons the cause of preserving the island for Spain. I shall be always generous with those who surrender, but will have the decision and energy to punish rigorously those who in any way help the enemy. Without having in my mind any political mission, I would not oppose the government of His Majesty when, in his wisdom, having peace in Cuba, it should think it convenient to give this country reforms with the same spirit of love in which a mother gives all things to her children. People of Cuba, lend me your help! So you will defend your own interests, which are the interests of the country."

Captain-General Weyler promised to effect the pacification of Cuba in a month, telling a delegation of sugar planters who visited him on February 15, 1896, that by March 15th he would have peace and order restored all over the island in order that they might go to work everywhere without fear of being molested. Already twenty per cent. of the sugar crop had been destroyed, but if he would be able to fulfill his promise forty-five million dollars worth of sugar would be saved. At the same time the new Captain-General issued a proclamation in which he specified who were to be subject to trial by court-martial as follows:

"First. Those who invent or circulate, by any means whatever, news or information directly or indirectly favorable to the rebellion will be considered guilty of acts against the security of the country, as defined by Article 223 of the military code, as they facilitate the operations of the enemy.

**His
Address
to the
People
of Cuba.**

**His
Promise
of Speedy
Pacifica-
tion.**

**His First
Military
Procla-
mation.**

"Second. Those who destroy or damage railroads, telegraphs or telephones or interrupt the operation of the same.

"Third. Those who are guilty of arson.

"Fourth. Those who sell, carry or deliver arms or ammunition to the enemy or in any other way facilitate their introduction through the custom-houses. Parties failing to cause the seizure of such arms or ammunition will incur criminal responsibility.

"Fifth. Telegraph operators delivering war messages to other persons than the proper officials.

"Sixth. Those who, by word of mouth, through the medium of the press or in any manner, shall belittle the prestige of Spain, the army, volunteers, firemen or other forces operating with the army.

"Seventh. Those who, by the same means, shall praise the enemy.

"Eighth. Those who shall furnish the enemy with horses or other resources of warfare.

"Ninth. Those who act as spies will be punished to the fullest extent of the law.

"Tenth. Those who shall act as guides to the enemy and fail to surrender themselves immediately and give proof of their loyalty and report the strength of the force employed by the enemy.

"Eleventh. Those who shall adulterate the food of the army or alter the prices of provisions.

"Twelfth. Those using explosives in violation of the decree of October 17, 1895.

"Thirteenth. Those who shall use pigeons, rockets or signals to convey news to the enemy.

"Fourteenth. The offenses above mentioned are punishable by the penalty of death or life imprisonment, the judges to take summary proceedings."

Captain-General Weyler also issued a proclamation ordering the inhabitants of the provinces of Santiago and Puerto Principe to appear at the headquarters of the Spanish army and provide themselves with passports, without which they could not go about the island; while all the stores in those provinces were to be closed and their contents were to be delivered to the Spanish military authorities; and all persons refusing to obey these orders were to be arrested and sent to Havana for military trial as traitors. In consequence of these orders, thousands of innocent noncombatants were arrested, and many of them were put to death. Captain-General Weyler issued another proclamation as follows:

"The authorities of the villages who will show themselves friendly within a term of ten days, and those of the vicinity of the same, and all those within its limits that are engaged in the insurrection, are

His
Second
Military
Proclamation.

His
Third
Military
Proclamation.

warned to surrender themselves within the space of fifteen days from the publication of this proclamation, otherwise they will be subject to arrest; and well-disposed persons will be held to their civil responsibilities, and to effect this it will be proposed to the Captain-General to nominate a body which will see to carrying this out. If in the case of insurgent parties who have sacked, robbed, burned or committed other outrages during the rebellion, any one will give information as to the participation that such persons may have had in them, not only those who may have been in the rebel ranks, but also those who have succored them, or who have not remained in their homes, they will be fittingly punished; and, moreover, if any town or other place where robberies have been effected is known to them, they will be required to make identification that proper responsibility may be fixed."

Weyler's policy was put in force speedily. On February 22, 1896, occurred the horrible massacre of Guatao, a few miles from Havana—the first of a series of massacres which astounded the civilized world. A small band of insurgents encountered a large Spanish detachment and fled after a little firing, dispersing and seeking refuge in the woods near Guatao. Enraged at their failure to capture them, the Spanish soldiers proceeded to the village of Guatao and wreaked their vengeance upon it, although the insurgents had not even entered it; massacring all the men, women and children in the village they could find. The first victim was a milkman who was on his daily route. The enraged Spanish troops next visited the cottage in which a man was sick in bed, clubbed the man's wife to death and bayoneted the sick man in his bed. A report of this incident was sent to Captain-General Weyler, praising the soldiers for their bloody deeds and saying: "They have done to-day what Your Excellency did so gloriously thirty years ago." This causeless and hideous massacre was followed by many others as shocking. Captain-General Weyler gave his officers the power of life and death over all the people who came within their reach. Many of the Spanish commanders believed that the Captain-General would approve of any excess which they might commit. Therefore, they expected no punishment for any summary executions of Cubans who sympathized with the insurgents; but, on the contrary, they looked for commendation and reward for shooting prison-owners and for all brutal actions which they might perpetrate on the plea of crushing the Cuban rebellion. In every instance the Spaniards denied the many hideous acts of cruelty of which they were accused, but the charges were substantiated. Thus Spanish troops killed several unarmed and unresisting men in the village of Punta Brava, near Havana; clear evidence of this affair being obtained through the investigations of a newspaper correspondent and his interpreter, both of whom were arrested by the Spaniards to conceal

**Massacre
of
Guatao
and
Spanish
Cruelty.**

the facts, but they were soon released. There were likewise reports of midnight executions of captured insurgents at the Cabanas fortress, but the Spaniards vigorously denied these rumors and exercised a rigorous censorship to prevent news unfavorable to the Spanish authorities from being sent from Cuba.

The
Military
Situation
and the
Opposing
Forces.

Captain-General Weyler's cruel policy failed to intimidate the Cuban insurgents, as General Maximo Gomez, who then was seventy years of age, and his dashing cavalry leader, Antonio Maceo, already had made far more headway than they had in the previous Ten Years' War, and as they evidently had inspired their followers with faith in victory over their Spanish foes, whatever the Spanish policy might be or by whom the Spanish forces were led. The Cuban forces were estimated at over forty thousand men, most of them being cavalry and fairly well armed; while the Spanish land forces were estimated at over one hundred thousand men, and the struggle thus far had cost Spain a sum equal to sixty million dollars. The Cuban forces under Gomez and Maceo hovered about the province of Havana, frequently skirmishing with the Spaniards and destroying villages, crops, railroads and bridges. Maceo's force attacked and defeated a Spanish detachment in the province of Pinar del Rio, March 17, 1896; and a few days afterward Gomez's force captured the city of Santa Clara, but evacuated that city after obtaining a considerable quantity of supplies and ammunition. A few days later the Spanish forces captured a strong insurgent camp and hospital in the Santa Clara district.

Progress
of the
Cam-
paign.

Anti-
American
Mobs in
Spain.

In the meantime resolutions were offered in both Houses of the United States Congress in favor of recognizing the Cuban insurgents as belligerents. These resolutions simply amounted to an expression of opinion; but the words of sympathy which characterized the discussion of these resolutions aroused such popular indignation in Spain that mobs collected frequently, and in Barcelona a mob attacked the United States consulate, in consequence of which the Spanish government closed the universities in Barcelona, Cadiz and Madrid. In the leading cities of Spain mobs of students and others burned and trampled upon American flags, and violent attacks upon the American consulates were prevented only by the utmost vigilance of the Spanish authorities. In the United States college and university students made counter hostile demonstrations against Spain. These hostile demonstrations in the two countries were deprecated by the orderly and law-abiding elements in both, and the conduct of the American college and university students was denounced by the American press.

After considerable discussion, both Houses of the United States Congress finally passed resolutions declaring that, in the opinion of Congress, a condition of war existed between Spain and the government

which the revolted people of Cuba had proclaimed and for some time maintained by force of arms, and that the United States should maintain a strict neutrality between the contending powers, according to each the rights of belligerents in the ports and domain of the United States, while at the same time declaring that the President should offer the friendly offices of the United States to the Spanish government for the recognition of the independence of Cuba. This resolution was not binding upon the President, being only an invitation for him to proceed in the case; but President Cleveland's views, and the views of his Secretary of State, as expressed afterward, were to the effect that the time had not yet arrived for the full recognition of Cuban belligerency, and that in the existing temper of the Spanish people there was little chance of the acceptance of a tender of offices in behalf of the Cuban insurgents.

Belligerency Resolutions of the United States Congress.

In the midst of the popular demonstrations of hostility the Spanish Prime Minister, Canovas del Castillo, adopted a conciliatory policy, being evidently desirous of a peaceful settlement of all troubles through amicable diplomacy, although being firm and clear in his official statement of Spain's attitude toward Cuba and in regard to the suggested offers of American mediation. Spain's attitude, as defined by Prime Minister Canovas del Castillo, was that Cuba must be reduced to submission to Spanish authority before reforms would or could be instituted in the island. The Spanish government expressed its regret for the popular demonstrations in Spanish cities against the United States, but made preparations for a possible rupture with the United States government, putting warships and a training squadron in readiness, while many Spanish merchant vessels were armed as privateers. It was stated in Madrid very frequently that the recognition of Cuba by the United States would be followed by a firm protest on the part of all the Great Powers of Europe, and it was evident that the Continental European Powers were in sympathy with Spain.

Spain's Attitude.

To stop the advance of the insurgents to the western extremity of the island and to prevent their invasion of the rich tobacco district of the province of Pinar del Rio, the Spaniards constructed a *Trocha*, or ditch, with a barbed-wire fence on one side of it and a line of block-houses on the other side of it, clear across the island, from north to south, near Havana. This line did not answer its intended purpose, as General Antonio Maceo finally crossed it and invaded the province of Pinar del Rio, thus demonstrating his ability as a warrior possessing daring and dashing qualities. Other Cuban detachments also frequently crossed this supposed impregnable and invulnerable bulwark, thus demonstrating its utter uselessness as a line of defense against incursions by the insurgent detachments into the rich western portions of

The Trocha.

the island, the rich tobacco district of Pinar del Rio thus being constantly exposed to the destructive raids of the Cuban guerrilla detachments.

**Conflicts
and
Outrages.**

In the meantime reinforcements from Spain had been constantly coming to Cuba for Weyler. Meanwhile the Cuban rebels under Maceo sought to capture the fortified town of La Palma from the Spaniards, but were repulsed with heavy loss. On April 14, 1896, Maceo defeated the Spaniards with a loss of four hundred and fifty killed and five hundred wounded, at La Chuza, in the province of Pinar del Rio, not far from the *Trocha*; the Spaniards fleeing to the sea-coast, where finally they were rescued by a warship which fired upon the pursuing Cubans. There were many skirmishes until the end of April, 1896, when the Spaniards under General Munez, while marching to attack the Cubans under General Calixto Garcia in the province of Santiago, were attacked and defeated with the loss of two hundred killed and four hundred wounded. Early in May, 1896, the Spaniards under General Inclon attacked one of Maceo's forts at Carcarajicara and was defeated with great loss. Soon afterward the Cuban insurgents burned the town of Punta Brava, near Havana, and other villages. A little later Maceo made a night attack on the *Trocha*, in which he succeeded in breaking through, thus demonstrating the vulnerability of Captain-General Weyler's fortified line, which was further proved by subsequent events, as the Cuban insurgents frequently passed through this supposed bulwark. While these actions were in progress the Cubans continued wrecking railway trains and bridges by means of dynamite and burning sugar-cane, tobacco and cotton.

**Filibus-
tering
Expedi-
tions
from the
United
States.**

In the meantime filibustering expeditions organized by the Cuban Junta in the United States landed men and arms in the island for the insurgents; but the schooner *Competitor*, with a small insurgent band and a cargo of dynamite, cartridges and rifles on board, was captured while attempting to land on the Cuban coast. The captain and five of the crew were tried by a naval court-martial and were sentenced to death. One of the condemned men was an American; two others claimed to be such, and another was an Englishman. The United States government demanded that the accused Americans be tried by a civil tribunal, according to treaty rights; and the Spaniards consented to this, after considerable protest; but the affair threatened a serious rupture between Spain and the United States. The *Laurada*, the *Three Friends*, the *Bermuda* and other filibustering craft succeeded in landing men and war material on the coast of Cuba; but the *City of Richmond* and the *Horsa* were apprehended by the United States authorities; and the commander of the *Horsa*—Captain Viborg, a Dane—was fined and condemned to sixteen months' imprisonment.

Spain's military situation in Cuba at this time did not seem very promising. At the beginning of the struggle the Spanish army in Cuba numbered seventeen thousand men, but by the summer of 1896 it numbered about one hundred and thirty thousand regulars and sixty-three thousand volunteers, and was increased by the police force and others to more than two hundred thousand men; but forty thousand had died or were in hospitals. The revolted Cubans had about fifty thousand men in the field, though they claimed to have sixty-five thousand. Spain had expended a sum equal to one hundred million dollars, and her financial situation was very embarrassing, although she succeeded in negotiating a loan equal to twenty million dollars. The Cuban cause was sustained mainly by contributions from the Cuban organization in the United States and from voluntary donations; but, notwithstanding their superiority in resources, the Spaniards were losing ground slowly but constantly.

The
Military
Situation.

The Cuban rebels were becoming more aggressive gradually, and they made frequent attacks upon the *Trocha*. The Spaniards under General Inclon proceeded to disperse these rebels, but were ambushed by the Cubans under General Antonio Maceo, and were captured and held as hostages to save the lives of insurgents in the power of the Spaniards. There was considerable desultory fighting along the *Trocha* and in the immediate vicinity of Havana; but the most notable victory so far achieved or claimed by either side was that won by the Cubans under General Robi over a Spanish force which was surrounded and cut to pieces, a valuable convoy being captured, with provisions, ammunition and a sum of money equal to several thousand dollars. On September 29, 1896, the Spaniards made a general attack on the Cuban positions in the province of Pinar del Rio, dislodging and dispersing the insurgents in several instances, though no decisive action occurred and no important result followed. At length Captain-General Weyler took the field in person, but he accomplished very little in the brief campaigns which he undertook.

Progress
of the
Cam-
paign.

Weyler was a man with a severely-logical disposition and was not to be restrained by any moral scruples or conscientious considerations from the execution of any policy or methods which he had resolved upon. He appeared to reason thus: Without food the Cuban rebels will starve to death and the rebellion will end. The food furnished by the country people is the only food that the rebels have, and the removal of the country people will end the rebellion. Actuated by such impulses and considerations, the Captain-General issued the famous, or infamous, proclamation of October 21, 1896, which drove the country people of Cuba into the already-impoorished towns of the island, thus huddling many thousands of peasants in the towns under

Weyler's
Cruel
Policy
and His
Recon-
centrado
Procla-
mation.

the name of reconcentrados, to die of famine and pestilence. The first clause of Weyler's reconcentrado order was as follows: "First. All the inhabitants of the country now outside of the line of fortifications of the towns shall, within the period of eight days, concentrate themselves in the town so occupied by the troops. Any individual who, after the expiration of this period, is found in the uninhabited parts will be considered a rebel and tried as such."

Policy of the United States.

There still was no change in the policy of the United States concerning the struggle in Cuba. In his annual message to Congress early in December, 1896, President Cleveland clearly announced a policy of delay, which probably would have been supported by the American people but for the report that the dashing Cuban leader, General Antonio Maceo, who lost his life in a skirmish, had been betrayed while under protection of a flag of truce and killed treacherously by the Spaniards. This report caused intense popular indignation in the United States, and a resolution was introduced in Congress expressly recognizing the independence of Cuba and offering to Spain the friendly mediation of the United States to put an end to the sanguinary struggle, which led to an argument as to whether the President or Congress had the authority to recognize a new nation. On Maceo's death General Rivera, who also had been a veteran of the Ten Years' War of 1868-1878, assumed command of the dead leader's force; and early in January, 1897, he had a severe encounter with the Spaniards in which he won a notable victory.

Maceo's Death.

His Successor, General Rivera.

Spain's Dissatisfaction with Captain-General Weyler.

At the beginning of 1897 the Spanish government apparently seemed dissatisfied with Captain-General Weyler's administration in Cuba, as it received authentic accounts of acts of oppression and inhuman conduct on the part of Spanish officers in Cuba toward prisoners and even toward noncombatants, these accounts coming mainly through the efforts of American newspaper correspondents in Cuba. Though these acts of cruelty and oppression may have been in full accordance with Spain's policy in dealing with colonial rebellion, they gave rise to the most intense popular feeling in the United States and induced both the American press and American public sentiment to denounce openly Spanish policy and Spanish methods in Cuba.

Charges of Embezzlement against Weyler.

The Spanish government was influenced still further against Captain-General Weyler and his subordinate officials in Cuba by the direct charges of certain Spanish newspapers to the effect that the funds sent from Spain to prosecute the war in Cuba, especially the funds intended to feed the Spanish soldiers in the field and to care for those in the hospitals, had been embezzled by the Captain-General and his subordinates. The Spanish government was obliged to listen to so serious an accusation, particularly on account of its moral effect in

other countries. Though the government promptly suppressed the newspapers which made these grave charges, it at once proceeded to investigate the charges, so as to appease popular clamor, and, if possible, to disprove the charges, which, if true, would surely discredit Spain and her colonial policy in the estimation of the civilized world. There is no doubt that these grave accusations of official corruption and delinquency contributed vastly to undermine the Spanish government's faith in Captain-General Weyler's administration in Cuba and to discredit the Captain-General's promises that the island would soon be pacified, especially as his promises were followed almost immediately by a great Cuban victory in the capture of Santa Clara, January 9, 1897, while the Cuban force under General Maximo Gomez was pushing on toward Havana.

The Spanish government was thus beset with difficulties and appeared disposed to relax somewhat from the haughty attitude which it had maintained thus far. Other causes contributed to this course. The serious rebellion against Spanish authority in the Philippine Island, where the insurgents under their skillful leader, Emilio Aguinaldo, had won many victories over the Spaniards, had taxed the resources of Spain as severely as did the Cuban revolt. The finances of Spain were in a very deplorable condition, and there was great popular discontent in Spain itself, while the attitude for the United States toward Spain was menacing. Since the beginning of the Cuban rebellion American commerce had suffered greatly; and thus, besides the calls of humanity and the general American desire for Cuban success, there were strong commercial reasons for American pressure to put an end to the deplorable struggle in Cuba. Spain had insisted all along that the island must be reduced to submission before any reforms could be adopted or even discussed, while the Cuban leaders had declared that they would listen to nothing but independence.

Meanwhile it appeared that a home rule document had been sent to Captain-General Weyler to be put into force by that august functionary. Weyler was opposed most strenuously to any sort of autonomy, or local government, for Cuba; and he found it very easy to allow this home rule document to sleep quietly in his official desk in his palace in Cuba's capital. As a matter of fact, it came too late to be effective, as the time had passed for Spain to try any experiment of this nature, the Cubans remembering too well the recent broken promises. They, therefore, considered this proposal in the light of mockery and would not stop short in their fight for complete national independence. Then the ruling statesmen in Spain contrived a new home rule scheme, which was to give Cuba a real, genuine autonomistic government controlled by a majority of the island's voters. This

**Spain's
Many
Troubles.**

**Philip-
pine Re-
bellion.**

**Menacing
Attitude
of the
United
States.**

**Proposed
Spanish
Reforms
in Cuba.**

scheme appeared just and fair; but on close examination a string was found attached to nearly all its most important provisions, one end of this string being in Spain's capital after passing through the hands of the Captain-General in Cuba's seat of government.

Fruitless
Home
Rule
Scheme
for Cuba

Thus, finally, the diplomatic pressure which the United States had exerted all along was brought to bear upon Spain so successfully that in January, 1897, the Spanish government, under Prime Minister Canovas del Castillo, practically agreed upon a plan of home rule and self-government for Cuba, similar to the government of Canada and the other self-governing British colonies, giving the Cubans control of the offices and finances of the island, but leaving the island under the sovereignty of Spain. It was believed very confidently that even the most radical of the Cuban revolutionary leaders would be willing to accept this proposed improvement of their status; but the Cuban leaders, flushed with their victories and their demonstrated ability to continue the struggle and confident of final success, at once declared that they would accept nothing but absolute national independence. General Maximo Gomez and the other Cuban leaders stated that the rebellion was aimed against Spanish rule itself and that they would listen to no reforms to be administered by Spain. When it became evident that Cuba would accept only independence Spain definitely abandoned her reform program.

The
Military
Situation.

Minor conflicts between the Spaniards and the Cubans indicated that the Cubans were gaining ground constantly. General Gomez asserted that his troops were well armed and fully supplied with ammunition. The increasing boldness of the insurgents was displayed by a Cuban cavalry and infantry attack upon the Spanish lines near Havana. The daily reports from the field fully discredited Captain-General Weyler's assertion that the island was being pacified, the contrary being the case.

Cases of
Julio
Sanguilli
and Dr.
Ricardo
Ruiz.

In February, 1897, Julio Sanguilli, a Cuban who had been naturalized as an American citizen, was arrested by the Spanish authorities in Cuba and was threatened with execution, but was released and given his passports on the demand of the United States government. During the same month Dr. Ricardo Ruiz, another Cuban who had been naturalized as an American citizen, was imprisoned in Havana and suffered cruelties which finally caused his death. American newspaper correspondents reported these incidents; and the United States Consul-General in Havana, Fitzhugh Lee, brought them to the attention of his government. These reports gave great impulse to the growing popular sentiment in the United States against Spain, but President Cleveland's administration closed without any definite action in Cuba's behalf.

The announcement on March 6, 1897, that the new administration of President McKinley would send a United States warship to Cuban waters, along with his treatment of the Cuban question in his inaugural address, produced considerable alarm at the Spanish consulates and greatly influenced American markets.

President
McKinley
and Cuba.

At the beginning of 1897 the Cuban revolutionary government was composed of the following officials: President, Salvador Cisneros Betancourt; Vice President, Bartolomé Maso; Secretary of War, Carlos Roloff; Secretary of Foreign Affairs, Rafael Portuondo y Tamayo; Secretary of the Treasury, Servero Pina; Secretary of the Interior, Santiago Canizares.

Cuban
Govern-
ment.

Captain-General Weyler's policy of extermination had the approval of Canovas del Castillo, the Prime Minister of Spain; but the assassination of that Spanish statesman by an Anarchist, August 8, 1897, was followed by a change of methods in Cuba—however not until Cuba's rural population had been well-nigh exterminated, so destructive had been Weyler's reconcentrado policy.

Change of
Spanish
Methods
in Cuba.

Soon after the assassination of Canovas del Castillo the Conservative Ministry which he had headed was succeeded by a Liberal Ministry in Spain under Señor Sagasta; while Captain-General Valeriano Weyler was recalled from Cuba, and Marshal Blanco became his successor. The new Captain-General was a better and more humane man than his predecessor and was authorized by the Ministry of Señor Sagasta to try a new home rule policy for Cuba, giving the island a liberal autonomist government. Captain-General Blanco was, doubtless, well meaning in his desire for genuine local government for the island; but he encountered two obstacles from the very beginning of his administration—the opposition of the Spanish party, supported by the Volunteers, and the antagonism of the Cuban insurgent leaders, who would accept nothing short of the absolute independence of the island. Between these upper and nether millstones Blanco's conciliatory and home rule policy was destined to be ground into absolute nothingness, however well-intentioned his motives.

Weyler
Super-
seded as
Captain-
General
by
Blanco.

Weyler's reconcentrado policy had carried famine, disease and misery throughout Cuba, causing the death of hundreds of thousands of the rural population of the island and thus arousing the most intense indignation in the United States when the facts were fully revealed and thoroughly substantiated, Captain-General Blanco's remedial policy coming too late to be effective. A Spanish soldier wrote as follows in the *Saturday Review*:

Disas-
trous
Effects of
Weyler's
Policy.

“When Don Valeriano Weyler came out to command us he got together the greatest rascals in the country under the name of *Volunteers*, and if the regular soldiers under Weyler were cruel to the

A
Spanish
Soldier's
Testi-
mony on
Weyler's
Cruelties.

country folk the Volunteers were far worse. They perpetrated every crime on the defenseless country folk, and the women and children suffered every outrage at their hands. Weyler believed in killing people wholesale to strike terror into the insurgents, but it did very little good. The insurgents played the same game. They killed all of our men whom they took prisoners. When Gomez broke through the *Trocha* between Jucaro and Moron, a couple of years ago, he shot all of his prisoners. We had been doing the same by Weyler's order, and indeed he forced us to shoot down defenseless noncombatants. It was enough to be discovered to be a distant relation of an insurgent to receive sentence of death. Boys and women were shot; sick and wounded in Cuban hospitals were bayoneted; and when once or twice a lad in the ranks, fresh from Spain, refused to obey the order to kill he was promptly shot by his own officer. We soldiers, however, generally got into the habit of killing and did not think much of it, but we were never such savages as the Volunteers. Who were the Volunteers? They were the fellows enlisted from the Spaniards of the towns and were ten times as bitter as we soldiers against the Cubans, and the Cubans hated them worse than they hated us. He was certainly a strong man, Weyler, and a great deal harder and crueller than Martinez Campos; but he was just like the others. He filled his pockets while he was in office, and they say he came home with a big fortune."

Attitude
of the
United
States.

The United States government was disposed still to give Señor Sagasta's Liberal Ministry in Spain credit for sincerity in its promises of reform and autonomy for Cuba. But the reports from Consul-General Fitzhugh Lee and the other United States consuls in Cuba, along with the startling reports of American newspaper correspondents, created increased sympathy for the Cuban people. At length the disorders at Havana early in 1898 caused the United States government to send the battleship *Maine* thither for the protection of American lives and property. The destruction of this American battleship in Havana harbor on the night of February 15, 1898, by an explosion which instantly cost the lives of two hundred and sixty-six American sailors, caused the most intense popular indignation in the United States. This American indignation, intensified by the reports of Senator Proctor and others concerning the horrib'e sufferings of the reconcentrados, finally crystallized into an irresistible popular demand in the United States for war with Spain.

Destruc-
tion
of the
Maine.

American
Popular
Indigna-
tion.

Finally the agitation and excitement in the United States reached such a height that the United States Congress passed a resolution demanding that Spain withdraw her troops from Cuba and leave the island to its inhabitants and authorizing the President to use the land

and naval forces of the United States to enforce the demands contained in the resolution, April 19, 1898. President McKinley, through his Secretary of State, issued an ultimatum to Spain embracing the demands of Congress. Thereupon Spain instantly broke off diplomatic relations with the United States, recalling her Minister from Washington and handing the United States Minister in Madrid his passports; and both nations issued declarations of war and were ready for hostilities, April 22, 1898. A squadron of United States warships under the command of Captain and Acting Admiral William Thomas Sampson immediately proceeded toward Havana from Key West and blockaded the northern coast of the western portion of the island of Cuba.

Opening
of the
War
between
Spain
and the
United
States.

The *Buena Ventura* and a number of other merchant vessels were captured by American warships within a few days after the opening of hostilities, and a part of the American squadron bombarded the Spanish defenses at Matanzas, April 27, 1898; but the first great event of the war was the annihilation of the Spanish fleet under Admiral Montojo by the American squadron under Commodore George Dewey in the decisive battle of Manila Bay, in the Philippine Islands, Sunday, May 1, 1898. This great American naval victory produced unbounded rejoicing in the United States and corresponding gloom in Spain; but for the time Spain was resolute in resisting the demand of the United States for her relinquishment of Cuba, and preparations were made for the defense of the remaining Spanish dominions in the New World, the Spanish government being sustained patriotically by the Spanish people in its resolution to retain its island possessions in the Western Hemisphere and to resist the dictatorial attitude of the United States.

Hostil-
ities
on the
Cuban
Coast.

Battle of
Manila
Bay.

Spain's
Resolu-
tion.

In the meantime the President of the United States called out one hundred and twenty-five thousand volunteers, and soon afterward he called for seventy-five thousand more, thus putting two hundred thousand troops into the field for the prosecution of hostilities against Spain. The United States regulars and the militia of the several States were the first to be sent to the scene of hostilities in Cuba. The northern coast of Cuba in the vicinity of Bahia Honda, Havana, Cardenas and Matanzas was blockaded by American warships, as was the harbor of Cienfuegos, on the southern coast of the island. The Spanish defenses at various points along the blockading line were bombarded by the American navy; and a number of small naval engagements occurred, the most important of which were at Cienfuegos and Cardenas, both on the same day, May 11, 1898, in the last of which American lives were first lost in the Spanish-American War, Ensign Worth Bagley and three others being killed.

United
States
Military
Forces.

Naval
Hostil-
ities
on the
Cuban
Coast.

Sampson's and Cervera's Fleets.

In the meantime Acting Admiral Sampson's American squadron proceeded to Porto Rico and bombarded San Juan, the capital of that island, May 12, 1898, inflicting very little damage on the city. Meanwhile a Spanish fleet under Admiral Cervera appeared in West Indian waters late in May, 1898, and had several severe engagements with Sampson's American squadron in the harbor of Santiago de Cuba in the latter part of May and the beginning of June. During these operations in Santiago harbor a gallant exploit was performed by a few American sailors headed by Naval Constructor Richmond Pearson Hobson, who sank the collier *Merrimac* in the narrow channel at the entrance to the harbor, in order to bottle up the Spanish fleet in the harbor and thus prevent its escape, June 3, 1898. After sinking the *Merrimac* in the channel Hobson and his few followers were made prisoners by the Spaniards, who admired their heroism and soon released them.

Naval Engagements in Santiago Harbor.

Hobson's Exploit.

American Invasion of Cuba.

After considerable preparation, an expedition of eighteen thousand United States regulars and volunteers under General William Rufus Shafter landed on the southern coast of the eastern end of Cuba, not far from Santiago, late in June; some skirmishing having occurred in the meantime near Guantanamo between a few hundred American marines and a small force of Spaniards. A severe battle was fought at La Quisina, June 24, 1898, with heavy loss on both sides, the Americans being victorious. The Americans then advanced toward Santiago, before which city a three days' battle was fought during the first three days of July, 1898, during which the Americans captured El Caney and San Juan Hill and which ended in an American victory, Sunday, July 3, 1898; General Linares, the Spanish commander, being wounded. On the same day the combined American squadrons under Commodore Winfield Scott Schley annihilated Admiral Cervera's Spanish fleet off Santiago harbor entrance, Admiral Cervera being taken prisoner and Admiral Villamil being killed. Thus the two great American naval victories of the war—Manila and Santiago—were won on Sunday.

Battle of La Quisina.

Land and Naval Battles of Santiago.

Spanish Surrender of Santiago.

The American land and naval victories of Santiago were followed by negotiations for the surrender of Santiago; and, after several weeks' negotiations, the Spanish General Toral y Velasquez, who acted for the wounded Linares, surrendered the Spanish army of twenty-five thousand men to the American Generals Shafter and Wheeler; the surrender including the city and defenses of Santiago and the province of Santiago, and the Americans agreeing to convey the surrendered Spanish army to Spain in American transports, July 17, 1898. A few days later—July 21, 1898—the American navy captured Nipe after a severe engagement. Early in August, 1898, an American

Capture of Nipe.

army under General Nelson Appleton Miles invaded and conquered the island of Porto Rico. During the summer of 1898 four American contingents, together numbering eleven thousand men, all under the command of General Wesley Merritt, sailed for the Philippine Islands; and on the night of July 31st a Spanish attack was repulsed, and on August 13, 1898, the Americans captured Manila after a severe battle.

**Conquest
of Porto
Rico.**

**Capture
of
Manila.**

On August 12, 1898, a peace protocol was signed at Washington, between Secretary of States William Rufus Day, on the part of the United States, and M. Cambon, the French Ambassador to the United States, on the part of Spain, by which Spain accepted the peace terms of the United States; these peace conditions requiring Spain to acknowledge the independence of Cuba and to cede Porto Rico to the United States, leaving the disposition of the Philippines for future settlement. The American army, which was now suffering intensely from sickness, was now recalled from Cuba. In the fall of 1898 peace commissioners on the part of Spain and the United States met in Paris, and, after several weeks of negotiation, signed a definitive treaty of peace, December 10, 1898, on the conditions of the peace protocol of August 12th, Spain relinquishing Cuba to its people and Porto Rico to the United States, also ceding the Philippine Islands to the United States for twenty million dollars, the United States thus acquiring eight million Malay subjects in the Orient.

**Peace
Protocol.**

**Definitive
Peace of
Paris.**

After the signing of the peace protocol of August 12th the Spanish troops in Cuba were withdrawn gradually from the island and returned to Spain, and by the close of 1898 the Spanish evacuation of Cuba was complete and already the American army of occupation had arrived. On New Year's Day, 1899, occurred the formal relinquishment of Cuba by Spain to the United States, in trust for the Cuban people. Amid imposing ceremonies at Havana, Captain-General Blanco and the other Spanish officials formally turned over the government of Cuba to the military authorities of the United States in Cuba's capital and soon departed for Spain. The American flag was hoisted over Morro Castle; and Major-General John Rutter Brooke was appointed Military Governor of Cuba by President McKinley, who appointed Military Governors for each of the six provinces of Cuba, Major-General Fitzhugh Lee being appointed Military Governor of the province of Havana, and Major-General William Ludlow being appointed Military Governor of the city of Havana, while Major-General Leonard Wood was appointed Military Governor of the province of Santiago. General Brooke was soon superseded as Military Governor of the whole island of Cuba by General Wood, whose efficient administration in Santiago had demonstrated his fitness for such a

**Spanish
Retire-
ment
from
Cuba.**

**Cuba
Becomes
Independent.**

post. Meanwhile the remains of Columbus had been sent from Havana to Spain. Thus Cuba passed quietly under the military authority of the United States, being held in that condition until the Cuban national convention established a permanent republican form of government for the island. On May 20, 1902, the new republican government was inaugurated, with Tomas Estrada Palma as President.

**Election
Disputes
and In-
surrection.**

Palma served through his first term with credit and confidence. In 1905, as the candidate of the Moderate Party, he was again elected, and was inaugurated in May, 1906, but the Liberal Party charged that the election had been illegally won. Neither satisfactory explanation nor redress were obtainable and from that time on insurrectionary spirit gathered force and lawless outbreaks and armed clashes occurred, gradually assuming the proportions of a civil war. Palma several times requested intervention by the United States, but President Roosevelt refused to interfere. Hostilities between the two parties were temporarily suspended, but peace negotiations proved futile and Secretary of War Taft and Assistant-Secretary of State Bacon were sent to arbitrate. Arriving in Havana September 19, 1906, they conferred with the leaders of the two parties but failed to adjust matters, and Palma, together with the vice-president and cabinet, resigned on September 28. Taft, therefore,

**United
States
Resumes
Control.**

on the 29th declared Cuba under the authority of the United States and proclaimed himself provisional governor. He retained the treasurer, the heads of all departments of the central government, the commander of the rural guard, the civil governors, and the alcaldes. He called upon the insurgent forces to lay down their arms, and appointed a commission to receive them, which task was effected with few exceptions, quietly and rapidly. On October 9 amnesty was proclaimed to all political offenders.

**Peace
Restored.**

On October 12, 1906, Charles E. Magoon succeeded Taft as provisional governor. On December 3 a decree was issued rendering vacant the seats of those congressmen who had been elected in 1905, thus unseating nearly half of the legislative body. In October and November, 1907, a census was taken in preparation for new elections, and after the representation had been properly apportioned, it was decided to hold the elections in December, 1908, and if possible to allow Cuba to again resume her independent government by or before February 1, 1909.

**New
Elections
Ordered.**

CHAPTER XLV.

BRITISH AND DUTCH IN SOUTH AFRICA.

SECTION I.—CAPE COLONY UNDER HOLLAND AND GREAT BRITAIN (SINCE A. D. 1652).

IN 1486—six years before Columbus discovered America—Bartholomew Dias, a Portuguese navigator, while on a voyage in search of a new sea-passage to India, discovered the southern point of Africa and named it the Cape of Storms, but the name of this headland was soon changed to that of Good Hope, because there was now good hope that a new ocean route to India would soon be found. In 1497—eleven years after this discovery and five years after the discovery of America—Vasco da Gama, another Portuguese navigator, doubled the Cape of Good Hope and sailed along the south-eastern coast of Africa and passed the beautiful land which he named Natal, because he first saw it on Christmas day, the natal day of the Founder of Christianity. Vasco da Gama and his crews landed at Delagoa Bay and traded with the natives, after which they sailed on and touched the coast at Quilimane, and then continued their voyage to India. After landing in India, Vasco da Gama founded Calicut, the first European settlement in the East Indies, and from which the word calico was derived. The Portuguese were then the greatest maritime and commercial people in the world, and they established colonies and trading posts along the western and eastern coasts of Africa and the southern coasts of Asia, their most prominent colonies being Goa, in India, and Ormuz, in Persia.

For sixty years—from 1580 to 1640—Portugal was a province of Spain; and during that period the Dutch in the Netherlands were engaged in their Eighty Years' War of Independence against Spain, caused by the tyranny and cruelty of Philip II., whose reign of forty-two years (1556–1598) was the grave of Spain's greatness. The Dutch finally achieved their independence and in the meantime conquered from Spain many of the Portuguese colonies which had come under the Spanish dominion when Portugal was annexed to Spain in 1580. The Dutch Republic, as Holland was then called, succeeded

Portuguese
Discovery
of South
Africa.

The
Dutch
Republic
and Its
Colonies.

Portugal as the leading maritime and commercial power of the world, and the Dutch became the great carriers of Europe in the trade with the East Indies, and their navy ruled the seas, Dutch colonies being established in the East and West Indies and in Guiana in South America, New Netherlands in North America and the Cape of Good Hope in South Africa. The capital of their possessions in the East Indies was Batavia, in the island of Java, which was founded in 1619. The Dutch still retain Guiana in South America and their possessions in the East Indies, though they have lost many of their other possessions by British conquest. The Dutch East India Company had immense fleets of war and merchant ships.

The
Dutch
in South
Africa.

The Dutch colony at the Cape of Good Hope was founded in 1652 by one hundred and fifty settlers from Holland, under Jan Van Riebeeck. In 1658 negro slavery was introduced into this colony, and the introduction of this great wrong was the first and main cause of all the trouble which has since occurred between the Dutch and English in South Africa, just as the introduction of the same great wrong into the English colonies in North America by this same Dutch race in 1620—in which year a Dutch trading vessel sold the first slaves in what is now the United States to the English planters at Jamestown, Virginia—was the great cause of sectional animosity and bloody civil war in the United States.

Dutch
and
French
Colonists.

A few years later many prominent colonists from Holland joined the Dutch colony already planted at the Cape of Good Hope, and Dutch East India Company sent many young women to the colony from the orphan asylums at Amsterdam and Rotterdam to become wives of the Dutch planters already there. The Revocation of the Edict of Nantes by France's great king, Louis XIV., in 1685, and the great persecutions of the Huguenots, or French Protestants, which immediately followed and which caused half a million Huguenots to flee from their native land and to seek homes in England, Holland and Germany, introduced a new foreign element into the Dutch colony at the Cape of Good Hope, several hundred of the Huguenot refugees from France settling among the Dutch colonists there. Among the descendants of these French Protestant settlers in South Africa was General Joubert, the late Vice President of the Transvaal Republic and the commander-in-chief of its military forces. The Dutch colonists of South Africa were not a free community, and they frequently rebelled against the arbitrary rule of Holland.

British
Conquest
of the
Dutch
Republic.

The great French Revolution, which broke out in 1789 and which in 1793 had caused Great Britain, Holland, Spain, Portugal, Austria, Prussia, the German Empire and the Italian states to form a coalition against the new French Republic, was the cause of the loss of many of



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THE COUNTRY OF THE BOERS

Upper: Looking into the Orange Free State
Lower: Boer Farmhouse and New Zealand Hill

Holland's colonies. In 1795 the French armies conquered Holland and erected that country into the Batavian Republic, in alliance with France, the result of which was war between Great Britain and Holland and the conquest of many of the Dutch colonies in various parts of the world by the British.

In 1795 a British fleet and army under Admiral Elphinstone and General Craig conquered the Dutch colony at the Cape of Good Hope. By the Peace of Amiens between Great Britain and France in 1802, Great Britain agreed to restore the Cape Colony to the Batavian Republic, as Holland was then called; but Great Britain refused to evacuate the Cape of Good Hope, on the ground that Napoleon Bonaparte, then First Consul of the French Republic, did not comply with the terms of his part of the treaty. Although the Cape Colony was afterward recovered by Holland, the British finally conquered it in 1806, being confirmed in its possession by a treaty between Great Britain and Holland in 1814, Great Britain paying Holland six million pounds sterling (about thirty million dollars) for Cape Colony and all the Dutch claims in South Africa, which extended as far north as twenty-five degrees of south latitude, and also the Dutch colonies of Demerara, Berbice and Essequibo, which now constitute the colony of British Guiana. The African domain thus acquired by Great Britain from Holland by purchase and conquest embraced the territory of the two Boer republics which recently made war on the British Empire. Since that time Great Britain has been the paramount power in South Africa.

**British
Conquest
of the
Dutch
Colony
in South
Africa.**

As we have before remarked, the Dutch population of Cape Colony had not enjoyed political rights under Holland's government, and after they came under British rule the civil and political institutions under which they lived were far more liberal than those under which they had lived before, and the Dutch colonists of South Africa always have had the same civil, political and religious rights as the British colonists. In accordance with the democratic spirit of the nineteenth century, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and the British colonies of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and other parts of the world where the British population rule have become democratic and self-governing, the suffrage being universal, and all classes and nationalities of white men and civilized men having equal civil, political and religious rights, while the natives have equal civil and religious rights. In fact, the British colonies of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and other parts of the world are practically republics, or self-governing democracies, having their own Parliaments and Ministries for their own legislation and government, the Imperial Parliament at Westminster only legislating to establish the colonial

**Political
Rights.**

governments, and the Imperial Government only appointing the Viceroy and Governors of the various British colonies, while the Imperial Parliament does not tax them or make any laws for them. Only in British dependencies like India and other quarters of the globe where there are few Englishmen or where the mass of the natives are not educated in democracy is there no self-rule, but the natives have the same civil rights as Englishmen.

**British
Abolition
of
Slavery.**

The first serious trouble between the British and the Boers, or Dutch farmers, of Cape Colony, arose in consequence of the abolition of slavery in the British colonies by act of the British Parliament in 1833—the act for which the immortal William Wilberforce had labored for a lifetime and which he saw accomplished but a few months before his death, the same year; and which made Great Britain the first nation in the world to abolish that detestable institution, which she did thirty years before Holland, Russia and the United States abolished slavery within their respective jurisdictions.

**Dutch
Opposi-
tion to
Abolition.**

The British colonial authorities in every portion of the British Empire at once proceeded to put the abolition act in force. The English in Cape Colony said it was their duty as Christians to free every slave they had. The Cape Colony Dutch protested, and sullenly acquiesced after being paid for their slaves. The slaveholders in Cape Colony were these Boers, or Dutch farmers. They complained that the payment they received for the emancipation of their slaves was made in depreciated paper at a large discount, and that they were financially cheated in the transaction. Their dissatisfaction was heightened by the dislocation of industry caused by the compulsory sale of their slave property at a price below the market value, and also by the philanthropic principle of equality involved in the abolition of slavery. They looked upon the blacks as an inferior race, and some of them even argued that negroes are not human beings and have no souls.

**Great
Trek of
1836-37.**

In consequence of their dissatisfaction with the abolition of slavery, about eight thousand Dutch farmers, or Boers, from Cape Colony, went on what is called the "Great Trek of 1836-37," migrating from the settled portions of Cape Colony northward into the back country of South Africa, then an interior wilderness but little known to the outside world. There the migrating Boers thought they would be free from British rule and that they could hold slaves and do as they pleased generally. But they were warned by the British authorities that, though they could settle where they pleased, if they settled anywhere south of twenty-five degrees south latitude and outside of the Portuguese possessions they would still be British subjects, as Great Britain claimed that, according to international law, her sphere of influence extended over all South Africa as far north as twenty-five degrees south latitude, ex-

cept the Portuguese territories. Great Britain claimed the interior of South Africa hers in consideration of the large money payment which she had made to Holland therefor at the time when she acquired Cape Colony by conquest, cession and purchase.

The emigrant Dutch farmers first proceeded north beyond the Orange river, and some of them explored the country as far as Delagoa Bay with incredible difficulty. The greater portion of them settled themselves in the uplands of the Orange and Vaal rivers, being involved in bloody conflicts with the Matabele. Others crossed the Drakensberg mountains into the present Natal, where the Zulus under Dingaan exercised a savage tyranny of force. After bloody massacres of Boers by Zulus and of Zulus by Boers, among which were the famous "Day of Weeping" and the Dutch reprisal known as "Dingaan's Day," this portion of the emigrant Boers settled in Natal, where they founded the short-lived little Dutch Republic of Natalia, on the site of the present city of Pietermaritzburg, now the capital of Natal. Great Britain refused to recognize the Republic of Natalia, and the Boer leaders there were informed that they would not be allowed to set up an independent government on what was British territory.

"Day of Weeping" and "Dingaan's Day."

Republic of Natalia.

There was already a British settlement upon the Natal coast. The native blacks of Natal were under British protection, and the aggressions of the Boers upon the natives led to conflicts between the Boers and British troops. The Boers were at first successful over the British, but finally were defeated, and direct British sovereignty was extended over Natal in 1843, which then was declared a British colony "for the peace, protection and salutary control of all classes of men settled at and surrounding this important portion of South Africa." The frontiers of Natal were established afterward, and in proclaiming them the British authorities stated that Her Majesty Queen Victoria maintained "her rightful and sovereign authority over any of her subjects residing or being beyond the limits of that district." The Boers relinquished the Republic of Natalia, and most of these Natal Boers retired across the mountains to join their fellow Boers on the plains of the recent Orange Free State. The few Boers who remained in Natal were the ancestors of the present Dutch inhabitants of that British colony.

British Colony of Natal.

In the same year, 1843, a series of treaties, known as the "Napier Treaties," established a chain of negro states under British protection, extending from what is now Pondoland, on the frontiers of Natal, across the mountains and along the course of the Orange river to the region around the present city of Kimberley. The only one of these protected native states still existing in its original form is Basutoland. Thus the Boers, who all the time were within the sphere of British in-

Napier Treaties.

fluence, were isolated from the British colonies on the coast by a barrier in the form of a chain of negro states under British protection.

**Orange
River
Sovereignty.**

In consequence of Kaffir wars upon the frontier of Cape Colony, Sir Harry Smith, the next Governor of that colony, adopted a policy of controlling the natives and extending direct British sovereignty over the new Boer settlements. The treaties between the British and the blacks were modified in 1847; and on February 3, 1848, a proclamation was issued annexing to Cape Colony the region between the Orange and Vaal rivers under the name of the Orange River Sovereignty.

**Harrismith and
Ladysmith.**

The present town of Harrismith, in the Orange River Free State, was named in honor of Governor Sir Harry Smith; and Ladysmith, in Natal, which bore such a conspicuous part in the war of 1899, was named in honor of his wife.

**Boer
Revolt
and
Battle of
Boomplatz.**

By the time just alluded to, 1848, the friction between the emigrant Dutch farmers and the British authorities had become well-nigh irreconcilable. A party of the emigrant Dutch farmers had elected Andries Pretorius to be their commandant, and took up arms to establish an independent republic for themselves. The British defeated the Boers in the battle of Boomplatz, August 29, 1848. That portion of the Boer population which was opposed to British rule then migrated northward across the Vaal river, under the leadership of Pretorius, after whom the present city of Pretoria, the capital of the Transvaal, was named. These Boers, in their new homes beyond the Vaal, were warned that they still were within the sphere of British influence, and that, though they were free to settle there, if they did settle there they were still British subjects.

**Boer
Trek
to the
Transvaal.**

**Orange
River
Settlement.**

Those emigrant Dutch farmers who remained in the region between the Orange and Vaal rivers, with the addition of other Dutch emigrants from Cape Colony, were the ancestors of the present Dutch population of the Orange River Free State. These Dutch inhabitants, like those of Natal, were disposed to live quietly under British rule, all the irreconcilable Boers having migrated to the region north of the Vaal river.

**Hostility
and
Isolation
of the
Transvaal
Boers.**

The Boers beyond the Vaal were as bitterly hostile to their fellow-countrymen who remained in Cape Colony, in Natal and in the Orange river district as they were to the British authorities. As a result of that state of feeling, there was very little intercourse between the Boers north and those south of the Vaal. The Dutch north of the Vaal, or the Transvaal Boers, have been to a great degree differentiated from the remaining Dutch population of South Africa from the beginning; and the history of the Transvaal forms a separate chapter as it were. The turbulent and lawless nature of the Transvaal population characterized the new settlement for a long time, and

the Transvaal Boers were continually at war with the native blacks, with their fellow-countrymen in the Orange river district or among themselves.

The constant wars which the British were obliged to wage to subdue the native black tribes, such as the Hottentots, the Tembus, the Kosas, the Basutos, the Kaffirs, the Zulus, the Bechuanas, the Swazis, the Matabele and others, had been very expensive and had made the whole policy of enlarging the British dominion unpopular in Great Britain, where the "Little Englanders" were making their power and influence felt at that time. This state of public feeling in Great Britain caused Sir Harry Smith, the Governor of Cape Colony, to grant the request of the Transvaal Boers, who asked for independence and for a treaty of friendship with Great Britain, so that their old differences and animosities might be forgotten. Accordingly, in January, 1852, the British and Transvaal commissioners met on the banks of the Sand River, within the northern limits of the Orange river district; and the negotiations ended with the signing of the famous Sand River Convention, January 17, 1852. The principal terms of this treaty were that Great Britain agreed to acknowledge the independence of the Boers north of the Vaal, although they were within the sphere of British influence, on condition that they would prohibit slavery within their borders, while traders and missionaries were to be allowed to prosecute their business on both sides of the Vaal river.

**Sand
River
Conven-
tion and
Trans-
vaal
Republic.**

This was the founding of the first Transvaal Republic, and was a free gift on the part of Great Britain, as she generously gave the Transvaal Boers their independence without charging them any money for the territory which she thus gave them and for which she had paid millions of dollars to Holland. The Filipinos lately offered to pay to the United States the twenty million dollars which the United States paid to Spain for the islands if the United States would grant their independence; but the Transvaal Boers offered and gave nothing, and were not asked to give anything, for territory to which Great Britain had the same right under international law by conquest and purchase as the United States now have to the Philippines. With the exception of the generous and unselfish action of France in aiding the United States to gain her independence without asking or receiving any money or other compensation therefor, the conduct of Great Britain in voluntarily and without compulsion granting the Transvaal its independence in 1852 was one of the most generous and kind acts ever done by a great nation to a small one.

**British
Gener-
osity.**

The same cause which led to the recognition of the Transvaal Republic—the opposition of public sentiment in Great Britain to any

Bloemfontein Convention and Orange Free State.

further extension of the British Empire—also led to the relinquishment of British sovereignty over the territory between the Vaal and Orange rivers, although within the sphere of British influence. This was done on the initiative of the British government, and in the face of strong opposition from the Dutch inhabitants of that region, as expressed through an assembly of delegates at Bloemfontein. The objections of the Dutch population to independence were finally overcome, but only after a widely-supported protest of a most vigorous character. Many of the Dutch inhabitants declared their intention of nailing the British flag half-mast and of appealing to arms against independence and in favor of the continuance of British rule until the British Parliament reconsidered the question. But in spite of this strong expression of Dutch sentiment in favor of remaining under British rule, a royal proclamation renounced British dominion and sovereignty over the Boers occupying the territory between the Orange and Vaal rivers, January 30, 1854.

Strange Spectacle.

Thus was founded the Orange Free State, and thus was presented the strange spectacle of a people subject to a great power bitterly opposing and resisting the grant of independence, and the great power which had held sway over those resisting people compelling them to accept independence against their own will. This was a spectacle without a parallel in history.

Conditions of Independence.

Thus, by the Sand River Convention of 1852 and by the Bloemfontein Convention of 1854, the Transvaal Republic and the Orange Free State were brought into existence by the free action of Great Britain, which voluntarily granted the independence of these two little Dutch republics within the recognized sphere of British influence in South Africa. These two little communities did not win their independence by force of arms, but as an act of grace by the free gift of Great Britain, and that was their only charter of existence. But their independence was granted to them upon the conditions that they should prohibit negro slavery and give equal rights to all white men throughout their respective territories. The Orange Free State faithfully observed the conditions upon which its independence was established, and has lived upon terms of peace and friendship with Great Britain up to the recent war, while many Englishmen held important offices in the republic, and many of the towns within the republic's limits were thoroughly English, such as Harrismith and others. The late President Sir John Brand exerted himself to his utmost to preserve this amicable feeling between Great Britain and the Orange Free State; but the recent President Steyn had been a mere cat's paw for President Krüger, of the Transvaal, and had labored to undo the pro-British policy of the late President Brand by uniting with the Trans-

vaal President and the Afrikander Bond to drive the British out of South Africa.

SECTION II.—THE FIRST TRANSVAAL REPUBLIC (A. D. 1852-1877).

As has been remarked, the Orange Free State observed the terms of the treaty establishing its independence. The Transvaal Republic, however, evaded the provision for the prohibition of slavery by practically reëstablishing the system of slaveholding under the name "apprentices" from the very first. These "apprentices" were negroes whom the Boers took prisoners in their constant wars with the various negro tribes around them. These "apprentices" were legally bound to work without pay and were prohibited from changing their masters without permission. This system became law by the Apprentices' Act of 1856.

**Negro
Slavery
in the
Trans-
vaal.**

Twenty years later, 1876, in asking for British protection against the Boers, Khama, the native Christian chieftain of Bechuanaland, thus spoke concerning the workings of this Apprentices' Act: "The Boers are coming into my country, and I do not like them. Their actions are cruel amongst us black people. We are like money. They sell us and our children. The custom of the Boers has always been to cause people to be sold, and to-day they are still selling people. Last year I saw them pass with two wagons full of people whom they had bought at the river at Tanane."

**Khama's
State-
ment.**

There is other testimony concerning slavery among the Boers. A clergyman of the Dutch Reformed Church, in a book published at Utrecht, in Holland, in 1869, described the Transvaal "apprentice" system as being "slavery in the fullest sense of the word." A German missionary who had been invited by President Burgers, of the Transvaal, to report in 1875, thus spoke of the "apprentice" system: "And if I am now asked to say conscientiously whether such slavery has existed since 1852 and been recognized and permitted by the government, I must answer in the affirmative."

**Dutch
and
German
Testi-
mony.**

The testimony of Dr. David Livingstone, the celebrated Scotch missionary and African explorer, on this point is well known and often alluded to, and is as follows: "The Boers steal domestic servants from the more hostile tribes in the most cowardly, cold-blooded way imaginable. * * * When the tribe to be attacked is reached, the natives on foot are forced in front of the horsemen to form, as they say, a 'shield.' The Boers then coolly fire over their heads till the devoted people flee, and leave cattle, wives and children to the captors. * * *

**Dr.
Living-
stone's
Testi-
mony.**

This was done in nine cases during my residence, and on no occasion was a drop of Boer's blood shed. * * * It is difficult for a person to conceive that any body of men possessing the common attributes of humanity should, with one accord, set out on such an expedition. * * * It was long before I could give credit to the tales of bloodshed told by native witnesses; * * * but when I found the Boers themselves * * * glorying in the bloody scenes in which they had been themselves the actors I was compelled to admit the validity of the testimony and try to account for the cruel anomaly."

**Boer
Boasts.**

The Boers themselves often boasted of their massacres of negroes during their slave raids, often claiming to have killed a thousand negroes while they themselves did not lose a man.

**Action of
Pretorius.**

Pretorius, the son of the Boer leader who had led his people into the Transvaal, issued a proclamation in 1859, seven years after the negotiation of the Sand River Convention, in which he called the attention of the local magistrates to the provision of the convention for the prohibition of slavery, and asked them to take measures to enforce its observance.

**Boer
Hostility
to
Mission-
aries.**

The Sand River Convention guaranteed the rights of missionaries and traders in the Transvaal. But the Boers attacked and plundered Dr. Livingstone's mission station, and he escaped with his life only by a fortunate accident. They broke up five other mission stations in the same way. They hated the missionaries for preaching the doctrine of human equality and denouncing the wrong of slavery. The missionaries were constant witnesses of the capture of negro children by Boer raiders, and they angered the Boers by their protests against these detestable outrages.

**Boer
Hostility
to For-
eigners.**

The Boers fined traders for publishing descriptions of trade routes. They passed a law to prevent Englishmen and Germans from owning land in the Transvaal. For twelve years after the signing of the Sand River Convention the Boer leaders declared it to be their policy to shut themselves out from all relations with the outside world and to isolate themselves from all intercourse with the civilized nations. For a long time they opposed the introduction of railways because railways are not mentioned in the Bible.

**Boer
Charac-
teristics.**

The Boers lived in very primitive, simple style, as their fathers, grandfathers and great-grandfathers had lived before them, and opposed such amusements as balls and theaters as very sinful. They had great contempt for wealth as represented by gold, silver, diamonds, etc., but great fondness for wealth as represented by their immense farms of thousands of acres each and by their herds of horses, cattle, swine and sheep. Their sparse population and their extensive country often made a Boer's nearest neighbor ten miles distant

from his home. They were very proud of their ancestry and of the history of their race in its European home. They were very religious and had great reverence for the warlike portions of the Old Testament, and in justification of their treatment of the heathen blacks around them they cited as precedents the treatment of the ancient heathen nations of Palestine by Jehovah's chosen race, the Hebrews. Having no schools, few Boers could read or write.

At the time of the conclusion of the Sand River Convention the Transvaal Boers were unable to agree upon a leader, and rival factions disputed with each other about political ascendancy. As a result of these dissensions, in the very first year of Transvaal independence, 1852, the Republic was split up into four separate miniature republics—Potchefstroom, Zoutpansberg, Lydenburg and Utrecht—which were independent of each other, but sought to establish common laws by the election of one Volksraad, as their legislative assembly is called.

This result failed, and anarchy distracted the Transvaal for the first eight years of its independence, 1852–1860. During this period the Transvaal Boers carried on wars against the Orange Free State, as well as engaging in civil wars among themselves and in slave-raiding wars with the negro tribes around them; and Paul Krüger commanded a Transvaal force sent against the Orange Free State.

In 1860 the four Boer republics of the Transvaal agreed to unite under one President; but civil war soon again broke out, which lasted until 1864, when the Transvaal was finally reunited under Marthinus Wessels Pretorius as President, Paul Krüger becoming the Commandant-General. Thus closed the first twelve years of Transvaal independence, 1852–1864—a period of anarchy, civil wars and wars with the Orange Free State. The *Vierkleur*, or four-colored Transvaal flag, is a reminiscence of the period during which the four petty republics of the dismembered Transvaal existed.

When the Boers entered the Transvaal they drove the Matabele northward and seized their country, and the smaller negro tribes ventured from their hiding places in the hills and caves, apparently submitting to the emigrant Dutch farmers. But during the twelve years of anarchy, civil wars and wars with the Orange Free State, from 1852 to 1864, the black tribes, encouraged by these quarrels of the Boers among themselves and aroused to desperation by the cruel treatment which the Boers had inflicted upon them, gave the Boers very much trouble and took a bloody revenge for the enslavement and massacre of their people by the slave-raiding Boers.

A powerful negro tribe inhabiting the mountains to the north of the Transvaal was the first to take the field against the Boers, and for

Civil
Wars
and
Anarchy.

The
Trans-
vaal's
Civil and
Foreign
Wars.

Renewed
Civil War
and
Anarchy.

Wars
with
Negro
Tribes.

Renewed Wars with Negro Tribes.

four years this tribe withstood all the Boer forces which Commandant-General Paul Krüger led against it. The Boers were obliged to abandon the district of Zoutpansberg, and an unsatisfactory peace was concluded in 1868. The Boers then became involved in hostilities with the Baralongs, on the western frontier of the Transvaal.

Troubles of President Pretorius.

The last years of the administration of President Marthinus Wessels Pretorius were full of trouble for the Transvaal Republic, which was then well-nigh destitute of funds. The continual wars with the native negro tribes, the wars with the Orange Free State and the civil wars among themselves prevented the Transvaal Boers from establishing any practical system of taxation. The Boer population was exhausted by chronic war.

The Transvaal's Difficulties.

Thus far in the history of the Transvaal there was no development of civilization in the Republic. Lack of revenue had prevented the creation of the ordinary machinery of life. The salaries of officials were usually not paid. There were few roads, no bridges, no telegraphs, no public buildings, no schools in the country. Commerce was conducted by means of barter; and taxes were not collected, as the Boers would not pay taxes while their leaders quarreled among themselves, and the authorities were unable to enforce payment.

British Arbitration.

In 1871 President Pretorius, unable to overcome his troubles, agreed to submit the western Transvaal frontier question to British arbitration, and accepted the award made by Governor Keate, of Natal, giving the native negro tribes independence of Transvaal rule and also possession of the disputed territory, and deciding against the Transvaal's claim to an important district in the vicinity of the diamond fields. The Transvaalers were so dissatisfied with this award that President Pretorius resigned, and thus ended his troublous administration.

Enlightened Administration of President Burgers.

President Burgers, the successor of President Pretorius, was a far more intellectual and cultured man. He sought to remedy the existing misfortunes of his country by the introduction of a new order of things. He visited Europe and succeeded in raising part of a loan authorized by the Volksraad for the construction of a railway. He also engaged European instructors for the purpose of introducing a system of public education into the Transvaal.

Transvaal Demoralization.

President Burgers appears to have entertained the conceptions of an enlightened and progressive statesman and to have desired to carry them into execution. But his unprogressive countrymen, rude and primitive in their origin, had become so demoralized that they were reduced to a condition verging on barbarism, in consequence of twenty years of savage isolation from all civilized and civilizing influences. Having associated freely with Kaffirs, the habits of the Transvaal

Boers had approximated to those of the native negro tribes; and the projects of President Burgers were entirely foiled by the conditions then prevailing in the Transvaal.

The Transvaal Republic now became involved in another war with the powerful Kaffirs, under the leadership of Sikukuni, a warlike chief. The local system of commandos—men commandeered to fight in the public interest—now proved to be ineffectual. President Burgers himself led an expedition against Sikukuni. As nothing could make the President's troops keep the field, it was resolved to substitute a system of paid military forces. To defray the expenses of this new military system, heavy war taxes were imposed upon the Transvaal population; but the people refused to pay these taxes, and the Republic broke down under the strain. The Transvaal government was unable to pay the interest on the public debt and could not defray the government expenses. The one-pound notes (almost equal in value to five dollars of United States money) depreciated to the value of one shilling of British money (about twenty-five cents of United States money).

With an empty treasury, with no army, with victorious neighboring negro tribes invading its territory and threatening to overwhelm and exterminate its people, the Transvaal Republic was now in its dying throes, on the verge of total extinction, its black foes preparing to crush it from all sides. Sikukuni and other negro chiefs had crossed the frontiers on the north-east, north and west. The Matabele, who had been driven from their former homes by the Boers, were ready to take revenge for being robbed of their lands. The Zulus, under Cetywayo, were ready to invade the Transvaal from the south.

The only two alternatives before the Republic were total annihilation by the native negro tribes, whose people the Boers had wronged and carried into slavery, or annexation to British South Africa for the sake of obtaining British protection to save the Transvaal Boers from extirpation by the triumphant negroes. In this desperate extremity an influential portion of the Transvaal people, under the leadership of the principal officials, sought the powerful protection of Great Britain.

On the invitation of the ruling factions in the Transvaal and on a petition of a third of the male population of the Republic, negotiations were opened with the British authorities for the annexation of the Transvaal to British South Africa, in return for British protection against the conquering arms of the black invaders of the Boer territory. In his speeches President Burgers himself favored annexation. In a speech to the Volksraad, a few days before annexation was accomplished, he said:

Desperate
Straits
of the
Trans-
vaal.

Threat-
ened
Extinc-
tion of
the
Trans-
vaal.

The
Boers
Seek
British
 Protec-
tion.

British
Annexa-
tion of
the
Trans-
vaal.

Speech of
President
Burgers.

“I would rather be a policeman under a strong government than the President of such a state. It is you—you members of the Raad and the Boers—who have lost the country, who have sold your independence for a drink. You have ill-treated the natives, you have shot them down, you have sold them into slavery, and now you have to pay the penalty.”

* * * * *

“If you ask what the English have to do with it, I tell you that as little as we can allow barbarities among the Kaffirs on our borders as little can they allow that in a state on their borders anarchy and rebellion should prevail.”

* * * * *

“We should not delude ourselves by entertaining the hope that matters would mend by and by. It would only be self-deceit. I tell you openly, matters are as bad as they ever can be; they cannot be worse. These are bitter truths, and people may perhaps turn their backs on me; but then I shall have the consolation of having done my duty.”

* * * * *

“To-day a bill for eleven hundred pounds was laid before me for signature; but I would sooner have cut off my right hand than sign that paper, for I have not the slightest ground to expect that when that bill becomes due there will be a penny to pay it with.”

Thus spoke the last President of the first Transvaal Republic to his own countrymen concerning their shortcomings and their responsibility for the loss of their country's independence.

Three
Trans-
vaal
Factions.

In a statement made by President Burgers just before his death he accused the pro-English party in the Transvaal of urging forward annexation, and the Dopper party, under the leadership of Paul Krüger, of siding with the pro-English party to overthrow the ruling party. Thus it would appear that three factions in the Transvaal favored annexation—the official faction, the pro-English faction and the Dopper faction. There was a fourth faction, called the “Irreconcilables,” composed of the back-country Boers, who opposed annexation.

Burgers's
Official
Protest.

Although accepting the inevitable and acting in full accord with Sir Theophilus Shepstone, the Governor of Cape Colony, President Burgers regretted at heart the loss of his country's independence, which he blamed on the three ruling factions. To appease the Irreconcilables, whose opposition he feared, he published an “official protest” against annexation, to which Sir Theophilus Shepstone consented for appearance sake and to prevent armed opposition on the part of the Irreconcilables, though the British would have been ready to put down such minority opposition by force had it been attempted.

The Act of Annexation was officially proclaimed on April 12, 1877, and immediately was put in operation peacefully; Sir Theophilus Shepstone being supported at Pretoria, the Transvaal capital, by the presence of twenty-five policemen. Soon afterward the principal Transvaal officials, Paul Krüger among them, accepted office under the British government; the only Boer official refusing British favors being Petrus Jacobus Joubert, the late Vice President of the Transvaal Republic and Commandant-General of its military forces. President Burgers retired to Cape Colony.

**Act of
Annexa-
tion.**

Thus, after an independent existence of twenty-five years (1852-1877), the first Transvaal Republic was extinguished by annexation to British South Africa. Its unfortunate end was the fault of its own people, being the result of its helpless situation in consequence of its defenseless condition against powerful native negro tribes whom its people had wronged, and in consequence of its bankrupt treasury, caused by years of civil war and anarchy and by wars with its kindred neighbor, the Orange Free State, and with the powerful neighboring native black tribes.

**Boer
Responsi-
bility for
Annexa-
tion.**

This action of Great Britain in coming to the rescue of the Transvaal Boers to save them from extermination by the negro tribes whose people they had enslaved and massacred was the greatest and most unfortunate of all the mistakes which she ever had made in South Africa, as it involved her in bloody wars with the Zulus, the Kaffirs and other negro tribes under the leadership of Cetywayo and Sikukuni, which cost her ten million pounds sterling (about fifty million dollars) and many precious British lives, besides the two wars which she since has waged against the Boers themselves, which also cost her heavily in blood and treasure, for all of which she received no thanks, as we shall soon see. Thus, politically and in a military point of view, Great Britain's rescue of the Boers was a great blunder, of which she since has sadly reaped the fruits. Her correct policy in 1877 would have been not to interfere in favor of the Boers, but to allow the negro tribes whom they had outraged to wipe them entirely out of existence, as that would have been just retribution for their outrageous and inhuman treatment of the negroes, and as it would have saved Great Britain the thousands of precious lives and the millions of money which she sacrificed in the wars with the Zulus and the Kaffirs in 1879, the war with the Boers in 1881 and the last great war with the Boers. Had she allowed the negro tribes to wipe the Boers entirely off the face of the earth in 1877 there would have been no Transvaal Boers left to fight her in 1880-'81 and 1899-1902. It was very foolish and suicidal for Great Britain to save Boers in 1877-'79 so that they would be left to fight her in 1880-'81 and 1899-1902.

**Unfortu-
nate
Result for
Great
Britain.**

SECTION III.—THE TRANSVAAL UNDER BRITISH RULE (A. D. 1877–1881).

**Trans-
vaal
Prosper-
ity under
British
Rule.**

THE difficulties of the Transvaal immediately ended upon its annexation to British South Africa. The interest on the public debt was paid, and the civil service was reorganized. An influx of traders and others willing to invest capital and energy under the guarantee of the British flag brought an era of industrial prosperity to the Transvaal. The British troops who occupied the country protected it against negro risings.

**War
with the
Zulus.**

In consequence of protecting the Transvaal Boers against extermination by the Zulus under Cetywayo, the British became involved in a bloody war with that warlike and powerful negro nation which lasted several years, ending in 1879, in the conquest of the Zulus and the capture of Cetywayo, the war costing the British eight million pounds sterling (about forty million dollars in United States money)—a war altogether brought about in the first place by Boer aggressions on the Zulus.

**Boers
Saved
from
Extermi-
nation by
British
Annexa-
tion.**

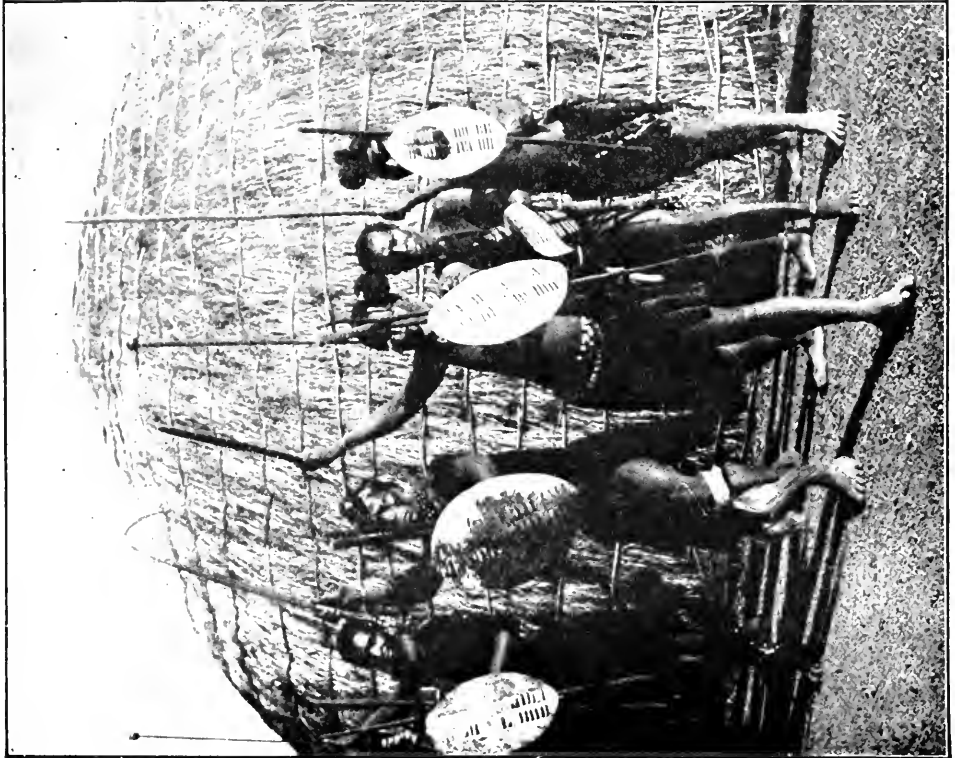
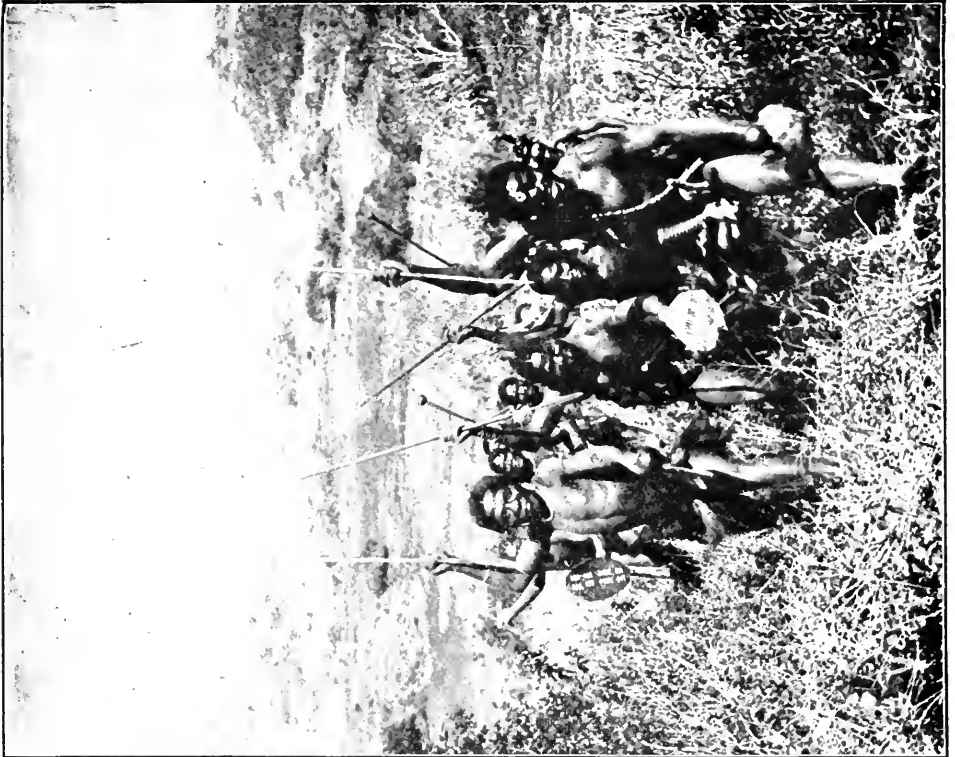
The British also broke the power of the Kaffirs under Sikukuni, thus saving the Boers from annihilation by another powerful negro tribe, whom they likewise had wronged; and by the close of 1879 all the dangers which had menaced the existence of the Transvaal Boers had been removed in consequence of the annexation of the Transvaal to British South Africa, thus restoring order, peace, prosperity and abundant revenue to the country.

**Boers
Tired of
British
Rule.**

The happy turn in the affairs of the Transvaal caused a great change in the sentiment of the Transvaal Boers. They now had reaped all the benefits and profited by all the advantages of annexation. Great Britain had crushed their black foes at her own expense and had paid all the Transvaal's debts out of her own pocket, so they had no further use for Great Britain. They gladly had accepted all these favors in the time of their distress; and, having been put on their feet again through British aid and protection, they coolly resolved to throw Great Britain overboard. Great Britain was good enough for them to save them from destruction and pay for it out of her own pocket and at the cost of the lives of her own people, and that was all they wanted.

**Boer
Petition
for Inde-
pendence.**

Having willingly sacrificed their independence to obtain all the benefits and advantages of annexation, and having now obtained these benefits and advantages, the Boers again longed for the independence which they had given up so readily a few years before. The very annexationists among the Boers in 1877 became the independents in 1880. They accordingly prepared a monster petition with six thou-



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sand five hundred signatures, asking for the restoration of their independence, and sent it to England.

In the meantime affairs in Great Britain were taking a favorable turn for the Boers. In his Midlothian campaign, in November, 1879, Mr. Gladstone had condemned the annexation of the Transvaal in the strongest terms and had announced his intention to restore Transvaal independence if he came into power. The Boers got hold of his speech and circulated copies of it among their people, who accepted it as an invitation to revolt.

Mr.
Glad-
stone's
Speech.

After the dissolution of the British Parliament, in March, 1880, and the elections in Great Britain, which returned the Liberal party, under Mr. Gladstone, to power, the Boers were chagrined to find that Mr. Gladstone had changed front on the Transvaal question and that he now announced that the Transvaal must remain British territory. They accordingly resolved to appeal to arms to recover their independence at once and made preparations for the struggle. Boer hopes had been raised too high thus to be doomed to disappointment.

Boer Dis-
appoint-
ment.

The rupture began when the Boers resorted to their old expedient toward their own governments when their public servants were unpopular—the refusal to pay taxes. The determination of the British Administrator of the Transvaal, Sir Owen Lanyon, to enforce payment of taxes by the seizure of the goods of a recalcitrant farmer led to open defiance and brought matters to a crisis. The Boers held a great public meeting at Paardekraal, in which Paul Krüger, Marthinus Wesels Pretorius and Petrus Jacobus Joubert were elected a triumvirate to conduct public affairs; and the independence of the Transvaal was declared on December 16, 1880. The Boers offered to indemnify Great Britain for her expenditure in behalf of the Transvaal if their independence was restored.

Trans-
vaal
Revolt.

War ensued. The Boers attacked two hundred and fifty British troops at Middelburg, December 23, 1880, killing one hundred and twenty and taking the remainder prisoners. The Boers were repulsed at Potchefstroom, January 7, 1881. Sir Owen Lanyon, the British Administrator in the Transvaal, was summoned to surrender Pretoria; and the Boers closely besieged Potchefstroom. Early in January, 1881, the Boers invaded Natal. On January 26, 1881, a British force of one thousand men, under General Sir George Pomeroy Colley, was repulsed in an attack upon the strong position of five thousand Boers, under General Joubert, at Laing's Nek; the British losing one hundred and eighty-five killed, wounded and missing. On February 8, 1881, the British under General Colley again were defeated by the Boers under Joubert behind rock cover, on the Ingogo River; the British losing one hundred and fifty killed and wounded. On Sunday, February

British-
Boer War
of
1880-81.

Battles of
Laing's
Nek,
Ingogo
River and
Majuba
Hill.

27, 1881, General Colley's force of about six hundred and fifty men was defeated by a superior force of Boers in the battle of Majuba Hill, six thousand feet above sea-level and three thousand feet-above camp-level. General Colley was killed, and he lost about two hundred and fifty officers and men in killed, wounded, and prisoners, the survivors fleeing headlong from the scene of action. The Boers, who fought under cover behind rocks and crags, lost about one hundred and thirty in killed and wounded.

Trans-
vaal
Independ-
ence
under
British
Suzer-
ainty.

The Boer victory at Majuba Hill was followed by an armistice and a treaty of peace, in March, 1881, by which Great Britain, in accordance with Mr. Gladstone's first announced Transvaal policy, acknowledged the independence of the Transvaal, under the suzerainty of the British crown. The Transvaal Boers were to have local self-government; but the British government was to control the foreign relations of the restored Republic, and was granted the right to march troops across the Transvaal at any time, while a British Resident Agent was to be established at Pretoria. All munitions of war captured on either side during the war were to be restored. White men of all nationalities were to have equal rights with the Boers in the Transvaal to reside, travel and carry on business in the country and were not to be subject to any special taxation. Slavery of the blacks was to be prohibited, and their interests were safeguarded by other clauses. The treaty also provided that Great Britain should receive compensation for her heavy expenditure on account of the Boers in the wars with the Zulus, the Kaffirs and other native African tribes—a sum equal to about ten million pounds sterling (about fifty million dollars in United States money). The acceptance of these terms by the Boers ended the war. In August, 1881, a Royal Commission on the part of Great Britain concluded a definitive treaty with the Transvaal Republic, on the basis of the preliminary treaty.

SECTION IV.—THE SECOND TRANSVAAL REPUBLIC (A. D. 1881–1899).

Founding
of the
Second
Trans-
vaal
Republic.

THUS was founded the second Transvaal Republic, officially called the South African Republic. The reason why Great Britain retained control of the foreign relations of the Republic was to prevent the Transvaal from making treaties or alliances with foreign powers to the prejudice or disadvantage of Great Britain, and to guard against the danger to the whole white population of South Africa involved in wars between the Boers and the native blacks. The provisions of the treaty of 1881 providing for equal rights for whites and freedom for blacks were the same as those of the Sand River Convention of 1852, when

the first Transvaal Republic was acknowledged as an independent state by Great Britain. During the four years that the Transvaal was under British rule (1877-1881) equality of political rights existed in the Transvaal. While the negotiations for the definitive treaty of peace, in August, 1881, were in progress, Paul Krüger, on behalf of the Transvaal triumvirate, assured the British commissioners that the same political equality for all white men should be maintained under the restored Republic as had existed under the British régime.

In 1882, the second year of the second Transvaal Republic, Stephanus Johannes Paulus Krüger was elected President of the Transvaal, or South African Republic. In 1883 he was confirmed in the office for the term of five years, and he was reelected in 1888, 1893, and 1898. So thoroughly was he master in all the affairs of his little state that it is scarcely too much to say that the history of the second Transvaal Republic was the history of President Paul Krüger. Through this remarkable man, whose fame became world-wide, the Transvaal, before known outside of South Africa only by name, even among the enlightened, also became famous throughout the civilized world. His wonderful personality and force of character stamped themselves upon his country, whose constitution and laws really reflected his personal wishes and religious prejudices. During all those years he presided almost as an absolute ruler over the people whom he governed in that isolated little state.

President Krüger had been a prominent man in the history of his country for half a century. He took a prominent part in the civil wars of the Transvaal and the wars against the Orange Free State, from 1852 to 1864, and was the head of the Dopper faction; the Doppers being the strictest section of the Dutch Reformed Church. He was among the annexationists of 1877 and was a leader of the independents of 1880-1881. By his masterful powers he made everything bend to his will. He often preached in the great church at Pretoria, and in his sermons he told his people that God was and always had been on their side and would enable them to overcome their enemies in battle. His intense piety would not permit him to accept an invitation to the Queen's ball during his visit to London in 1884, such things being too sinful in his estimation. In Paris he was shocked at the ladies' modes of dress. He read few newspapers. Once he was reported to have said: "The Bible is one of the few books I have time to read." It must be acknowledged, however, that the small selection of other books that he read was good—such as *Pilgrim's Progress*, Motley's *Rise of the Dutch Republic*, and histories of the Prince of Orange and of the Thirty Years' War. His manners were those of a simple farmer. He was said to have frequently received visitors in his shirt-

President
Paul
Kruger.

His
Charac-
teristics.

sleeves; to have appeared in public without collar or necktie, and not to have been wasteful of water at his toilet. To his people he was reverently and affectionately known as "Oom Paul"; that is, "Uncle Paul," implying that he was "everybody's uncle." During his visit to London in 1884 he was so poor that he could not pay his hotel bill, but after the discovery of the Rand gold mines he was said to have become worth twenty-five million dollars.

**President
Krüger's
Auto-
cratic
Rule.**

We have alluded to President Krüger's absolute and despotic rule. All political power was in his hands and that of a council of seven. These men practically exercised the legislative and judicial power of the state as well as the executive power. They ignored the laws and orders of the Volksraad, or legislative body, and the decisions of the Supreme Court of the land. In short, the Transvaal was a republic only in name, and was in reality a seventeenth century Dutch and French settlement—a theocratic or religious oligarchy masquerading as a republic—with only the descendants of Protestant Dutchmen and Frenchmen having any political rights. Jews and Catholics were disfranchised, and only members of the Dutch Reformed Church could hold office. The naturalization laws were so illiberal that it required long residence and ten years' military service in the Transvaal armies before an alien or foreigner could become a citizen of the Republic, although he was drafted into the army and subject to a poll tax. The black man was denied all civil as well as political rights and was practically in a state of slavery, the Boers looking upon the negro as being no human being and having no soul. Negroes were not allowed to walk on the sidewalks of streets or to enter a Boer church.

**General
Traits
of the
Boers.**

The Boers are pious and bigoted and very attentive to their church duties. They resemble the English Puritans and the Scotch Covenanters of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries in their aversion to frivolous amusements, which they consider sinful. They are primitive and mediaeval in their habits and beliefs and unprogressive in their character. They are averse to hard physical labor, and have their work done by their black servants, or slaves.

**Their
Jealousy
of For-
eigners.**

They regard foreigners with jealousy and suspicion and the English with intense animosity, ingrained into them by the history and traditions of a century. They like to be left alone with their country and to live a pastoral life on their immense farms of thousands of acres and tend their cattle and sheep, and have contempt for the wealth represented by gold and diamonds. They love their national independence and are so intensely patriotic that they are ready to shed their last drop of blood to maintain their separate national existence. They are averse to paying taxes, and the desperate straits of their country in the past were attributable largely to this fact.

They were a great military power and are among the best soldiers in the world. In fact, under President Krüger their little republic became a military camp, like the great monarchies of Continental Europe. They have great reverence for the Old Testament, especially the warlike portions which tell how God's chosen people showed no mercy to the heathen people around them; and they justify their harsh treatment of the native blacks by precedents from the Hebrew sacred texts. Until lately they had no schools; and formerly they opposed the introduction of railroads because railroads are not mentioned in the Bible, though they had no religious scruples against the introduction of firearms or heavy artillery, even if these instruments of warfare are not mentioned in the Bible.

**Their
Military
Char-
acter.**

Their dwellings and other buildings are very simple and primitive, as are also their farm machinery and implements. In short, they have great veneration for the methods and ideas of their fathers, grandfathers and great-grandfathers, and do not readily take to new-fangled, modern notions. Their fondness for hunting has made them good marksmen from childhood, and the Boer women can shoot as well as the men.

**Their
Unpro-
gressive-
ness.**

The Dutch language of South Africa is not the pure Dutch of Holland, but a corrupt Dutch produced by the mingling of the Huguenot French element with the Dutch population of South Africa. This corrupt Dutch is the only language allowed to be taught in the Boer schools.

**Corrupt
Dutch
Lan-
guage.**

The Boers of the Orange Free State and of the British colonies of South Africa, who have not been isolated from the outside world, have progressed with the British colonists of South Africa and have adopted modern ideas and methods, for which reason they have not been looked upon with favor by their unprogressive and primitively-disposed kinsmen of the Transvaal Republic.

**Orange
River
and
Other
Boers.**

The conditions of the convention of 1881, by which the Transvaal became an independent but not a sovereign state, were irksome and distasteful to President Krüger from the beginning; and his efforts were directed to getting rid of British suzerainty and control of the foreign relations of his country, which he desired to have wholly independent in its foreign as well as in its domestic affairs. As President Krüger now desired to cultivate foreign relations, the suzerainty and foreign-relations provisions of the treaty of 1881 became particularly inconvenient.

**Boer
Dissatis-
faction
with
British
Suzer-
ainty.**

The previous isolation of the Transvaal Boers from all intercourse with the outside world was the reason why they and their country were comparatively unknown to the civilized world and was the main cause of the popular sympathy for the Boers throughout the world. Only as a

**Results
of Boer
Isolation.**

result of its short union with British South Africa from 1877 to 1881 and the settlement of a large foreign population within its limits in 1886 did the Transvaal become an important country in the eyes of the civilized world. The first Transvaal Republic was a semi-barbarous community. The second became an organized state with a well-equipped and disciplined military establishment under the instruction of European military experts.

Great
Britain's
Refusal to
Release
Her
Suzer-
ainty.

In 1883 the Transvaal asked permission to send a deputation to London to revise the convention of 1881 and secure release from such conditions of the treaty as it considered irksome. The British authorities granted the request; and in November, 1883, President Krüger and two other Transvaal delegates arrived in England. They first expressed a desire that the Transvaal be recognized as a wholly independent sovereign state, to have the right to negotiate treaties with foreign powers of its own accord and to be free of British interference in relation to the native blacks. Lord Derby informed them that this could not be done; and Great Britain retained her right to veto the Transvaal's foreign treaties, but granted the Boers modifications in some minor details of the treaty of 1881.

London
Conven-
tion of
1884.

These negotiations ended in the signing of the London Convention of 1884, on February 27th of that year, exactly three years after the Boer victory of Majuba Hill. This treaty reaffirmed the conditions of the convention of 1881 regarding the rights of aliens in the Transvaal, the rights of blacks, the prohibition of slavery or "apprenticeship," freedom of religion and the most-favored-nation treatment for British goods. Several articles of the convention distinctly gave Great Britain the right to interfere in Transvaal affairs if the terms of the treaty were violated by the Boers.

Misunder-
standing
on Both
Sides.

There since has seemed to be a misunderstanding on both sides concerning the suzerainty question in the London Convention of 1884, the Boers claiming that as the word suzerainty was not mentioned in the treaty it practically was renounced there, but the British claim that as it was not renounced formally it still existed.

President
Krüger's
Satisfac-
tion.

The London Convention of 1884 did not give the Boers all that they desired, but it gave them more than they had expected; and President Krüger and his associates expressed themselves as satisfied with the result of the negotiations. The President was so poor that he could not pay his hotel bill, and it was paid for him by a generous Englishman.

His
Invitation
to For-
eigners.

Mr. Krüger himself published in the English newspapers a cordial invitation and promise of welcome and protection to all Englishmen who might wish to settle in the Transvaal. After leaving England he visited Holland and Germany and also invited Hollanders and Ger-

mans to settle in his country. Thus opened up a new era in Transvaal history.

After President Krüger returned from his European visit, near the close of 1884, he was in very serious straits for money, and troubles with the native blacks were rife, thus making the old difficulties of the Transvaal as acute as ever. Vice President Joubert, who had acted as President during President Krüger's absence, resigned all his offices upon the President's return and placed himself at the head of a faction which held President Krüger's anti-English retrogressive policy responsible for the "bad condition of the country"; and he was thereafter a thorn in the President's side. As usual, when the authorities of the Republic quarrelled among themselves, the country Boers refused to pay taxes; and by the close of 1885 the Transvaal was again on the verge of bankruptcy.

**The
Trans-
vaal's
Desperate
Straits.**

In its desperate straits the Transvaal Republic was again in danger of being obliged to sacrifice its independence through its internal troubles and the faults of its own people, as it was believed that the Transvaalers again would be obliged to ask for annexation to British South Africa in consequence of the Republic's helpless condition.

**Its
Dilemma.**

The threatened death of the second Transvaal Republic was averted by an unexpected circumstance—the discovery of the Witwatersrand gold mines in 1886. This event was both fortunate and unfortunate for the Republic—fortunate because it furnished the resources to put the Republic on its feet and save it from immediate extinction; but unfortunate because it introduced new elements and new issues into the Transvaal which brought on a collision for which generations of race hatred had prepared the way.

**Discovery
of the
Rand
Gold
Mines.**

The future of the Transvaal was changed entirely by the discovery of the Rand gold mines; and, in accordance with President Krüger's published invitations in England, Holland and Germany in 1884, foreigners began pouring into the Transvaal by thousands, mostly Englishmen, but also Irishmen, Scotchmen, Welshmen, Frenchmen, Dutchmen, Belgians, Germans, Danes, Swedes, Norwegians, Americans and others. This was wholly a mining population. British and other foreign capital and enterprise at once produced a complete transformation in the material condition of the Transvaal and put an end to its financial straits. These foreign capitalists bought mining concessions from the Transvaal government, which gave them the right to the mines and furnished the Transvaal with vast financial resources.

**The Uit-
landers.**

So rapid had been the increase in the foreign population of the Transvaal in ten years (1886–1896) that the mining city of Johannesburg sprang up as if by magic, having grown in six years (1890–1896) from nothing to a city of over a hundred thousand inhabitants,

**Johannes-
burg.**

one-half of whom were whites and the other half blacks. The white population of the city consisted almost exclusively of foreigners, called Uitlanders, or Outlanders; there being only about a thousand Boers in the city. With the continual expansion of the gold-mining industry the city's population was increasing rapidly all the time, so that by the close of 1895 foreigners were flocking into the Transvaal at the rate of a thousand per week.

British
and
Boers
in the
Trans-
vaal.

By 1899 the entire Uitlander population of the Transvaal had grown to more than a hundred thousand, the majority of whom were British, the Germans being said to number about twenty thousand and the Americans about ten thousand. The Transvaal Boers numbered less than eighty thousand; and the native blacks, Kaffirs and other tribes, were almost eight hundred thousand. Thus two distinct white populations had existed in the Transvaal since 1886. The entire population of the Transvaal, white and black, numbered less than a million, or less than a thirteenth of the population of New York and Pennsylvania, while its area was greater than the combined areas of those two great States of the American Union.

American
Consul-
General's
Report.

The United States Consul-General at Cape Town, in a report issued from Washington upon a tour of South Africa which he made in 1898, spoke of Johannesburg thus: "Johannesburg has been built up by the gold-mining industry, developed by foreign capital; and American ability has had a hand in the development, for Americans occupy very necessary and responsible positions. * * * For twenty miles on each side of the city extend the headgears and smokestacks of mines—over one hundred of them—which have made the city and state what it is and enabled President Krüger to sell a farm for eighty thousand pounds the day I was there. * * * Over fifteen tons of gold per month is the product of the mines, and the ground is only beginning to be worked."

Sudden
Wealth
of the
Krüger
vaal.

The Rand gold mines converted the Transvaal from a very poor to a very rich country, gave its government an immense revenue and made President Krüger's individual wealth about twenty-five million dollars. He afterwards sold one of his farms for one hundred thousand pounds (half a million dollars) in gold. His friends and neighbors sold farms at even greater prices, receiving many millions of dollars from foreign settlers. The taxes wrung from the Uitlanders were spent in arming the Transvaal and in paying exorbitant salaries to the Transvaal officials.

Wealth
of the
Krüger
Family.

President Krüger himself received a salary equal to thirty-five thousand dollars a year; while on repeated occasions he had received sums equal to fifteen thousand and twenty-five thousand dollars paid out in taxes for his direct and exclusive benefit, as seen in the Transvaal

public records. It is believed that he received much more than was recorded. His son-in-law and private secretary possessed a single house costing a sum equal to two hundred and fifty-nine thousand dollars and rolled in wealth besides. The authority for this last statement is Mr. Howard C. Hillegas, the author of *Oom Paul's People* and other books on the Boers.

The official records in a Transvaal law suit, arising from a quarrel between two sets of Boer plunderers, showed that many Boer officials, President Krüger's son-in-law among them, received bribes from a Boer railroad company, the amount of each bribe being specified in a bill of particulars filed in open court. Not one of the accused officials ever denied receiving these bribes. The whole Transvaal government was corrupt from top to bottom, and no business could be done with the Republic's officials without bribing the President's son-in-law and hangers-on.

In order to compel the foreign miners to hire his private ox-teams at enormous prices, President Krüger for a long time resisted the introduction of railroads. When finally he did permit railways to be built he granted the privilege exclusively to persons who would agree to give his relatives a big share of the profits. He granted monopolies on several indispensable articles of mining supplies, the result of which was to double the price at which the same articles could be obtained otherwise.

Thus the unprecedented development of wealth in the Transvaal wrought a complete change in the conditions of the country. This result was produced entirely by the Uitlanders, or foreigners, most of them British subjects. The Boers themselves never have taken any part in the development of the mining industry, nor have they allowed the Uitlanders any share in the government.

In 1887, the year after the discovery of the Rand gold mines, the value of the output was half a million pounds sterling. In 1899, twelve years later, it had increased to sixteen million pounds, or thirty-two times as much. In 1884 the Transvaal owned three hundred and ninety-six thousand pounds sterling, its revenue then being one hundred and forty-three thousand pounds, and its expenses about one hundred and eighty-four thousand pounds. While the expenditure exceeded the revenue about twenty-five per cent., the revenue had fallen from the previous year by about the same rate. The security on the public debt was uncertain, and the possibility of paying the interest on the debt was even doubtful.

In 1897 the revenue had arisen to four million four hundred and eighty thousand pounds sterling, while the expenditure was four million three hundred and ninety-four thousand pounds, thus assuring

**Boer
Corruption and
Venality.**

**President
Krüger's
Opposition to
Rail-
roads.**

**Uitlander
Enter-
prise.**

**Develop-
ment of the
Rand
Gold
Mines.**

**Increase
of the
Trans-
vaal
Revenue.**

the payment of interest on a public debt of three million pounds. In 1884 the salaries of the Transvaal officials were insignificant. In 1886, the year of the Rand gold discovery, the total amount paid in salaries was fifty-one thousand pounds sterling. In 1899 it had arisen to a total of one million two hundred and sixteen thousand three hundred and ninety-four pounds, a sum sufficient to give every adult male of the small Boer population of the Transvaal forty pounds, or two hundred dollars, a year.

**Uitlander
Grievances.**

As before remarked, the Uitlanders supplied all the industrial energy which developed the country, while the Boers reserved to themselves all the rights of government and all the emoluments of official position. The Uitlanders complained that they were deprived of political rights; were taxed without being represented; were deprived of the privilege of naturalization through illiberal naturalization laws; were subjected to mob rule; were denied justice in the Transvaal courts; were nevertheless compelled to pay nine-tenths of all the taxes; were compelled to perform military service and to pay poll taxes while not being given the rights of citizenship and not being allowed to vote. Of the twenty million dollars in taxes levied annually in the Transvaal, the Uitlanders paid eighteen millions, or nine-tenths. The taxes amounted to about eighty dollars a head yearly.

**New
Illiberal
Natural-
ization
Laws.**

When foreigners, at President Krüger's published invitations in England, Holland and Germany, in 1884, first settled in the Transvaal the naturalization laws were very liberal, a residence of only two years being required for full citizenship. After the foreigners had accepted his invitation by coming into the Transvaal he repealed all naturalization laws absolutely. Under pressure he afterwards restored them, but extended the time for naturalization to five years and afterwards to fourteen years.

**Uit-
landers
without
Political
Rights.**

These were fourteen years of suspense to the foreign applicant for Transvaal citizenship, during which he was a citizen of no country, being required to renounce for that time all claims to protection both from the government of his native country and from the Transvaal government, without any rights which a Boer was bound to respect.

**Forced
Military
Service.**

During these fourteen years he was subject to forced service in the Transvaal army on twelve hours' notice, for which service he would receive no pay and be compelled to provide his own food and clothing. He was also subject to a poll tax during this long period of non-citizenship of any country, although he could not vote.

**Hard
Condi-
tions.**

At the end of these fourteen years of degrading humiliation he would not be allowed to vote, unless his humble petition was approved by two-thirds of his Boer neighbors, by the military commander of the district and finally by His Excellency the President of the Republic

himself. Even then he could not vote unless he were forty years of age.

Although two-thirds of the white inhabitants of the Transvaal spoke the English language, the Uitlanders were compelled to have their children educated in the corrupt Dutch language taught in the Boer schools and were forbidden to have them taught in their own English mother tongue.

Boer
Dutch
Schools.

In 1895 various annoyances were inflicted upon these foreigners, in order to make their unwelcome presence in the Transvaal territory as unpleasant and irksome to them as possible. By a press law, passed for the avowed purpose of crushing the Uitlanders, all newspapers were placed at the mercy of President Krüger, who could suppress them at his pleasure. By another law, passed with the same object in view, all meetings of more than seven persons in the open air were absolutely prohibited, while all other meetings would be dissolved in an instant, at the discretion of any policeman. Another law was passed absolutely prohibiting any foreigner from presenting a petition for a redress of grievances.

President
Krüger
and the
Germans.

As early as 1892 President Krüger replied to an influential Uitlander deputation that had waited upon him and petitioned for a redress of grievances: "Go back and tell your people that I shall never give them anything; I shall never change my policy; and now let the storm burst." To Mr. Campbell, the spokesman of the deputation, who protested against a certain measure, the President replied: "Protest! protest! What is the good of protesting? You have not got the guns! I have."

His
Reply to a
Uitlander
Deputa-
tion.

When the Transvaal Volksraad confirmed President Krüger's attitude in 1895, by absolutely rejecting a Uitlander petition for a redress of grievances bearing thirty-five thousand signatures, and giving the Uitlanders to understand that if they wanted the franchise they would have to fight for it, the relations between the Transvaal government and the oppressed Uitlanders had become so strained that the choice lay between redress and revolution; but the criminal folly of the Jameson raid upset the reformers' plans.

His
Rejection
of a
Uitlander
Petition.

The British opposition to the extension of the Transvaal territory in all directions by six armed Boer raids destroyed President Krüger's hopes in that direction; and he accordingly began to cultivate friendly foreign relations with other powers, especially with Germany, the other great European power with territorial possessions in South Africa. Dr. Leyds, the Transvaal diplomatic agent in Europe, was credited as the author of President Krüger's ambitious policy of striving to secure foreign alliances as a counter-balance to Great Britain's power in South Africa.

His
Friendly
Relations
with
Germany.

Trans-
vaal
Emissa-
ries and
Secret
Service.

The conventions of 1881 and 1884 stood in the way of any Transvaal treaty with foreign powers inimical to Great Britain, but it was believed that Transvaal emissaries were secretly at work on the Continent of Europe and that an extensive secret service was maintained by the Transvaal. Dr. Leyds was active in his secret work at Berlin and Lisbon, to win for the Transvaal the friendship and support of Germany and Portugal, the two Continental European powers with large possessions in South Africa.

The
Trans-
vaal
Seeks a
Seaport.

Transvaal orders for military equipments were placed with Continental European firms. The Transvaal government made fruitless efforts to acquire Delagoa Bay from Portugal, in order to give the South African Republic a seaport of its own; its inland situation placing it at a great disadvantage in an international point of view.

Boer-
German
Schemes.

Rumors were current that a Dutch South African rising, backed by foreign support and having for its object the establishment of an independent United States of South Africa, was contemplated. As early as 1892 it was reported that a detailed scheme, bearing the German consul's name, had been drawn up in Pretoria for the landing of German troops at Delagoa Bay. It was known that the reorganization of the Transvaal forces was being placed in German hands. The Transvaal gave secret advantages to German firms, in defiance of the terms of the London Convention of 1884, thus causing great annoyance in commercial circles.

Uitlander
Alarm.

The immense supplies of arms and ammunition which were known to be pouring into the Transvaal, as well as the construction of forts at Johannesburg and Pretoria, caused great uneasiness to the British authorities and to the Uitlanders in the Transvaal. These growing suspicions were confirmed by a speech of President Krüger at a banquet in honor of the German Emperor's birthday, early in 1895, when he eulogized the Germans in the Transvaal and condemned British subjects, making use of the following words on this occasion:

President
Krüger's
Pro-
German
Speech.

"Therefore I shall ever promote the interests of Germany, though it be but with the resources of a child, such as my land is considered. This is now being trodden upon by one great power, and the natural consequence is that it seeks protection from another. The time has come to knit ties of the closest friendship between Germany and the South African Republic, ties such as are natural between father and child."

Scheme
of the
Afrikan-
der Bond.

About the same time the formula of "South Africa British or Lower German" began to be commonly used in German colonial circles on the Continent of Europe. The secret scheming for the overthrow of British power in South Africa, and the establishment in its stead of a great Dutch republic to be known as the United States of South



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PRESIDENT KRUGER, AND HIS HOUSE AT PRETORIA

Africa, was said to be the work of an organization known as the Afrikander Bond, instigated by the Boer leaders.

While the Boers were accusing the British of aiming to deprive the Transvaal of its independence, the British were accusing the Boers of endeavoring to deprive Great Britain of her South African dominions, or, at least, of trying to make the Transvaal Republic the paramount power in South Africa instead of Great Britain.

Late in 1895 President Krüger closed the drifts, or fords, by which goods were carried on the Orange Free State and Natal railways, for the purpose of forcing traffic over his own line by Delagoa Bay. The British imperial government and the Cape Colony government, by a joint ultimatum, informed him that his action in this case was a plain violation of the terms of the conventions of 1881 and 1884 relating to freedom of trade with the Transvaal, and that it would not be tolerated; whereupon he rescinded his declaration and retreated from his position in this matter. His course in this affair looked as though he was ready to separate the interests of the Transvaal Boers from the interests of the Dutch populations of the Orange Free State and of British South Africa.

The most important result of the discovery of the Rand gold mines was the fact that it placed in the hands of a naturally-warlike people the means to convert themselves into a fully-armed military power, organized and equipped on modern principles. The Transvaal was always able to find men for this purpose; but, as modern military efficiency is largely a matter of expense, it was only by the industry of the Uitlanders that the difficulty presented by the enormous expense of carrying out the Transvaal scheme for a large military establishment was overcome.

Besides his desire to throw off British suzerainty, President Krüger desired to enlarge the Transvaal territory in all directions, although his people already had more land than they could occupy, the Boer population of the Transvaal then numbering only about forty thousand and its territory being greater than that of both New York and Pennsylvania. The treaty of 1881 clearly defined the boundaries of the Transvaal; but during the fourteen years beginning with 1881 and ending with 1895 there were six Boer lawless, filibustering raids into the neighboring native negro states under British protection—raids similar to the raid of five hundred British filibusters under Dr. Jameson into the Transvaal at the close of 1895. These six Boer raids were thus in violation of the treaties of 1881 and 1884. Although the treaty of 1881 forbade negro slavery, the Transvaal Boers, in a war with Mapoch, a negro chief on the northern Transvaal frontier, seized about eight thousand blacks and held them as "apprentices."

**Mutual
Accusa-
tions.**

**President
Krüger's
Blow at
Free Com-
merce
and His
Retraction.**

**The
Trans-
vaal's
Military
Estab-
lishment.**

**Six
Great
Boer
Filibus-
tering
Raids.**

**Boer
Raid into
Bechu-
analand.**

The first of the six Boer raids occurred a few months after the treaty of 1881, when lawless Boer raiders whom the Transvaal authorities professed to be unable to control made raids across the western Transvaal frontier into Bechuanaland, wherein within two years they established two little Boer republics known as Stellaland and Goshen. After making many fruitless efforts at negotiation for several years for a peaceful settlement, the British authorities effected an adjustment only by sending an expedition under General Sir Charles Warren into Bechuanaland in 1885, at an expense of two million pounds sterling (about ten million dollars in United States money), and after much disturbance and trouble in Cape Colony. This first Boer raid occurred before the London Convention of 1884 was negotiated, and the settlement of the trouble resulting therefrom was effected only in the year after its negotiation.

**Five
Other
Boer
Raids.**

The London Convention of 1884 defined a rectified boundary of the Transvaal, which the Transvaal, by a special clause, solemnly bound itself to observe faithfully. Notwithstanding this clause, the Transvaal Boers made five other raids into the neighboring negro states under British protection, in utter violation of both the conventions of 1881 and 1884.

**Boer
Raid into
Zululand.**

In the year in which the troubles resulting from the first Boer raid were adjusted—1885—the Boers made a raid into Zululand and established the “New Republic” in the most fertile part of that neighboring land. British intervention proved fruitless; and in 1886 the British authorities recognized the “New Republic,” and it was annexed to the Transvaal. Thus the second Boer raid into neighboring territory was successful, in defiance of the treaties of 1881 and 1884 and of British intervention.

**Boer
Raid into
Swazi-
land.**

In 1887 the Boers made a third raid into the neighboring territory by invading Swaziland, whose independence was guaranteed by the London Convention of 1884. After many unsuccessful incursions into this region, some of which almost caused British armed intervention, President Krüger finally had his way and Swaziland practically became a dependency of the Transvaal Republic.

**Boer
Raid into
Tonga-
land.**

In 1887 also the Boers made a fourth raid into neighboring territory by invading Tongaland, on the south-eastern frontier of the Transvaal; but the Queen of Tongaland asked for the protection of Great Britain, whose suzerainty she accepted, and the fourth Boer raid into neighboring territory ended in failure.

**Boer
Raid into
British
Bechu-
analand.**

In 1890—the year after the grant of a royal charter to Cecil John Rhodes—the Boers made their fifth raid into neighboring territory by organizing an immense trek for the purpose of establishing a Boer republic in the territories of Mr. Rhodes’s chartered company; but this

Boer raid was frustrated by the firmness of the British High Commissioner of South Africa and of Dr. Jameson, who met the Boer raiders on the Limpopo river with a band of the British Bechuanaland Police, while the High Commissioner informed President Krüger that if his people crossed the river as raiders it would mean war.

In 1895 the Boers made their sixth raid into neighboring territory by inroads into the native territories of Lambaan and Umbegeza, on the eastern coast of South Africa, between the boundaries of Zululand and Portuguese South-east Africa; but this attempt at Boer aggression was prevented by the annexation of these territories to British South Africa, whose protectorate thus was extended to the frontier of Portuguese South-east Africa. Thus the last hope of extending Transvaal territory had vanished.

Having just described six great Boer filibustering, lawless and criminal raids into the neighboring negro states under British protection, of which very few people ever have heard, we will now proceed to give an account of the single, solitary British filibustering, lawless and criminal raid into the Transvaal, of which every intelligent person has heard so much about. The fact that the Transvaal Boers engaged in six such great outrageous and lawless enterprises did not justify the British sympathizers with the oppressed Uitlanders in engaging in even a single enterprise of a similar character. By engaging in such a criminal raid, Dr. Jameson and his five hundred raiders proved themselves as bad as the naughty Boers who had engaged in the six great raids to which we just have alluded.

Late in 1895 and early in 1896 the Uitlander agitation for reform had reached such a crisis that a revolutionary rising was threatened at Johannesburg. The leaders of the Uitlander reform movement were British, with one exception, John Hays Hammond, an American mining engineer, who went to South Africa from California.

To aid the threatened Uitlander rising at Johannesburg, Dr. Jameson led a force of five hundred British colonial raiders across the border into the Transvaal; but the raiders were defeated at Doornkop with heavy loss by Transvaal troops and forced to surrender. Dr. Jameson was handed over to the British authorities for punishment, and afterward was tried and convicted in London for a violation of the Foreign Enlistment Act and was given a term of imprisonment.

In consequence of this foolish raid the diplomatic relations between Great Britain and Germany became very strained. The Emperor William II. of Germany sent a telegram to President Krüger congratulating him upon the defeat of the raiders, thus giving currency to rumors of a secret understanding between Germany and the Transvaal and making the British more suspicious of President Krüger's

**Boer
Raid into
Lambaan
and Um-
begeza.**

**One
Great
British
Filibus-
tering
Raid.**

**Crisis at
Johannes-
burg.**

**Dr.
Jame-
son's
Raid
into the
Trans-
vaal.**

**Strained
British-
German
Rela-
tions.**

good faith toward Great Britain. The press of Great Britain and that of Germany both assumed a warlike tone, and a rupture of the peaceful relations between these two Great Powers was threatened; but the good sense of both prevailed, and within a week peaceful relations were restored between them.

Accusa-
tions
against
Chamber-
lain and
Rhodes.

The Rt. Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, the British Colonial Secretary, and Mr. Cecil John Rhodes, the Prime Minister of Cape Colony, the "Uncrowned King of South Africa," were accused loudly by the Boers and by their sympathizers everywhere of not only complicity in the plot for the Jameson raid, but of being the schemers and originators of the whole thing. No accusation whatever was made against Sir Hercules Robinson, the Governor of Cape Colony and British High Commissioner for South Africa. Messrs. Chamberlain and Rhodes both denied the serious charges against them. Mr. Rhodes was accused by persons in England of aiming to establish an English republic in South Africa, independent of Great Britain, which he also denied strongly.

Boer
Rejection
of the
Uitlander
Petition.

The crisis at Johannesburg at the close of 1895, which had incited the Jameson raid, was brought about by the failure of a petition for a redress of grievances, signed by thirty-five thousand Uitlanders and presented to the Transvaal Volksraad, which rejected the petition with insult and ridicule, President Krüger speaking against the petition several times, and one member saying: "The Raad had frequently heard that if the franchise were not extended there would be trouble. I would say: 'Come on and fight! Come on! Come on and have it out; and the sooner the better!'"

Uitlander
Mani-
festo.

Hitherto the capitalists of Johannesburg, with the usual timidity of moneyed interests, held aloof from the reform movement; but now they took part in that movement, thus making revolution a necessity. The day after Christmas, 1895, the demands of the Uitlanders were stated in a manifesto issued by the Transvaal National Union, the reform organization, and were as follows: The establishment of a true republic; a constitution framed by the representatives of the whole people, to be safeguarded against hasty alteration; an equitable franchise law; and the independence of the courts of justice.

Uitlander
Plot.

As they had petitioned and remonstrated in vain for years, many of the Uitlanders, most of whom were British and Americans, plotted to secure redress by force of arms. They had collected arms and ammunition, but never made use of them and never committed any overt act, owing to a misunderstanding in connection with the Jameson raiders, who took the field in their cause before they were ready and thus defeated the plans of the reform party at Johannesburg.

The plot being discovered before the conspirators carried it out, sixty of them, among whom were six Americans, were arrested, im-

prisoned in a filthy jail, and informed that if they did not plead guilty they all would be hanged, but that if they did plead guilty they would be let off with fines. As President Krüger had no judge willing to do his bidding, he imported an unscrupulous one named Gregorowski, who announced that he had come expressly to make it hot for the Uitlanders. After all the prisoners had pleaded guilty the promise made to them was violated; and Judge Gregorowski informed the four leaders, among whom was the American, John Hays Hammond, that he would not sentence them under the statute law, which prescribes too mild a punishment, but that he would sentence them under the unwritten law of the Transvaal, which prescribed death for such an offense. Therefore the four leaders were condemned to death, and all the others were sentenced to various terms of imprisonment and heavy fines.

**Punish-
ment
of the
Uitlander
Leaders.**

Even the Dutch settlers were horrified at this harsh sentence, and hundreds of them poured into Pretoria to remonstrate against it; whereupon President Krüger relented, but announced that his religious scruples forbade that he should commute the death to fines, as that "would be the price of blood," saying that "reverence for my dear Lord forbids that I should be less scrupulous than the priests of Jerusalem." Finally the prisoners were pardoned on agreeing to "subscribe for charities" sums varying from twenty-five thousand to a hundred thousand dollars each for leading men and not less than ten thousand for anybody. All the accused Americans made heavy contributions to "charity," Mr. John Hays Hammond himself paying a hundred thousand dollars. Thus altogether a million dollars were paid over to Paul Krüger for "charity," but the "charities" never turned up. It is said that Mr. Krüger alluded to these Englishmen and Americans accused of treason as "dogs, who, if they are good, will lick my boots."

**Condi-
tional
Pardons.**

Thenceforth President Krüger increased his orders for arms in Europe, ordering a quantity sufficient to arm the whole Dutch population of South Africa, both in and out of the Transvaal, twice over; and the erection of forts was pressed hurriedly. The drill and reorganization of the Transvaal military forces were carried forward under the charge of qualified European instructors. The military alliance between the Transvaal Republic and the Orange Free State was strengthened, and political propaganda in the British colonies of South Africa became more active.

**Trans-
vaal
Army
Reorgan-
ization.**

The criminal folly of the Jameson raid, in their interest, was made the occasion for additional persecutions and oppressions of the Uitlanders; and every effort at reform which they attempted was sternly repressed and treated as treason by the Transvaal government, thus only aggravating the evils of which they complained, while the jeal-

**Situa-
tion
of the
Uitland-
ers.**

ousy and suspicion with which the Boers looked upon them were intensified continually.

Their Denial of Civil Rights.

Besides being denied political rights, the Uitlanders were also practically denied civil rights. For instance, if a Boer would spit into a Uitlander's face in the streets, and the Uitlander would resent by striking the Boer, the Uitlander would be arrested for assault and be fined and imprisoned by a Boer magistrate. If, instead of taking the law into his own hands, the Uitlander had the Boer who had spit in his face arrested, the Boer would swear that he had been assaulted, and in that case also the Uitlander would be fined and imprisoned by the Boer magistrate, and the Boer would escape in any case.

Instance of Boer Justice.

In one case an Irish woman named O'Neill was tarred and feathered and railridden by a Boer mob headed by a Boer magistrate, and when the woman had the magistrate arrested he was sentenced to a nominal imprisonment of a few days, but he did not serve even this short term, as President Krüger immediately pardoned him. Such examples of the administration of justice in the Transvaal were the rule.

No Legal Redress for Uitlanders.

Whenever the Uitlanders held public meetings to consider their grievances and to petition for redress the Boers came in large numbers and disturbed the meetings by loud noises, such as talking, cheering and stamping of feet, so that not a word of the speakers or anything else could be heard or understood; and the Uitlanders had no legal protection or redress, as the Boer police protected and encouraged the mob.

Forced Military Service of the Uitlanders.

British subjects and American citizens who were mere residents of the Transvaal and who did not intend to apply for Transvaal citizenship were forced to serve in the Transvaal army. An American who complained on the ground that he was no Transvaal citizen and did not wish to become one was told that that made no difference so long as he resided in the country; and the Transvaal government paid no attention to the protest of the United States consul, who then advised the man to leave the country, which he did.

President Krüger's Quarrel with Chief Justice Kotze.

After his reëlection to a fourth term of five years, February 3, 1898, President Krüger forgot his promises of conciliation toward Great Britain and the Uitlanders; and one of his first acts was a quarrel with Chief Justice Kotze, of the Transvaal High Court, concerning the executive and judicial powers. By an arbitrary use of his power, in the case of one Brown, an American mine owner, President Krüger confiscated two million dollars of American capital invested in gold mines at Johannesburg; and when the American investors appealed to Chief Justice Kotze against the arbitrary act of the Transvaal President, and the Chief Justice decided against the legality of the President's act, the President removed Kotze and appointed a Chief Justice who would decide according to the wishes of Paul Krüger. When Judge

Kotze threatened to appeal to Great Britain as the paramount power. President Krüger refused to recognize British suzerainty, and considerable correspondence followed between the Transvaal President and British Colonial Secretary Chamberlain.

The shooting of a British subject at Johannesburg by a Transvaal police officer during the Christmas holidays in 1898, and the release of the officer on bail instead of being remanded to jail for murder, was the immediate pretext for public meetings, proclamations and petitions; and serious trouble was averted only by the vigorous action of the British representative in the Transvaal. But back of this were the arbitrary acts of the Transvaal government, such as new taxes upon mining property in the face of the overflowing condition of the Transvaal treasury; the oppressive regulations concerning the laborers from Cape Colony and India, and the drafting of British subjects into the Transvaal armies to fight the native blacks then at war with the Boers, despite the British representative's protest. The Boers were aroused by the threat of the Uitlanders to celebrate January 2, 1899, as "Jameson Day"—a threat which was not carried out.

A mass meeting of the Uitlanders at Johannesburg, December 24, 1898, held for the purpose of drawing up a petition to the British government asking for redress against the tyranny of the Boer police was broken up by bands of armed Boers, who invaded the hall and occupied the galleries, throwing down boxes, chairs and tables upon the assembled Uitlanders, wrecking the interior of the hall and injuring many Uitlanders, the police being passive spectators of the outrage.

Another public meeting of Uitlanders, held on January 13, 1899, to protest against the arrest of the officers of the previous meeting on the charge of violating the Public Meetings Act and to approve of the petition to the British government, also was broken up by a mob of Boers and Afrikanders, who made such demonstrations of hostility when the secretary began reading the petition that not a word of the petition could be heard; and the meeting became a free fight, chairs and benches being broken up and used as weapons and the Uitlanders being driven off, as the police made no effort to preserve order. During the night there were many street fights in Johannesburg.

The situation at Johannesburg was very threatening, as the grievances of the Uitlanders were more serious than ever before and taxation was exceedingly burdensome. The Transvaal had a little war with the negro tribe of Mpetu, which cost about two hundred thousand dollars, but which the Transvaal government made the pretext for the imposition of a war tax of two million dollars, or ten times the actual cost, and which the Uitlanders had to pay. There were heavy taxes on mining profits and mining leases; and the Uitlanders were compelled

**Uitlander
Public
Meetings,
Procla-
mations
and
Petitions.**

**Boer
Outrage
at a
Uitlander
Public
Meeting.**

**Another
Boer
Outrage
at a
Uitlander
Public
Meeting.**

**Intoler-
able
Situation
of the
Uitland-
ers.**

to pay a large poll tax, although they did not have the right to vote. The inhabitants of Johannesburg were denied the right of public assemblage and were obliged to sue out a permit from the Boer police to hold a meeting.

**Uitlander
Petition
to Sir
Alfred
Milner.**

On March 24, 1899, a petition signed by twenty-one thousand six hundred and eighty-four British subjects in the Transvaal was handed to Mr. Conyngham Greene, the British Agent at Pretoria, to be transmitted to Sir Alfred Milner, Governor of Cape Colony and British High Commissioner for South Africa, "for such action as His Excellency might think necessary." Sir Alfred Milner forwarded the petition to Colonial Secretary Chamberlain in London.

**Contents
of This
Petition.**

This petition cited the constant violation of President Krüger's promises concerning reforms; the total lack of protection against mob violence; the law authorizing the Transvaal President to expel British subjects at his will without appeal to the High Court; the total disfranchisement of the entire Uitlander population of Johannesburg, who were ruled by a thousand Boers of the city—in short, the intolerable condition of the Uitlanders, who implored the British government to secure for them the ordinary rights of citizens.

**Demands
of the
French
Press.**

The *Paris Temps*, *Journal des Debats*, *Gazette*, *Coloniale* and other French newspapers voiced the dissatisfaction of the financial interests of Continental Europe with the condition of affairs in the Transvaal Republic, and called upon the British government to obtain "justice for French investors in the Transvaal," or to relinquish the claim of suzerainty and permit foreign powers to protect their own subjects in their rights; and the French stockholders in the Rand gold mines prepared a memorial to the British government, about the middle of May, calling for "protection for foreign capital in the Transvaal." Under such pressure Mr. Chamberlain could not delay action much longer.

**Alleged
British
Military
Plot.**

On May 16, 1899, seven alleged ex-officers of the British army were arrested at Johannesburg on a charge of high treason and were taken to Pretoria, where they were remanded for trial. Affidavits were presented to the court, alleging that two thousand men had been enrolled for military service and were to be supplied with arms in Natal, after which they were to be taken back to the Rand, and, at a signal, were to seize and hold the fort at Johannesburg for twenty-four hours, awaiting the arrival of British troops. The trial of the accused persons failed to show any relation between this obscure plot and any department of the British home or colonial government.

**Bloem-
fontein
Confer-
ence and
Sir Alfred
Milner's
Franchise
Propo-
sals.**

At the suggestion of President Steyn, of the Orange Free State, a conference was held at Bloemfontein, the capital of that republic, between President Krüger and Sir Alfred Milner, the Governor of Cape Colony and British High Commissioner for South Africa, for

the settlement of the franchise question. The conference lasted from May 31 to June 5, 1899, and ended in a disagreement, as was anticipated. Sir Alfred Milner proposed that the franchise be granted to every white man who had been five years in the Transvaal and was prepared to take the oath to obey the laws, to undertake all the obligations of citizenship, to defend the independence of the country and to renounce his citizenship of his native country, and who owned property and was of good character. President Krüger replied that if he granted Sir Alfred Milner's request the Transvaal would be controlled by foreigners and all power taken from the Boers, and made franchise proposals of his own, which were passed by the Transvaal Volksraad before the British authorities had any time to examine them.

These proposals required a seven years' residence in the Transvaal for aliens to obtain the franchise, the applicant being required to signify his intention in writing to the Field Cornet, the Landdrost and the State Secretary. Two years later he might be naturalized, without receiving full citizenship rights, provided he produced a certificate, signed by the Field Cornet, the Landdrost and the Commandant of the district, stating that he never had violated any of the laws of the Republic. If these officials were not well enough informed as to the private life of the applicant then a sworn statement to the same effect, signed by two-thirds of his Boer neighbors, would be required. The certificate then would have to be handed to the State Attorney, who would return it with a legal opinion to the State Secretary. If the legal opinion were favorable the applicant might be granted the franchise; if unfavorable the matter was to be referred to the Executive Council.

Sir Alfred Milner and the Uitlanders regarded this complicated scheme as impracticable, and Mr. Chamberlain proposed another meeting of British and Transvaal delegates to discuss President Krüger's proposed plan. The Transvaal government proposed a new franchise law giving a five year's retrospective franchise on condition that the British government would agree not in future to interfere in the Transvaal's internal affairs; not to insist further on its claims of suzerainty, and to agree to arbitration in controversies between Great Britain and the Transvaal Republic.

Negotiations continued all the summer and early fall of 1899; and in September the relations between Great Britain and the Transvaal became strained, as Great Britain would not relinquish her suzerainty claims, which President Krüger was determined to get rid of. New franchise proposals and counter proposals were made constantly by both parties; but the suzerainty question and the British paramountcy in South Africa gradually became the real issue, all British imperialists

**President
Krüger's
Franchise
Propo-
sals.**

**Further
Proposals
and
Counter
Propo-
sals.**

**Strained
Relations**

recognizing that the British Empire itself was at stake, but Great Britain disclaiming any intention of annexing the Transvaal.

Military
Prepara-
tions on
Both
Sides.

In the meantime military preparations were continued by both parties with great urgency and under the greatest excitement. Uitlanders fled in consternation from Johannesburg, more than fifteen hundred having gone on September 9th. On October 7th armed Boers who had been assembling on the border between the Transvaal and Natal were preparing for a sudden invasion, but were reported as returning home because of scarcity of forage and supplies. The British feared that the Boers suddenly might declare war and attack and ravage the defenseless towns in the British colonies. In pursuance of a British order-in-council, a royal proclamation was issued for the summoning of Parliament and the mobilization of the reserves. All haste was made for gathering and transporting a large British military force to South Africa, and twenty-five thousand troops were ordered immediately to their colors, while General Sir Redvers Henry Buller was appointed to the chief command of the British forces in South Africa. A state of war practically existed for several days before the final diplomatic rupture.

SECTION V.—THE GREAT BRITISH-BOER WAR (A. D. 1899-1902).

Boer
Ultima-
tum and
Invasion
of
British
Terri-
tory.

ON October 9th the Transvaal government presented an ultimatum to Mr. Conyngham Greene, the British Agent at Pretoria, declaring that "Her Majesty's unlawful intervention in the internal affairs of the Republic has caused an intolerable condition of things to arise," and demanding that all points of mutual difference be regulated by arbitration or any other amicable course which may be agreed upon; that the British troops on the frontiers of the Republic be withdrawn instantly, and that all reinforcements which had arrived in South Africa since June 1, 1899, or which were on the way thither be recalled at once; stating that if these demands were not complied with before 5 P. M. on October 11th the Transvaal government would regard the action of the British government as a formal declaration of war. In reply to the Transvaal ultimatum the British government stated that the peremptory demands of the government of the South African Republic were such as it was impossible to discuss. Mr. Conyngham Greene, the British Agent, left Pretoria on the day set for the expiration of the time fixed by the ultimatum and started for Cape Town. On the same day—October 11, 1899—President Steyn, of the Orange Free State, issued a proclamation to his people, denouncing the British

government and calling on them to "stand up as one man against the oppressor and violator of right." On the same day both the Transvaal and Orange Free State forces invaded British territory, crossing their frontiers on both the east and the west, thus beginning an aggressive campaign before the British were prepared, the Boer forces outnumbering the British troops then in South Africa three to one. Thus the war was declared and begun by the Transvaal, and not by Great Britain. It was begun with the invasion of the British colonies of South Africa by the Boers, and not by the invasion of the Boer Republics by the British.

This act of President Krüger was regarded in Great Britain, and in Europe and America generally, by his sympathizers and his opponents, as a false step, liable to unite all parties in Great Britain against him; and it had that effect very largely, as he practically told Great Britain to back down or fight. His declaration that "if the Republics must belong to England the cost will stagger humanity" was borne out by subsequent events. Lord Salisbury and his Cabinet generally had been anxious to avoid a war, and the Boer ultimatum was a great disappointment to them. The British Ministry regarded it with cynical amusement, as an unnecessary assumption, before the general public, of the responsibility for war. The press and people of Continental Europe generally were almost unanimously in sympathy with the Boers and in condemnation of what they called the British selfish greed for gold and land. In the United States public sentiment was divided; some being favorable to Great Britain's general course as just, wise and necessary, and others denouncing it as unjust and impolitic.

It has been charged that the Emperor William II. of Germany secretly urged both parties on to the war, by urging Chamberlain to make demands on Krüger and then urging the Transvaal President to reject the British Colonial Secretary's demands; his object being to exhaust both parties by a fierce war, so that the German colonies in South-west Africa and East Africa would have no formidable rivals, and so that the Boers in those German colonies would be in no condition to make trouble for him.

It has also been charged by the friends of the Boers everywhere that the Uitlanders wanted the suffrage so that they could vote away the independence of the Transvaal by voting for its annexation to the British Empire. This the British and the Uitlanders had denied resolutely all along. However this may be, the United States obtained its largest State and its first island possession in that way. Americans settled in the Mexican province of Texas, at the invitation of the Mexican government, and rebelled because they were dissatisfied with Santa Anna's government, and established their independence, and afterwards

**Effect
Abroad**

**Charge
against
Emperor
William
II.**

**Parallel
Cases.**

got their independent republic annexed to the United States, all with the encouragement and approval of the American people. American capitalists in Hawaii got possession of the government of those islands and established a so-called republic, in which the native Hawaiians had no voice whatever, and afterwards got their insular country annexed to the United States, being all along encouraged and sustained by the American people and even being aided in their revolution by American blue jackets. So, then, if the very worst charged against the British be true it would be just what Americans did in two instances with the national approval.

Citizen-
ship.

It has also been charged that the Uitlanders wanted to be Transvaal citizens and British subjects at the same time; but this is not so, as Sir Alfred Milner himself said that the moment the Briton applies for citizenship of another country he ceases to be a British subject. He did say, however, that it was unjust to require a man to be without a country for fourteen years and longer.

Diamond
and Gold
Mines.

It is often said by the Boers and their sympathizers everywhere that the whole trouble had been brought about by unscrupulous British capitalists who wanted to get possession of the diamond and gold mines of South Africa. But the Kimberley diamond mines, which supply ninety-eight per cent. of the diamonds of the world's commerce, were in British territory, just across the western boundary of the Orange Free State; and the Johannesburg gold mines, in the Transvaal, were all owned by foreign capitalists, nine-tenths of whom were British. So, then, as the British capitalists had both the diamond mines and the gold mines, they would not have needed to go to war to get possession of them, while they jeopardized their own property by the war.

Uitlander
Enter-
prise.

The Uitlanders had supplied all the industrial energy which developed the Transvaal, while the Boers reserved all the rights of government and all the emoluments of official position. The aspirations of the Uitlanders for a voice in the government under which they lived and which taxed them heavily was the great direct cause of the war; but at the bottom of the trouble was the century-old race hatred between the English and Dutch in South Africa and the desire of each for supremacy in that quarter, although the Boers claimed that they were fighting for the preservation of their national independence, while the British contended that they were fighting for the equal political equality of all white men from the Cape to the Zambesie and for the preservation of their empire in South Africa. The Roman Catholic Bishop of Kimberley said: "I am not an Englishman, as you know, nor are my sympathies in general with England. But in this case I do believe that England will do credit to our common humanity by forcing a small state calling itself a republic to give equal rights to all."

After taking his warlike action President Krüger expelled all Uitlanders who refused to fight in the Transvaal cause and confiscated their property. Those who remained were forced under rifle and stock whip into the Transvaal armies. They gave horrible accounts of the cruelties inflicted upon their people. Mr. Webber, a Danish subject, published an account in the principal newspapers of Denmark of how he saw a little girl trampled to death and how he saw men, women and children beaten with the butt end of rifles, stripped, spat upon and deprived of food or drink. Mr. Webber was one of seventeen hundred persons who were expelled in one batch and deprived of almost everything that they possessed. Such was a foreigner's account of the sufferings of the Uitlanders.

**Sufferings
of the
Uitland-
ers.**

Though it seemed to be generally conceded that the little Boer commonwealth finally would have to succumb to the colossal British Empire, and no matter how great might be the Boer success in the first conflicts the Transvaal so much more surely would be overwhelmed in the end, still it was expected that the Boers could offer able and stubborn resistance to British forces numbering sixty thousand men; the number which a British army officer, Lord Cecil Douglas Compton, said would be required to subdue them and bring them to terms. This military expert carefully studied the Boers in their own country, and he frankly said that considerations of a purely military character "operate to make us chary of rushing into a campaign which must present the most formidable obstacles and involve questions of transport, supply and strategy that might stagger a military expert." This British officer, who was a captain of lancers, said of the Boers that "they are magnificent fighters"—a fact very well known. Their great passion for hunting has made them expert marksmen, and they are born rough riders and possess unsurpassed courage and tenacity. The same British officer said: "Individually they are as good military stuff as the world possesses." They were fully armed, and some experts pronounced them the best soldiers in the world. The Boer Republics were on a small scale what the Great Powers of Continental Europe are on a large scale—military camps. The money which the Boers obtained by taxation of the Uitlanders had been expended in purchasing war material and in preparing themselves for the conflict which they regarded as inevitable. The Boers were thoroughly convinced of the justice of their cause, and were willing to die to a man at the order of Paul Krüger.

**Boer
Strength.**

In the east the Transvaal and the Orange Free State Boers under General Joubert, the Transvaal Vice President, invaded Natal. The inferior British forces fell back as the Boers advanced, and the invaders at once occupied Newcastle after its evacuation by its British

**Boer
Invasion
of Natal.**

garrison. The British and Boer forces first came into collision near Acton Homes, about sixteen miles from Ladysmith, on October 18th.

**Boer
Invasion
of Cape
Colony.**

In the west the Boers of the two Republics under General Cronje invaded the northern part of Cape Colony and destroyed the railway at different points, thus severing communication between Mafeking, Vryburg and Rhodesia on the one hand and Cape Colony on the other. Both Kimberley and Mafeking were isolated and closely besieged by the invaders, Cecil John Rhodes being among the besieged in Kimberley. The garrison of Mafeking was commanded by Colonel Baden-Powell. There was some skirmishing north of Mafeking. General Cronje bombarded Mafeking on October 16th and at other times thereafter. On October 12th a British armored train conveying two 7-pounder guns from Cape Town was attacked and captured by Boer artillery about four miles south of Mafeking.

**Sieges of
Kimber-
ley and
Mafeking.**

**Native
Animos-
ity to the
Boers.**

Four native tribes in South Africa—the Basutos, the Swazis, the Zulus and the Kaffirs—who had suffered wrongs and oppression from the slaveholding and slave-trading Boers, felt a deep-rooted animosity toward the two Republics and were ready to take advantage of the Anglo-Boer war to rise against the Boers, but were dissuaded therefrom by the British civil and military authorities, who feared that a native rising would kindle a general race conflagration in South Africa, in which the black natives would be arrayed against the white settlers. All these native races had suffered intolerable wrongs from the Boers, who had driven them from their homes and seized their country and stolen many of their people for slaves, and were eager to seize their opportunity for revenge. Both British and Boer accused each other of intriguing with the natives for aid. Maseru, the capital of Basutoland, was placed in a state of defense by the British, in anticipation of Boer attacks.

**British
Call to
Arms.**

Prime Minister Schreiner, of Cape Colony, issued a circular to the field cornets, requesting them to soothe the race feeling and prove themselves and their people loyal subjects of Queen Victoria. In the meantime Great Britain was hurrying troops to South Africa from England and British India; while Canada, Australia, New Zealand and other British colonies were showing their loyalty to the Mother Country by offering their contingents to uphold the flag of the British Empire and what they regarded as the cause of civilization, progress and equal rights in South Africa; and General Sir Redvers Henry Buller was on his way to the Cape to assume the chief command of all the British forces in the field against the Boers. In Great Britain the men of the First Class Reserve responded in large numbers to the call for service, and the Militia Reserves were to replenish British garrisons at home denuded of the line battalions sent to South Africa.

The British government was sustained by public sentiment at home and in all the colonies of the Empire, which has done more for the spread of civilization, liberty and justice than all other human agencies put together. A crowded public meeting was held in London on October 16th, at the call of the Lord Mayor. Sir John Lubbock said in a speech that in the diplomatic negotiations Colonial Secretary Chamberlain had combined the meekness of Moses with the patience of Job. On October 12th The Rt. Hon. Herbert Henry Asquith, in an address to his constituents at Newburg, said that, as British subjects and patriots, they must stand together with an unbroken front and see that the conflict was prosecuted with promptitude and energy. The Rt. Hon. Leonard Henry Courtney, in a speech at Liskeard, regretted the Boer ultimatum, though he could not honestly condemn it; but a motion of confidence in the honorable gentleman was rejected by the audience. The opposition in Parliament to the British government's policy came from some of the Liberals and Irish Home Rulers—Sir William Vernon Harcourt and Mr. Labouchere among the Liberals, and John Redmond, John Dillon, Michael Davitt and other Irish leaders; Mr. Davitt going so far as to resign his seat in the House of Commons as a protest against the British policy.

War and
Anti-war
Feeling in
Greater
Britain.

Sir Edward Grey, M.P., in a speech at Glasgow on October 25th, said that, after a careful study of the Blue Books and of the whole negotiations between the British and the Transvaal governments, he held that Great Britain was in the right; that the attitude and aims of the governments of the two Boer Republics had made war inevitable, though doubtless mistakes had been committed by the British government in the course of the negotiations.

Sir
Edward
Grey's
Speech

The first serious engagement of the war occurred at Glencoe and Dundee, in Natal, October 20th, resulting in great success to the British arms, though at heavy loss in killed and wounded. During the 18th and 19th the Boer movements indicated a design on their part to concentrate as large a force as they could muster from the commandos operating from Newcastle and the Buffalo River for an attack on the British positions at Glencoe and Dundee; while it was also evident that the Orange Free State Boers, issuing from the Drakensberg passes, would menace General Sir George Stuart White's camp at Ladysmith. The latter part of the plan was but partly executed. After advancing in considerable strength and pushing back the British patrols, the Orange Free State Boers fell back the next day; but a Boer force advanced from the direction of Newcastle, took up a strong position on Smith Hill, in front of Glencoe and Dundee, and opened an artillery fire on the British camp at Glencoe early on the morning of the 20th. The British artillery replied and soon silenced the Boer

Battle of
Glencoe.

cannon, which was served badly and did no harm to the British. The King's Royal Rifles and the Royal Irish Fusiliers formed opposite the Boer position, advanced against it under cover of the fire of the British batteries and carried the Boer position after severe fighting, driving the Boers in headlong flight down Smith Hill and capturing their cannon. The British lost forty-three killed and one hundred and eighty-one wounded; among whom was General Sir William Penn Symons, who was mortally wounded, being shot through the stomach and dying several days afterward. A squadron of the Eighteenth Hussars who pursued the Boers in their flight after the battle of Glencoe were made prisoners by the retreating Boers.

Battle of
Elands-
laagte.

Notwithstanding their severe repulse at Glencoe, the Boers persevered in their attempt to cut off Glencoe and Dundee from Ladysmith; and the next day, October 21st, was fought the severe battle of Elandslaagte, in which the British were victorious. On the 20th the Boer commando descended from Biggarsberg and seized Elandslaagte, midway between Dundee and Ladysmith, and cut off communication between the two places. On the 21st General Sir George Stuart White, leaving Major-General Hunter with a sufficient force at Ladysmith, sent a detachment consisting of the Fifth Lancers, a squadron of the Fifth Dragoon Guards, the Imperial Light Horse, two squadrons of the Natal Carbineers, three batteries of artillery, the Devonshire Regiment, the Manchester Regiment and half-battalions of the Gordon Scotch Highlanders to attack the Boers at Elandslaagte. General White himself accompanied the detachment, which was under the immediate command of General French. The Boers occupied a strong position on the hills south-east of Elandslaagte Station. The conflict began in earnest about 3:30 P. M., and after a protracted artillery duel the British infantry assailed and carried the Boer position, the Boers falling back after making a stubborn resistance. The British cavalry charged the retreating Boers three times, doing great execution, and capturing the Boer camp, with two cannon, tents, wagons, horses and a number of prisoners. The British loss was again very heavy.

Battle of
Reit-
fontein.

On October 23d General Sir George Stuart White moved out with a strong force to cover the movement of the British column under General Yule which was falling back on Ladysmith, the Boers having taken up a strong position on the main road from Dundee to Ladysmith. The next day General White found the Boers in a strong position at Reitfontein, west of the road and about seven miles from Ladysmith. General White defeated the Boers at Reitfontein, thus preventing them from attacking General Yule's column. He then concentrated the British forces at Ladysmith, where, with about nine thousand men, he

was then closely besieged by about thirteen thousand Boers under General Joubert, being in a perilous position, his communications with the outside world being cut off in every direction by the Boers, who for some time bombarded the town daily, the British making a vigorous defense by means of naval guns.

Siege of
Lady-
smith.

In Northern Cape Colony operations were also in progress. The Boers were repulsed near Mafeking in the meantime; while Kimberley was closely besieged by Boers under General Cronje, who proclaimed the annexation of that part of Cape Colony to the Orange Free State.

Kimber-
ley and
Mafeking.

While the Boer force under General Joubert was investing Ladysmith, some of the Boer commandos were cutting communications between Ladysmith and Pietermaritzburg, the capital of Natal. On October 28th a captive balloon was raised over the beleaguered town, thus enabling General White to locate the besiegers' works. General White detailed two brigade divisions of the Royal Artillery, with five infantry battalions and General French's cavalry, to attack a position in which the Boers had mounted cannon on the 22d. It was discovered that the Boers had since evacuated that position, but the British detachment was assailed vigorously by a large force of Boers with many cannon. The British drove the Boers back several miles, but failed to reach the laagers. After several hours' fighting, the main body of the British detachment returned to their cantonments unmolested. But on the night of the 29th General White sent out Colonel Carlton, with a mountain battery and some of the Royal Irish Fusiliers and some troops of the Gloucester Regiment, to take up a position in the hills on his left, or southern flank, and to march up Bell's Spruit and seize Nicholson's Nek for the purpose of turning the Boers' right flank. When this British detachment was at Farquher's Farm, two miles from its objective point, two boulders were rolled down a hill and some rifle shots were fired, thus causing the mules hitched to the ammunition wagons and to the heavy batteries to stampede, with practically the entire artillery equipment and ammunition. The infantry battalions fixed bayonets and seized a hill, which they defended until 3 P. M. Their ammunition then became exhausted, and they were surrounded by the enemy and forced to surrender. The British loss were forty-two killed and one hundred and fifty wounded; the Boer loss thirty-three killed and sixty wounded. General Yule's column evacuated Dundee and joined General White at Ladysmith, the movement being executed so admirably and with such secrecy that the Boers did not discover it and go in pursuit for twenty-four hours. The Boers occupied Dundee on October 30th.

British
Disaster
at Nich-
olson's
Nek.

In the meantime operations were being conducted vigorously in Northern Cape Colony. Vryburg had been evacuated by the British

**Sieges of
Kimberley
and
Mafeking.**

and occupied by the Boers. On October 24th the Kimberley garrison made a sally and had a severe engagement with a Boer force of seven hundred men to the north of the town; the Boers being defeated and many of them killed, their commander among them, and the British loss being three killed and twenty-one wounded. The Boers closely besieged Kimberley and destroyed the railway line along the western frontier. On October 17th the Boers bombarded Mafeking four hours and killed a dog. On the 23d they bombarded the town again, but did little damage. The Boers themselves lost five hundred and thirteen men at Mafeking.

**Rhodesian
Frontier.**

In the meantime there was some fighting on the Rhodesian frontier; and the British patrols retired to Tuli, as the Boers were in considerable force. Boer patrols were harrying the natives and stealing cattle.

**Canadian
and Aus-
tralian
Contin-
gents.**

General Sir Redvers Henry Buller arrived at Cape Town on October 31st. The departure of the Canadian contingent from Quebec was the occasion for a great popular demonstration of Canadian loyalty to the British Empire; and stirring speeches were made by Lord Minto, the Viceroy of Canada, and Sir Wilfred Laurier, the Canadian Prime Minister. The French Canadians were as loyal to Great Britain as were the English Canadians in this emergency. The contingents from Victoria and Tasmania embarked at Melbourne for South Africa on October 28th, amid great popular enthusiasm. The troops were addressed by Lord Brassey before they started. On the same day the first portion of the New South Wales contingent sailed from Sydney. The Queensland contingent also sailed. The Emperor William II. of Germany, who is Colonel-in-Chief of the Royal Dragoons, sent to the Lieutenant-Colonel the following telegram: "Bid my farewell to the regiment. May you all return safe and well."

**Lord
Rose-
bery's
Speeches.**

Lord Rosebery, the leader of the Liberal party, in a speech at Bath on October 27th, said that in time of war all British subjects, of whatever party, should trust the man at the helm and present a united front to the enemy; that the Transvaal question was not a complicated one; that it was the effort of a nation or a community to put back the hands of the clock. In a speech at Edinburgh on November 1st Lord Rosebery again referred to the war in South Africa.

**European
Antipa-
thy to
Great
Britain.**

Ladysmith having been invested by the Boers, and telegraphic communication therefore interrupted, there was for some days a virtual absence of authentic news from the field in Natal. In the absence of trustworthy news the manufacture of false intelligence proceeded actively on the Continent of Europe, where the feeling against Great Britain was as hostile as it was to the United States during the Spanish-American War. At one time it was said that Ladysmith had surrendered to the Boers. At another time it was said that General White

had made a sortie and suffered an annihilating defeat. A Berlin dispatch in the Paris *Liberte* announced the capture of Mafeking by the Boers and asserted that General White was mortally wounded.

On Sunday, November 5th, General Sir Redvers Henry Buller received a message from General White by pigeon-post, dated two days before, reporting that on the 2d there was a successful reconnoissance and that on the 3d a British detachment under General Brocklehurst engaged the Boers south-west of Ladysmith for several hours with a small British loss. Fuller accounts of these actions were received afterwards. In the British sortie from Ladysmith on November 2d the Fifth Lancers, with a large field battery, found an Orange Free State laager at Tatham's Farm and shelled it vigorously, driving out the Boers and capturing their camp equipage, the Boers being cut to pieces by the British cavalry. In the action between Ladysmith and Dewdrop, on the 3d, General Brocklehurst, with the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Hussars, the volunteer cavalry, the mounted infantry and a battery, found the Boers in force, holding a laager, with cannon. After being reinforced by the Fifth Dragoon Guards, Royston's Horse and two batteries, General Brocklehurst drove the Boers from all their positions and shelled three guns into silence. The Imperial Light Horse pressed too far into a gulley and were extricated by the Fifth Dragoon Guards. The British loss was small. The Boers fell back toward Colenso, which the British had evacuated. In these engagements near Ladysmith the Boers lost heavily, their losses being estimated at eight hundred, at one thousand and even two thousand. There also was fighting near Bulwana and at Bester's Station. The Boers continued to bombard Ladysmith without much effect. Lieutenant Egerton, of the British warship *Powerful*, died of a shell wound.

The Boers proclaimed the Upper Tugela division of Natal to be annexed to the Orange Free State, and they invaded Zululand, hoisting their flag. The Boers also invaded Cape Colony from Bethulie, occupied Colesberg and held Norval's Pont and Philippolis bridges over the Orange River, November 4th. The British concentrated troops at De Aar Junction to repel the Boers invasion of Cape Colony. The British military authorities proclaimed martial law in the district occupied by the British troops between the Orange River railway bridge and the De Aar. On November 9th the Boers blew up two railroad bridges—Vanzyl bridge, seven miles from Norval's Pont, and Atchertang railway bridge—and cut telegraph wires.

In the meantime Kimberley and Mafeking were as closely besieged as was Ladysmith. The Boer forces investing Kimberley were being reinforced constantly and frequently bombarded the town. The Boers

Defense
of Lady-
smith.

Boer
Invasions
of
Zululand
and Cape
Colony.

Defenses
of Kim-
berley
and
Mafeking.

blew up the dynamite stores of the De Beers Company, seven miles from Kimberley. The garrisons of both Kimberley and Mafeking were making as heroic defenses against the besieging Boer forces as was Ladysmith. On November 9th the Boers captured part of Kimberley's food. The diamond mines at Kimberley were said to have been injured by the bombardment. At Mafeking the British garrison, under the able leadership of Colonel Baden-Powell, was making daily sorties, always repulsing the Boers. Colonel Baden-Powell captured a number of horses and mules from the Boers. In a sortie from Mafeking on November 13th Captain Fitz-Clarence, of the Third Royal Fusiliers, and Lieutenant Swinton were killed.

**Skirmish
at
Belmont.**

There was activity in other quarters. On the Rhodesian frontier there was more skirmishing. The railway in the Orange Free State was wrecked completely. On November 11th there was a skirmish at Belmont, near the Orange River, in which Colonel C. E. Keith-Falconer, of the Northumberland Fusiliers, was killed and Lieutenants F. Beven, H. C. Hall and C. C. Wood and two privates of the North Lancashire Regiment were wounded.

**Bombard-
ment and
Invest-
ment of
Ladys-
mith.**

In the meantime the Boers pressed the siege of Ladysmith with vigor and fiercely bombarded the city daily. Great heroism was manifested by the gunners on both sides. The British garrison repulsed the besieging Boers in a number of brilliant sorties. After the evacuation of Colenso by the British, on November 4th, the Boers held possession of the Colenso and Durban Railroad and the bridge over the Tugela River, thus cutting off White's retreat from Ladysmith. White was surrounded and could communicate with General Buller at Durban only by means of carrier pigeons. Buller's orders to White were: "Hold Ladysmith till the last man drops." The Boers moved a siege train on Ladysmith and were preparing for a desperate assault on the beleaguered town. They were strengthened constantly by the arrival of fresh reinforcements and were straining every nerve to capture the town and garrison. On November 14th the Boers were repulsed in an attempt to make a closer investment of the town, being driven from their guns with the loss of five killed and two wounded, while there were no casualties on the British side. The Boer shells did no damage to the town. The British batteries on both the north and south sides of Ladysmith vigorously shelled the Boer batteries, which as vigorously returned the fire. Severe fighting occurred at Ladysmith on November 15th and 16th, the Boers losing heavily, while the British loss was small. In the fight of the 15th the Boers attempted to reach the north of Ladysmith with a large force, but were unable to make any headway against a well-sustained fire of the British riflemen and Maxims. A British detachment afterward moved around the Boer flank, thus

**Boer
Repulses.**

causing the Boers to retire under a deadly fusilade with very heavy losses, large numbers of their dead and wounded being said to have been left on the field and a number of prisoners being captured. The British losses were very small.

On November 16th an armored train from Colenso was ambushed and derailed by the Boers, and one hundred and fifty British troops were missing. On the same day Lieutenant Winston Churchill, son of the late distinguished Lord Randolph Churchill, was taken prisoner by the Boers.

**Armored
Train
Am-
bushed.**

In the meantime the Boers were also investing Estcourt, south of Ladysmith, and were preparing to besiege that town, which was defended by a strong garrison of British troops. The Boers assailed the town on November 18th, but the British naval guns soon compelled them to fall back. The next day a detachment of British infantry under Major Thorneycroft made a sortie from the town, but without any material result.

**Defense of
Estcourt.**

The Boers now had over fifty thousand troops in the field. Transports were constantly sailing from various British ports with troops for the seat of war, and by the middle of November forty thousand had arrived in South Africa and over ten thousand had landed at Durban. Large Boer forces marched southward to check the British advance all along the line under Generals Lord Methuen, Clery, Hildyard and Gatacre.

**British
Rein-
force-
ments.**

In the meantime the Boers overran Natal and threatened many important points. The British advance was impeded by the lack of cavalry, and the Boers were fortifying many strong positions. Large Boer forces were investing Estcourt and other places and menacing Pietermaritzburg, the capital of Natal. The Boers held the railroad from Escourt to the Mooi River and occupied Belmont, Colesberg and Highlands Station in force. They were reinforced by large numbers of disaffected Dutch from Cape Colony, who occupied the town of Lady Grey and other places. They cut off two portions of the Ladysmith relieving force from their base of supplies and were occasioning constant surprises.

**Boer
Move-
ments.**

On November 22d and 23d the Boers shelled the British camp at the Mooi River, in Natal, and heavy artillery duels were in progress there those two days. In Northern Cape Colony they bombarded Kimberley daily. On November 22d detachments of British cavalry, with two Maxims and two field guns, under Major Scott Turner and Captain May, together with the townguard of Beaconsfield, opposite Kimberley, made a reconnaissance and were attacked by two hundred and fifty Boers in a kloof on Alexander's Fontein farm, Captain Bodley being wounded and two horses being killed.

**Opera-
tions at
Mooi
River and
Kimber-
ley.**

**Tugela
River
and
Mafeking.**

On November 23d three hundred Boers were repulsed in an attack on one hundred and forty British at the Tugela River, a British sergeant being wounded. The situation at Mafeking was becoming serious, the Boers bombarding the town daily and continually drawing their lines closer. Sir Alfred Milner issued a proclamation to the people of Cape Colony, commending the Dutch inhabitants of the colony for their loyalty to Queen Victoria and to the British flag in this emergency.

**Battle of
Belmont.**

On November 22d and 23d was fought the important battle of Belmont, in which seven thousand British troops under General Lord Methuen gained a great victory over five thousand Boers. The Boers shelled the British advance body on the 22d, and the British artillery shelled the Boer position on a hill, which was captured with two cannon, the Boers losing thirty men killed and wounded. At dawn the next day the British attacked the Boers in their strongly-intrenched position and stormed and carried three ridges in succession. The Boer loss in killed and wounded was heavy, and the victorious British took forty prisoners and many horses, cows and sheep. The British loss was about two hundred. Among the British wounded were General Fetherstonhaugh and Lieutenant-Colonel Crabbe, of the Grenadier Guards. The Grenadier Guards and the Northumberland Regiment showed great heroism. Great valor was displayed on both sides, but the Boers could not stand the British bayonet charge. The British took possession of the Boer laager and destroyed the Boer stores and ammunition. The Boers hoisted a white flag over their second position, whereupon Lieutenant Willoughby, of the Coldstream Guards, stood up and was shot down immediately. The Boers did this treacherous act the second and third time. This treacherous use of flags of truce aroused great indignation among the British, and General Lord Methuen protested to the Boer commander against it and against the use of dum-dum bullets. Great rejoicing was caused in England by General Lord Methuen's victory over the Boers at Belmont and the defeat and death of the Khalifa in battle with the Anglo-Egyptian army under General Lord Kitchener, near Godid, in the Egyptian Soudan, on November 25th.

**Battle of
Graspan.**

Proceeding northward General Lord Methuen again defeated the Boers at Graspan on November 25th, when he drove twenty-five hundred Boers with six cannon and two machine guns from their position after some hours' hard fighting. As the Boers retreated the Ninth Lancers sought to intercept them, but failed. The British losses were very severe, especially those of the Naval Brigade. Commander Ethelston, of the warship *Powerful*; Major Plumbe and Captain Senior, of the marines, were killed. Altogether the Naval Brigade had

four officers and ten seamen and marines killed and two officers, thirteen petty officers and seamen and twenty-six marines wounded.

On November 28th General Lord Methuen won a third victory after severe fighting with the Boers at the Modder River, the Boer forces having concentrated there to arrest his advance for the relief of Kimberley. The Boers numbered eight thousand and were strongly entrenched, with two large cannon and four Krupp cannon. The struggle was desperate and was described by Methuen as "the bloodiest battle of the century." After a battle of ten hours the Boers were driven from their intrenchments, and General Pole-Carew succeeded in getting a small party across the Modder River. The British loss was eighty-four killed, three hundred and eighty-eight wounded and six missing. The Boer loss was said to be one hundred and fifty killed and many more wounded, while seventy were made prisoners. The Scots Guards lost many men and a Maxim gun. After many hours' fighting, the Sutherland Highlanders and part of the Ninth Brigade crossed the river at dusk and occupied a strong position on the opposite bank, while the British artillery shelled the Boer intrenchments. The Boers vigorously replied to the British bombardment; but early the next morning the Scots Guards crossed the river as the Boers had evacuated their position. The Boers numbered eleven thousand men and were commanded by General Cronje in person. Lord Methuen remained at the Modder River to rebuild the bridge which had been destroyed by the Boers, and he was reinforced by Highlanders and cavalry.

**Battle of
Modder
River.**

On November 25th the Kimberley garrison made a successful sortie against the besieging Boers. The Boers retired from Estcourt about this time, and the railway was reopened. On November 23d there was a skirmish south of Estcourt between the British force under General Hildyard and the Boer commandos, the British losing eleven men killed, sixty-seven wounded, eight prisoners and one missing. On the same day fighting occurred at Tugela Drift, where more than two hundred Boers were repulsed by one hundred and forty Natal troops, the Boers losing heavily. The Boers were now driven north of the Mooi River. The sieges of Ladysmith, Kimberley and Mafeking were being pressed with vigor by the Boers.

**Boer
Repulses
at Kim-
berley,
Estcourt
and
Tugela
Drift.**

General Gatacre, advancing from the south, had occupied Bushman-shoek on November 27th with a battalion of infantry and some mounted infantry, his main body being at Putter's Kraal. The Boers had retired in the direction of Molteno. The Boers' commando at Barkly East was said to include at least two hundred colonial rebels.

**General
Gatacre's
Advance.**

In Bechuanaland, on November 13th, Kuruman was attacked by fifty Boers, who were driven off, with a loss of thirty killed and twenty-eight wounded, after six days' and nights' fighting, the British loss

**Boer
Repulse
at
Kuruman.**

being one killed and one wounded. On November 19th the Boers suddenly disappeared.

Defense of Mafeking.

On November 28th a Boer laager west of Kimberley was captured. Major Scott Turner, another officer and twenty-one non-commissioned officers and men were killed. The Boers were bombarding Mafeking in a desultory manner, and on November 22d they were repulsed in an assault upon the outside trenches of the town. By November 27th the Boer investing force had ceased to attempt any serious operations against the town. Colonel Baden-Powell was ably conducting the defense of Mafeking.

Defense of Ladysmith.

The British relieving force under General Sir Redvers Henry Buller was pushing steadily towards Ladysmith. The Boers were concentrating to oppose him at Grobler's Kloof, near Colenso. The Tugela railway bridge at Colenso had been destroyed, but not the road bridge. A corps of colonial scouts to check Boer raiding was formed at Durban. General Clery arrived at Frere on December 1st and assumed the command there. The Boers were still vigorously bombarding Ladysmith, but without much effect. On December 8th the British made a successful sortie from Ladysmith, stormed a hill at Lombardskop, silenced several Boer cannon and captured a Maxim gun.

Three Great British Reverses.

We are now entering on a period of British reverses lasting over two months, beginning on December 10, 1899. The British suffered three severe defeats in different quarters in South Africa in one week in December, 1899, their three relieving columns having successively encountered serious reverses—the defeat of General Sir William Forbes Gatacre at Stormberg Junction on December 10th; the defeat of General Lord Methuen at Magersfontein on December 11th, and the defeat of General Sir Redvers Henry Buller at Colenso on December 15th.

General Gatacre's Defeat at Stormberg Junction.

Early on Sunday morning, December 10, 1899, the smallest of the three British relieving forces, under General Gatacre, advancing to invade the Orange Free State, in an attempt to surprise the Boers near Stormberg Junction, in the north of Cape Colony, by a night attack, was ambushed, defeated and utterly routed, retreating in disorder to Molteno, whence it had made a long, wearisome forced march on Saturday night for the purpose of attack. The British loss was over six hundred and fifty in killed, wounded and missing. The scene of this British defeat in Cape Colony was about two hundred miles south-east of Kimberley and about two hundred and fifty miles south-west of Ladysmith.

Lord Methuen's Defeat at Magersfontein.

The next day, Monday, December 11, 1899, the next in size of the British relieving columns, that under General Lord Methuen, numbering about twelve thousand men, and designed for the relief of Kimberley, the seat of the great De Beers diamond mines, and where Cecil

Rhodes was penned up by the besieging Boers, met with a serious reverse at Magersfontein, near the scene of Lord Methuen's victory on the Modder River on November 28th. After the battle of November 28th Lord Methuen's force remained on the battlefield, recuperating from the terrible loss in that action. This army left its camp on Sunday evening, marching in a north-easterly direction to attack the most easterly portion of the Boer position, held by General Cronje. Before daybreak on Monday morning, December 11th, at Magersfontein, two hundred yards from what the British supposed was the Boer position, and while still marching in close order, a heavy fire from both flanks was poured upon the British van, consisting of the Highland Brigade. The British had marched into another bloody Boer ambush and were forced to fall back with a loss of nine hundred and sixty-three men; General Wauchope, commander of the Highland Brigade, being killed. The battle had lasted the whole day; and the next day, Tuesday, December 12th, General Lord Methuen withdrew to his former camp on the Modder River.

Finally, on Friday, December 15, 1899, the largest British relieving force, that under General Sir Redvers Henry Buller, the British commander-in-chief in South Africa, numbering twenty-three thousand men, advancing to the relief of Ladysmith, was severely repulsed in an attempt to force a passage over the Tugela River, at Colenso, being driven back with the loss of eleven hundred and sixty-seven men after desperate fighting. In his retreat from his position General Buller was obliged to abandon eleven heavy cannon. Thus the effort for the relief of Ladysmith failed, and General Buller was obliged to remain inactive until he had recuperated his great losses. This third great British reverse within a week was the climax of this series of disasters.

The three great British reverses just mentioned greatly elated and encouraged the Boers and caused great gloom in London; but the spirit of the British nation did not sink under these disasters, and the patriotic war feeling of the English people manifested itself in this crisis. Nowhere was there visible any disposition to relinquish the struggle, but instead there was a determination to make every sacrifice to uphold the dignity and prestige of the British Empire and to bring the war to a successful conclusion.

The British Ministry decided upon heroic measures to recover lost prestige in South Africa and to stamp out every vestige of rebellion among the Dutch population of Cape Colony. The three greatest British generals of the time were Lords Wolseley, Roberts and Kitchener, all of them being Irishmen. Lord Wolseley was the British commander-in-chief. Lord Roberts had been the British commander-in-

**General
Buller's
Defeat at
Colenso.**

**British
Resolu-
tion and
Patriot-
ism.**

**Lords
Wolseley,
Roberts
and
Kitch-
ener.**

chief in India for a score of years. Lord Kitchener had acquired fame in the last few years by overthrowing the Khalifa and restoring peace to the Egyptian Soudan, which had been convulsed for a score of years by the wars caused by the Mahdi, the Khalifa and their followers.

British
Prepara-
tions.

It was now determined to send Lords Roberts and Kitchener to South Africa, Roberts to be commander-in-chief, and Kitchener to be his chief of staff. Just after his appointment Lord Roberts received the sad news that his only son had died of wounds received in the battle of Colenso. There already were eighty thousand British troops in South Africa, and fifty thousand more were to be sent from England, India, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and other British colonies. These fifty thousand new troops and twenty thousand then on the way to South Africa would give Field-Marshal Lord Roberts one hundred and fifty thousand men. There was the greatest patriotic enthusiasm throughout Great Britain and her colonies, and volunteers came forward by thousands.

Imperial
Yeo-
manry
and Vol-
unteers.

The British government had now completed all preparations for mobilizing an Eighth Division, and many more of the Yeomanry and Volunteers throughout Great Britain offered their services than could be accepted. Local funds for the equipment of the Imperial Yeomanry were raised, and by the close of the year 1899 over seventy-eight thousand pounds had been subscribed for the equipment and transport of the City of London Imperial Volunteer Corps. Colonel Mackinnon, Assistant Adjutant-General for the Home District, was assigned to command the regiment. The response from the Metropolitan Volunteer Corps to the invitation from the City Corporation to join the regiment was so enthusiastic that the strength of the regiment was raised to fourteen hundred men. The government of British India offered to increase its contingent in South Africa by a regiment of cavalry and two batteries of artillery. This offer was accepted, and the Sixteenth Lancers were ordered to start for the seat of war. An additional requisition for two thousand horses for the mounted infantry was complied with. The new Australian contingent consisted of over eleven hundred men in addition to the New South Wales Battery and field hospital. All the Australian colonies started a patriotic fund, and gifts of horses and stores were offered freely in support of the imperial cause.

Lords
Roberts
and
Kitch-
ener Sail
for Cape
Town.

Lord Roberts left London on December 23d for the seat of war in South Africa, amid scenes of great public enthusiasm. The Prince of Wales, the Duke of Connaught, the Duke of Cambridge, Lord Wolseley and Mr. Balfour were among those who came to Waterloo Station to take a personal farewell of the new British commander-in-chief in South Africa. The vessel in which he sailed, the *Dunottar*

Castle, arrived at Gibraltar on December 26th, taking Lord Kitchener on board there, and the next morning started for Cape Town.

Queen Victoria gave a tea party in Windsor Castle to seventy women and one hundred children belonging to the families of non-commissioned officers and privates serving their country in South Africa. The queen and the members of her family gave Christmas presents to the children, the queen herself talking informally and familiarly to the soldiers' wives and children, saying among other things: "It gives me great pleasure to make happy the children of my brave soldiers."

Queen
Victoria's
Tea
Party at
Windsor.

The Archbishops of Canterbury and York circulated a general Church collection in aid of the war fund; Sunday, January 7, 1900, being the day fixed for the collection. Cardinal Vaughan wrote to the Roman Catholic clergy of Great Britain and Ireland directing them to offer up prayers for speedy British success. The clergy patriotically responded to the cardinal's appeal, and accordingly prayers were offered very generally in the Roman Catholic churches throughout the United Kingdom.

British
Clerical
Patriot-
ism.

After the battle of Colenso the victorious Boers were actively strengthening their positions around Ladysmith. The British shelled the Boer positions on the Tugela River on December 19th and 20th, during which the wagon bridge over the river was destroyed. The Boers continued the bombardment of Ladysmith at intervals, and the garrison was prepared to hold out indefinitely.

Opera-
tions
around
Lady-
smith.

On the western frontier General Lord Methuen reported to General Sir Forestier-Walker in Cape Town that the Boer forces in that quarter were increased. Lord Methuen reconnoitered with two squadrons of mounted infantry for two miles along the Boer line and drew fire from four Boer cannon and two Vicker's machine guns. Four of the British horses were hit. Lord Methuen's position was believed to be unassailable.

Lord
Meth-
uen's
Move-
ments.

On the southern frontier the British outpost at Vaal Kop was abandoned on December 16th, because it was commanded by the artillery of the Boer main position. On December 21st a British patrol of fifty men encountered about thirty Boers nine miles south of Dordrecht. The Boers escaped, leaving a wagon with three rifles and a load of stores in the possession of the British. General Gatacre's troops occupied Dordrecht without loss, the Boers retreating. General French's force at Arundel checkmated the much larger Boer force about Colesberg. The Boer positions north of Arundel were strong. It was stated that less than one-tenth of the Dutch colonists in British territory were in favor of British supremacy, but the Boers were very bitterly disappointed at the small number of Dutch colonials who had actually taken up arms against the British. The country from

Opera-
tions
in
Cape
Colony.

Queenstown to the coast was enthusiastically loyal to Great Britain, owing to the immense preponderance of the British element.

British Reinforcements.

British troops were continually moving to the front. A squadron of the Tenth Hussars proceeded from Cape Town to Naauwpoort, and the Sixty-third Battery of Field Artillery proceeded to Natal on December 23d. The Boers were circulating among the Basutos reports of the Boer successes and were urging the Basuto chiefs to defy the British authorities and to send natives to the Orange Free State for the harvest. Lieutenant Winston Churchill secured his freedom and arrived at Delagoa Bay in fine spirits on December 21st.

Boers and Basutos.

Boer Attacks at the Modder River.

The shelling of the advanced trenches at the Modder River still continued. On the night of December 26, 1899, the Boers opened a heavy fusilade, lasting twenty minutes. They appeared to think that the British were meditating an assault. On the night of January 3, 1900, the Boers repeated these tactics.

British Sortie from Mafeking.

The garrison at Mafeking, under the enterprising Colonel Baden-Powell, attacked a Boer fort, but failed in its assault, the British loss being fifty-five, and the Boers taking three prisoners. Among the British killed were Captains Sandford and Vernon, and among the wounded were Lord Edward Cecil and Lord C. Cavendish Bentinck.

Defense of Ladysmith.

In Natal some traction engines arrived at Frere. The Boers were said to be placing cannon in position at Springfield, to the west of the British position on the south side of the Tugela River. The Boer bombardment of Ladysmith was of some effect. Sickness was increasing among the garrison, but all were confident. The field fortifications could withstand any attack, and the food supplies could last two months.

Boer Repulse near Dordrecht.

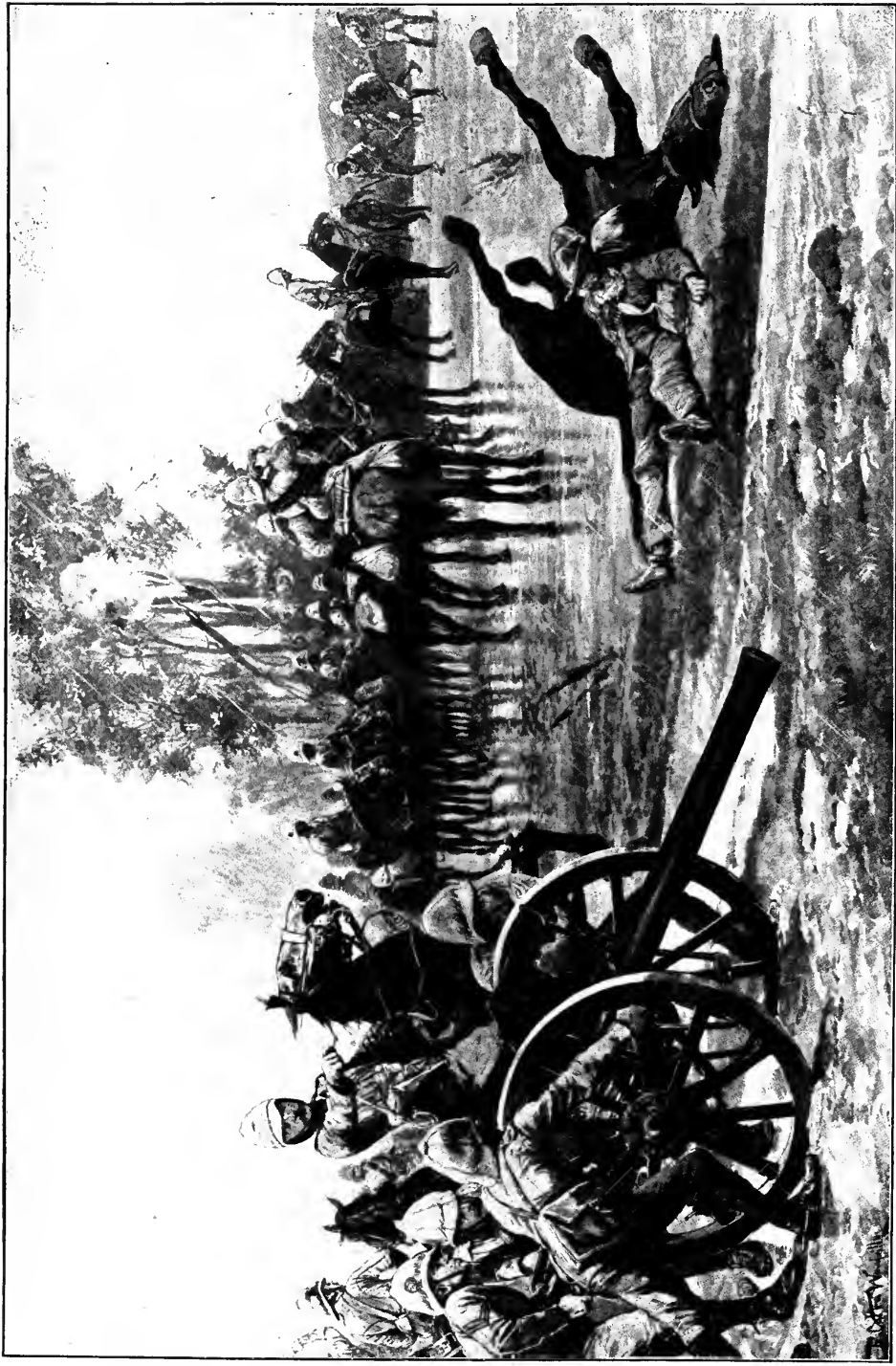
In the north of Cape Colony, on December 30, 1899, Lieutenant de Montmorency made a reconnaissance and found the Boers at Labuschagnes Nek, six miles north of Dordrecht. In the evening forty men were cut off in a donga, on account of their refusal to leave a wounded officer. The little detachment defended itself bravely against eight hundred Boers until the next morning, when some of the Cape Mounted Rifles came to its relief. The Boers retreated. The British loss was two wounded. The Boer loss was about thirty, of whom eight were killed.

Two British Victories.

New Years' Day, 1900, was signalized by British victories on the southern and western frontiers—namely, the success of General French's force over the Boers at Colesberg and the victory of Colonel Pilcher's force of Canadians and Australians at Sunnyside.

Battle of Colesberg.

On December 30, 1899, the Boers left their intrenched position at Rensburg and returned to Colesberg, fearing that their communications would be cut off, as they were threatened by the British cavalry.



A RECONNAISSANCE UNDER DIFFICULTIES DURING THE SOUTH AFRICAN WAR—GENERAL FRENCH'S FORCE IN THE COLESBURG DISTRICT

General French started from Rensburg on the night of December 31, 1899, to flank the Boer position at Colesberg. The Boer outposts were taken by surprise; and at dawn of New Year's Day, 1900, General French shelled the Boer laager and enfiladed the right of their position. The Boers replied, but their artillery was silenced; and the British advanced to the north of Colesberg, where General French reported that his position cut the Boer line of retreat. The British lost three killed and a few wounded. A British provision train broke away from a siding near Colesberg Junction, it being suspected that somebody had treacherously taken off the brakes. The train ran down the line for some distance and then got off the track. The Boers attempted to loot the train, but were driven off by the British artillery fire. Fighting around Colesberg lasted several days, and the Boers recovered their lost positions.

On the western frontier a severe action occurred at Sunnyside, thirty miles north-west of Belmont, where Colonel Pilcher's force, largely Canadians and Australians, completely defeated a Boer commando on New Year's Day, 1900, taking the Boer laager and forty prisoners, and killing and wounding many Boers. The British loss was two killed and one dangerously wounded. The British occupied Douglas, but soon evacuated that town. The Boers occupied Molteno, but evacuated that town after a hot skirmish.

The British cruiser *Magicienne* seized the German liner *Bundesrath* north of Delagoa Bay, on the charge of having on board three officers and twenty privates who were intending to serve in the Boer army. There were persistent rumors at Lorenzo Marques and Durban that artillery and ammunition for the Boers were being smuggled constantly through Lorenzo Marques. This seizure threatened serious diplomatic complications between Great Britain and Germany, and there was great indignation in the latter country. Two other German vessels, the *Herzog* and the *General*, were seized soon afterwards on similar charges. The seized vessels were released by the British authorities after an official investigation. American goods on board the *Beatrice*, the *Mashona* and the *Maria* were also seized by the British authorities at Lorenzo Marques, on the charge of being contraband to be used by the Boer army; but these goods were also released after an official investigation.

The transport *Orient* sailed from England for Cape Town on December 9, 1899, with twelve hundred and seventy-five British officers and privates. On New Year's Day, 1900, almost two thousand officers and privates embarked on the *Cymric*. On January 3d the *Kildonan Castle* sailed with eighty-one officers and twenty-five hundred and ninety-six non-commissioned officers and privates. The Prince of

Battle of Sunnyside.

British Seizure of German Vessels.

British Reinforcements.

Wales consented to be colonel-in-chief of the Imperial Yeomanry. On January 2d the British War Office announced that twelve battalions of militia were to be called out for foreign service and that seven of them were to be sent to South Africa. A London gentleman offered to equip and send out to South Africa a complete hospital for the use of the field force, to contain a hundred beds. On December 29, 1899, a supplicatory service for the success of the British arms in South Africa was held in St. Paul's Cathedral, when the Bishop of London preached an impressive sermon.

**Hindoo
Loyalty
to Great
Britain.**

At this time there were many examples of Hindoo loyalty to Great Britain. The Nizam of Haiderabad made an address at Calcutta, saying that his purse, his army and his own sword were ever ready to defend the British Empire. The Maharajah of Gwalior asked permission to serve in the British army in South Africa and offered to send troops, horses and a transport to that quarter. The entire Third Bengal Cavalry, composed of native Hindoos, voluntarily subscribed a day's pay toward the British war fund. Every Hindoo prince now offered to send horses to the seat of war. Lord Curzon, the Viceroy of British India, informed Queen Victoria of the loyal spirit manifested by all classes of her Hindoo subjects; and the queen sent the Viceroy a message expressing her warm appreciation of this loyalty.

**Great
Boer
Repulse
at Lady-
smith.**

On January 6, 1900, the Boers under General Joubert made a desperate effort to carry Ladysmith by storm. The conflict raged fiercely for seventeen hours; and the Boers repeatedly captured strong points, and the British as often recaptured them and finally repulsed the Boers. The British loss in killed and wounded was over eight hundred men, and the Boer loss is said to have been over two thousand, the lyddite shells fired by the British producing wonderful havoc in the Boer ranks. But General White's situation at Ladysmith was still critical, owing to disease and scarcity of supplies among his troops. The relief expected from General Buller had not yet materialized; and Buller's reported attack on Colenso, on the advance toward Ladysmith, was simply a demonstration. General Buller finally got one of his divisions across the Tugela River at Potgieter's Drift, and this division at once occupied strong positions opposite the Boers' extreme right flank. The Boers made no resistance to the crossing and were completely taken by surprise.

**Kuru-
man,
Mafeking
and Rens-
burg.**

In the meantime stirring incidents were occurring on the northern frontier. Kuruman was captured by the Boers, with its small garrison. A fort at Mafeking was destroyed by Boer shells. On the southern frontier twenty Australians were captured at Rensburg after a spirited conflict. The British under General Wood invaded the Orange Free State.

Lords Roberts and Kitchener, the newly-appointed British commanders in South Africa, arrived at Cape Town on January 10, 1900. There were now in circulation persistent rumors that General Lord Methuen was insane, in consequence of injuries sustained by being thrown heavily to the ground by the rearing of his charger in the battle of Magersfontein, but these rumors were found to be utterly without foundation in fact.

Lords
Roberts,
Kitchener
and
Methuen.

For several weeks in January, 1900, General Buller had been making preparations for the relief of Ladysmith. On January 17th a British cavalry force under Lord Dundonald defeated the Boers in a sharp engagement west of Acton Homes, and occupied several kopjes, which he continued to hold, the Boers losing twenty killed and wounded and fifteen taken prisoners, while the British lost two killed and two wounded. During the same day the Boer trenches were shelled all day long by the British naval cannon. A balloon did good service to the British in observing the Boer positions. General Sir Charles Warren held two prominent kopjes beyond Spion Kop against all Boer attacks and bombarded the Boer trenches. President Krüger's grandson-in-law was taken prisoner.

Successes
of Lord
Dundon-
ald and
General
Warren
around
Lady-
smith.

On January 20th General Sir Cornelius Francis Clery, with part of General Warren's force, was engaged with the Boers for thirteen hours, capturing ridge after ridge for about three miles. The British troops bivouacked on the ground which they had won, but the main Boer position was still in front of them. The British loss in wounded was two hundred and ninety. To relieve the pressure on General Warren and to ascertain the Boer strength in front of Potgieter's Drift, General Lyttleton made a reconnaissance in force on the same day, losing two men killed, twelve wounded and two missing. The trenches evacuated by the Boers were occupied by the British troops at dawn the next day, Sunday, January 21st. All of that day General Warren was engaged, mainly on his left, which he pushed forward two miles, the Boers clinging to their rocky fastnesses with great tenacity. The British artillery fire was very severe, and a strong Boer patrol met with a disaster.

Successes
of
Generals
Clery and
Warren.

On the night of January 23d General Warren captured Spion Kop, a rocky, precipitous height, which was believed to command the Boer intrenchments; the British loss being considerable, and General Woodgate being fatally wounded. The next night, January 24th, the British garrison evacuated Spion Kop; and General Warren's and Lord Dundonald's forces recrossed to the south bank of the Tugela River on January 27th, though General Lyttleton's brigade still occupied its original position. Thus General Buller's second effort for the relief of Ladysmith ended in complete failure, after a week's fight-

Capture
and Re-
capture
of Spion
Kop.

ing. The Boers estimated the British loss in killed at fifteen hundred, and captured one hundred and fifty prisoners.

**Colonel
Thorneycroft.**

General Buller stated that Colonel Thorneycroft was the officer who ordered the evacuation of Spion Kop, and that Colonel Thorneycroft was not to be censured, because that officer's conduct was admirable throughout. It was stated by others that when the order for the evacuation of Spion Kop was given artillery and engineers were on their way to strengthen the British position, but that Colonel Thorneycroft was not aware of that fact.

**Bombardment of
Lady-smith.**

The Boers daily shelled Ladysmith; and among the killed in the beleaguered town was Mr. G. W. Stevens, the well-known correspondent of the London *Daily Mail*. The Boers were very active in throwing up intrenchments while they were vigorously keeping up their bombardment, but their large cannon "Susannah" had burst.

**Opera-
tions
on the
Western
Frontier.**

In the meantime the war was progressing actively on the western frontier. On January 17th General Lord Methuen made a reconnaissance to destroy a new laager within the Boer lines to the right of the British position, but the Boers had anticipated the movement and removed the laager. On January 22d the British artillery shelled the Boer artillery for an hour, silencing one cannon and blowing up a magazine of black powder. Deserters stated that the Boer position at Magersfontein was becoming unbearable through enteric fever, the absence of all food except meat, and exposure to the weather. The Boers there were suffering from the insanitary condition of their trenches.

**Bombardments of
Mafeking
and Kim-
berley.**

The Boer bombardment of Mafeking was continued very actively and was directed deliberately on the women's laager and hospital, and the Boers were using explosive bullets. The Boers bombarded Kimberley very vigorously on January 23d, but with no result. A 30-pounder cannon, cast by an American citizen for the De Beers Company and named "Long Cecil," in honor of Cecil John Rhodes, who fired off the gun with his own hand on several occasions, was shooting very effectively.

**Move-
ments
on the
Southern
Frontier.**

In the meantime there was great activity on the southern frontier. A patrol of Australian troops fell into a Boer ambush on January 16th, and a hot fight ensued, in which one Australian was killed and thirteen were made prisoners by the Boers. The British under General French attacked the Boers at Colesberg on January 20th, and a fierce struggle ensued, without a decisive result. On January 24th the British forces under Generals French and Gatacre effected a junction at Steynsburg. A British column under General Kelly-Kenny, the commander of the Sixth Division, occupied Thebus, on the railway between Steynsburg and Rosmead Junction.

On January 29th Commandant Olivier, of the Orange Free State, made a speech to the Boers at Lady Grey, in which he said that his men were almost surrounded at Stormberg and that unless troops were forthcoming he would be compelled to abandon the position. Many colonists who fought at Stormberg went back to their farms and refused to return to active service, though threatened with death. Among these men were some conspicuous burghers who originally had invited the Free Staters to invade Cape Colony.

**Boer
Situation
at Storm-
berg.**

In the meantime there were daily rumors of desultory shell firing at various points throughout South Africa and concerning the movements of patrols. The Boers held the British at bay at many points by their peculiar strategy.

**Desultory
Warfare.**

The Portuguese authorities at length took active steps to check the wholesale entrance of foreigners at Delagoa Bay on the way to the Transvaal to enlist in the Boer service. These steps were taken in consequence of the earnest representations of the British authorities to check this foreign individual aid to the Boers.

**Portu-
guese
Vigilance.**

Queen Victoria gave one hundred pounds for the Imperial Yeomanry Hospital. Major-General Sir Leslie Rundle was appointed to command the Eighth Division, then being mobilized for the British service in South Africa. Nine battalions of militia were called upon for garrison service in place of the battalions of regulars sent to South Africa. Altogether eight hundred and one officers and privates of the Imperial Yeomanry, with six hundred and fifty-nine horses, sailed from Liverpool for the seat of war on January 27th and 28th. The second detachment of the London City Imperial volunteers, eight hundred strong, left Southampton on January 20th on the transports *Ariosto*, *Gaul* and *Kinfauns Castle* for Cape Town. The transport *Manchester Corporation* was disabled on her way to Cape Town, and the *Cymric* was sent to her assistance. A committee of Danish farmers gave the Prince of Wales twelve thousand boxes of butter for the British soldiers in South Africa.

**Imperial
Yeo-
manry
and Vol-
unteers.**

On January 23d Lord Rosebery made a speech at Chatham, in which he said that the British are not fighting against freedom, but against corruption; and, in reviewing the evils which the British had undergone and the good they had achieved during the war, he said that he did not think that the balance was against the British. Speeches on the war were also made by Sir M. W. Ridley, Mr. Courtney, Mr. Herbert Gladstone, Mr. John Morley and Sir Edward Grey.

**Speeches
on the
War.**

On January 27th the third contingent of the London City Imperial Volunteers, consisting of one hundred and thirty-five officers and privates, sailed on board the transports *Pembroke Castle* and *Scot* for Cape Town. The next day about one thousand of the Imperial Yeo-

**More
Imperial
Yeo-
manry
and
Militia.**

manry sailed for the same point. Several other transports sailed during the same week. A special army order directed the embodiment of three more battalions of militia. The Estates of the Island of Jersey voted unanimously five thousand pounds for a battery of six field cannon to be presented to the British government for use in South Africa. The sixty-two thousand pounds raised in Church collections was divided equally between the Red Cross Society, Lloyd's Patriotic Fund and the Soldiers' and Sailors' Families Association. At the close of January one hundred and fifty American scouts arrived at Cape Town as muleteers and enlisted in the British service.

The
British
Parliament.

The British Parliament reassembled on January 30th. The speech from the throne declared that the war must continue until the British arms are triumphant and that Her Majesty was gratified over the response to the call for resistance against the invaders of British territory. In the House of Lords, Lords Salisbury, Kimberley and Rosebery made speeches; Lord Rosebery criticising the Ministry's attitude on the question of the war and the want of adequate preparation to meet the immense armaments of the Boers. In the House of Commons the Opposition apparently were united in pressing an amendment to the speech from the throne in relation to the South African war.

Colonial
Secretary
Chamberlain's
Speech.

Spirited debates continued in the British Parliament for a full week; and the Irish National leaders and Mr. James Bryce, the Scotch Liberal leader, made speeches against the war, which they denounced as unjust on the part of Great Britain. Colonial Secretary Chamberlain made a speech on February 5th, calling the war just and righteous on the part of Great Britain, and predicting that there will be "no second Majuba," but saying that it is premature to talk of terms of settlement. Among other things he said: "Never again shall the Boers erect in the heart of Africa a citadel whence to proceed to disaffection and race animosity. Never again shall they be able to endanger the paramountcy of Great Britain. Never again shall they be able to treat an Englishman as though he belonged to an inferior race." Referring to statements regarding "national gloom," Mr. Chamberlain said: "I do not accept the phrase. I know of anxiety and of irritation, perhaps, but not of vacillation approaching fear or gloom. We are now finding the infinite potentialities and resources of the Empire. We are advancing to the realization of that great federation of our race which must inevitably make for peace, liberty and justice."

The
Ministry
Sustained.

Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and Mr. Herbert Henry Asquith, Liberals, made speeches in reply to Mr. Chamberlain; and Mr. Balfour, the Ministerial leader, closed in defense of the government. One of the ablest speeches made in the House of Commons during these debates was that of the Rt. Hon. George Wyndham, Under Secretary

of State for War, who skillfully defended the government against the Liberal attacks. The debate was followed by a vote of the House of Commons in approval of the Ministry's policy, the vote standing three hundred and fifty-two against and one hundred and thirty-nine for the Liberal amendment to the address from the throne; the Irish members having left the House in a body before the vote was taken, some of the Liberals refusing to vote and others voting to sustain the government.

Public opinion in England was strongly on the side of the government, as exemplified in the York city election, in which the Liberal majority of eleven in the preceding election was changed to a Unionist majority of fourteen hundred and thirty. There was no question that the war, with all its British disasters and humiliations, had the unexpected effect of unifying and consolidating the British Empire to a degree never attained before. This was clearly expressed by Dr. Arthur Conan Doyle at the Author's Club in London on January 22d, when he said: "I would build a monument to President Krüger of the size of St. Paul's Cathedral, putting him under it; and I would write across it: 'To the Memory of the Man who Federated the British Empire.'"

**War
Feeling in
England.**

On February 7th the House of Commons rejected a motion offered by Mr. John Redmond, the leader of the united Irish Nationalist party, and supported by his party associates, requiring the government to conclude the war on the basis of the recognition of the independence of the Transvaal Republic; the vote standing sixty-six for the motion and three hundred and sixty-eight against it. Even in Ireland a vote to fill a vacancy in the House of Commons was against Boer sympathy, as the Nationalist candidate who had organized an Irish regiment for the Boers was defeated overwhelmingly by another Nationalist, receiving a little over four hundred votes, and his successful competitor over twenty-four hundred.

**Irish
Attitude.**

An optimistic feeling prevailed among all ranks of the British troops in Natal, all being confident of ultimate success. Great enthusiasm was aroused by the queen's speech at the reassembling of Parliament and by General Buller's speech expressing admiration for Generals Warren's and Clery's troops.

**British
Optimism.**

It was stated that almost ten thousand trained European soldiers, including about three hundred officers, were then fighting in the Boer service. These foreigners included Frenchmen, Germans, Dutchmen, Belgians, Irishmen and men of other nationalities. A German military officer in the Boer army stated in regard to the military situation at Ladysmith: "Owing to the strength of our position, on a circle of heights, like Sedan, we cannot be brushed aside except by a relief

**Foreigners in
the Boer
Service.**

**Views
on the
Military
Situation.**

column outnumbering us two to one." A British military expert expressed the opinion that the British would need ten men to each one of the Boers in order to end the war victoriously for the British cause, on account of the strength of the Boer positions in consequence of the nature of the country, which favors the kind of warfare the Boers carried on, their quick movements, their continual fighting under cover behind rocks and their adequate preparation, the work of years. A French officer with the Boers expressed the opinion that the British would need fifteen men to each Boer soldier in order to conquer the Boers. General Ricciotti Garibaldi, son of the great Italian patriot, Giuseppe Garibaldi, offered to command a corps of Italian volunteers in the British ranks.

**The
Prince of
Wales
and the
Volun-
teers.**

On February 2d the Prince of Wales inspected a contingent of Yeomanry and Honorable Artillery Company Volunteers at the Life Guards' barracks at Regents' Park, prior to their departure from London to embark for South Africa. The spectators included Lord Mayor Newton, a number of city dignitaries, army officers and many ladies. The Prince of Wales made a speech to the troops in the same vein as his address to the first contingent of Yeomanry at their departure from London on January 26th.

**More
British
Reinforce-
ments.**

It was stated that Field-Marshal Lord Roberts, the commander-in-chief of the British forces in South Africa, had asked for ninety thousand additional troops and that the British government had promised to furnish them, sending fifty thousand militia and forty thousand militia reserves. It was also said that the Volunteers would be mobilized forthwith. It was also asserted that the Militia Ballot Act would be put in force on February 14th. That act made every unmarried man between the ages of eighteen and thirty years liable to serve as a soldier for five years.

**Renewed
Fighting
around
Lady-
smith.**

After several days' fighting General Buller again crossed the Tugela River on February 5th, in a third attempt to relieve Ladysmith. The passage of the river was made at Potgieter's Drift and at Molen's Drift, with the object of storming the Boer positions. On that and the next day the British bombarded the Boer positions on the upper part of the Tugela with naval and other cannon. At Potgieter's Drift the Boers under General Schalk-Berger beat back the British and recrossed the river in great confusion. The fighting continued at Molen's Drift with the Standerton and Johannesburg commandos. The Boers did not lose a man. The cannonade was the fiercest yet experienced, and there was one continuous roar all day long. On the morning of the 6th the British renewed the bombardment with an increased number of cannon. The Boers enfiladed the advancing British columns, using their artillery posted on Spion Kop and other high hills.

The main British column, which had crossed the river at Molen's Drift, had occupied Vaal Krantz, a hill on the north side of the river. The Boers attempted to retake Vaal Krantz, but were repulsed with heavy loss. Although the Boer shell and Maxim fire was severe, the British loss was comparatively small. Great heroism was displayed on both sides. The British loss at Potgieter's Drift was two hundred and thirty-three in killed, wounded and missing. Among the British officers killed were Major Johnston Smyth and Lieutenant Shafto, both of the Durham Light Infantry; and among those wounded were Colonel Fitzgerald, of the Durham Light Infantry; Colonel A. J. Montgomery, of the Royal Artillery, and Lieutenant Sir T. A. Cunningham, of the Rifle Brigade. The British held their position at Molen's Drift on the 7th; but on the morning of the 8th they evacuated Vaal Krantz and recrossed the Tugela River to their former position, being driven back by the heavy bombardment by Boer cannon. Thus General Buller's third attempt to relieve beleaguered Ladysmith ended in utter failure.

Capture and Re-capture of Vaal Krantz.

In the meantime there was activity in other quarters. On February 2d Colonel Plumer's force attacked the Boer position near Ramonsta, on the Rhodesian frontier, about eighty miles north of Mafeking; and after heavy fighting, including an effort to take the place by storm, the British assailants were repulsed, with some loss, the Boers not losing a man.

Battle of Ramonsta.

There were also some important movements in Natal about this time. On February 2d it was rumored that Lord Dundonald had made a reconnaissance on the upper part of the Tugela River, crossing the stream without difficulty. On February 6th an armored train made a sortie from Chieveley toward Colenso and landed two thousand British troops on the right of the Boer position. The Boers immediately crossed the Tugela River and attacked with rifles and artillery, compelling both the armored train and the British troops to fall back to Chieveley. The British artillery forced the Boers to evacuate their camp on Hlangwana Hill, south of Colenso, on February 12th. On the same day a detachment of General Buller's army made a reconnaissance at Springfield, being fired upon by the Boers near Fustenberg; but the Boers were driven back. Captain Hamilton Russell, Lieutenant G. Churchill and ten men were wounded, and Lieutenant Pinkington and sixteen men were captured by the Boers. Lord Dundonald, with seven hundred cavalry, a field battery and the First Royal Welsh Fusiliers, reconnoitered the high ground, forcing the Boers to evacuate their position after slight resistance, with the loss of two men; but the Boers returned and resumed fire upon the British when they retired from the hill.

Renewed Fighting around Ladysmith.

Severe
Fighting
around
Rensburg

There also was activity in the north of Cape Colony, especially around Rensburg. On February 7th the Boers shelled the British position on Porter's Hill without effect, and the next day the Boer position between Rensburg and Colesberg was bombarded by the British with lyddite shells for an hour in the morning. On the morning of the 9th the British bombarded the Boer position at Rensburg with lyddite shells, silencing the Boers' Maxim-Vicker cannon, and a dozen dead Boers were found on the kopjes. The Boers now assumed the aggressive at Rensburg and shelled the British camp with little effect. The Boers attempted to turn both flanks of the British army at Rensburg and threatened the British rear, from which direction the British supplies came from Cape Town; but the British maintained their position. On February 12th the Boers began an extended attack on the British lines in the vicinity of Rensburg and met with minor successes, which had considerable influence on the Dutch colonists in the north of Cape Colony. The British suffered small loss in killed and wounded; Lieutenant Coningham, of the Worcestershire Regiment, being mortally wounded.

Fighting
near
Sterk-
stroom.

In the meantime General Gatacre's force was assailed near Sterkstroom, being attacked by the Boers from two directions; but General Gatacre held his own against all his assailants, and no decisive result followed these operations. The Boers here, as elsewhere, were very active, not allowing the British any rest and trying to prevent General Gatacre's force from moving northward to assist in the invasion of the Orange Free State.

Battle of
Koodoes-
berg
Drift.

After occupying a strong position at Koodoesberg Drift, the Scotch Highlanders, under General Hector A. MacDonald, were engaged with the Boers in a severe battle lasting all day on February 7th, the British position being severely bombarded by the Boer cannon. General Babinpton was sent with a detachment to reinforce General MacDonald, but failed to do so. The British loss in killed and wounded was fifty men. The next morning General Lord Methuen ordered General MacDonald to evacuate Koodoesberg and to retire across the Modder River, which was done accordingly.

Fighting
around
Kimber-
ley.

On February 8th Kimberley was bombarded by the Boers; but the garrison, under Colonel Kekewich, was as resolute as ever. On the morning of February 9th a small infantry engagement occurred at Alexander's Fontein, lasting two hours. On February 10th the Boers took possession of Hobkirk's windmill and Bastard's Nek, but two days later the British shelled the Boers out of those positions and reoccupied them. The Boers turned the tables the same day, compelling the British outposts to evacuate Hobkirk's windmill, Bastard's Nek and other points and to retire to Moeder's farm.

On February 10th the Boers entered the town of Inkandla, in Zululand, the magistrate having exploded the magazine on the previous night and retired from the place with his police and proceeded to Eshowe.

Boers in Zululand.

All the great European governments recently had been endeavoring to show friendliness toward Great Britain, even the Czar of Russia himself; but the people and press of France, Germany, Russia, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Spain, Holland, Belgium, Switzerland and other European countries had been outspoken in their sympathies with the Boers, on the ground that the Boers were fighting for their homes and freedom. A great deal of this European sympathy with the Boers could be traced to national hatred and envy of Great Britain, but a great part of it was also aroused by a natural feeling to side with two little states against a worldwide empire; to a feeling of admiration for two small peoples, numbering together only about two hundred thousand souls, against a world power with a total population of over four hundred millions.

European Sympathy for the Boers.

The people and press of Continental Europe sympathized with the Boers and were against Great Britain, just as they sided with Spain and were against the United States in the Spanish-American War. This popular European sympathy with the Boers found practical expression in the action of many foreigners who entered the Boer service, among whom were Irishmen, Frenchmen, Dutchmen, Germans and others. Many French and German military officers held important commands in the Boer armies.

European Officers in the Boer Service.

In the United States popular sympathy was divided, the pro-Boer sympathizers becoming more and more demonstrative in their expressions of sympathy and more and more abusive of Great Britain. The classes which sympathized with the Boers were mainly the Irish, German and Dutch elements of the American population. The people who sided with Great Britain were generally very quiet and embraced a large and intelligent portion of the population of English and Scotch extraction. The press was very much divided in its sympathies, many prominent newspapers being on the Boer side, while some were non-committal and others were outspoken in their sympathies with Great Britain. There were many pro-Boer meetings in the large cities, while the pro-British sympathizers did not hold meetings. The sympathy for the Boers was on the ground that the Boers were fighting for their homes and the preservation of their independence against the conscienceless greed and aggression of a great worldwide empire. The sympathy for the British was based on the ground that the Transvaal was no real republic, but a theocratic despotism, and that Great Britain's triumph would be in the interest of real liberty, civilization

Divided American Sympathy.

Demonstrative pro-Boer Sympathizers.

and justice. A number of prominent Americans openly expressed their sympathy with the British, such as Whitelaw Reid, Senator Chauncey Mitchell Depew, Ex-Secretary of War Alger, General Wesley Merritt, and Captain Mahan, of the United States navy. In general the sympathizers with the Boers were also sympathizers with the Filipinos in their struggle for independence against the United States government, prominent among which were Senators Hoar, Mason, Allen, Pettigrew and others.

**American
Volun-
teers
for Both
Sides.**

At the beginning of the South African war there were three kinds of petitions sent to President McKinley, some in favor of mediation, others asking the President to interfere in favor of the Boers, and still others asking him to intervene on the British side; but the President positively declined to interfere on any side, taking the ground that it was a question that did not concern us. It was said that there were Americans desiring to volunteer on each side. A United States army officer was said to be trying to raise a filibustering expedition to aid the Boers, while American and Cuban soldiers in Cuba were said to be ready to take the field on the British side, carrying a banner with the motto: "We fight for civilization." The British consul in Chicago said that he had so many applications from Americans who desired to volunteer on the British side that he could not answer them. The British consul in New York city stated that over five thousand Americans applied to him to serve in the British army in South Africa. A number of Irish Americans actually served in the Boer army.

**Case of
Consul
Macrum**

As the United States government ordered Consul Macrum at Pretoria to look after British interests and refused to recognize John O'Birne as official representative of the Transvaal Republic in the United States, President Krüger regarded the United States as Great Britain's ally. Consul Macrum, who sympathized with the Boers, resigned his post, came home and charged the British at Cape Town with opening his mail; but an official investigation showed his charges to be unfounded, so far as a design of tampering with the United States official mail was concerned. In the haste in opening the immense mail at Cape Town several wrappers of Consul Macrum's mail were accidentally and unintentionally torn off, for which the British government made a suitable apology to the United States government. Adelbert S. Hay, son of Secretary of State John Hay, was appointed his successor and looked after British interests at Pretoria.

**Johannes-
burg's
Great-
ness.**

In the meantime there were rumors of threatened foreign intervention in the South African war. Russia, France and Germany were represented as being hostile to Great Britain's policy toward the Boers; but Germany became Great Britain's friend in the settlement of the Samoan question early in November, 1899, in which Great Britain made

concessions to Germany in South Africa and retired from the Samoan Islands altogether in exchange for compensation elsewhere. But Russia and France still were exceedingly jealous of Great Britain; and it was rumored that Russia, France and Spain had come to an understanding to act together against Great Britain's policy in South Africa in certain emergencies. The United States government was on the most friendly terms with Great Britain.

The published statements of Olive Schreiner in the American press had a great influence upon American opinion on the war. This gifted female author charged the responsibility for the war upon the greedy British capitalists whom she represented as being desirous of bringing the Transvaal under the British dominion in order to have the Rand gold mines in British territory. While expressing her uncompromising sympathy with the Boer cause, she professed to dearly love Old England.

Olive
Schrei-
ner.

Olive Schreiner was the daughter of a German peddler named Schreiner who, a generation before, settled in South Africa, with his wife, to make his permanent home in that quarter of the globe, and who gave a good education to his children, who all were talented and who all had made their mark in life. The father of the family had now been dead for some years, but the mother was still living. Olive devoted herself to literature and became a famous novelist. She acquired a worldwide literary reputation by her *Story of An African Farm*, in which she graphically depicted the life of a typical Boer family and the story of their wrongs and sufferings, and which she had written in an humble Boer farm cottage, furnished in the most primitive style, having the bare ground for a floor and a large store-box for her table. After acquiring fame as a writer she married Cron Wright, a young Englishman in South Africa, who, in deference to her literary reputation, generously consented to allow her to retain her maiden name, himself assuming her family name, so that he called himself Cron-Wright-Schreiner, writing his full assumed name with two hyphens, while she still went by the name of Olive Schreiner, instead of by the name of Mrs. Cron Wright.

Her
Literary
Fame.

Her brother, W. P. Schreiner, became a friend of Cecil John Rhodes, was elected to the Cape Colony Parliament, and had been the Prime Minister of Cape Colony for the last few years, under the Governorship of Sir Alfred Milner, then British High Commissioner for South Africa; being the representative of the Dutch population of Cape Colony, whose representatives constitute a majority of the Colonial Parliament. He was believed to be a sympathizer with the Boers at heart, as was his distinguished sister, but he had all along openly professed loyalty to Great Britain; and his half-hearted course in en-

W. P.
Schrei-
ner.

deavoring to curry the favor of both parties in the war had won for him the distrust of both.

Theophilus Schreiner.

Olive's widowed mother was a strong British sympathizer. Olive's brother Theophilus, who had acquired prominence by his religious and temperance work and by his labors in every good cause for the elevation of the masses of the people in the scale of social morality, was likewise an ardent British sympathizer, and had announced his intention to taking up his pen in the British cause to counteract the effects of his celebrated sister's writings in favor of the Boers.

His Colloquy with Mr. Reitz.

Theophilus Schreiner gave an account of a conversation which he had with Mr. Reitz, the Secretary of State of the Transvaal Republic, concerning the famous Afrikander Bond and the future of South Africa. This interview took place soon after the treaty of 1881, in which Great Britain had restored the independence of the Transvaal. Mr. Reitz was then Judge of the Orange Free State. The following colloquy took place at this interview in Bloemfontein, when Mr. Schreiner refused to become a member of the Afrikander Bond, after studying its constitution and program:

Mr. Reitz—Why do you refuse? Is the object of getting the people to take an interest in political matters not a good one?

Mr. Schreiner—Yes, it is; but I seem to see plain'y here between the lines of this constitution much more ultimately aimed at than that.

Mr. Reitz—What?

Mr. Schreiner—I see quite clearly that the ultimate object aimed at is the overthrow of the British power and the expulsion of the British flag from South Africa.

Mr. Reitz—Well, what if it is so?

Mr. Schreiner—You don't suppose, do you, that that flag is going to disappear from South Africa without a tremendous struggle and fight?

Mr. Reitz—Well, I suppose not; but even so, what of that?

Mr. Schreiner—Only this, that when that struggle takes place you and I will be on opposite sides; and what is more, the God who was on the side of the Transvaal in the late war, because it had right on its side, will be on the side of England, because He must view with abhorrence any plotting and scheming to overthrow her power and position in South Africa, which have been ordained by Him.

Mr. Reitz—We'll see.

His Comment Thereon.

This ended the colloquy, which Mr. Schreiner says was impressed indelibly upon his memory. He said he had watched the course of Krüger, Reitz, Steyn and their coworkers, and they had been plotting and scheming ceaselessly for the overthrow of the British dominion in South Africa and for bringing on the war, with the view of establish-

ing a great Dutch Republic there in place of the British dominion. He asserted that the Boer leaders and the Afrikander Bond, and not England, nor England's queen, nor England's government, were the real originators of the lamentable war. This conspiracy, he declared, had begun five or six years before the discovery of the gold mines enabled the Transvaal to prepare for the struggle by the immense armaments which it thus was empowered to establish. He also said that the Boers did not think that England would fight, considering the English too cowardly.

The commanders on the British side in the war now were the following:

**British
Com-
manders.**

Field-Marshal Lord Frederick Sleigh Roberts of Kandahar and Waterford, the new British Commander-in-Chief in South Africa, an Irishman, who for over twenty years had been the British Commander-in-Chief in India.

Major-General Lord Horatio Herbert Kitchener of Khartoum and Aspall, Lord Roberts's chief of staff, also an Irishman, who won fame and title by his great victory over the Khalifa, in the Egyptian Soudan, in September, 1898.

The Right Honorable Lieutenant-General Sir Redvers Henry Buller, lately British Commander-in-Chief in South Africa, who suffered three severe repulses in his efforts for the relief of Ladysmith, which he finally accomplished on the last of February.

Lieutenant-General Lord Paul Sanford Methuen, who won the victories of Modder River, Belmont and Graspan, but was finally disastrously defeated at Magersfontein.

Major-General Sir William Forbes Gatacre, who was severely defeated near Stormberg Junction.

Lieutenant-General Sir Charles Warren, who won some advantages near Ladysmith and captured and lost Spion Kop.

Colonel Alexander Whitelaw Thorneycroft.

Lieutenant-General Sir Cornelius Francis Clery, who commanded under General Warren.

Lieutenant-General Sir George Stuart White, the brave defender of Ladysmith, an Irishman.

Colonel Robert Stephenson Smyth Baden-Powell, the gallant and enterprising defender of Mafeking.

Colonel Robert George Kekewich, the brave defender of Kimberley.

Lieutenant-General Sir Thomas Kelly-Kenny, commanding a cavalry division in Lord Roberts's army, an Irishman.

Major-General Sir John Denton Pinkstone French, who won the victory of Elandslaagte, defended Colesberg and Rensburg and relieved Kimberley, an Irishman.

Major-General the Earl of Dundonald (Douglas Mackinnon Baillie Hamilton Cochrane), in command of a cavalry division under General Buller, defeated the Boers near Acton Homes and entered Ladysmith, a Scotchman.

Major-General Sir Archibald Hunter, General Buller's chief of staff, a Scotchman.

Major-General Sir Herbert Charles Chermside, commanding the Fourteenth Brigade.

Brigadier-General James Herbert Yule, the successor of the lamented Major-General Sir William Penn Symons, who was killed at Glencoe.

Colonel Thomas David Pilcher, commanding the British mounted infantry at the Modder River, who won the victory of Sunnyside.

Colonel Herbert Charles Onslow Plumer, commanding a British column marching to the relief of Mafeking, defeated at Ramonsta.

Brigadier-General Hector A. MacDonald, Scotchman, the commander of the Highland Brigade, as successor to the late General Wauchope, Scotchman, who was killed at Magersfontein.

General Sir Frederick William Edward Forestier-Walker, commanding at Cape Town.

Major-General Sir Henry Macleod Leslie Rundle.

Lieutenant-General Sir Frederick Carrington, in command of the Rhodesian field force.

Major-General Sir Henry John Thoroton Hildyard.

Brigadier-General Hon. Sir. Neville Gerald Lyttleton.

Brigadier-General Sir Edward Yewd Brabant, who relieved Wepener.

Brigadier-General Ralph Arthur Penryhn Clements.

Major-General Sir Reginald Pole-Carew, General Gatacre's successor.

Major-General Sir George Tindal Pretzman.

Major-General Sir Elliott Wood.

Major-General Sir Charles Tucker.

Major-General Sir Henry Edward Colville.

Colonel Edwin Alfred Hervey Alderson.

Brigadier-General Arthur Fitz-Roy Hart, an Irishman.

Brigadier-General Horace Lockwood Smith-Dorrien.

Brigadier-General Geoffrey Barton.

Brigadier-General Sir Ian Standish Monteith Hamilton.

Brigadier-General Sir Bruce Meade Hamilton.

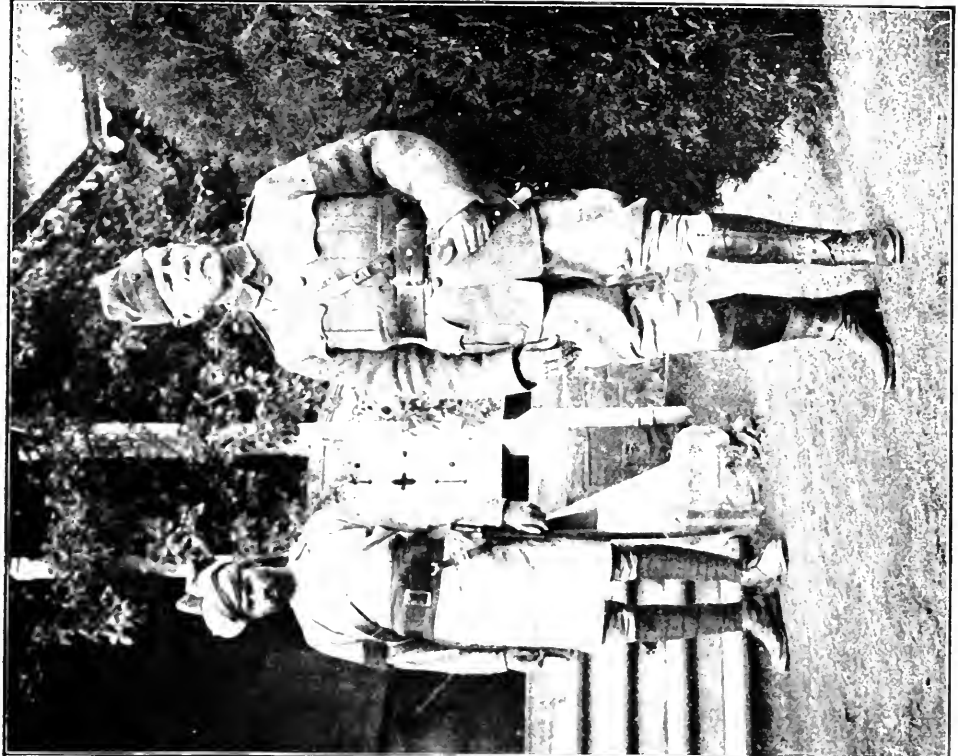
Brigadier-General Sir John Grenfell Maxwell, Scotchman.

Lieutenant-Colonel David Henderson, Scotchman.

Colonel Herbert Scott Gould Miles.

Brigadier-General Sir Charles Edmond Knox.

Brigadier-General Sir William George Knox.



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COMMANDERS IN BOER WAR

Major-General Sir Edward Thomas Henry Hutton.

Colonel James Henry Gordon.

Lieutenant-Colonel Hon. Frederick Gordon.

Lieutenant-General Sir William Francis Butler, an Irishman, was removed at the beginning of the war to make room for General Buller.

Among the British generals killed during the war were the following:

Major-General Sir William Penn Symons, at Glencoe.

Brigadier-General Wauchope, a Scotchman, at Magersfontein.

Brigadier-General Sir Edward Woodgate, fatally wounded at Spion Kop, died two months afterward.

The following were the most prominent of the Boer leaders:

Stephanus Johannes Paulus Krüger, President of the Transvaal, or South African Republic.

**Boer
Leaders.**

Petrus Jacobus Joubert, Vice President of the South African Republic and Commandant-General of its Forces, who died March 27, 1900.

General Piët A. Cronje, who surrendered to Lord Roberts after ten days' heroic fight at Paardeberg.

General Schalk-Berger, commanding under Joubert.

General Louis Botha, the successor of Joubert.

General Christian R. De Wet.

General J. H. Delarey.

Dr. Willem Johannes Leyds, Transvaal Diplomatic Agent in Europe.

The Honorable Francois Willem Reitz, the Transvaal Secretary of State.

Montagu White, Transvaal Diplomatic Agent in the United States, an English colonist of South Africa in the Transvaal service.

President Martinus Theunis Steyn, of the Orange Free State.

We have noticed that there was a battle of Belmont in this war. There was also a battle of Belmont in the Great Civil War in the United States. The names of some British generals in the great British-Boer War were the same as those of some Union generals in the great American Civil War—such as Walker, Warren, Butler, French, Hunter, Miles.

**Interest-
ing Facts**

The period of constant disastrous and humiliating British reverses was followed in February, 1900, by a period generally characterized by British successes, beginning with the new campaign inaugurated by Field-Marshal Lord Roberts's invasion of the Orange Free State. The relief of beleaguered Kimberley by General French about the middle of February; the defeat of General Cronje in a ten days' struggle at and around Paardeberg and his final surrender to Lord Roberts on the 19th anniversary of Majuba; the relief of Ladysmith by General Buller the

**Period of
British
Suc-
cesses.**

next day, and the occupation of Bloemfontein, the Orange Free State capital, near the middle of March, were the substantial British successes in the course of a month. We will now proceed to a detailed account of these great and decisive events.

Lord Roberts's Invasion of the Orange Free State.

Field-Marshal Lord Roberts, the new commander-in-chief of the British forces in South Africa, and his chief of staff, Major-General Lord Kitchener, left for the front early in February; their purpose being to direct the movements against the Boers for the relief of Kimberley and the invasion of the Orange Free State from the northern frontier of Cape Colony; the objective point being Bloemfontein, the Free State capital, from which point the movement was to be directed toward the invasion of the Transvaal and the occupation of its capital, Pretoria.

His Advance toward Kimberley.

The first object of the British invasion of the Orange Free State was the relief of Kimberley. Field-Marshal Lord Roberts, commanding in person an army of thirty-seven thousand British troops, was conducting the advance. He left behind him at the Modder River, his advanced base, a force estimated at ten thousand men, under the command of General Lord Methuen. Lord Roberts began his advance on Sunday, February 11th. General Cronje was in command of the Boers in that section.

General French's Advance.

General French fixed himself on General Cronje's communications with Bloemfontein and executed a series of brilliant movements. A force of twenty thousand infantry, with seventy-two cannon, was pushed up to support him there. The British were on the flank of General Cronje's main position at Magersfontein, being between five and ten miles from that place. In command of the British cavalry and with a force of horse artillery, General French left the Modder River on Sunday morning, February 11th, for Rambam, twelve miles east of Enslin, where the entire division concentrated.

Colonel Hannay's Success.

On the same day Colonel Hannay, in command of a British brigade of mounted infantry coöperating with General French's force, having marched from the Orange River to Ramah, had a slight engagement with the Boers who occupied the hills and menaced his right flank. With a detached part of his force Colonel Hannay detained the Boers while he pushed his main body and his baggage through to Ramah, successfully carrying out the object of his march. His loss was four men killed, twenty-two wounded and thirteen missing.

General French's Success.

The next day, February 12th, General French made a rapid march to the Reit River, where a party of Boers disputed his passage at Dekil's and Waterfall Drifts. After some hours' shelling General French drove the Boers away and crossed the river. He was then on the soil of the Orange Free State. The following day he left Dekil's

Drift with three brigades of cavalry, horse artillery and mounted infantry, including several colonial contingents, for the purpose of seizing a crossing of the Modder River, about twenty-five miles distant. He forced a passage of Klip Drift and occupied the hills north of the river, capturing three of the Boer laagers, with their supplies. General Gordon, of the Fifteenth Hussars, with his brigade, having made a feint at Rondaval Drift, four miles west, had seized it and another drift between that and Klip Drift, together with two more laagers, besides a large number of cattle and two thousand sheep. On account of the rapidity of his movements, General French encountered very little resistance and his losses were very small. Lieutenant Johnson, of the Enniskillen Dragons, was the only officer severely wounded.

General French finally reached Kimberley on the evening of February 15th, with a force of artillery, cavalry and mounted infantry. He announced that he had completely dispersed the Boer forces from the southern side of Kimberley, from Alexander's Fontein to Oliphant's Fontein, and was then going to occupy their ground. He further announced that he had captured the Boer laager and store depot supplies and supplies of ammunition. His loss was twenty men wounded. He announced: "Kimberley cheerful and well." Field-Marshal Lord Roberts highly complimented General French on the brilliant success of his operations.

His
Relief of
Kimber-
ley.

Although General French's rapid march was marked by a series of conflicts, his actual entrance into Kimberley was unopposed. When his advancing troops were still eight miles distant the signalling corps intercepted a heliograph message from the beleaguered garrison to the Modder River, saying: "The Boers are shelling the town." French's advance column replied: "This is General French coming to the relief of Kimberley." The garrison, being incredulous and thinking the message was a Boer ruse, flashed the query: "What regiment are you?" The reply satisfied the garrison that the anxiously-awaited succor was at hand; and a few hours afterward General French, at the head of the column, made a triumphal entry into the town, the inhabitants surrounding his troops and intermingling with them, cheering wildly, grasping the soldiers' hands, waving flags, hats and handkerchiefs, and exhibiting in many ways the intensity of their joy. The inhabitants had been on short rations for some time, eating horse-flesh and living in burrows under heaps of mine refuse. Diminishing rations were served out daily at 11 o'clock in the market square, under the shell fire of the Boers, whose cannon opened on the square whenever the inhabitants assembled. No horse food remained. During the siege Cecil John Rhodes provided the negroes with work and food, thus keeping them quiet. The miles of convoy bearing provisions for

His
Entrance
into Kim-
berley.

General French's troops, coming to Kimberley, was the most pleasing sight that greeted the eyes of the besieged for four months. A week later the *New York Journal* received the following dispatch:

“CAPE TOWN, February 22.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NEW YORK JOURNAL:

Thank you. It has been a good defense, chiefly by citizens. Our greatest help was the DeBeers' chief engineer, Mr. Labram, an American citizen, who made a gun throwing a thirty-pound shell, with the assistance of a local man. Poor fellow! He was killed four days before our relief.

CECIL RHODES.”

The Mr. Labram to whom Mr. Rhodes here alluded was a Chicago man. He cast the large cannon named “Long Cecil,” which Mr. Rhodes sometimes fired off with his own hand.

Speeches
in the
British
Parliament.

The success of Lord Roberts's and General French's movements thus far caused great joy in England. Important speeches were made in Parliament on February 15th. In the House of Commons, Colonial Secretary Joseph Chamberlain and the Rt. Hon. Arthur James Balfour, the Ministerial leader in that House, sustained the course of the Ministry. In the House of Lords, Lord Rosebery, the Liberal leader, severely scored the Ministry on account of the want of preparation which had caused the ill success of the British thus far. The Earl of Kimberley, another Liberal leader in the House of Lords, agreed with Lord Rosebery. Lord Salisbury defended the course of the Ministry.

British
Rejoicing.

The news of the relief of Kimberley caused great rejoicing at Cape Town and other towns of Cape Colony; and Sir Alfred Milner, the Governor of Cape Colony and British High Commissioner for South Africa, received a great popular ovation. Queen Victoria promoted Brigadier-General French to the position of Major-General; and Lieutenant-Colonel Kekewich was promoted to the rank of Colonel, because of his gallant defense of Kimberley.

Yeomanry
Sail for
South
Africa.

The first unit of the special corps of Yeomanry, called the Duke of Cambridge's Own, left London on the morning of February 17th to embark at Southampton for South Africa, receiving a great popular ovation as they left. The Duke of Cambridge and other titled personages went to Southampton to bid the Yeomanry farewell.

Case of
Bugler
Dunn.

Bugler Dunn, the fifteen-year-old member of the First Royal Dublin Fusiliers, who was the first to cross the Tugela River, and who was shot in the right arm while running with the soldiers and sounding the “advance,” saw Queen Victoria, at Osborne, in the Isle of Wight, on the morning of February 19th, and was presented with a handsome and

suitably-inscribed silver-mounted bugle by Her Majesty, who gave the boy a motherly welcome and expressed her hope that he would have a successful career in the army.

In the meantime, while the main British forces under Lord Roberts and General French were so successful in the Orange Free State and the north of Cape Colony, there were important minor operations in the same sections. On February 12th Colonel Plumer's force attacked the Boer position near Crocodile Pools, near Gaberones, defended by a 12-pounder cannon. While the British were struggling up the hill in the dark, through a net of barbed wire, they alarmed the Boer watchdogs, which gave the alarm. The Boers opened fire and the British charged; but the Boers exploded dynamite mines, doing much damage, and the British retreated.

**Colonel
Plumer's
Repulse.**

On February 14th a small British cavalry patrol entered Jacobsdal, in the Orange Free State, and found the town full of wounded, including several British troops from Rensburg. The small Boer force which had occupied the town fell back before the British patrol, after a series of small skirmishes. A battery of British artillery shelled the environs and drove out the last of the Boers.

**British
Capture
of Ja-
cobsdal.**

Early in the morning of February 15th a large Boer force from Colesberg with ten cannon captured a convoy of two hundred wagons at the Reit River, shelling vigorously and doing damage, although strong British reinforcements had been sent forward to bring in the entire convoy safely.

**Fight
near
Coles-
berg.**

The Boers were leaving Magersfontein to reinforce other positions, leaving about ten thousand men at Magersfontein. While the British were endeavoring to intercept the Boer communications, a parallel Boer column was trying to cut off the British lines to DeAar and was meeting with success, General Clements being obliged to retire to Arundel; but during the course of the march the Boers were driven off by the heavy fire of the British, the Enniskillen Regiment charging brilliantly and inflicting great loss on the Boers. There was great activity over the whole Modder River district, and the Boers were active elsewhere and were endeavoring to cut the British lines of communication at Graspan and at De Aar, but the British under General Hector A. MacDonald reoccupied Koodoesberg.

**Movements
in Cape
Colony.**

By Sunday, February 18th, the country around Kimberley seemed to be clear of the Boers, who had evacuated Dronfield, Saltpan, Spytfontein and Schlotz Nek. One of their 12-pounder cannon, with ammunition, was captured by the British, as was also their laager at Dronfield, which they evacuated on the night of February 16th. A railway was being laid to the Modder River, and several herds of cattle were captured by the British.

**Opera-
tions
around
Kimber-
ley.**

General French's Action.

After General French's arrival at Kimberley fighting still continued there, and the Boers still bombarded the town. General French notified General Cronje that he was bombarding the hospital where the sick and wounded British soldiers and many women and children were inmates, but General Cronje paid no attention to General French's repeated notifications, whereupon General French put a number of Boers whom he had taken prisoners into the hospitals and notified General Cronje of the fact.

Boer Captures.

Although unable to prevent the relief of Kimberley, the Boers captured two thousand head of cattle, one hundred wagon-loads of provisions and one hundred prisoners. On Sunday, February 18th, the Boers captured three thousand head of cattle and a number of wagons near Koffyfontein, in the Orange Free State; eighteen of these wagons being loaded with provisions intended for the garrison and inhabitants of Kimberley. A number of prisoners were also taken.

Boer Evacuations.

The Boers evacuated Spytfontein, going in a north-westerly direction. Early in the morning of February 17th the Boers, with artillery, attacked the British force under General Gatacre at Molteno. On Sunday, February 18th, the Boers evacuated Dordrecht, and the British colonials under General Brabant occupied the town, General Brabant clearing the road for the advance of General Gatacre.

First Canadian Regiment.

The First Canadian Regiment was engaged at the Modder River all day Sunday, February 18th, losing eighteen men killed and sixty wounded. Among the wounded was Captain Mason, of Toronto. The Canadians forded the Modder River after a night's march.

Situation on the Western Frontier.

On the western frontier the Boers were repulsed in fierce assaults on Mafeking on February 17th and 18th. On February 26th Colonel Plumer occupied the Boer position at Crocodile Pools, which had been evacuated during the night. General Lord Methuen reported that the British troops occupied Barkly West on February 21st and that the country west of the Cape Town and Kimberley Railway was settling down.

Situation on the Southern Frontier.

On the southern frontier, on the morning of February 28th, General Clements, escorted by Colonel Henderson's Enniskillens, occupied Colesberg, which the Boers had evacuated. Colonel Henderson's Enniskillens, with two cannon, reconnoitered near Colesberg; and severe shelling occurred on both sides. The Australians bore a prominent part in these operations. Rensburg and Colesberg were both evacuated by the Boers and reoccupied by the British. The British colonial force under General Brabant occupied Jamestown, more than twenty miles northwest of Dordrecht, and captured many horses belonging to the Boers, who retreated in all directions on foot. The relief of Kimberley had a marked effect upon the Dutch in the Sterkspruit and Stormberg dis-

tricts, and they were now anxious that the English farmers should return.

By February 16th the Boer army under General Cronje, ten thousand strong, was in full retreat toward Bloemfontein, with the British under General Kelly-Kenny harassing their rear. The Boer laager was shelled. General Lord Kitchener was superintending the pursuit of General Cronje. The British divisions under Generals Tucker and Colville were coöperating with General Kelly-Kenny in the pursuit of the retreating Boers. In this pursuit General Kelly-Kenny's brigade captured seventy-eight wagons laden with stores and ammunition, two wagons of Mauser rifles, eight boxes of shells, ten barrels of explosives and a large quantity of stores, all belonging to Cronje's laager, which was still being shelled by the British artillery when Lord Kitchener dispatched his messenger.

**Cronje's
Retreat
and the
British
Pursuit.**

General Cronje was now said to be in a very bad situation, his force being surrounded and he being given a time limit to surrender. In the fighting near Paardeberg, from February 16th to 18th, on the British side Major-General Knox and Major-General Hector A. MacDonald were wounded and Lieutenant-Colonel Aldworth was killed.

**Cronje's
Situation.**

One of the bloodiest battles of the war was fought near Paardeberg Drift, on Sunday, February 18th. While pursuing General Cronje, General Kelly-Kenny caught his rear-guard at Klip Drift and followed it to the Boer laager at Koodoosrand. The action at the drift commenced at dawn, the British mounted infantry driving the Boer rear-guard up the Modder River toward the Boer main body, while another body of mounted infantry maneuvered on the right front and flank of the Boers. The British main body advanced to outflank the Boer laager on the north bank of the river. After seizing two drifts General Kelly-Kenny found the Boers strongly inclosed, and he ordered an attack with the Highland Brigade on the left and General Knox's brigade on the center and right, while General Smith-Dorrien's brigade crossed the river and advanced along the north bank. On the north and south banks the ground is level, and the advance across this was deadly and the British losses were heavy. The battle resembled that of the Modder River. The British soldiers were under fire all day long; and all the fighting had no decisive result, as the Boer laager was well barricaded and the Boers remained therein. The British artillery shelled the laager vigorously, and the Boers admitted that they lost over eight hundred men.

**Battle of
Paarde-
burg
Drift.**

The terrific shelling was resumed by the British the next day, Monday, February 19th, when General Cronje asked for an armistice of one day to bury his dead. Lord Kitchener refused to grant it, saying: "Not a minute. It must be surrender or fight to a finish." Cronje

**Renewal
of the
Battle.**

replied: "It will be fight to a finish." The Boers had constructed intrenchments around their laager during the night and were still threatened by General Smith-Dorrien. The British infantry rested after the terrible fight of the previous day. The infantry and a battery of horse artillery started to observe the Boers, who were holding a kopje; but while riding around they received a heavy fusilade and were obliged to move farther out, but suffered no loss. They pushed on and found that the kopje extended a considerable distance west, sloping gradually to the plain. They seized a good defensive position, which was garrisoned. They completely flanked the Boers, whose left held strongly by a farm-house, which was shelled vigorously. The British detachment returned to camp at nightfall, leaving a garrison on the right. In the meantime a desultory bombardment of the Boer position was kept up, and considerable rifle fire was concentrated where the Essex Regiment was attempting to rush up the river. About midday the cry was raised that General French had arrived, but his division was engaged in another quarter. When Field-Marshal Lord Roberts arrived he addressed several regiments and was cheered vigorously and enthusiastically.

Cronje's
Continued
Resistance.

Tuesday, February 20th, was the third day of General Cronje's tight situation and his grim resistance in the face of death. Early in the morning the British infantry engaged the Boers in the bed of the Modder River, driving them back a short distance. The Boers were busy on their intrenchments around their laager. A few shells were fired at them. General French's artillery was heard off to the east. About noon the British planted three field batteries and two naval 12-pounder cannon on the south bank of the river, and three field batteries and three naval 4.7-pounder cannon on the north bank, along with one howitzer, thus enflading the whole river. Thus a number of powerful cannon concentrated their fire upon an area of a square mile; and the exploding lyddite shells raised vast clouds of green smoke, which completely filled the bed of the river. The shells burst on each bank and in every ravine and bush of the river bed, and the roar was deafening. The enflading cannon did terrible execution. The Boers fought with a courage of madness. The long line of these batteries carried frightful havoc and carnage into the Boer ranks, while the Maxims of the two British infantry battalions were at work on each side of the river. General Cronje's pluck and heroism were admired by his foes. The British bombardment of the Boer intrenchments resulted in driving the Boers away in all directions, with many killed and wounded, while fifty were made prisoners. On the British side Captain Campbell, of the Ninth Lancers, and Lieutenant Houston, of the artillery, and four privates were slightly wounded.

Boer reinforcements under General Botha came from General Joubert's army before Ladysmith to reinforce General Cronje's force. On Wednesday, February 21st, General Botha's force was defeated and scattered, after heavy fighting, and suffered immense loss. A Boer kopje was captured with fifty prisoners, and General Cronje's position was still very precarious.

**Botha's
Defeat.**

On February 24th the Boers were defeated in repeated attempts to break through the British lines to reinforce General Cronje, and General De Wet's column was repulsed with severe loss and compelled to fall back. Cronje's army was living in burrows in the banks of the Modder River, where they were not much exposed to the British shell fire.

**De Wet's
Defeat.**

Finally, the capture of an important strategic point by the Canadians before daybreak on February 27th put an end to General Cronje's heroic resistance, and he sent a flag of truce to the British outposts offering to surrender unconditionally. Lord Roberts replied that General Cronje and his troops must come out of their laager and present themselves at the British commander's camp after laying down their arms. Lord Roberts congratulated his vanquished foe on his gallant resistance and granted his request that his wife, grandson, private secretary, adjutant and servants might accompany him wherever he might be sent. Lord Roberts assigned Major-General Pretzman to accompany the captive general and his attendants to Cape Town, where he was handed over to General Sir Forestier-Walker, the commanding general at that post. Several foreign officers in the Boer service were captured with General Cronje, among whom were Field Cornet Frus, a Scandinavian; Major Albrecht, a famous German artillery officer, and Major Von Dewitz, a distinguished German engineer, to whom the Boers owed their splendid engineering works. The number of men surrendered was about four thousand. As Cronje's surrender occurred on the nineteenth anniversary of the disastrous British defeat at Majuba Hill, the British considered Majuba avenged. England went wild with joy at this victory.

**Cronje's
Surrender.**

While Lord Kitchener and General Kelly-Kenny were closely pursuing General Cronje in his retreat toward Bloemfontein and General French was so successful in the vicinity of Kimberley, General Buller was fighting successfully against the Boer forces under General Joubert in Natal. On Sunday, February 18th, General Buller moved around the Boer flank. The Queens, who had bivouacked on the northern slope of the Cingolo, crossed the nek, and, with the support of the remainder of the Second Brigade, under General Hildyard, assailed and captured the southern end of Monte Christo. The Fourth Brigade won the eastern slope; and the Welsh Fusiliers, with the support of the

**General
Buller's
Victories
in Natal.**

remainder of the Sixth Brigade, assailed the eastern flank of the Boer position; while the Second Brigade cavalry, on the extreme right, watched the eastern slopes of Monte Christo and drove back those Boers who tried to escape there from the British artillery fire. As the Boers were assailed by a heavy artillery fire on their front and flank and were attacked on their flank and rear, they made but little resistance, fled from their strong position and were driven across the Tugela River. The British troops behaved splendidly; the conduct of the irregular cavalry, the Queens, the Scotch Fusiliers and the Rifle Brigade being particularly noticeable. By this success General Buller took several camps, a wagonload of ammunition, several wagons of stores and supplies and a few prisoners. The British loss was very small. The Boer position on Hlangwana Hill was bombarded on that and the following days, February 18th and 19th, and the British captured one hundred prisoners.

**Buller's
Continued
Victories.**

The fighting at Monte Christo between General Buller's forces and the Boers was renewed the next day, February 19th, from the British positions on Gun Hill and Hussar Hill. The British troops advanced from the fortress toward Monte Christo. There was a heavy bombardment with three 4.7-inch cannon and the 100-pounder siege cannon, supported by infantry, against the Boer position on Hlangwana Hill, adjacent to Monte Christo and regarded as the key to Grobler's Kloof. The firing was particularly active from Hussar Hill on the formidable Boer intrenchments at the extreme end of Hlangwana Hill. These intrenchments were strengthened with sand bags. The firing continued all day. During the day the large cannon "Lady Randolph" arrived on the armored train from the direction of Colenso. The British took over one hundred prisoners. The British naval cannon knocked out the big Boer cannon "Long Tom" on Hlangwana Hill at the first shot, for which General Buller especially complimented the cannoniers. Hlangwana Hill is located between two bends of the Tugela River. The Boers erected a bridge between Hlangwana Hill and the northern bank of the river. The Fusilier Brigade finally took Hlangwana Hill, the right of the Boer position and commanding Colenso; the remainder of the British force advancing toward the Tugela River.

**Boer
Retreat.**

The next morning, February 20th, the Boers retired from the north side of the Tugela and practically evacuated Colenso, which General Hart occupied after a slight engagement with a weak Boer rear-guard; and the British held the line of the Tugela, on the south side of Colenso to Eagle's Nest. The Boers were in full retreat and only held the position they occupied across the Colenso and Ladysmith Railway with a weak rear-guard. General Hart's advance guard crossed the Tugela at Colenso. The British loss was small.

On February 21st a part of General Buller's army crossed the Tugela River on pontoons and drove back the Boer rear-guard, the British 12-pounder naval cannon silencing all the Boer cannon. The British crossed the Tugela on a pontoon northward of Hlangwana Hill and occupied Fort Wylie. Heavy bombardments were carried on by both sides.

Buller's Pursuit.

At length the British captured Pieter's Hill, the Boer main position before Ladysmith, on February 27th, the day of General Cronje's surrender; but General Buller encountered fierce resistance at every step of his advance.

Capture of Pieter's Hill.

Finally, General Buller's hard task of relieving Ladysmith was accomplished on the night of February 28th, when Lord Dundonald, at the head of the Natal Carbineers and a composite regiment, entered the beleaguered city. This great victory caused unbounded rejoicing in England, coming right after the day of General Cronje's surrender; and London was ablaze with every demonstration of patriotic enthusiasm.

Relief of Ladysmith.

Joy in England.

Accounts of the relief of Ladysmith stated that General White met the first relieving troops in the center of the town. He briefly addressed the crowd and thanked the garrison for their magnificent support. The British artillery and cavalry there needed remounting. The losses of the garrison in deaths in action and from wounds during the siege was two hundred and fifty-nine, and the losses in deaths from disease was three hundred and forty-six. The number of officers and troops wounded was five hundred and ninety. On March 1st seventy-three wagon loads of supplies entered Ladysmith, the first eleven containing hospital comforts.

Condition of Affairs at Ladysmith.

After the relief of Ladysmith, General Buller reported that Natal was practically cleared of the Boer invaders, who had left behind them some ambulances full of their sick and wounded, the mules having been taken away for transport. They had also left vast quantities of ammunition and cattle, but they had succeeded in taking along all their cannon except two pieces. General Buller reported formidable lists of British casualties to the War Office in London. On March 9th General White, the heroic defender of Ladysmith, was given an enthusiastic reception at Pietermaritzburg, the capital of Natal.

Boer Evacuation of Natal.

General White's Reception.

On the very day of General Cronje's surrender and the capture of Pieter's Hill by General Buller's troops, February 27, 1900, Queen Victoria visited the sick and wounded at Netley and spoke to every one of the almost six hundred inmates. The next day she inspected a company of Berkshire Volunteers, which was about to proceed to South Africa. A number of transports sailed from Great Britain with reinforcements at the end of February and the beginning of March, and the

Queen Victoria's Interest in the Troops.

Eighth Division was preparing to leave. Queen Victoria ordered that in future, upon St. Patrick's Day, all ranks in Her Majesty's Irish regiments shall wear a sprig of shamrock to commemorate the gallantry of her Irish soldiers in South Africa.

**Cronje at
Cape
Town.**

General Cronje arrived at Cape Town on March 2d and was allotted the Admiral's quarters on board the *Doris*. Boer prisoners continued to arrive daily at Cape Town and were placed on board transports in the harbor.

**President
Krüger's
Sermon.**

On the Sunday following Cronje's surrender and the relief of Ladysmith, President Krüger preached a sermon in the great church at Pretoria, in which he told his people not to be disheartened by their recent reverses; that the Lord is on their side and that they finally will be victorious; that their recent reverses were sent to them as a punishment by the Lord of Hosts because they had been too proud of their earlier achievements and their victories over the British; that they had been glorifying themselves too highly in consequence of their great victory of Majuba, and had taken too much credit upon themselves for their victories and had not given the credit to the Lord God Jehovah, to whom it properly belonged.

**Lord
Roberts's
Continued
Success.**

On March 7th Field-Marshal Lord Roberts achieved another great success by routing the Boer forces which had collected in extensive and strongly-intrenched positions a few miles east of Orfontein. The British cavalry turned the Boer left flank, thus putting the Boers in full retreat. The British loss was about fifty. The British captured one cannon, an immense quantity of forage and a large number of tents.

**Lords
Roberts
and
Kitchener
at Kim-
berley.**

On the western frontier a strong British force left Kimberley, moving northward toward the Vaal River. Lords Roberts and Kitchener visited Kimberley on March 1st and attended a meeting in the town hall. Lord Roberts referred to the courage and endurance of his troops and to the heroism displayed in the defense of the town and spoke warmly of the same qualities as exhibited in the relief of Ladysmith.

**Lord
Roberts's
Advance
in the
Orange
Free
State.**

Presidents Krüger and Steyn were both present with the Boer forces retreating before Lord Roberts's advance in the direction of Bloemfontein. On March 10th Lord Roberts's forces came into collision with the Boers at Driefontein, the brunt of the fighting on the British side falling on General Kelly-Kenny's division. The Welsh and the Essex battalions drove the Boers out of two strong positions at the point of the bayonet. The British buried one hundred and two of the Boer dead, and the British ambulance parties brought in a number of Boer wounded. The British loss was about seventy killed and missing and three hundred and twenty-one wounded.

The next day Lord Roberts addressed to the Presidents of the two Boer Republics a telegram stating that, as another instance had occurred of a gross abuse of the white flag, it was his duty to announce that if such abuse occurred again he would order his troops to disregard the white flag entirely. Lord Roberts also complained of finding large quantities of explosive bullets among the captured Boer stores. On Sunday, March 11th, the British column advanced twelve miles without opposition. The next day the British advance was again unopposed and came within eighteen miles from Bloemfontein.

**His
Protests
to the
Boer
Presi-
dents.**

On the night of March 12th the British under General French occupied two hills close to the railway at Bloemfontein after considerable opposition. The next day, March 13th, Lord Roberts took possession of Bloemfontein, and the British flag was hoisted over the President's mansion in the capital of the Orange Free State, the building having been vacated the previous night by President Steyn. Mr. Fraser, a Scotchman and a member of Mr. Steyn's Cabinet, and other Free State officials met Lord Roberts two miles from the town and gave him the keys of the public office. Such of the inhabitants of Bloemfontein as had not fled with the Boer forces gave the British troops a most enthusiastic welcome.

**Lord
Roberts's
Occupation
of
Bloem-
fontein.**

Presidents Krüger and Steyn now made overtures for peace with Great Britain on condition that their Republics should be recognized as independent sovereign states and that amnesty should be granted to the rebels of Cape Colony and Natal. Lord Salisbury replied, refusing the request of the Boer Presidents and recounting the circumstances which led to the war, the Boer ultimatum, the invasion of the British South African colonies and the consequent expenditure of British blood and treasure in the contest, which he said was provoked to dismember the British Empire and to drive the British out of South Africa. Lord Salisbury's reply to the overtures of the two Boer Presidents was received with unbounded satisfaction by the British colonists throughout South Africa.

**Boer
Peace
Over-
tures.**

**Lord
Salis-
bury's
Reply.**

For about a week the Presidents of the two Boer Republics had been endeavoring to secure peace through the mediation or intervention of the Great Powers of Continental Europe; but Germany, France and the other Great Powers declined to intervene or mediate unless such intervention or mediation were acceptable to both belligerents. Ineffectual Boer appeals were also made to Holland, Belgium and Switzerland. Finally, the President of the United States received a request from Presidents Krüger and Steyn, through United States Consul Adalbert S. Hay at Pretoria, to act as intermediary in conveying the Boer overtures to Lord Salisbury. In transmitting the Boer overtures to the British government, President McKinley politely offered his services

**Futile
Boer
Appeals
for
Foreign
Mediation
or Inter-
vention.**

as mediator in restoring peace if such services were acceptable to Her Majesty's government. Lord Salisbury replied very politely that, while he heartily appreciated President McKinley's humanitarian motives, such offers would not be acceptable; and there the matter rested, March 13th.

**Sir
Wilfrid
Laurier
and the
Canadian
Parlia-
ment.**

In the Canadian Parliament, on March 13th, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, in defending his Ministry against a motion of want of confidence on the ground of Canada's participation in the war, delivered an eloquent speech sustaining and justifying the war and anticipating that the glorious part which the Canadians played in it would promote the work of unity in the Dominion itself. The Prime Minister's speech aroused great enthusiasm, and the motion was rejected by a vote of one hundred and nineteen to ten. All Canadians, British and French alike, sustained the British imperial government in the South African war loyally and patriotically.

**Proposed
British
Loan.**

At a meeting of the British financiers on March 9th the Chancellor of the Exchequer explained the government's proposal to issue a loan of thirty million pounds, redeemable in ten years at $2\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. interest. The fixed price would be $98\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and subscriptions would be generally invited throughout the British Empire.

**Queen
Victoria's
Continued
Interest
in Affairs**

In Buckingham Palace, on March 10th, Queen Victoria inspected the Second Battalion of the Grenadier and Scots Guards about to leave for South Africa. Her Majesty intended to bestow a baronetcy on the Lord Mayor of London and a knighthood on each of the two sheriffs to mark her sense of the distinguished services which the city of London had rendered to the British Empire in the previous two months. On March 14th Her Majesty inspected a detachment of the Grenadier Guards at Windsor.

**British
Progress
on the
Southern
Frontier.**

On the southern frontier the advance of the British forces from Dordrecht and Colesberg northward continued, and General Gatacre occupied Stormberg on March 5th. Railway communication between Colesberg and Cape Town was reopened. General Brabant's advance from Dordrecht against Labuschagne on March 4th and 5th was completely successful, the British troops carrying a hill commanding the Boer position and the Boers suffering severely and fleeing toward Aliwal North. The British under General Clements occupied Norval's Pont, on the south side of the Orange River, on March 8th; the Boers having previously blown up the bridge and retired to the north bank of the river. On Sunday, March 11th, the British force under General Gatacre was within a mile of Bethulie railway bridge, which had been partly destroyed by the Boers, who fled to the opposite bank of the river there also. On the same day, March 11th, the British force under General Brabant occupied Aliwal North after some sharp fighting, in

which the British lost about twenty men killed and wounded. Barkly East was also reoccupied by the British.

The rebel movement among the Dutch population in the northern and eastern portions of Cape Colony practically collapsed after the withdrawal of the Orange Free State commandos. The revolt in some of the western districts of Cape Colony continued, but Lord Kitchener was making final arrangements to quell the insurrection. Many of the Dutch politicians of the Afrikaner Bond in Cape Colony were making overtures in favor of "conciliation," by which they meant the preservation of the independence of the two Boer Republics. The Boers were bitterly disappointed with Prime Minister Schreiner, of Cape Colony, and Mr. Hofmeyr, the leader of the Afrikaner Bond, whom they accused of treachery to the Boer cause, saying that they had expected a hundred thousand Dutch colonists from Cape Colony to join them.

Lord Kitchener occupied Prieska on March 19th without resistance, the rebel Dutch of Cape Colony laying down their arms and the Transvaalers escaping across the river. The British took thirty-three prisoners, two hundred stand of arms and a quantity of ammunition and explosives. At Belmont deserters came into the British lines with a Maxim and 9-pounder guns. Another 9-pounder was brought into the British lines at Colesberg. The Boers occupied Griquatown, one hundred miles south-west of Kimberley. In western Cape Colony the Boers were also aggressive, having reoccupied the town of Campbell and being in force near Taung's and Barkly West. A large number of Boer prisoners made a desperate effort to escape from the British camp at Simonstown on March 30th. About thirty escaped, but fifteen were recaptured. The remaining two thousand Boer prisoners at Simonstown were landed, except ninety sick.

It has been stated that President Steyn had left his capital on the evening before the British occupation for Kroonstad, which was selected as the seat of government of the Orange Free State. General Joubert, with three thousand Boers, intended to get to Bloemfontein on the day of its capture by the British, but was prevented from doing so by the blowing up of the railway by Major Hunter-Weston. Three bridges on the most important line to Kroonstad were blown up by the Boers during their retreat. Seven British officers and forty-three privates were found in the hospital at Bloemfontein. A corps of young Boers was detailed, under a British officer, for police duty around the Orange Free State capital.

In the meantime Boshof, in the north-western part of the Orange Free State, was occupied by British troops. The British force under General Gatacre crossed the Orange River and occupied Bethulie on March 15th. General Pole-Carew, with two thousand of the Guards,

**Collapse
of the
Dutch
Revolt
in Cape
Colony.**

**Boer
Disap-
point-
ment.**

**Opera-
tions
in
Cape
Colony.**

**Affairs at
Kroon-
stad and
Bloem-
fontein.**

**Continued
Progress
of the
British
in the
Orange
Free
State.**

left Bloemfontein that day by railway and joined the forces under Generals Gatacre and Clements, without meeting any opposition. The Guards returned to the Free State capital on the 17th. General Clements crossed the Orange River on the 15th. Rouxville was occupied without resistance by the Kafrarian Rifles. The English mail was dispatched from Bloemfontein by railway on the 17th, and two days later the regular railway service with Cape Town was reopened.

**Submis-
sion of
Orange
Free
Staters.**

General Pretzman, the British Military Governor of Bloemfontein, called on all Boers within a radius of ten miles to deliver up their arms on penalty of confiscation of their property. It was stated that three-fourths of the Orange Free Staters were returning to their farms. The Resident Commissioner of Basutoland reported that eight hundred Boers from Bloemfontein and another body who had been at Aliwal North were only waiting to know the terms of the proclamation to surrender. They had refused to attend a council at Kroonstad to which they had been summoned by President Steyn.

**President
Steyn's
Reply to
Lord
Roberts.**

In reply to Lord Roberts's complaint about Boer treachery, President Steyn denied the charge of the misuse of the white flag, accused the British of resorting to that practice and alleged that any explosive bullets used by the Boers were captured from the British. Lord Roberts said that, as inquiry had proved President Steyn's allegations to have been unfounded and as he himself had seen the abuse of the white flag complained of, he had not thought it desirable to continue the correspondence.

**His
Speech
and
Threat.**

President Steyn, in a speech at Kroonstad, warned the Boers not to believe in Lord Roberts's proclamation, as the British had violated solemn treaties and Sir Alfred Milner had publicly announced that the Afrikanders must be exterminated. President Steyn also circulated a notice that any Boer who signed the declaration that he would not fight against the British would be shot as a traitor. In some parts of the Orange Free State the Free State authorities were commandeering Boers, British and negroes and compelling them to proceed to Kroonstad immediately, under penalty of death.

**British
Suc-
cesses.**

Many Boers expressed their desire to surrender. General French's cavalry proceeded eastward to Thabanchu; and another British detachment occupied Smithfield, where some Transvaalers and a wagon with arms and ammunition was captured. The Scot Guards were at Edenburg and Reddersburg, and General Clements's brigade was marching thither by way of Philippolis and Fauresmith.

**Boer
Activity
in the
Orange
Free
State.**

Lord Roberts was stretching out his troops north of Bloemfontein, but his movements were much hampered by the destruction of the railway near the town by the Boers. At this time Lord Roberts reported that the country south of Bloemfontein was settling down and that arms

were being surrendered. The Boers reoccupied Ladybrand. Numbers of Boers, including General De Wet, were constantly arriving at Kroonstad, the new Orange Free State capital. The Boer force under General Olivier joined the Boer detachment under Generals Kroblaar and Lemmer, and the combined forces were moving to reinforce General De Wet.

On March 23d four British officers rode nine miles beyond their camp on the Modder River, escorted by a trooper; and the party were fired on by the Boers, one officer being killed and the other three officers and the trooper being wounded. There were at this time slight reconnaissances. On March 25th Captain Sloane-Stanley, of the Sixteenth Lancers, was slightly wounded in an affair of outposts north of the Modder River, toward Brandfort.

By March 23d General Clements had reached Philippolis, in his march northward; and General French's cavalry was still at Thabanchu. General Clements's column entered Fauresmith on March 27th, having previously occupied Jagersfontein. Magistrates were appointed, the proclamation was read, bands of music met the British troops and British flags were flying. On the night of March 27th Sir Alfred Milner, Governor of Cape Colony and British High Commissioner for South Africa, arrived at Bloemfontein and was met by Field-Marshal Lord Roberts and his staff.

President Steyn issued a circular letter dealing with Lord Roberts's proclamation and declaring that it is obvious that "the enemy's policy is, as it always has been in South Africa, to divide and dominate his opponent." The circular went on to say that before the war the British "attempted to seduce the Free State by treacherous means from its solemn convention with the Transvaal in order to facilitate the swallowing up of the Republic." He repudiated the charge that the Boers had been misled by their leaders.

At the end of March the Boers assumed the aggressive north of Bloemfontein. From their intrenchments at Kroonstad the Boers sent bodies of troops south almost to Glen, ten miles north of Bloemfontein, where Lord Roberts had his advance posts. British reinforcements were sent up to Glen, including the Seventh Division and part of General French's cavalry, thus making the British force there about twenty thousand men. The Boers were accused of maltreating and even shooting people who had surrendered their arms to the British in compliance with Lord Roberts's proclamation. General Gatacre was preparing to thwart any Boer effort to cut the British communications with Bloemfontein. On March 29th the British cavalry under General Brabant occupied Wepener without opposition. A Boer force near Paardeberg marauded farms in that locality. The British military authorities

Events
in the
Modder
River
District.

British
Advance
on the
Southern
Frontier.

President
Steyn's
Circular
Letter.

Boer
Aggres-
siveness.

discovered a half million's worth of realizable securities in the Orange Free State government chest at Bloemfontein.

**Boer
Defeat
and Rout.**

On March 29th the British under Generals French and Tucker drove the Boers from the kopjes which they had occupied at Karee Siding Station, a few miles south of Brandfort, after severe fighting, the Boers retreating to Brandfort and the British holding possession of the kopjes. The British lost twenty killed, one hundred and sixty-six wounded and three missing. The next day there was indecisive fighting south of Brandfort.

**British
Disaster
at
Sanna's
Post.**

On March 31st a British force under Colonel Broadwood, consisting of the Tenth Hussars, the Household Cavalry, two horse batteries and mounted infantry under Colonel Pilcher, having abandoned its position at Thabanchu, took post at the Bloemfontein water works, about fifteen miles east of the town, where it was shelled by the Boers, estimated to number about eight thousand men. Colonel Broadwood sent a convoy with the two batteries toward Bloemfontein, while the rest of the force remained behind to act as a rear-guard. This detachment walked blindly into a Boer ambush at Sanna's Post and was captured, with seven cannon, three hundred and eighty-nine men thus being made prisoners. The remainder of Colonel Broadwood's force escaped by a passage across the spruit discovered by Lieutenant Chestermasters, of Remington's scouts. Lord Roberts sent the Ninth Division under General Colville and two cavalry brigades under General French to Colonel Broadwood's rescue. Colville shelled the Boers upon his arrival. Generals Colville and French attempted to surround the Boers holding the Bloemfontein water works, but failed in their mission and returned to Bloemfontein. The Boers thus cut off the water supply of Bloemfontein.

**British
Repulse
and Boer
Retreat.**

On March 31st there was heavy fighting between Brandfort and Bloemfontein. The Wakkerstroom and Ermelo commandos attacked three thousand British and drove them back with heavy loss. There was fighting all along the line. The Boers held positions on the side and top of the mountains, while the British positions were on the opposite side of the hill. The British charged repeatedly, but were repulsed. The Boers lost nine killed and wounded. The arrival of thirteen thousand British reinforcements compelled the Boers to fall back finally. On March 31st the British outlying pickets at Springfield were attacked by the Boers, who had advanced from the Bloemfontein water works. Remounts were arriving daily in Bloemfontein. The Boers were talking about retaking the Orange Free State capital.

Colonel Plumer occupied Lobatsi on March 5th and was advancing steadily to the relief of Mafeking, the garrison of which was still holding out as heroically and resolutely as ever, though reduced to desperate

straits by disease and by scarcity of provisions. In the meantime the garrison had constructed a new howitzer to prolong their defense. The Boers under Commandant Snyman were advancing in force from Mafeking toward Lobasti. A British detachment under Colonel Bodle made a reconnaissance on March 13th and found Pitsani and Pothlugo occupied by the Boers. He returned to Goodesiding and made a demonstration on March 14th, finding the Boers at a sharp curve on the railway. They had mounted a cannon and were lying in wait for the construction train. The next morning brisk firing occurred a few miles south of Lobatsi, the Boers freely using their Maxim. Colonel Bodle arrived just in time to prevent the Boers capturing the British camp. The Boers attacked the advance party, captured a few boxes of ammunition and almost got possession of a Maxim. On the British side Lieutenant Tyler was killed and Lieutenant Chapman was captured. The Boers were routed with heavy loss when Colonel Bodle arrived.

**Defense
of
Mafeking
and
Colonel
Bodle's
Recon-
naissance.**

On March 15th the Boers pressed closely on Colonel Plumer's main camp and kept up a hot fire with a Maxim gun, killing a white man and a negro. They placed the Maxim gun and a 12½-pounder cannon on a hill east of the line, four thousand yards from the camp. The British right was protected by Chief Bathien, who had warned the Boers not to enter his territory. The Boers wrecked the railway south of Lobasti by dynamite. The operations for the relief of Mafeking seemed to promise early success. General Lord Methuen arrived at Warrenton on March 16th in time to prevent the deviation bridge from being destroyed completely and to secure a port on the Vaal River. Colonel Peakman, in command of mounted British troops from Kimberley, had a skirmish with a Boer force near Fourteen Streams on March 18th, and the Boers retreated toward Christiania. On March 14th Colonel Plumer had restored railway and telegraphic communication as far south as Pitsani, and British troops were being pushed forward. It was also reported that Colonel Plumer's force advancing to the relief of Mafeking was engaged in desultory skirmishing with Boer forces near Gaberones and Lobatsi, and that Colonel Plumer had retired to Crocodile Pools, thus postponing the relief of Mafeking. The siege of Mafeking was maintained vigorously and the Boers were constantly shelling the town. The garrison under Colonel Baden-Powell was holding out heroically, though in desperate straits for food, and on one occasion a British patrol lost five men in an attempt to capture twenty-six cattle. A British column was on its way to relieve the beleaguered garrison.

**Opera-
tions
of
Colonel
Plumer
and
Others
for the
Relief of
Mafeking.**

On March 25th Colonel Plumer's mounted infantry entered the Transvaal, and they arrived within twelve miles of Zeerust before re-

turning to their old position. On March 27th an advance by the Boers under cover of an artillery fire was repulsed by the British at Mafeking.

Colonel
Plumer's
Invasion
of the
Trans-
vaal
and His
Repulse.

On March 28th the Boers bombarded the British camp at Fourteen Streams, north of Warrenton, compelling the British to evacuate the place during the night. A British column of three thousand mounted men, commanded by Colonel Drummond and accompanied by three batteries, a pontoon and several wagons of ammunition, passed Barkly West on March 26th, on an extensive march, the object of which was a strict secret. On March 31st heavy fighting occurred around Mafeking, and Colonel Plumer's relief column was compelled to retire with heavy loss, thus delaying the relief of Mafeking. Lieutenant Frank Milligan was wounded severely and taken prisoner. Colonel Plumer was wounded slightly.

Renewed
Activity
in Natal.

There was renewed military activity in Natal. The town of Pomeroy, thirty miles east of Ladysmith, was burned by the Boers, who were shelled by a British force which arrived as the Boers were leaving; but the Boers, five thousand in number, took a strong position in the hills. The Boers were intrenched very strongly at Biggarsberg with heavy artillery. The Boers were destroying coal mines in Natal. The Dundee colliery was blown up and the machinery was destroyed, the mine being rendered useless for three months.

Notable
Deaths.

On March 23d General Sir Edward Woodgate died of his wounds at Spion Kop on January 24th. General Joubert, the Transvaal Vice President and commander-in-chief, died near midnight on March 27th, after a severe illness, and was universally mourned by his countrymen.

Occur-
rences in
England.

Queen Victoria, in acknowledgment of resolutions passed at a meeting of Irishmen at Cape Town, replied that their loyal sentiments greatly touched her and that she always felt confident that the same spirit of courage and allegiance which had distinguished her Irish subjects in face of the enemy would be shared by their brethren in the colony in sustaining the authority of her government. On March 17th General Sir Frederick Carrington sailed in the *Dunottar Castle* to assume a command on the southern frontier of Rhodesia. The Duchess of Teck and Lady Roberts sailed in the same steamer. Large numbers of British troops sailed from England for South Africa during that week. The Mansion-house Fund was now more than eight hundred and six thousand pounds sterling. It was determined to establish an advisory committee to bring about closer coöperation in the administration of relief. The Prince of Wales was to act as chairman.

Speeches
on the
War.

Sir Henry Morton Stanley, the famous African explorer, in a letter to a correspondent, said that the Boer Republics must be extinguished and direct governments by Crown officials substituted therefor, and that the irritating cause of the war, the Afrikander Bond, must be removed.

Sir Edward Grey, M.P., spoke at the London Liberal Club on March 20th on the subject of the war. At Chelsea barracks, on March 29th, the Prince of Wales inspected a battalion of sharpshooters organized by Lord Dunraven for the Imperial Yeomanry, complimenting them on their good appearance, and saying: "I sincerely hope that you may shoot straight when the necessity arises." On the same day Herbert Gladstone, son of the late Rt. Hon. William Ewart Gladstone and member of the British House of Commons for West Leeds, in a speech at a breakfast of the Liberal agents at Nottingham, said that nearly all the Liberals had agreed, in regard to the settlement of the South African question, that it was the duty of the British government to make a recurrence of the war impossible and to show the world that British power in South Africa was predominant and that the British flag must wave over the whole of South Africa. In an address before the Militia Rifle Association of Great Britain on March 28th, Field-Marshal Lord Wolseley said that the barracks in the United Kingdom were fuller than ever before, notwithstanding the vast land armaments sent to South Africa. On March 30th the London *Gazette* published dispatches from Rear-Admiral Harris on the proceedings of the British Naval Brigades with the forces under Generals Lord Methuen and Sir Redvers Henry Buller.

The Transvaal government cabled to Lord Salisbury some weeks previously that if the Dutch inhabitants of Cape Colony who had fought for the Boers were not treated as prisoners of war the Boers would make reprisals on the British prisoners at Pretoria. Lord Salisbury replied that if any British prisoners were injured he would hold President Krüger personally responsible.

**Treat-
ment of
Captives.**

In reply to an interpellation in the French Senate on March 15th, M. Delcassé, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, said that the reply of the British government to the message of the Presidents of the two Boer Republics precluded any attempt at foreign mediation.

**French
Policy.**

Near the end of March refugees from the Transvaal reported that Boers were continually being arrested by Transvaal officials for desertion and that the Boer stock of ammunition had been reduced to a low point. Provisions, except groceries, were still plentiful in the Transvaal.

**Boer
Extrem-
ities.**

Much excitement was created in the Boer camp by rumors that Commandant Olivier had defeated General Gatacre near Bethulie, making General Gatacre and his staff prisoners and capturing twelve cannon; but the falsity of the rumor was soon proven.

**Boer
Rumor.**

President Krüger is said to have told his people that Great Britain was in dire extremities; that the Russians had taken London, and that a Russian army of over two million men had invaded British India.

**Wild
Talk.**

President Steyn told his people that the Boers had lost only eight hundred men in the war, while the British had lost sixty-four thousand.

**Boer
Arrests.**

General Prinsloo and two other Orange Free State Boers, who had retired to their farms after receiving permits from President Krüger, were arrested by the Johannesburg police and sent to Pretoria. On the last week of March the Volksraad of the Orange Free State had a short session at Kroonstad. At Johannesburg three British subjects were accused of decoying Acting State Engineer Munnik, of the Transvaal Republic, to a house at the City and Suburban Mine, with the intention of holding him as a hostage against the destruction of British mining property. They were also charged with attempting to murder him; and Dempsey, one of the accused men, was sentenced to seven years' imprisonment, but he escaped.

**Dr.
Leyds's
Protest
to the
Egyptian
and
Turkish
Govern-
ments.**

On March 29th Dr. Leyds, the Transvaal diplomatic agent in Europe, called the Egyptian and Turkish governments' attention to the fact that the British government had admitted in the House of Commons that six Maxim guns were borrowed from the Egyptian army for use in the South African war, and demanded explanations of this breach of neutrality, declaring that unless the guns were immediately returned the Transvaal government would consider that the Egyptian government had abandoned neutrality and was lending openly its assistance to Great Britain. The protest was sent on March 13th, and no reply was received from the Egyptian government.

**Portu-
gal's
Policy.**

On April 4th Senhor Beirao, the Portuguese Minister of Foreign Affairs, made the following statement in the Portuguese Chamber of Deputies concerning the transport of British troops across Portuguese East Africa into Rhodesia: "The transport of British soldiers by railroad from Beira to Utali was requested by Great Britain and consented to by Portugal because the British government thereby only exercised a right recognized in the treaties between the two countries. The outbreak of war has not abrogated these treaties, which were concluded and signed prior to the war by Portugal in a spirit of loyalty. I have informed the Transvaal of this resolution. Portugal has loyally adhered to its duties and neutrality, and its resolutions have been communicated to all interested parties. There could occur no more solemn occasion than the present to declare that the British Cabinet has maintained with Portugal relations of cordiality and loyalty, for which there is reason for congratulation. Please God that these good relations shall always be maintained."

**Fight
at the
Bloem-
fontein
Water
Works.**

On April 1st the British shelled the Boers holding the Bloemfontein water works, but failed to dislodge them, and the Boers still held the works. Among the British killed were Major Booth, of the Northumberland Fusiliers; Lieutenant Crowley, of Roberts's Horse, and

Lieutenant Irvine, of the army medical service. Among the British officers wounded were Colonel Rochfort and five others, of the artillery; Lieutenant A. V. Meade, of the Royal Horse Guards; three of Roberts's Horse and four of the mounted infantry. Among the missing British officers were Captain Wray, of the artillery, and Lieutenants D. R. H. Anderson-Pelham and C. W. H. Crichton.

In the early part of April the Boers were making a determined effort to recover complete control over the south-eastern portion of the Orange Free State. On the 3d three companies of the Royal Irish Rifles and two companies of the Ninth Regiment Mounted Infantry were surrounded near Reddersburg, about forty miles south of Bloemfontein, and surrendered to the Boers the next morning. Two British officers were killed and two wounded, and eight non-commissioned officers and troops were killed and thirty-three were wounded. The remainder of the force, among whom were eight officers, were taken prisoners, altogether numbering one hundred and sixty-seven mounted infantry and four hundred and twenty-four infantry. The British surrender was necessitated by the exhaustion of the British ammunition. Upon hearing the firing, Colonel Sitwell marched from Edenburg with a British force and made an effort to reach the detached column, attempting to outflank the Boers, but he was too late. The Boers numbered about five thousand men, and included many citizens of Ladybrand who had submitted to the British. Many of the Boers who had accepted Lord Roberts's proclamation were flocking into the British camps for military protection, but others rejoined the Boer commandos.

On April 5th a Boer force was surrounded near Boshof, and not a man of this force escaped. De Villebois-Mareuil, the skillful French officer in the Boer service, was killed in the action which followed. Seven Boers were also killed and eight wounded, and fifty-four were made prisoners by the victorious British.

Lord Roberts was finding great difficulty on account of the scarcity of water in consequence of the capture of the Bloemfontein water works by the Boers, and was obliged to have water drawn from wells. Lord Roberts made strong representations to Presidents Krüger and Steyn regarding the treatment of British colonial prisoners, it being reported to him that the prisoners had suffered the most disgraceful treatment.

Operations in the Orange Free State were in active progress. The attempt of the Boers to cut Lord Roberts's communications were foiled completely. A large British force could now be concentrated at any point with great rapidity. The British force at Bloemfontein was increasing daily. The Eighth Division, under General Sir Leslie Rundle,

Capture
of a
British
Detach-
ment
near
Redders-
burg.

Boer
Disaster
near
Boshof.

Scarcity
of
Water.

Treat-
ment of
Captives.

Renewed
Activity.

Siege of Wepener.

was diverted to Springfontein. On April 9th three separate Boer commandos attacked three thousand British colonials under Colonel Dalgety at Wepener, and they continued the assault the next day. The losses were heavy on both sides, but the Boer assailants suffered a decided check. The British garrison at Wepener had been practically isolated before the attack began, but the British lines were very strong and the garrison was fully provisioned and prepared for a long siege. For more than a week there was daily fighting at Wepener, where the British under Colonel Dalgety were still surrounded by the Boers. The British garrison inflicted heavy loss on the Boers on April 9th. On the 13th the Boers attempted to rush Colonel Dalgety's left front, but fell back after an hour's fighting. From April 9th to 17th the British losses at Wepener were twenty killed and one hundred wounded. The Boer losses were said to have been much larger. The garrison captured a Boer cannon. On April 11th Lord Kitchener visited Aliwal North and sent a message to the Wepener garrison hoping for an early change in the situation. The British under General Brabant reoccupied Rouxville on April 15th. British forces under Generals Brabant and Rundle were approaching for the relief of Wepener from two directions.

Other Operations in the Orange Free State.

The military activity in the Orange Free State was displayed at various points. Heavy cannonading occurred around Bultfontein, midway between Winburg and Boshof. Firing was also heard north of Brandfort on April 11th. The Third Division of the British army, under the immediate command of Major-General Chermiside, arrived at Reddersburg from Bethany on April 13th. There was severe fighting around Dewetsdorp on April 9th, 10th, 11th and 12th, the Boers being under the command of General De Wet. Major-General Pretzman, the British Military Governor of the Orange Free State, was now organizing a corps of mounted police and dividing the country into sections, to be administered by commissions, to be composed probably of British army officers. On April 19th fighting occurred south of Karee Siding, six miles north of Glen, where the British infantry, supported by artillery, held a strong position on a large dam. The Boers south of Bloemfontein were said to be retreating. Large numbers were seen near Thabanchu on April 19th, but their progress was slow on account of the terrible condition of the country.

Fighting near Dewetsdorp and Boshof.

On April 20th General Sir Leslie Rundle's force became engaged with the Boers four miles south-west of Dewetsdorp and drove them back after severe fighting. The fighting was renewed the next day. Generals Rundle and Chermiside were now within twenty miles of Wepener. On April 20th two thousand Boers attacked General Lord Methuen's division near Swartz-Kopjes-Fontein while on its return to

Boshof, but were held in check and finally retired. On April 22d General Lord Methuen had another sharp fight with the Boers near Boshof without any decisive result. A British patrol was attacked near Brandfort on April 21st, losing one man killed and two men taken prisoners. On the same day there was indecisive fighting near Dewetsdorp.

In the meantime fighting was going on day and night at Jammersburg Drift, near Wepener. The British trenches were so flooded by rains that the troops frequently climbed to the banks, only to be shot down by the Boers. The Boers were so drenched that they were unable to sleep. Roberts's powder mill was captured on April 21st. During the siege of Wepener the Cape Mounted Rifles lost one hundred and twenty out of five hundred men. Many relatives were fighting on both sides at Wepener. The British relief columns, about twenty-thousand men, attacked the Boers' defensive positions on the road to Wepener. On April 21st General Sir Leslie Rundle attacked the Boers, and he renewed the fight the next day. On Sunday, April 22d, General Brabant attacked the Boers. The Boers renewed their attacks on the garrison of Wepener under Colonel Dalgety and prepared a series of defensive works on the way of the British advance. The fighting at Wepener and Dewetsdorp continued on April 23d, and the Boers captured General Brabant's cattle and horses. The Boers captured twenty British prisoners at Dewetsdorp. While General Rundle was preparing to strike the large Boer force at Dewetsdorp, Generals Brabant and Hart were pushing along the frontier of Basutoland, and Generals French and Pole-Carew were hastening from Bloemfontein to cut off the Boer line of retreat northward. Many of the Boers were moving southward. General Rundle was advancing slowly to the relief of Wepener, every step being contested closely by the Boers. The British occupied some kopjes, but their left wing was driven back.

During General Alderson's advance on Leeuw Kop the Canadians found themselves in a very tight corner near Donkerpoort on Sunday, April 22d. The Canadian mounted infantry sent to reconnoiter the Boer position approached within three hundred yards of a farm flying the hospital flag, under cover of which the Boers opened such a hot fire on the Canadians that they were unable to retire until another Canadian force covered their retreat by threatening the rear of the Boer position. The Boers were driven from Leeuw Kop so hurriedly on April 23d that they left a large quantity of ammunition and many rifles behind them. The Warwickshire Regiment took the farm-house at the foot of the ridge and were subjected to a cross-fire from the Boers. When the Boers were driven off they retreated eastward. A portion of General French's cavalry reconnoitered the new positions of

Opera-
tions
around
Wepener
and
Dewets-
dorp.

British
Capture
of Leeuw
Kop.

the Boers. A strong Boer force under General De Wet held the Bloemfontein water works.

British
Defeat
near
Boshof.

On April 23d Commandant Cronje, the second son of the renowned general then a prisoner at St. Helena, with a strong commando, attacked the British north-east of Boshof; and after a fierce engagement the British were driven from kopje to kopje and fell back toward Boshof, with the loss of fifteen men killed, three wounded and eight captured, while the Boer loss was only two men wounded.

Relief of
Wepener.

About half of Lord Roberts's force was now trying to relieve Wepener, forty thousand men thus being detached from the main British army to rescue the garrison of fifteen hundred colonials under Colonel Dalgety, besieged by the Boers. General Brabant, who had started from Aliwal North, in Cape Colony, with not less than two thousand colonials, arrived at Bushman's Kop, twenty miles from Wepener, on the evening of April 21st, and found the Boers in a strong position. Fighting began at sunrise the next day, Sunday, April 22d. General Rundle, who had left Bloemfontein with about twenty thousand men, encountered the Boers east of Reddersburg, where the fighting was so hard that Lord Roberts had to send a reinforcement of fifteen thousand men to General Rundle's assistance. The fact that the besieged garrison at Wepener were British colonials made the struggle partake of the nature of a civil war, as relatives were fighting relatives. Wepener was finally relieved on April 24th, and the next day General Chermiside occupied Dewetsdorp without opposition and General Pole-Carew arrived at Roodekop without loss. The indecisive actions and slow progress of Generals Brabant and Hart were counterbalanced by the progress of General French. Lord Roberts now intended to entrap the Boers, and for this purpose he concentrated forty thousand British troops in the south-eastern portion of the Orange Free State.

Opera-
tions
around
Wepener,
Dewets-
dorp and
Thaban-
chu.

The Boers outwitted the British and escaped from the cordon around Wepener and Dewetsdorp, in which the British tried to inclose them, having relinquished their position on the night of April 25th, on account of General French's approach and General Rundle's persistent shelling, retiring in a north-easterly direction, with General Rundle in pursuit by forced marches. Generals Rundle and French joined their forces in the running fight against the retreating Boers. General French entered Dewetsdorp with two cavalry brigades on April 25th, having left his camp at daylight and shelled the Boers from the hills which they had occupied and forced them to retreat, after which he flanked the Boer position above the town and came to General Rundle's aid; but six thousand Boers had outwitted French's cavalry by passing the town the previous night to avoid General French's attack in the rear. The Boers escaped unbeaten, after ac-

completing an immense amount of damage and after clinging to their positions as long as it was safe to do so, thus slipping off to hold their next commanding ridge through a broken country admirably adapted to their style of warfare. The attempt of the Boers at Brandfort to get in touch with the Boer command at Thabanchu was frustrated by a British force which General Tucker had dispatched from Glen. Lord Rosslyn was taken as a prisoner to Pretoria. On April 27th, 28th and 29th the Boers made very persistent attacks around Thabanchu; but General Rundle's division held a strong position and was supported by Gordon's and Dickson's brigades, General French's cavalry, General Smith-Dorrien's infantry and General Ian Hamilton's mounted infantry. General Pole-Carew's division returned from Dewetsdorp. Among the British officers killed was Lieutenant Geary. On April 29th General French found the Boers in strong positions near Thabanchu, they having evacuated the town to occupy stronger positions in the hills east of the town. General De Wet failed in an effort to turn General French's eastern flank after a series of maneuvers. On April 30th the Boers made a daring attempt to cut off a British convoy between Thabanchu and Dewetsdorp, opening fire from the adjacent hills; but the convoy was rescued promptly by a small force of British Yeomanry under General Brabazon just arriving from Wepener. There was much cannonading with very little effect. On the same day General Maxwell's brigade occupied Vlaksontors and Schaus Kraal, a row of kopjes, without encountering any opposition from the Boers; but the British mounted infantry were engaged with the Boers for some hours.

The British were making great progress in the Orange Free State at the close of April. By a flank movement, General Ian Hamilton drove the Boers from a strong position at Israel's Poort on April 25th. General French reached Thabanchu with his cavalry on April 27th and met General Ian Hamilton's and General Smith-Dorrien's brigades there. The Boers made desperate but unsuccessful attacks on the British around Thabanchu on April 28th and 29th. General Ian Hamilton marched north from Thabanchu on April 30th, with the British mounted infantry and General Smith-Dorrien's brigade. At Houtney he encountered a strong Boer force, but he was reinforced from Thabanchu during the night. On April 30th General Maxwell's brigade captured some kopjes from the Boers at Vlakfontein-Schamskraal, the British mounted infantry being engaged for some hours. General Ian Hamilton's and General Smith-Dorrien's brigades flanked the Boer position on May 1st and drove back the Boers. The country between Thabanchu and Dewetsdorp was now practically clear of the Boers, many who had been serving in the Boer commandos returning to their

Operations
around
Thabanchu
and
Dewets-
dorp.

farms. The Boers who again took up arms after taking the oath under Lord Roberts's proclamation were now being treated more severely by the British. General Sir Charles Warren was appointed Military Governor of Griqualand West, for the purpose of dealing effectively with the Dutch rebellion in Cape Colony.

Operations at Mafeking, Fourteen Streams and Warrenton.

Sharp fighting again occurred in the vicinity of Mafeking on April 2d. The garrison under Colonel Baden-Powell made a sortie, while Colonel Plumer's cavalry attacked the Boers at Ramathlabama, but both attacks were repulsed. Colonel Plumer lost twenty killed and six wounded. The Boer loss was small. The British shelled the Fourteen Streams Railway Station on April 6th and 7th, as a number of Boers occupied the station. Considerable activity was also shown by the Boers in the vicinity of Warrenton. The Boers vigorously bombarded Mafeking at intervals. Lieutenant Smitheman, of the Rhodesian Regiment, got into Mafeking and returned to Colonel Plumer's camp on April 8th. On April 13th two hundred Boers attacked forty troops of Orpen's Horse near Drachoender, but were driven off. Good news was received from Mafeking up to April 10th. All was reported well, and the brave little garrison was as resolute as ever in its defense against the besieging Boers. The besiegers captured several native women who were trying to escape from the town, but these were turned back. News from Mafeking up to April 20th stated that the Boers had been blowing up the railroad southward, but that there was little bombardment or cannonading. The garrison responded cheerfully to Lord Roberts's request to hold out for another month. On April 23d the Boers shelled the British river redoubts near Warrenton and were in strong force down the stream. About the same time the Boers were driven from Fourteen Streams, where they had been disputing the passage of the Vaal River so as to prevent the British from entering the Transvaal.

Operations in Natal.

Active military operations were also again being prosecuted in Natal. On April 10th there was a lively cannonade at Elandslaagte, the scene of the British victory of October 21, 1899. The Boers attacked General Buller's right flank under General Clery while the British were changing their position, but the British artillery silenced the Boer cannon. The British lost four killed and eight wounded. In the evening the Boers retreated in a north-westerly direction. On April 12th there was a continuous musketry and artillery fire at Elandslaagte, but after two hours' fighting the Boers were checked. The Boers continued shelling the British position for several days, the British retiring toward Ladysmith. A British force under General Hunter proceeded from Ladysmith to Durban. The British position at Biggersberg was defended by about seven thousand British troops

with artillery. The Boers were still aggressive. They cannonaded Elandslaagte and attempted feints in other directions.

On April 3d a transport sailed from Cape Town for St. Helena, with General Cronje and one thousand other Boer prisoners on board. The loyalists of Cape Colony complained bitterly of the indulgence shown the Dutch rebel colonials. A loyalist meeting was held at Paarl, in Cape Colony, and was attended largely by Dutch colonials. On April 4th a great meeting was held at Cape Town, which demanded that the two Boer Republics should not retain their independence. In view of the state of unrest in Cape Colony, Lord Roberts issued a proclamation warning the Dutch colonists that further acts of hostility would be treated with the utmost rigor of martial law. The Boers reappeared along the Orange River and at the drifts. Sir Alfred Milner, in replying to an address from clergymen, said that the rebel leaders should be treated severely. Two of the Cape Colony rebels were sentenced at Naauwpoort, one to ten years' penal servitude and the other to five years. On April 23d the thirty-six Dutch rebel colonials captured at Douglas were convicted of treason at Cape Town. The ringleaders were sentenced to five years' imprisonment and the others to three years' imprisonment, except those under age. At Cape Town a government contractor named Bam was arrested for harboring three escaped Boer prisoners dressed as clergymen. The prisoners were sent back to Simonstown, whence they had escaped.

Cape
Colony
Loyalists
and
Colonial
Rebels.

The *Niobe* and the *Milwaukee* arrived at the island of St. Helena with the Boer prisoners on April 10th. General Cronje was landed on the 14th, on which day Colonel Schiel and two other Boer prisoners attempted to escape. The Governor of the island was notified that the British authorities desired that the prisoners should be treated with every courtesy and consideration.

Boer
Prisoners
at St.
Helena.

General Sir William Forbes Gatacre was succeeded by Lieutenant-General Pole-Carew in command of the Third Division, and several other changes of British commanders in South Africa were announced. General Sir George Stuart White, the heroic defender of Ladysmith, arrived at Southampton, England, on April 14th, and was received with the most extravagant enthusiasm. The British cruiser *Powerful* arrived at Portsmouth, England, on April 11th, and had a most enthusiastic welcome.

Changes
of British
Com-
manders.

The British government made a contract in the United States for between thirty thousand and forty thousand horses for the British forces in South Africa. On April 14th three transports arrived at Beira, in Portuguese East Africa, with the Australian Bushmen. General Sir Frederick Carrington's force was to detrain at Marandellas, on the Mashonaland Railway, from which point it was to proceed

British
Prepara-
tions.

south-west to Victoria, in the direction of the Transvaal. The governments of the two Boer Republics notified Portugal that the passage of British troops and munitions of war through Beira would be considered tantamount to hostile action.

Criticism
on Spion
Kop.

The London *Gazette* of April 17th published dispatches describing the battle of Spion Kop on January 23d and 24th, with a covering dispatch of Lord Roberts, who severely criticised Generals Buller and Warren and Lieutenant-Colonel Thorneycroft and said that the attempt to relieve Ladysmith described in the dispatches ought to have succeeded. On April 18th it was stated that General Sir Charles Warren had been ordered to return to England.

Speeches
on the
War.

Toward the close of April speeches on the war were made by three British Cabinet Ministers—Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, Mr. Long and Mr. Ritchie. Mr. Long said that the government was not bound to dismiss every general who had made a mistake, and Mr. Ritchie said that Lord Roberts's criticism of the Spion Kop incident was not published without that commander's knowledge. References to the same subject were made in speeches delivered by Sir Henry Hartley Fowler, Sir Charles Wentworth Dilke, Sir Walter Peace, Lord Strathcona and Lord Spencer.

Doings
of the
Trans-
vaal
Govern-
ment.

On April 2d the Transvaal government published a notice in Pretoria to all British residents in Johannesburg, Boksburg and Krügersdorp to leave the Transvaal within forty-eight hours. The Transvaal government requested Lord Roberts to be allowed to send a clergyman to St. Helena and also a neutral consul to watch the interests of the Boer prisoners in the same manner as United States Consul Adelbert S. Hay guarded the interests of the British at Pretoria. The Transvaal government also issued a proclamation prohibiting the working of the mines on Sunday and inflicting punishment on managers who paid more than a pound (almost five dollars) a month to natives.

Chicago
Ambu-
lance
Corps.

United States Consul Hay at Pretoria notified the State Department at Washington by cable on April 19th concerning the reported action of members of the Chicago Ambulance Corps, in taking up arms in the Boer army, instead of continuing with the hospital corps, to which they had pledged themselves upon leaving the United States.

French
and
German
Sympa-
thy for
the Boers.

In France and Germany popular sympathy was still strongly on the side of the Boers. A pro-Boer committee from Munich submitted to Chancellor Von Hohenlohe a petition with seventy thousand signatures, asking for international intervention in South Africa. The same petition was to be sent to all the signers of The Hague convention. The names of many prominent men appeared on the petition, and also a number of societies, some which have thirty thousand members. A committee at Hamburg was receiving signatures to a similar petition.

The transport *Portugal*, with eight hundred Portuguese troops, arrived at Lorenzo Marques from Lisbon on April 21st, thus making Portugal feel easier regarding the Boer protest against the British use of Beira. On April 21st the Irish brigade in the Boer service paraded in front of President Krüger's house. The President made a speech of thanks and welcome to them, and the force was photographed afterward.

Portu-
guese
Troops.

Irish
Brigade.

On the night of April 25th the Boer arsenal at Pretoria was blown up by a serious explosion in a magazine containing smokeless powder, across the street. The walls of the arsenal building were destroyed and the structures in the vicinity were a mass of flames. Ten workmen were killed and thirty-two were wounded, among whom was Herr Grunberg, the manager of the Begbie works. Thirteen of the occupants of the building were blown to pieces and fifty were injured. The Transvaal authorities believed the explosion to be the work of British or Uitlander incendiaries; and, as a result, another batch of British subjects, consisting of ten men, two hundred and sixty-five women and four hundred and twenty-nine children, were expelled from the Transvaal and were on their way to Delagoa Bay.

Explosion
of the
Pretoria
Arsenal.

On May 3d Lord Roberts captured Brandfort without much opposition, and the next day the British mounted infantry went to the Vet River. The rest of the British force marched there on the 5th. On May 2d the Boers evacuated Thabanchu and marched northward. The next day General French left Thabanchu, leaving General Rundle in command. General Brabant soon reinforced General Rundle. Lord Roberts marched to the Vet River with General Pole-Carew's Division on May 5th. The British mounted infantry flanked the Boer right and pushed across the river under a heavy shell and musketry fire. General Ian Hamilton prevented the two Boer forces from uniting by his presence in the action on May 4th. The Boers left their dead and wounded on the field. General Rundle moved forward from Thabanchu and attacked the Boers, capturing their positions and pursuing them eastward. The British crossed the Vet River on May 6th and encamped at Smaldeel Junction. The Boers were in full retreat towards the Sand River and Kroonstad. The British captured a Maxim cannon and twenty-five prisoners. On May 5th Winburg surrendered to General Ian Hamilton, who for a week was continually in touch with General Botha's rear-guard and whose advance scouts were overlapping Winburg before the Boer transport was clear. Winburg contained large stocks of grain and quantities of ammunition. The Highland Brigade occupied Winburg, and General Ian Hamilton pushed on to the Sand River. General French reached Smaldeel on May 8th.

British
Occupation
of
Brand-
fort,
Thaban-
chu and
Winburg.

Lord
Roberts's
Passage
of the
Sand
River
and
Occupation
of
Kroon-
stad.

In his advance northward to the Transvaal, Lord Roberts forced the passage of the Sand River on May 10th, though the Boer position was twenty miles long and the British position was necessarily longer. General Ian Hamilton's division encountered an obstinate resistance from the Boers. General Broadwood's brigade overtook part of the Boer convoy and captured several wagons and prisoners. On May 12th Lord Roberts entered Kroonstad without opposition and hoisted the Union Jack. President Steyn had fled the previous evening, after vainly endeavoring to persuade his followers to continue their resistance. The Transvaalers said that they would no longer fight in the Orange Free State and fled to the Vaal River. The Free Staters accused the Transvaalers of having made use of them and then deserted them. Many of the Free Staters had gone to their homes, and hundreds remained in town to surrender. President Steyn had gone to Heilbron, which he proclaimed to be the new capital of the Orange Free State. The day previous to the British occupation of Kroonstad the Irish-Americans in the Boer service got possession of a large quantity of rum and became beastly intoxicated, and while in that condition they burned down the goods' sheds before they fled on the British approach. Lord Roberts reported another gross instance of Boer treachery near Kroonstad on May 14th, when the British who came to receive the surrender of a farmer from whose house a white flag was flying were fired upon by Boers in ambush and a number of British were killed.

Boer
Dissen-
sions.

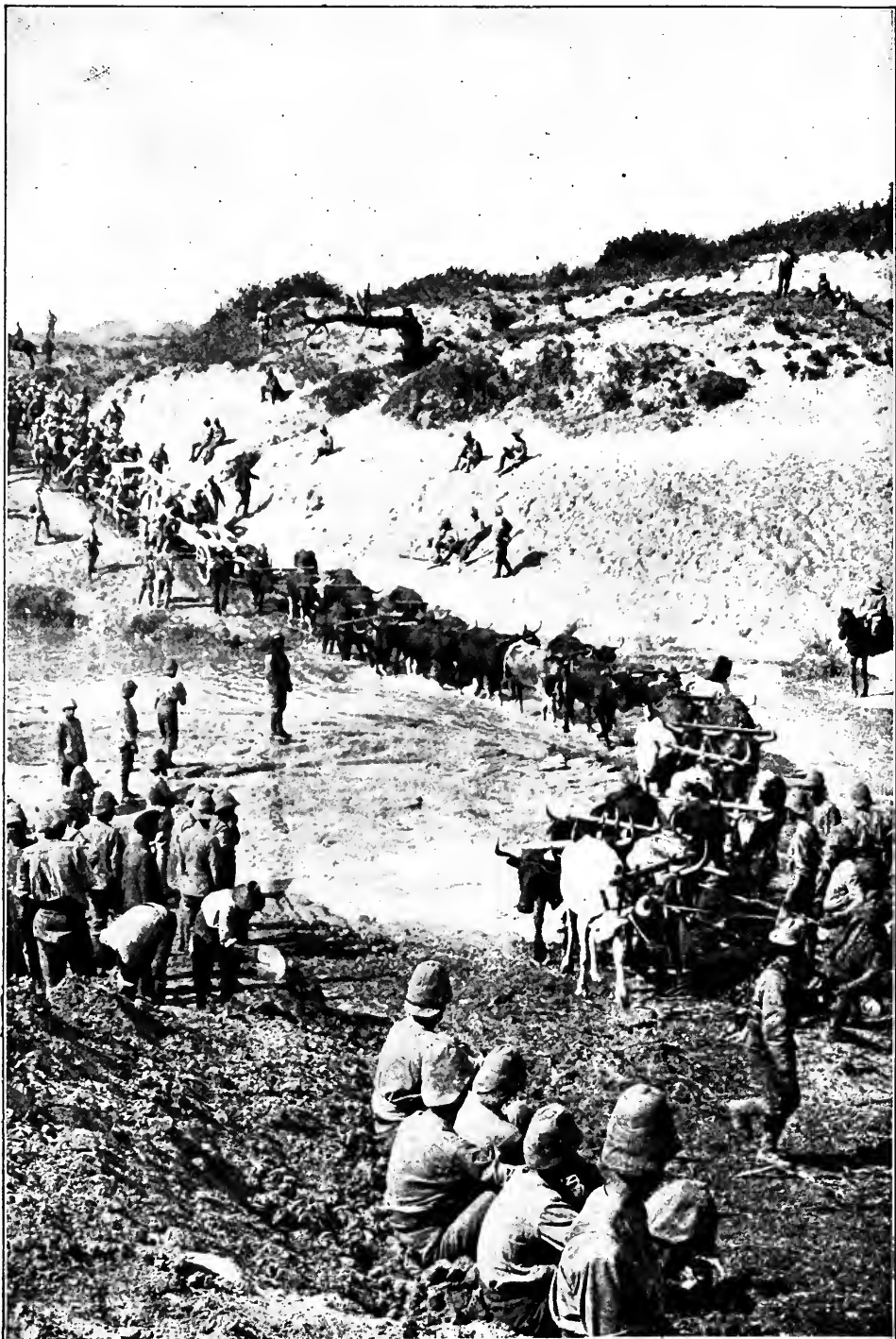
Other
Incidents.

Boer
Despera-
tion.

The Transvaal Volksraad was opened at Pretoria on May 7th. It was rumored that a strong party in the Volksraad was determined to have peace negotiations reopened. It was now stated that the Boers recognized that they were in their last extremity and that all sorts and conditions of men were being compelled to go on commando. The Rev. Adrian Hofmeyr was released from Pretoria after seven months' incarceration.

Opera-
tions of
Generals
Rundle
and
Brabant.

General Rundle's operations east of Thabanchu utterly foiled the Boer efforts to rally in that quarter. Many Boers were made prisoners and large numbers were surrendering daily. General Rundle advanced to Brand's Drift, twenty miles north-east of Thabanchu, on May 13th. General Brabant's division was also moving northward and was taking many prisoners. Captain Grenfell's force entered Newberry's Mills on May 12th and captured large quantities of grain and flour. President Steyn's brother surrendered to the British. General Rundle occupied Mequatling's Nek and Modderpoort without opposition and was close to Clocolan on May 16th, the country being clear of Boer troops. A few days later Generals Rundle and Brabant occupied Trommel and Clocolan. General Rundle advanced and occupied the town of Mexico, twenty miles east of Winburg. Large



From Photograph, copyright by Underwood & Underwood

LORD ROBERTS' ADVANCE ON PRETORIA
Taking Heavy Naval Guns Across the Vet River



numbers of Orange Free State Boers continued to surrender and deliver up their arms to the British.

On May 14th the Imperial Yeomanry occupied Ladybrand. The British force under General Hunter entered the Transvaal from the south-west on May 15th and occupied Christiania the next day, the Boers having retired to Klerksdorp. General Lord Methuen entered Hoopstad without opposition on May 17th, and General Ian Hamilton occupied Lindley on the same day. The British made important captures. Generals Du Prey and Daniels and forty men surrendered. The British mounted infantry under General Hutton surprised General Botha and twenty-three other Boers thirty miles north-west of Kroonstad also on May 17th. The Boers blew up a bridge over the Rhenoster River, thirty-seven miles north of Kroonstad, to obstruct the progress of the invaders.

Lord Roberts, General Lord Methuen and General Hunter were all coöperating for the invasion of the Transvaal from three different points, Roberts from Kroonstad, Methuen from Hoopstad, and Hunter having also crossed the Vaal and occupied Christiania. General Hunter was pushing up the railway with supplies for the Mafeking garrison and was arranging a hospital train to convey the sick and wounded to Kimberley. General Lord Methuen left Hoopstad to coöperate with General Hunter's force. On May 20th a British convoy on its way to Lindley was attacked by the Boers and obliged to halt. On the same day the Boers under General Kolbe were routed by the British between Heilbron and Lindley, losing one man killed and seven wounded. Over three hundred and fifty Boers surrendered to the British officer at Boshof unconditionally, thus giving up three hundred and sixty rifles, one hundred horses and much ammunition. Three companies of Yeomanry sent by General Kelly-Kenny repaired the telegraph line and cleared the country between Boshof and Bloemfontein. General Chris Botha was appointed assistant to his brother, General Louis Botha, the Boer commander-in-chief; and he revived the fighting spirit of many Boers.

It was now persistently rumored that a peace party was being formed at Pretoria in consequence of the discouragement among the Transvaalers on account of the recent Boer reverses. The committee of the International Peace Bureau, at Berne, Switzerland, decided to make an appeal for peace to the twenty-five powers which signed the conventions of The Hague Peace Conference.

It was now stated that the Transvaal government had decided to blow up the Johannesburg gold mines, and that when General Louis Botha heard of this he hastened to Pretoria and protested strenuously against such action, threatening to use his own army to protect the

**General
Hunter's
Invasion
of the
Trans-
vaal.**

**British
Captures.**

**Opera-
tions of
Lords
Roberts
and
Methuen
and
General
Hunter.**

**Peace
Move-
ment.**

**Gold
Mines
Threat-
ened.**

mines in case the attempt were made to destroy them, thus compelling President Krüger to abandon the scheme.

Passage
of the
Rhenoster
River and
Occupation
of
Heilbron.

On May 22d General French crossed the Rhenoster River, northwest of Horningspruit, driving the Boers before him. The same day General Ian Hamilton occupied Heilbron, after a series of engagements with the Boers under General De Wet. The main British army, under Lord Roberts, resumed its advance toward the Transvaal. President Steyn had fled from Heilbron on May 22d, the very day that General Ian Hamilton occupied the town. General Broadwood captured fifteen Boer wagons. On May 23d Lord Roberts reached the Rhenoster River, the Boers having abandoned their strong position on the north bank of the river when the British approached. General Ian Hamilton drove the Boers under General De Wet before them from Lindley to Heilbron. The Boers strongly disputed the passage of the Rhenoster River, and General Hamilton's force was saved great loss by the skillfully-executed flank movement of General Smith-Dorrien's brigade.

Boer
Resolu-
tion.

After two days' consultation at Pretoria, Presidents Krüger and Steyn and all the prominent Transvaal and Orange Free State officials decided to fight to the bitter end unless Great Britain granted favorable terms of peace. The Transvaal government warned the Johannesburg people that it would defend that city against the British army advancing against it.

Operations
of
Generals
Rundle
and
Brabant.

A British patrol was attacked near Trommel by a Boer force, and one man was wounded and three horses were killed. General Rundle occupied Senekal on May 24th. On May 28th General Rundle attacked a large Boer force at Senekal with small loss. On the same day General Brabant sent out two patrols consisting of two officers and forty privates, all of whom were made prisoners by the Boers. On May 31st General Rundle routed the Boers in a desperate conflict eight miles east of Senekal, thus facilitating the reoccupation of Lindley without opposition. General Colville was opposed by the Boers all the way from Ventersburg to Heilbron, losing six killed and thirty-two wounded. The Lancashire battery of field artillery and Grant's naval guns did efficient work. General Rundle lost thirty-two killed and one hundred and fifty wounded in his operations. General Brabant practically surrounded the Boers five miles outside of Ficksburg by the close of May. The only avenue of retreat for the Boers was into Basutoland, where thousands of Basutos under Chief Jonathan were awaiting events. The Thirteenth Battalion of Imperial Yeomanry was compelled to surrender to a very superior Boer force near Lindley on May 31st. Lord Methuen afterwards attacked and routed the Boers, numbering more than two thousand strong.

On May 28th Lord Roberts announced to his troops the annexation of the Orange Free State, which thenceforth was to be known as the Orange River Colony. On the same day Major-General George Tindal Pretzman, at Bloemfontein, amid salutes and cheers and the singing of "*God Save the Queen*," formally proclaimed that the Orange Free State was annexed to the British dominions under the title of the Orange River Colony, while Lord Acheson unfurled the royal standard and the bands played "*God Save the Queen*," after the reading of the royal proclamation, the multitude singing the British national anthem while the band was playing it, the ceremony closing with loud cheers for the queen, Lord Roberts and the British army, and a salute of twenty-one cannon.

**Formal
Annexation
of the
Orange
Free
State.**

In Natal, General Buller advanced on the Helpmakaar Road on May 12th. By the next day the Boers had abandoned their strong positions and retired to the Nek in front of Helpmakaar, which in turn they evacuated that night, leaving a rear-guard of about one thousand men, whom the British drove back the next day. On May 15th General Buller occupied Dundee and Glencoe without opposition. At some of the collieries he found the machinery destroyed. The Boer retreat through Dundee was an utter rout. The Boers also evacuated Biggarsberg. General Buller was in close pursuit of seven thousand retreating Boers, and the Second Division entered Dannhauser on May 17th, on which day Buller also occupied Newcastle. The Fifth Division was between Glencoe and Elandslaagte, and the Fourth Division at Sunday River Drift. On May 19th General Clery moved to the Ingogo River and Lord Dundonald advanced to Laing's Nek, the latter almost overtaking the retreating Boer column and capturing a few prisoners and a few wagons. General Buller's advance was retarded by the destruction of the railway by the retreating Boers. The Boers seemed to be occupying Laing's Nek and Majuba Hill in considerable force.

**General
Buller's
Operations
in
Natal.**

In a Boer ambush between Nqutu and Mount Prospect eight British were killed and thirteen wounded on May 19th. The next day seventy British of Colonel Bethune's mounted infantry were ambushed by eighty Boers of the Swaziland commando at Scheeper's Nek, while on the way to Newcastle, the British detachment being thoroughly annihilated, losing sixty-six men in killed, wounded and missing, while the Boers lost only one man killed and one wounded and captured twenty-five horses, two Maxim cannon and much ammunition. Among the British wounded was Captain the Earl of De la Warr (Delaware).

**Colonel
Bethune's
Force
Am-
bushed.**

On May 21st the British crossed the Buffalo River, and severe fighting occurred at Botha's Nek on the same day. General Hildyard reached Newcastle on May 26th, after which he invaded the Trans-

**British
Invasion
of the
Trans-
vaal
from
Natal.**

vaal and occupied Utrecht on May 30th. The movements of Generals Hildyard and Lyttleton compelled the Boers to evacuate Dornberg and to retreat northward. On May 29th General Clery bombarded Laing's Nek, which the Boers evacuated the next day, retreating before their assailants.

**Opera-
tions of
Generals
Hunter
and
Barton.**

On the western frontier General Hunter crossed the Vaal River at Windsorton on May 3d without opposition. General Barton's brigade had a severe engagement with the Boers two miles north of Rooidam on May 5th, the Boer position being about four miles long and held strongly, but ridge after ridge being captured by the British after brilliant and heroic fighting. After thus defeating the Boers, General Hunter joined the British force near Warrenton, and the Boers were driven from their position at Fourteen Streams.

**Colonel
Baden-
Powell's
Defense of
Mafeking.**

Colonel Baden-Powell was still gallantly holding out at Mafeking against the besieging Boers. Natives who arrived at Plumer's camp early in May stated that the bombardment of Mafeking on the 1st was not heavy. About twelve hundred and eighty refugees from Mafeking had reached Plumer's camp. The Boers regularly patrolled the vicinity of Mafeking, but did not appear to be aggressive. On May 7th Colonel Baden-Powell reported that all was well at Mafeking, that the garrison was cheerful, that the fever was abating and that the food supply would last until June 10th. There was severe fighting at Mafeking on May 11th and 12th. A force of besiegers stormed the native township, but suffered a crushing defeat.

**Opera-
tions of
Colonel
Plumer
and
Generals
Warren
and
Hunter.**

In the meantime Lieutenant Moorsome with the protectorate regiment from Mafeking met Colonel Plumer, and, after a daring march of three hundred miles and many narrow escapes, reached Vryburg, through a deadly fever-stricken country. Many concealed arms were discovered and the owners were arrested. They informed the British against their neighbors. The natives rendered the British every assistance. General Warren occupied Douglas after heavy fighting and without any loss on his part, the Boers retreating northward. About this time eight hundred Boers surrendered at Vryburg. The road from Mafeking to Kimberley, two hundred miles long, was clear; and all opposition in that quarter was practically ended. General Hunter occupied Vryburg on May 23d.

**Opera-
tions of
Colonel
Mahon
and
Others.**

Colonel Mahon halted with his British flying column at Maribogo and was awaiting remounts and supplies before advancing into the Transvaal from the west. On May 27th a British detachment under Colonel Adye completely defeated a force of Dutch Cape Colony rebels at Kheis. On May 30th General Warren, with seven hundred British troops, was surrounded by one thousand Dutch rebels from Cape Colony at Faber Spruit, but repulsed their attack. Late in May

the British invaded the Transvaal from the west, occupied Zeerust and advanced toward Lichtenburg.

After a heroic and desperate defense of seven months by the valiant Colonel Baden-Powell's gallant little garrison, Mafeking was finally relieved on the morning of May 17th by a British flying column from the south under Colonel Bryan T. Mahon, which had been joined by Colonel Plumer's force from the north on May 15th at Jamaisda.

Relief of Mafeking.

In his march for the relief of Mafeking, Colonel Mahon had some severe fighting with the Boers who opposed his advance. On May 12th he fought the Boers from Maritsani Siding, losing five killed, twenty-four wounded and two missing; but the Boer loss was heavier. On May 16th—the day after he was joined by Colonel Plumer's force—he fought fifteen hundred Boers nine miles from Mafeking, driving them from a strong position after five hours' fighting. On the morning of this fight a detachment of Canadian artillery came up by forced marches and rendered efficient aid. The British loss was about thirty, and the Boer loss was greater.

Colonels Mahon's and Plumer's Advance.

On May 12th—five days before the relief of Mafeking—the Boers made their last desperate attempt to carry the beleaguered town by assault. Before daybreak, while the Boer main force under General Snyman made a feint on the east side of the town, a storming party of seven hundred Boers under Commandant Eloff, President Krüger's grandson, crept up stealthily by the bed of the Molopo River and made a desperate and unexpected assault upon the town; but Eloff's force got divided, and after a day's fighting two parties of the Boer assailants were repulsed and surrendered soon after nightfall, while the third party was driven off. The Boers lost ten killed, nineteen wounded and one hundred and eighteen prisoners, among whom were Commandant Eloff, Count de Bremont, a Frenchman, and Count von Weiss, a German. The British lost six killed and eleven wounded.

Last Boer Assault on the Town.

As soon as Colonel Mahon's relieving force arrived at Mafeking, on May 17th, it was joined by the garrison under Colonel Baden-Powell; and the combined British forces marched out, attacked the Boer laager, shelled the Boers out and almost captured General Snyman, killing five Boers and wounding fifteen and capturing a cannon, a flag and a large amount of ammunition, stores, etc. This great victory of Colonels Mahon and Baden-Powell raised the siege of Mafeking, and Colonel Mahon's flying column entered the town before daybreak the next morning, May 18th.

Colonel Baden-Powell's Successful Sally

England and the whole British Empire went wild with joy at the news of the relief of Mafeking and of Colonel Baden-Powell's long and heroic defense against immense odds and his final brilliant repulse and capture of a Boer storming party. The enthusiastic popular rejoic-

Rejoicing Throughout the British Empire.

ings in London were absolutely unparalleled, entirely eclipsing the extravagant rejoicings which followed the reliefs of Kimberley and Ladysmith and Cronje's surrender. Lord Roberts, General Buller and the other heroes of the war were entirely forgotten amid these public rejoicings; and Robert Stephenson Smyth Baden-Powell, although only a colonel, was the favorite popular idol and was justly regarded as the real hero of the war, as his talents and genius prolonged a defense which many another would have given up months before. With a handful of men he held out against great odds for seven months in an outpost on a South African prairie. Even the pro-Boer sympathizers outside of South Africa admired his genius, heroism and worthy qualities. Queen Victoria rewarded him with the appointment of major-general. Baden-Powell is an artist, a poet and a prose writer as well as a talented military commander.

General
Baden-
Powell's
Speech.

Mafeking was resuming its normal condition. On the Queen's birthday, May 24th, Major-General Baden-Powell gave a dinner to the officers of the relief columns. During the course of a speech proposing the queen's health, the heroic defender of Mafeking said that he felt so elated by the recent occurrences that he could "drink the health of Paul Krüger himself coupled with that of Cecil Rhodes," further remarking: "Because Krüger has been the cause of the present great outburst of imperial feeling and Rhodes was the red rag to the bull which drew him on."

Austin's
Poem.

The following is a poem by the Poet-Laureate, Alfred Austin, on the successful defense of Mafeking:

MAFEKING, OCTOBER 15, 1899.—MAY 17, 1900.

"Once again, banners, fly!
Clang again, bells, on high,
Sounding to sea and sky
Longer and louder
Mafeking's glory with
Kimberley, Ladysmith,
Prouder and Prouder.

"Hemmed in for half a year,
Still with no succor near,
Nor word of hope to cheer
Wounded and dying,
Fevered, and foiled of sleep
By the fierce cannon's leap,
They still, still vowed to keep
England's flag flying.

"Nor was their metal shown
By male and strong alone,
But, as intrepid grown,
Fragile and tender,

Without a tear or sigh,
 Echoed the brave old cry,
 'We, too, would rather die,
 Die than surrender.'

"As pressed the foe more near,
 Only with naked spear,
 Ne'er knowing what to fear,
 Parley, or blench meant,
 Forward through shot and shell,
 While still the foremost fell,
 They with resistless yell
 Stormed his intrenchment.

"Then, when hope dawned at last,
 And fled the foe, aghast
 At the relieving blast
 Heard in the melly—
 O our stout, stubborn kith!
 Kimberley, Ladysmith,
 Mafeking, wedded with
 Lucknow and Delhi!

"Sound for them martial lay!
 Crown them with battle-bay,
 Both those who died, and they
 'Gainst death could wrestle;
 Powell of endless fame,
 All, all with equal claim,
 And, of the storied name,
 Gallant young Cecil!

"Long as the waves shall roll,
 Long as Fame guards her scroll,
 And men through heart and soul
 Thrill to true glory,
 Their deed, from age to age,
 Shall voice and verse engage,
 Swelling the splendid page
 Of England's story!"

The British invasion of the Transvaal began on May 24th, when the advance portion of Lord Roberts's army crossed the Vaal River near Parys. In the meantime Colonel Henry's mounted infantry, with the Bedfordshire Yeomanry and Lumsden's cavalry, crossed the Vaal at Viljoen's Drift, after some skirmishing among the coal mines; and Colonel Henry occupied Vereeniging at midday on May 26th, capturing twenty-seven locomotives. General French's column had crossed the Vaal at Lindrique's Drift on May 25th. It was said that supplies and foreign recruits still reached the Boers by way of Lorenzo Marques. It was also said that foreign residents were fast leaving Pretoria.

Lord
 Roberts's
 Invasion
 of the
 Trans-
 vaal.

Fighting
at Van
Wyk's
Rust,
Witwa-
tersrand
and Klip
River.

On Sunday, May 27th, a fight occurred near Van Wyk's Rust, in Gatsrand, in which the Boers were routed and driven toward Van Wyk's Rust. The next day the British attacked Witwatersrand, but were repulsed by the Boers under General Louis Botha. On Sunday, May 27th, Generals French and Ian Hamilton defeated the Boers at the Klip River and prepared to force their way to the northward of Johannesburg. The fighting was renewed the next day, to the disadvantage of the Boers. The Boers were so hard pressed that they only had time to get their five cannon into a train and move out as some of the West Australian mounted infantry dashed into the station.

British
Advance
and Boer
Retreat.

On May 26th Lord Roberts marched twenty miles and was eighteen miles from Johannesburg, the Boers evacuating all their strong positions as the British advanced. The farmers on the line of the British march mere surrendering their arms and horses. On May 28th and 29th General French was opposed in his march by large forces of Boers in strong positions, from which he drove them with the loss of four of his own men killed and twenty-seven wounded. On May 29th and 30th the Boers stubbornly resisted the British advance to Johannesburg, the brunt of the fighting on the British side falling upon General Ian Hamilton's column, which was supporting General French's cavalry to the west of Johannesburg on the 29th, the Boers being driven from their positions. The next day the remnants of the Boer rear-guard fought the British in the streets of Germiston, but the streets were easily cleared by the British grenadiers. General Ian Hamilton was then at Florida, west of Johannesburg, and General French was a few miles farther north-east. General Bruce Hamilton and Colonel Spens, of the Shropshire Light Infantry, of General Smith-Dorrien's division, fought with great skill.

President
Krüger's
Flight.

Johannesburg was now at the mercy of the British. The Boer resistance seemed to have collapsed completely; and President Krüger had fled to Waterval Boven, on the Delagoa Bay Railway, east of Pretoria, where he had his capital in a railway car. To a newspaper correspondent who interviewed him in that car the fugitive Transvaal President said, in answer to a question as to where he would have his capital now that the British closed on Pretoria: "Here is my capital—right in this car." Thus Krüger's capital was on wheels; while, in the Philippines, Aguinaldo's capital was on foot. Nine engines, a coal train and a large quantity of rolling-stock were captured by the British at Johannesburg. The gold mines were uninjured. On the morning of May 30th Lord Roberts sent a flag of truce to Johannesburg, in answer to which the Boer commandant there came to see the British commander-in-chief and begged him to defer entering the city for twenty-four hours, as there were many armed Boers still in the

Lord
Roberts's
Occupation
of
Johannes-
burg.

city. Lord Roberts willingly granted the Boer commandant's request, in order to avoid disturbance. The London newspapers all acknowledged the prompt friendliness of Mr. Adelbert S. Hay, the United States consul at Pretoria, in insisting on the release of a number of British officers to take command of the British prisoners in order to avert a possible disturbance among the latter. While the British were at Johannesburg dictating the terms of surrender, the British advance guard was halfway between Johannesburg and Pretoria, and all the Boer troops at the forts of the Transvaal capital had been dismissed from garrison duty. On May 31st the Union Jack floated over the government buildings at Johannesburg, and Lord Roberts formally entered the "Golden Reef City" with his army the next day, June 1st. The town was very empty and all was quiet, there being a general feeling of relief at the peaceful British occupation. A Creuzot cannon and ammunition had been captured, as well as Commandant Botha and one hundred other prisoners.

Lord Roberts pushed on to Pretoria, the Transvaal capital, thirty-five miles north from Johannesburg. On June 4th the Boers resisted his approach at Six Miles Spruit, but after twelve hours' marching and fighting they were driven back, and the British bivouacked near the southern forts of Pretoria. General Botha did not defend Pretoria, and Lord Roberts and his troops took possession of the Transvaal capital on June 5th. A few of the British prisoners had been removed, but most of them were still at Waterfall. The British occupation of Pretoria passed off most satisfactorily, and the British flag was hoisted over the government offices. The British troops met with a more enthusiastic reception than Lord Roberts had anticipated. The news of the occupation of the Transvaal capital caused much rejoicing in London, and the streets of the British capital and metropolis were filled with enthusiastic multitudes. Lorenzo Marques was now said to be full of foreign mercenaries, who, like rats, were deserting the sinking Boer cause; but thousands of Boers under General Botha took an oath to fight to the bitter end.

The British Naval Brigade from the warship *Powerful* came to London on May 7th for inspection by the Prince of Wales and the Lords of the Admiralty, and also marched through the city, being received everywhere with unbounded enthusiasm by enormous crowds. On May 16th Queen Victoria again visited Netley Hospital, conversing with many of the invalids and distributing flowers among them and doing what she could to cheer them up. General Sir George Stuart White presided over the annual meeting of the Army Temperance Association on May 14th. Lord Roberts wrote that he supposed that there never was a more temperate army than that which marched under

Lord
Roberts's
Occupation
of
Pretoria.

Occurrences
in Great
Britain.

his command to Bloemfontein. In a speech at Birmingham on May 11th Mr. Chamberlain said that the two Boer Republics must be finally incorporated in Her Majesty's dominions. In a speech at Bristol on May 16th the Chancellor of the Exchequer denied that he had interfered with the preparations of the Army Corps or in the matter of transport.

War
Office
Investiga-
tion.

The House of Commons Committee on War Office Contracts heard evidence on this subject near the middle of May from Mr. Major, Director of Contracts to the War Office. Lieutenant-General Clarke, Quartermaster General, and Colonel Day, Acting Deputy Assistant Adjutant-General for the North-western District, testified as to the bad hay shipped in the *Manchester Port*. They did not know of any system of gratuities paid to officials by contractors. The committee had two more sittings on the hay which had been condemned after being put on board the *Manchester Port*.

Occur-
rences in
Cape
Colony.

The *South African Review* asserted that a Dutch member of the Cape Colony Parliament offered money to a man to shoot Sir Alfred Milner. Affidavits on the subject were said to be in the possession of the Attorney-General of Cape Colony. The *South African Review* demanded the punishment of the member of the colonial Parliament making this offer, describing him as a prominent Bond man from Piquetberg. American residents of Cape Town repudiated the statements made by Webster Davis, the former United States Assistant Secretary of the Interior, who recently had visited South Africa and who, after his return to the United States, made serious accusations of cruelty and treachery against the British and blamed them wholly for the war. The Boers removed nine hundred British prisoners from Pretoria to Nooitgedacht, in the Elands Valley; but the other thirty-five hundred, with one hundred and fifty officers, were released by Lord Roberts in his advance toward the Transvaal capital.

Occur-
rences
in Great
Britain.

The British transport *Kildonan Castle* left the English coast for South Africa late in May, with one hundred and seventy-three British military officers and two thousand one hundred and fourteen privates on board. Late in May the Imperial Yeomanry Committee received from Sir Ralph Knox, on behalf of Lord Lansdowne, a letter intimating the release of the committee from its arduous duties and expressing very warm appreciation of the committee's services and of the Yeomanry's bravery and efficiency in the field. On May 30th the Mansion-house War Fund in London amounted to nine hundred and eighteen thousand six hundred pounds, and the Mafeking Relief Fund to fourteen thousand pounds. The National Bazaar was opened in London by the Prince of Wales on May 24th, Queen Victoria's eighty-first birthday. On the 25th the Bazaar was opened by the Duke of Cam-

bridge, and on the 26th by General Sir George Stuart White. A very large sum was realized for the war fund.

At a banquet of the City of London Conservative Association, on May 29th, Lord Salisbury said it had been stated that he had promised that there should not be any annexation of territory or of gold fields. He said that he never used language that could be construed thus. He said that the British government had been accused of going to war with the Boers to acquire territory and gold mines—an atrocious calumny. He said that now their only security against a recurrence of this terrible war was to make certain that not a shred of the former independence of the Boer Republics should remain. At a banquet of the City of London Liberal Club, late in May, Mr. Asquith said it was the practically-unanimous judgment of Englishmen that the British Empire must be protected, but that they should not be animated by revenge or forget that they had made themselves trustees of a policy of equal rights for the whites and full justice for the blacks of South Africa. General Sir George Stuart White also made two interesting speeches.

**Speeches
on the
War.**

About the middle of March a commission, composed of Messrs. Fischer, Wessels and Wolmarans and representing the Transvaal Republic and the Orange Free State, sailed from Lorenzo Marques for Europe. After passing some weeks in Europe in trying to enlist the Great Powers of Continental Europe in schemes of mediation or intervention in the interest of peace and the cause of the Boer Republics, the commission sailed for the United States and arrived at New York about the middle of May. The commissioners were greeted by large crowds in New York and Washington, but their efforts to induce the United States government to mediate or intervene were unsuccessful. During their short visit to the White House, President McKinley received them courteously, conversed with them about the weather, showed them the view down the Potomac and then bid them "good morning," never alluding to the war, the Boer Republics or the object of their mission.

**Boer
Commis-
sioners in
Europe
and
America.**

On May 31st a People's Congress was held at Graaf Reinet, in Cape Colony, and bitter speeches were made by Olive Schreiner and others against the British annexation of the two Boer Republics, and equally violent resolutions were passed to the same effect.

**Dutch
Congress.**

In the Transvaal, on June 11th, Lord Roberts attacked the Boer force under General Botha about fifteen miles east, on the Middelburg road. The British gained the key to the left flank of the Boer position before dark, and Lord Roberts ordered his troops to bivouac on the ground which they had won. Among the British killed was the gallant Lord Airlie and two officers of the Seventeenth Lancers. The

**Lord
Roberts's
Continued
Suc-
cesses.**

fighting continued all of the next day, in the evening of which the Boers were driven eastward.

**British
Disaster
and Suc-
cesses.**

In the Orange River Colony, from June 6th to 13th, Lord Roberts's communications were cut, the railway and telegraph line having been destroyed by a large force of Boer raiders at Roodeval, north of Kroonstad. On June 7th the Boers surrounded the Fourth Militia Battalion of the Derbyshire Regiment, and in the fight which followed Lieutenant-Colonel Baird-Douglas and thirty-five others were killed on the British side, while one hundred and four were wounded on the same side and all the rest except six were made prisoners. On hearing of this Boer raid Lord Roberts sent off Lord Kitchener, who united his force with Lord Methuen's force at Vredefort Road Station on June 10th; and the combined forces marched the next day to the Rhenoster River, where Lord Methuen completely defeated the Boers under General De Wet. The British lost one man killed and eighteen wounded. The wounded of the Derbyshire Regiment were found in the Yeomanry Hospital, which was captured by the Boers and recaptured by Lord Methuen. On June 11th fifteen hundred Boers surrendered to General Brabant in the Ficksburg district of the Orange River Colony. In the last engagement at Rooikrantz, Commandant Olivier was killed and General De Villiers mortally wounded on the Boer side.

**General
Buller's
Suc-
cesses
in Natal.**

In Natal, General Buller's forces were still successful. On June 6th General Coke seized Van Wyk Hill; whereupon the British artillery was brought up, and, under cover of a heavy cannonade, the British under General Hildyard assailed and carried all the spurs of the hill between Botha's Nek and Inkwelo. The attack was carried out with immense dash. The British loss was two killed and fourteen wounded. On Sunday night, June 10th, General Buller's force concentrated on the Klip River at the junction with Gansvlei Spruit. The Boers retired as soon as the heavy British cannon opened fire. The British loss was six killed and seven wounded. The next day General Buller forced Almond's Nek, the Second Dorsetshire Regiment carrying the Boer position at the point of the bayonet. The British loss was about one hundred. That night the Boers completely evacuated Laing's Nek and Majuba Hill. The Boer invaders were thus driven from Natal, and the Wakkerstroom district of the Transvaal submitted to General Buller. Queen Victoria congratulated General Buller and his troops for driving the Boer invaders from Natal.

**New
Ministry
in Cape
Colony.**

Sir Alfred Milner warned miners and others against a premature return to the Transvaal. A Ministerial crisis occurred at Cape Town. The majority of the Afrikaner Bond in the Cape Colony Parliament opposed Prime Minister Schreiner's intention to proceed with rigor against the Dutch rebels of Cape Colony, and on June 13th Mr.

Schreiner tendered the resignation of his Ministry to Sir Alfred Milner. His resignation was accepted; and a new Ministry came into power in Cape Colony, headed by Sir John Gordon Sprigg, who was supported by Mr. Schreiner, Mr. Solomon and their followers in carrying out the policy opposed by the Bond members.

In a speech at Glasgow on June 7th Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman said that a military occupation of the Boer states for a considerable time must follow the war, but the final settlement must be based largely on the judgment of the British subjects in Cape Colony, belonging to the British and Dutch races. In a speech at Oxford on June 9th John Morley said he never could accept the view that the war was made just and inevitable by the Boer ultimatum, and if the present British High Commissioner for South Africa should proceed to the Transvaal to arrange a settlement it would be the last link in a chain of folly that had marked the whole affair from beginning to end, the whole transaction being one of injustice and wrong on the British side.

On June 8th Lord Roberts announced that over two thousand stand of arms had been surrendered in Pretoria and that these were utilized for the released prisoners, who numbered one hundred and forty-eight officers and three thousand and thirty-nine privates. General Baden-Powell occupied Rustenburg on June 15th and arrived at Pretoria on the 18th. He received the surrender of about six hundred Boers and captured two hundred and thirty prisoners. On June 16th Klerksdorp surrendered to General Hunter, and on the 18th Krügersdorp surrendered to the same commander. While escorting a large convoy to Heilbron on June 19th, General Lord Methuen routed a Boer force under Christian De Wet. On June 20th Hutton's Mounted Infantry captured two cannon from the Boers under Du Plessis. The Boer force under General Louis Botha retired toward Middelburg. On June 14th the Boers attacked a construction train north of the Rhenoster River, but were driven off by some mounted troops. On the same day the Boers attacked Ficksburg, but were repulsed. President Krüger retired to Alkmaar, near Nelspruit.

On June 13, 1900, an official bulletin announced the complete evacuation of Natal by the Boers with the advance of General Buller's force into the south-eastern portion of the Transvaal, also the restoration of Lord Roberts's railway and telegraphic communication through the Orange River Colony.

By the middle of June, 1900, the war had passed into the guerrilla stage, the Boer armies having broken up into numerous small bands and there being no prospect of raising and equipping a large Boer army; and thereafter, for the next two years of the war, the war bulletins were mainly accounts of skirmishes and raids, particularly in

Speeches
of
Liberal
Leaders.

British
Captures.

Complete
Boer
Evacua-
tion of
Natal.

Guerrilla
Warfare.

the Orange River Colony, with the slow and steady but sure advance of the principal British armies. In several large districts the Boers were bringing in their arms and formally accepting British sovereignty, some sullenly and others with welcome. In the northern part of the Orange River Colony bands of armed Boers, numbering several hundred, in some instances one or two thousand, were moving about quickly and by sudden dashes at various points occasionally capturing British convoys or small British detachments. The small Boer bands were reported as being directed by Commandant Christian DeWet, and the Boer leaders made them the theme for glowing announcements of Boer victories. In the meantime the other Boer forces in the eastern portion of the Orange River Colony were endeavoring to avoid being surrounded by the British forces under Lord Methuen and Generals Rundle and Brabant, together numbering thirty-five thousand men with fifty cannon. The Boer raiding bands were active and harassing. In the western portion of the Transvaal a small British force under General Baden-Powell was establishing order, already having received the surrender of more than a thousand stand of arms and the submission of many Boers, among whom was Piet Krüger, son of the fugitive Transvaal President. East of Pretoria a small Boer force under Commandant Louis Botha was in possession of some very strong defensive positions.

British
Weari-
ness.

The British people now grew tired of the war and lost interest in the struggle; the continuance of the contest in its guerrilla character being a source of great disappointment to the British tax-paying public, who had hoped for the restoration of peace and order in South Africa upon the British occupation of Johannesburg and Pretoria and the general collapse of the organized resistance of the Boers.

Loss of
Interest
in the
Struggle.

The change in the character of the struggle from a conflict of great organized armies to a petty guerrilla warfare of numerous small bands of Boer raiders was followed by a loss of public interest in the struggle throughout the civilized world; the people of Europe and America, who had viewed the brilliant military operations of the large opposing armies with absorbing interest, paying little attention to the innumerable raids of small Boer guerrilla bands and the petty conflicts between them and the British troops; though the pro-Boer sympathy throughout the world had not abated.

Situation
in the
Trans-
vaal.

On June 23d General Ian Hamilton occupied Heidelberg, and on the same day General Sir Redvers Henry Buller reached Standerton. These two British generals were then coöperating to cut off all communication between the Boer forces in the Transvaal and those in the Orange River Colony. General Botha, with the foreign legion in the Boer service, twelve hundred strong, was in the vicinity of the Pienaars

River. General Ian Hamilton was suffering from a broken collar bone.

In the Orange River Colony the British had thirty-five thousand troops between Ficksburg and Lindley, and these were distributed in camps about three miles apart. The Boer lines between Ficksburg and Bethlehem were very strong. Generals Rundle and Brabant were engaged in successful operations against the Boers near Gembokfontein on June 22d and 23d. General Clements defeated a Boer force near Winburg on June 24th. The Boer commando under De Villiers in Cape Colony surrendered to General Sir Charles Warren, thus crippling the Dutch rebellion in that colony.

The Transvaal government was now in desperate financial straits. Provisions were scarce at Pretoria and Lord Roberts was feeding many Boer families who fought against him. Mr. Burdett-Coutts made serious charges against the transport and hospital service of the British military establishment, and a great deal of correspondence was published thereon. The Princess of Wales sent out twenty nurses from the London Hospital to the war. The Prince and Princess of Wales fitted up a farmhouse near Sandringham for invalid officers.

On June 26th and 27th two attacks were made on Lord Roberts's line of communications, but both attacks were repulsed with small British loss. General Brabant and Major Grenfell had some sharp fighting with a strong Boer force near Winburg, the Boers retreating toward Lindley. On June 26th there was severe fighting between General Paget's force and a Boer detachment. On the same day a British convoy of stores for the Lindley garrison was attacked by the Boers, but the convoy safely reached Lindley. General Lord Methuen captured eight thousand sheep and five hundred cattle, which the Boers had seized. He also captured the commander of De Wet's scouts and Andries Wessels, the head of the Afrikander Bond. On June 28th the Boers attacked the railway terminus at Springs, but were repulsed and routed by the Canadians. General Clements's flying column had a hot engagement about five or six miles from Senekal on the Lindley road. General Clements practically united with General Paget after encountering much opposition from the Boers on the line of his march. General Hunter's division, after crossing the Vaal River, reached Frankfort on July 1st, and the next day was joined by General Hector A. McDonald's brigade. On the same day General Clery occupied Greylingstad, thus completely hemming in the Boers. On July 3d General Paget drove the Boers from a strong position near Leeuwkop. On July 4th the Boers made a desperate effort to retake Ficksburg, the fighting lasting an hour. As the Boers threatened Lord Roberts's railway communications, Lord Roberts sent General Hutton on July 5th

Situation
in the
Orange
River
Colony.

Boer
Straits.

British
Hospital
Service.

British
Forces
and Boer
Guerrilla
Bands.

to reinforce Colonel Mahon and to drive the Boers east of Bronkerspruit, and these orders were carried out during the next two days. On July 8th the Boers attacked General Hutton, but were repulsed very easily. On July 7th the Boers attacked Rustenburg, but were repulsed and routed with heavy loss. The Boers were making demonstrations against the railway between Johannesburg and Pretoria, but the British forces were prepared to resist any attack. On July 7th the Boers took Bethlehem, but by noon they were in full retreat. The Boers also evacuated their position near Senekal. All the members of President Steyn's government had now surrendered to the British, except President Steyn himself. Lord Roberts was now joined by General Buller in Pretoria. About eight hundred British prisoners were released and put over the Natal frontier from Reitz. Many Transvaal Boers, with large herds, were removing to Portuguese East Africa. It was rumored that President Steyn had fled to the mountains. Complete railway communication was restored between Pretoria and Natal.

**Other
Items.**

Sir Alfred Milner issued a warning that after the public begin returning to the Transvaal it will require six weeks or two months before all the refugees can return there, and that no one should leave England for the Transvaal until then. Victoria Crosses for bravery in South Africa were conferred upon Captain E. B. Towse, Captain C. Fitz-Clarence, Sir John Millbank, Sergeant H. R. Martineau and Trooper H. E. Ramsden. Captain the Hon. T. A. Brassey was appointed Acting Civil Commissioner for Her Majesty's government in Pretoria. The transport *Dilwara* left Southampton, England, on July 6th, with almost thirteen hundred British officers and privates for South Africa. On July 11th the Mansion-house War Fund amounted to nine hundred and seventy-eight thousand six hundred pounds.

**British
Reverse.**

On July 11th the British sustained a reverse eighteen miles from Pretoria, when a Boer force attacked Nital Nek, which was held by a small British garrison; a squadron of Scots Greys, two horse artillery cannon and about ninety troops of the Lincolnshire Regiment being captured, and Colonel Roberts, who was in command, being wounded and taken prisoner. Lieutenant Conolly, of the Scots Greys, and Second Lieutenant Pilkington, of the Royal Dragoons, were killed; the casualties being heavy on both sides.

**British
Suc-
cesses.**

A simultaneous Boer attack on the British outposts near Derdepoort was checked until the British troops retired upon their supports, and General Smith-Dorrien defeated the Boers with heavy loss at Krügersdorp. On the same day Colonel Mahon, after being reinforced by General French's brigade, took all the Boer positions near Reitfontein. Lord Dundonald captured a Boer camp belonging to the

detachment which blew up Leeuwspuit bridge. On July 13th a patrol of Australian bushmen defeated a Boer detachment. On the same day General Clery cannonaded the Boer position in his front, driving the Boers eastward, after which he returned to Vaal, near Greylingstad. On July 16th the Boers made an unsuccessful attack on the British left flank; the positions held by the Royal Irish Fusiliers, the New Zealanders and the Canadians being defended most gallantly, and the Boers losing heavily in their repeated assaults. A Boer force of fifteen hundred men broke through the cordon formed by General Hunter's and General Rundle's divisions between Bethlehem and Ficksburg, the Boers retreating toward Lindley and being pursued closely. General Lord Methuen left Krügersdorp to clear the country between that town and Rustenburg.

Sir Alfred Milner appointed a commission to report on the direct losses suffered by the people of Cape Colony in consequence of the war. An arrangement was now made for the emigration of ten thousand Boers to the United States of America. On July 19th General Lord Methuen occupied Heckpoort, after which he continued his march and engaged the Boer rear-guard near Zandsfontein on the 20th. Early on the 21st he dispersed the Boers at Oliphant's Nek with heavy loss, thus relieving Rustenburg, after which his force joined hands with that under General Baden-Powell. On July 19th General Broadwood had a sharp fight with a Boer commando at Palmietfontein. On the 21st the Boers attacked the British post at Railhead, thirteen miles east of Heidelberg, surrounding the Royal Dublin Fusiliers, but were driven off. On July 22d about four hundred and fifty British troops under Colonels Airey and Lussington drove one thousand Boers from a very strong position at Majato Pass and dispersed them with considerable loss. The Boers cut the telegraph wires and the main railway north of Horningspruit, and General De Wet crossed the railway and went north-eastward. A British supply train, with one hundred Scotch Highlanders, was captured by the Boers. On July 22d General De Wet's force was at Vredefort, being pursued closely by General Broadwood, who arrived at Vredefort on the 24th, after capturing five of General De Wet's wagons. The Boers captured two officers and two hundred privates of the Royal Welsh Fusiliers with a supply train. Lord Roberts now began his advance against the Boers. General Ian Hamilton reached Rustfontein, near Bronkhorst Spruit, on July 22d, and so completely commanded the Boer line of retreat that the Boers abandoned their strong position in front of General Pole-Carew's division, a brigade from which advanced the next day to Elands River Station without opposition. On the 24th the main British force marched to Bronkhorst Spruit without opposition, while

**Progress
of the
Guerrilla
Warfare.**

Generals French and Hutton drove back Boer detachments and took several prisoners.

Other Events.

On July 19th Sir Alfred Milner opened the Cape Colony Parliament. Mr. Merriman's resolution for the immediate repeal of martial law in the rebellious districts was opposed strongly by Mr. Rose-Innes and by Mr. Solomon, the late Attorney-General of Cape Colony. Ex-Chief Justice Kotze, of the Transvaal Republic, was appointed Attorney-General of the British colony of Rhodesia. Mr. Wolmarans, of the Transvaal, was arrested at Pretoria after a quantity of arms and bar gold had been found concealed in his house.

Decorations and Hospital Investigation.

Victoria Crosses were conferred upon Captain M. F. M. Meiklejohn, of the Gordon Highlanders; Second Lieutenant John Norwood, of the Fifth Dragoon Guards; Sergeant-Major (now Quartermaster and Honorary Lieutenant) William Robertson, of the Gordon Highlanders; the decorations being for services in Natal. The British Hospital Commission met on July 24th and left for South Africa on August 4th. On July 25th evidence was heard from the Rev. W. H. Oxford, Sir Howard Vincent, Dr. Watson Cheyne and a trooper of the London City Imperial Volunteers.

Prinsloo's Surrender.

On July 26th General Hector A. MacDonald fought an all-day engagement with a Boer detachment nine miles from Naauwpoort, and effectually blocked Naauwpoort Nek against the Boer wagon traffic. General Hunter advanced toward Naauwpoort, and on July 28th he drove the Boers from two strong positions. The next day General Prinsloo applied for an armistice. General Hunter replied that unconditional surrender only would be accepted, and accordingly General Prinsloo surrendered unconditionally at Fouriesburg, with nine hundred and eighty-six troops, one thousand four hundred and thirty-two horses, nine hundred and fifty-five rifles and one Krupp 9-pounder cannon; and on the 31st twelve hundred more Boers surrendered to General Hunter. Three Boer commandants surrendered to General Bruce Hamilton, who had collected twelve hundred rifles, six hundred and fifty ponies and an Armstrong cannon. Commandant Olivier, with five cannon and a number of Boers, broke away in the direction of Harri-smith. In an accident to a British supply train near Frederickstad, on July 29th, thirteen men were killed and thirty-nine wounded, some of them very severely.

Other Surrenders.

British Activity.

The Boers were now very much disheartened, and there was a growing animosity among them toward President Krüger and the Transvaal officials. When General Hunter occupied Fouriesburg on July 26th he found President Steyn's wife there. On July 27th General French occupied Middelburg. General Buller opened the railway to Heidelberg, thus giving Lord Roberts through communication with Natal.

General Clery's division guarded the railway line from Standerton to Heidelberg.

Mr. Rose-Innes's Treason Bill was being debated in the Cape Colony Parliament. The South African Hospitals Commission visited Netley Hospital on July 27th and examined about seventy patients. On the 30th evidence was given by Captain Cousens, C. I. V.; Mr. Murray-Guthrie, M. P.; Dr. Russell, senior surgeon to the Kimberley Hospital; Dr. Treves and Dr. Arthur Conan Doyle. On July 31st Mr. Burdett-Coutts, M. P., was the first witness and was followed by Sir W. MacCormac. On August 1st the witnesses included the surgeon-in-chief to the Langman Private Hospital, Mr. Rudyard Kipling, Colonel Mulcahy, of the Royal Army Clothing Department, and Lieutenant-Colonel Barrow, principal medical officer of No. 9 General Hospital at Bloemfontein. The Victoria Cross was conferred upon Captain Conwyn Mansel-Jones, of the West Yorkshire Regiment, for gallantry in Natal.

**Hospital
Investi-
gation.**

On July 31st a Boer force attacked the British under General Smith-Dorrien, encamped near Frederickstad, but were routed before General Lord Methuen's arrival to reinforce General Smith-Dorrien, the London Imperial Battalion and the Suffolk and Buckingham Yeomanry bearing the brunt of the Boer attack. On August 2d General Knox attacked the Boers on Rhenoster Kop, putting them to flight and capturing five wagons and a lot of cattle. In the night of the same day the Boers derailed and attacked a train twenty miles south of Kroonstad, four men being killed, three wounded and more than forty being taken prisoners, but all the prisoners except two officers were released afterward by the Boers. The Boers who wrecked the train were pursued by British mounted infantry, who killed three and wounded several of them at Holfontein.

**Rout of
Boer
Guerrilla
Bands.**

General Hunter reported that three thousand three hundred and forty-eight Boers thus far had surrendered to him. He had taken three thousand and forty-six horses and three cannon. Commandant Olivier had fled from the Bethlehem hills with about fifteen hundred Boer troops, and did not consider himself bound by General Prinsloo's offer to surrender his whole force and resolved to remain in the field against the British, taking up a position near Harrismith and being pursued by General Rundle's force.

**Olivier's
Flight.**

On August 3d a British expedition started from Standerton against a Boer commando on the Klip River, the Boer leaders having compelled Boers who had surrendered to return to the Boer service. This Boer commando was dispersed by the British, who burned the house of one of the Boer leaders. On August 4th Harrismith surrendered to General Hector A. MacDonald, and there now was railway communica-

**British'
Pursuit
of Boer
Guerrilla
Bands.**

tion between Harrismith and Natal. On August 5th General Lord Kitchener, who was then in the Orange River Colony, was reinforced by a strong detachment of Brabant's cavalry and by the Canadian regiment. On August 7th General Ian Hamilton left Rustenburg, bringing General Baden-Powell's force with him. On August 6th Commandant De Wet began to cross the Vaal River, and the next day Lord Kitchener went in pursuit. On the right bank of the river General Lord Methuen came into contact with De Wet's advance guard. As western Cape Colony was now pacified, General Sir Charles Warren was returning home. On August 8th three hundred Boer prisoners, of whom one hundred and ten were Irish Americans, Germans and Hollanders, arrived at Colombo, in Ceylon. On August 7th General Buller's force moved northward from Paardekop and captured the strong position held by the Boers under Commandant Christopher Botha, the Boers keeping up a running fight in a north-easterly direction, the British loss being about twenty-five.

Plot
against
Lord
Roberts.

On August 10th Lord Roberts made known that a plot to kidnap him and carry him off had been discovered at Pretoria. The ring-leaders and all the other conspirators were arrested. Besides intending to kidnap Lord Roberts, the conspirators had planned to assassinate all the leading British officers in Pretoria. All the conspirators implicated had taken the oath of neutrality.

British
Pursuit of
De Wet.

Lords Kitchener and Methuen were still pursuing Commandant De Wet. On August 7th Lord Methuen engaged a part of De Wet's force near Venterskroon, driving them from a series of hills, the British losing seven killed. On August 8th Lord Kitchener crossed the Vaal River. The next day Lord Methuen fought a rear-guard action near Buffelshoek and captured six wagons and two ambulances. The Boers fled before the forces of Lords Kitchener and Methuen, and early on the 11th they attempted to cross the railway at Welverdiend Station, where they were engaged by General Smith-Dorrien's force. The next day De Wet blew up three of his wagons, and sixteen British prisoners held by De Wet made their escape. These escaped prisoners stated that President Steyn was confined in De Wet's camp and was under surveillance. De Wet was obliged to throw away some ammunition and to leave behind him thirty exhausted horses, and one of his cannon was captured by Lord Methuen on August 12th. Lord Methuen shelled the main Boer convoy effectively. Lords Kitchener and Methuen were then at some distance from the telegraph line. On August 7th General Buller occupied Amersfoort, and two days later he arrived at Klippart Drift, the main Boer force retreating before the British advance. On August 10th and 11th the retreating Boers passed through Ermelo on their way to Machadodorp, and soon after-

ward General Buller occupied Ermelo. On the 12th a field cornet and one hundred and eighty-two Boer soldiers of the Standerton commando surrendered to the British.

On August 5th General Sir Frederick Carrington's force attempted to relieve the British garrison at Elands River Station, which was besieged by the Boers. After losing twenty-one killed, wounded and missing, General Carrington's small force retired to Mafeking. Thus far the small British garrison at Elands River Station had lost sixty-seven men in killed and wounded. General Carrington was ordered to march to Zeerust at once, and General Ian Hamilton was to reinforce Carrington as soon as possible. The Elands River Station garrison consisted of about one hundred and forty Bushmen, eighty Rhodesians and eighty Rhodesian volunteers. General Hunter announced that four thousand one hundred and forty Boers were made prisoners in the Bethlehem and Harrismith districts, most of them being then on the way to Ceylon. The British also captured three cannon, over four thousand horses and ponies and large quantities of ammunition. General Rundle arrested a Boer commandant, three field cornets and one hundred and thirty armed Boers at Harrismith. The Boers murdered Colonel He'yar, who had been reported missing on July 31st. After being pursued closely by Lord Kitchener and other British generals, De Wet escaped northward. He appeared before Commando's Nek and invited General Baden-Powell to surrender, but changed his route when he found the place strongly defended. On August 16th Lord Kitchener relieved Colonel Hore's post on the Elands River, after the garrison had lost twelve men. The next day General Ian Hamilton's column occupied Oliphant's Nek, in the Mageliesberg, capturing two Krupp cannon and three wagons. General Ian Hamilton's advance troops, under Colonel Mahon, fought the Boers on Sunday, August 19th, at Roode Kopjes, on the west bank of the Crocodile River, losing only a few men in killed and wounded and capturing two wagons and seven prisoners. General Rundle announced from Harrismith that six hundred and eighty-four Boers had surrendered to him in that district up to Sunday, August 19th. Lord Roberts issued a new proclamation intimating that thenceforth more severe measures would be taken to punish acts of treachery and bad faith on the part of the Boers, such offenses having become intolerable.

After about a week's trial by court-martial, on the charge of plotting to abduct Lord Roberts and murder other British officers, Lieutenant Hans Cordua, of the Staats Artillery, was found guilty on all counts and was sentenced to be shot. Lord Roberts approved the finding of the court-martial, and Lieutenant Cordua was shot in the morning of August 24th. The Treason Bill was passed in the Cape Colony

Various
British
Opera-
tions.

Execu-
tion
of Lie-
tenant
Cordua.

Parliament by a vote of forty-eight to thirty-eight, all the opposition of the Dutch members of Parliament proving futile.

**British
Success
over
Botha.**

On August 24th the British under General Pole-Carew occupied Belfast; and Lord Roberts proceeded thither the next day and met Generals Pole-Carew, Buller and French. The British began a combined movement against the concentrated Boer commandos under Commandant Louis Botha; and on Sunday, August 26th, fighting occurred over a perimeter of almost thirty miles. The British made slow progress on account of the great extent and difficult nature of the country, but on that day they had made a satisfactory advance and won a decided success. The work fell wholly on General Buller's troops and resulted in the capture of Bergendal, a very strong position two miles north-west of Dalmanutha Railway Station. The Enniskillen Fusiliers and the Second Battalion of the Rifle Brigade constituted the attacking party, the latter suffering most, a good many Boers being killed, some on a rocky knoll by lyddite shells. The British captured a "Pom Pom." General Buller managed his troops very skillfully, and the combination of artillery and infantry fire was most effective. General Buller's advance troops occupied Machadodorp on August 28th, the Boers retreating northward.

**British
Advance
on Lyden-
burg.**

At his headquarters at Belfast, on September 3d, Lord Roberts issued a proclamation, under queen's warrant dated July 4, 1900, annexing the Transvaal to British South Africa. The Boers released over seventeen hundred British prisoners at Nootgedacht on August 25th. After evacuating Machadodorp the Boers were pursued and were pressed so closely that they abandoned four wagons. In a message on September 1st Lord Roberts stated that General Buller was encamped on the north bank of the Crocodile River, resting in his march from Helvetia to Lydenburg. The Boer rear-guard retired before him without offering any resistance. In his march toward Lydenburg, General Buller lost one man killed and fourteen men wounded. As the Boers held a strong position in his front, which he could not flank, Lord Roberts sent a column on September 3d along the direct road from Belfast to Dulstroom to reinforce General Buller. General Ian Hamilton drove a small Boer force before him and had arrived at Swart Kopjes on September 3d. The Boers invested Ladybrand, but they abandoned the siege on the approach of a British relief column. The British met with a number of minor successes in various quarters at this time.

**Procla-
mations
of Lord
Roberts
and Sir
Alfred
Milner.**

On September 5th Lord Roberts issued another proclamation to the inhabitants of the Orange River Colony, reminding them that they were now subjects of Queen Victoria and warning them of the penalties which those who continued in arms would incur, especially those who

had taken the oath of allegiance. General Baden-Powell arrived in Cape Town on September 7th and was received with tremendous enthusiasm. He was appointed Chief of the Transvaal Police. Sir Alfred Milner issued a proclamation in which he stated that every concession granted by the South African Republic would be considered on its merits, the British government reserving full freedom of action. The commission which was to inquire into the subject held its first meeting on October 1st.

On September 8th General Buller attacked a Boer position on a precipitous ridge, fifteen hundred feet high and very difficult to flank, as it was cleft at various points by deep ravines. Under cover of the British artillery the Boer position was carried by the Devonshire Regiment, the Royal Irish and the Royal Scots. The Boers retreated over a narrow causeway, after suffering great loss in killed and wounded. The British loss was thirteen killed and twenty-five wounded. General Buller's forces finally occupied Lydenburg after his great victory on September 8th, General Ian Hamilton's flanking movement being entirely successful. The next day, Sunday, September 9th, General Buller advanced farther and occupied the Mauchberg, after overcoming considerable resistance from the Boers. He then moved against Spitzkop. Lord Roberts now returned to Pretoria.

**Capture
of Lyden-
burg.**

On September 8th Lord Methuen moved out of Mafeking, and attacked and routed a Boer force the next day, Sunday, September 9th, taking thirty prisoners, twenty-two wagons, two heliographs, some horses and forty thousand rounds of ammunition.

**Methuen's
Victory.**

President Krüger and some of the officials of his government arrived at Lorenzo Marques on the night of September 11th and took up their quarters with Mr. Pott, the Transvaal consul. It was said that they intended to sail for Europe in a fortnight on the German mail steamer *Herzog* and that President Krüger had obtained six months' leave of absence. It was stated that President Steyn was returning to the Orange River Colony. On September 11th Lord Roberts testified before the Hospitals Commission at Pretoria.

**Movements of
Presi-
dents
Krüger
and
Steyn.**

On September 13th Lord Roberts issued a proclamation in English and Dutch, at Machadodorp, to the people of the Transvaal Colony, saying that President Krüger's flight from the Transvaal and the severance of his official connection therefrom should make it clear to his fellow-countrymen that it is useless for them to continue the struggle, as the war had degenerated into irregular and irresponsible operations, except in a small area, and Lord Roberts will use every means in his power to end this guerrilla warfare. President Krüger, who accepted a passage to Europe on a Dutch vessel, proclaimed Lord Roberts's proclamation null and void.

**Lord
Roberts's
Procla-
mation
to the
Trans-
vaal.**

British
Suc-
cesses.

On September 11th General Hart occupied Potchefstroom, capturing many Boers. The next day Colonel Douglas captured thirty-nine prisoners, ten wagons and some sheep and oxen near Lichtenburg. Lord Roberts reported two cases of Boer treachery where British soldiers were fired upon from farms over which the white flag was flying. General Hector A. MacDonald defeated the Boers near Tafel Kop, on the Vet River, capturing thirty-one wagons, two hundred and seventy trek oxen, large quantities of ammunition and supplies and seven prisoners. On September 13th General Ian Hamilton's column arrived at Goodwaan, the Boers retiring from a formidable position. On the same day General French occupied Barberton and released eighty-two British prisoners, of whom twenty-three were officers, at the same time capturing over one hundred Boers, many Mauser rifles, much ammunition, fifty wagons, forty-three locomotives and some rolling stock. General French's advance cavalry from Barberton afterwards found fifty more locomotives at Avoca Railway Station. On September 13th General Buller's troops occupied Spitzkop, where they found three hundred thousand pounds of Boer supplies and about three hundred boxes of Martini-Henry ammunition. About thirty Boers surrendered, and General Buller reported that most of those who confronted him were mercenaries and Cape Colony Dutch rebels. General Buller's guides found one hundred tons of foodstuffs and three hundred thousand rounds of ammunition in a mill belonging to Glynn's Lydenburg Mine. General Paget arrived at Hebron, north-west of Pretoria, on September 14th, after taking ten prisoners and one thousand cattle. The British garrison at Schweizerreneke was surrounded by Boers, but was intrenched strongly. A British relief force was on its way from Vryburg, thirty-six miles distant, for the relief of the beleaguered garrison.

Other
Items.

Lord Roberts arrived at Nelspruit on September 18th. Lord Kitchener testified before the Hospitals Commission on September 14th. The Victoria Cross was awarded to Sergeant Arthur Richardson, of Lord Strathcona's Corps, for bravery in the engagement at Wolve Spruit. It was announced that representatives of the colonial corps serving under Lord Roberts were to be allowed to visit England as the guests of the nation, and the queen hoped to present them with colors. On September 10th the Mansion-house Fund amounted to one million seven thousand three hundred and fifty pounds.

Boer
Flight.

Lord Roberts stated that of the three thousand Boers who retreated to Komati Poort about seven hundred crossed into Portuguese East Africa and others had deserted in various directions. The "Long Toms" and several pieces of field artillery, among which were some that the Boers had captured from the British, were destroyed by the

Boers before they had fled. It was said that all that was now left of the Boer military forces were a few marauding bands of guerrilla raiders.

Lord Methuen captured a Boer convoy, among which was one of the 15-pounder cannon which General Buller had lost in the great battle of Colenso on December 15, 1899, while twenty-six wagons, eight thousand cattle and four thousand sheep were also captured. Over eighty Boers surrendered to General Buller, who also captured twenty prisoners, two hundred rifles, some wagons and much ammunition. On September 22d a Boer force attacked the Elands River Railway Station, but were repulsed; and during their absence their camp was captured by General Paget, who took twenty-five hundred cattle, six thousand sheep, fifty horses, twenty rifles, some ammunition and twelve prisoners. This Boer commando afterwards was engaged by Plumer's Bushmen, who captured eleven prisoners, seven hundred and fifty cattle and sixteen hundred sheep. General Pole-Carew, with the Guards, occupied Komati Poort on September 24th, taking a large amount of rolling stock and locomotives, along with some truckloads of "Long Tom" ammunition. General Pole-Carew found a "Long Tom" 98-pounder and a Creuzot cannon destroyed. He also found thirty rifles, thirty boxes of small-arm ammunition, forty "Long Tom" shells and one hundred and thirty boxes of other shells. There was an immense amount of rolling stock on the Main and Selati lines, most of it in good order. During a short march from Krügersdorp, General Barton captured nine prisoners, seven hundred and twenty trek oxen, nine hundred and fifty cattle, one thousand sheep, thirty-four ponies and seventeen wagons.

**British
Captures.**

On September 23d the Boers on the frontier of Portuguese East Africa destroyed their "Long Toms" and then crossed the frontier and surrendered to the Portuguese, who sent the entire Boer force, three thousand men, under escort to Delagoa Bay. General Ian Hamilton found several cannon in the Crocodile River, near Hector Spruit, most of them being destroyed. These cannon included two 12-pounders belonging to Q Battery of Royal Horse Artillery, two 75-mm. Creuzot cannon, two 3-in. Krupp cannon, one 77-mm. Vickers-Maxim mounted cannon, two "Pom Poms," one 7-pdr. r. m. l. mountain cannon and three muzzle-loading mountain cannon.

**Boers in
Portu-
guese
East
Africa.**

**Boer
Cannon.**

There was now no organized opposition in the southern portion of the Orange River Colony. The Hospitals Commission was taking evidence and visiting hospitals in Natal, and seemed resolved to arrive at the truth. Lord Roberts stated that over four hundred persons had been arrested for being implicated in the Johannesburg plot of July

**Boer
Plot.**

14th, of whom seventy-five afterward were released on being vouched for by their respective consuls. The remainder and very few other foreigners were expelled from South Africa.

**British
Suc-
cesses.**

General Hart's column returned to Krügersdorp from the vicinity of Potchefstroom, where it had cleared the country of bands of marauders. On September 26th one of General Rundle's brigades captured one of the cannon which the Boers had taken at Nicholson's Nek, two wagons and sixty-five thousand rounds of Martini-Henry ammunition. On the same day seventeen officers and three hundred and nineteen privates of the Royal Canadian Regiment left Pretoria en route for Canada. On September 27th the Boers attacked a detachment of General Paget's force at Pienaars River Station, but were routed after three hours' fighting. General Paget then granted a five days' armistice to Commandant Erasmus to enable him to send to Komati Poort to ascertain whether the report of the collapse of the Boer army was correct, agreeing to surrender if the report were confirmed.

**British
and
Portu-
guese
Courte-
sies.**

On October 2d Commandant Dirksen surrendered when he learned that President Krüger had crossed the frontier into Portuguese East Africa. A few days before—September 28th—General Pole-Carew held a parade of all the British troops at Komati Poort in honor of the birthday of the King of Portugal. Lord Roberts sent a telegram of congratulation to the Portuguese king. General Pole-Carew obtained ample supplies from Lorenzo Marques, where the Portuguese officials were most obliging.

**British
Move-
ments.**

Colonel Dalgety's mounted British Colonials and Colonel De Lisle's new force were cooperating for the purpose of surrounding General De Wet, who was said to be south-west of Kopjes Station with nine hundred Boer troops and three cannon. General Settle relieved the beleaguered British garrison of Schweizerrenneke. The British reoccupied Heilbron, Reitz and Lindley. The Boers suffered some loss in slight encounters near Lindley and Heilbron. The British reoccupied Rustenburg on September 26th. On October 1st a convoy of twenty-two wagons proceeding to Vryheid under escort of sixty mounted British troops was attacked by Boers near De Jagers Drift. Twelve men of the escort escaped. That night the Boers derailed a train near Pan Station, killing five men.

**Other
Items.**

General Baden-Powell arrived at Pretoria to command the Transvaal and Orange River Colony Police. The Treason Bill was read a third time in the Cape Colony Legislative Council by a vote of twelve to eight. Mr. Chamberlain stated that, as the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony had been annexed to the British dominions, he did not anticipate that there would be any formal proclamation of peace. The Victoria Cross was awarded to Captain W. E. Gordon, of

the Gordon Highlanders; Private C. Ward, of the Yorkshire Light Infantry, and Corporal J. Shaul, of the Highland Light Infantry.

General Buller returned to Lydenburg after a successful march from Spitzkop, having brought back six hundred cattle, four thousand sheep and one hundred and fifty wagonloads of supplies, and having destroyed one hundred and eighty-four thousand rounds of ammunition, while one hundred and nine Boers surrendered. General Hart's column lost three men killed, twenty-nine wounded and three missing during thirty-three days' marching and fighting in the Krügersdorp district; while a good many Boers were killed and wounded and ninety-six were taken prisoners, and many cattle, sheep, horses, wagons and supplies were captured. On October 2d a small Boer laager between Johannesburg and Pretoria was taken by a bayonet charge by the Dublin Fusiliers, nine Boers being taken prisoners. Lord Methuen fought two small engagements with the Boers on September 28th and arrived at Rustenburg on October 4th. The engine of a train conveying men of the Natal Brigade and the Coldstream Guards was derailed on October 5th by the explosion of a dynamite cartridge, but nobody was injured. The Colonial Division and Colonel De Lisle's force had a three days' fight with Commandant De Wet on October 5th, 6th and 7th, dislodging the Boers, who retreated in a demoralized condition. On October 6th a lieutenant and a corporal of the Royal Engineers were killed by an explosion at Pienaars River camp. For a few days Wepener, Rouxville and Ficksburg were occupied by Boer detachments which had been driven southward by British columns. General Clements cleared the country near Rustenburg and captured twenty-nine wagons, some rifles and over ten thousand rounds of small-arm ammunition. The commandant of a Boer scouting party which had been very active for some months surrendered with six of his men at Krügersdorp on October 6th, and confirmed the report that the Boers were now divided into many small bands without much fight in them. The number of Boers captured and surrendering was increasing daily and now amounted to almost sixteen thousand.

The London City Imperial Volunteers sailed from Cape Town on October 7th, and on the same day Lord Roberts bade farewell to the Naval Brigade. The Hospitals Commission sailed for England. On October 6th General Buller left Lydenburg, going south. Cecil John Rhodes presided at a congress of the South African League on October 10th and suggested three points for the League's program—the supremacy of the British flag; equal civil and political rights, and friendly feeling toward the Dutch population. The Victoria Cross was bestowed on Sergeant H. Engleheart, of the Tenth Hussars, and Corporal F. Kirby, of the Royal Engineers.

**British
Suc-
cesses.**

**Other
Items.**

**Boer
Activity.**

On October 9th a train of cars was upset at Kaapmuiden, three men being killed and fifteen wounded. A party of British from Vlakfontein proceeded to examine into the damage done, but was ambushed by Boers, losing two killed, seven wounded and eleven prisoners. On October 9th General Barton defeated the Boers north of Krügersdorp. After a fight near Reitsburg the Boers under De Wet were driven north of the Vaal, and many of them deserted their ranks. Several efforts, more or less successful, were made to interfere with the railway and telegraph communications. On October 11th Colonel Grove surprised a Boer laager near Frankfort, seven Boers being killed, nine wounded and eighteen made prisoners. On October 14th General Broadwood defeated the Boers near Rustenburg, capturing fourteen wagons and five prisoners. Generals Broadwood and Clements were still sending in prisoners from the Mageliesberg district. About the middle of October General French started from Machadodorp towards Heidelberg, to clear a part of the country previously not visited. The mounted infantry under Colonel Mahon defeated the Boers on October 13th, losing eleven men killed and twenty-eight wounded. On October 14th General French occupied Carolina, and the Carabineers captured a Boer convoy on the way.

**Defeats
of Boer
Raiders.**

On October 12th an Australian patrol defeated the Boers near Ottoshoop, three Australians being wounded, one mortally, and another missing, while nine Boers were wounded. On October 14th General Settle entered Bloemhof, east of the Kimberley and Mafeking Railway, after capturing one hundred and fifty prisoners, and moved toward Hoopstad. Boers made raids near Kroonstad and Vryburg. On October 14th a small detachment of British police attacked Boer raiders at Wepener, killing seven and making two prisoners. On the same day Lieutenant Attfield and two men were killed and four wounded near Ventersburg Railroad Station. Boer raiding parties were committing depredations in the vicinity of Welverdiend, some of them being defeated on October 14th by Scottish Yeomanry Cavalry and the Royal Welsh Fusiliers, six Boers being killed and a large quantity of ammunition being captured. On October 13th Theunis Botha, brother of Commandant-General Botha, surrendered to the British at Volksrust. A Reuter dispatch from Pietermaritzburg on October 10th gave details of the capture of a Boer convoy near Blood River, attributing the disaster to the breakdown of a Hotchkiss cannon, of the mechanism of which the men of the Middlesex Regiment, to whom it had been entrusted, were ignorant.

**Other
Events.**

Lord Roberts requested the Viceroy of British India, as Colonel of Lumsden's Horse, to have the situations of members of that corps kept open a little longer, if possible. General Buller was now returning to

England. The South African League declared itself against the introduction of Asiatic labor into South Africa. Some startling disclosures were made at the sittings of the Transvaal Concessions Commission in Pretoria, on October 11th and 12th, as to the activity of the Netherlands Railway management; it being shown that they had made cannon and ammunition, destroyed bridges on British territory, paid their staff on commando and aided the Orange Free State with men and material.

On October 17th Lord Wolseley made a speech on the war, saying that during the last ten months the British people had disproved the statement that they were not a military nation; that they had sent two hundred and thirty-four thousand men and one hundred and seventy thousand horses a distance of seven thousand miles; that he did not believe that any other nation could have performed such a feat, and as to the mistakes made he said that no nation could send an army into the field without making mistakes. The British War Office in London issued a circular on the return of the British troops from South Africa. The Mansion-house War Fund amounted to one million and sixteen thousand pounds on October 17th.

**Lord
Wolse-
ley's
Speech.**

On the night of October 16th a party of Boers entered Jagersfontein; and the next morning a fight ensued, in which the British lost eleven killed and the Boers twenty-one. The Boers killed about ten unarmed natives with explosive bullets. The British mounted infantry of General Knox's command attacked and drove away about one hundred Boers from a position near the railway at Kroonstad with some loss. The Boers made a determined attack on the British at Fauresmith on October 10th, but were repulsed. On October 17th General Barton's force had a running fight with a Boer detachment near Frederickstad, driving the Boers from several positions. The Boers attacked a foraging party five miles from Frederickstad Station on October 18th, killing two men, wounding four and taking six prisoners. On October 21st General Barton's camp was assailed with great daring.

**British
Suc-
cesses.**

Lord Methuen arrived at Zeerust after fighting the Boer commandants Delarey and Lemmer for several days, the Boers losing heavily. The Boers attacked one of Methuen's convoys near Zeerust on October 20th, the British losing one killed and nine wounded. On the same day Lord Methuen attacked and dislodged a strong Boer detachment north of Zeerust, the British losing four killed and ten wounded. In conjunction with the Mafeking forces, General Erroll occupied Louw's Farm, where the Boers were driven back on October 16th, after a sharp fight. General Paget's troops surprised two Boer detachments west of the Pienaars River, capturing eighteen prisoners and large numbers of cattle and sheep. On October 20th General

**More
British
Suc-
cesses.**

French arrived at Bethel, having fought the Boers most of the way from Carolina, and having lost seven killed, twenty-seven wounded and five missing. On the same day General Settle arrived at Hoopstad, after being attacked and having sixteen men wounded.

**Krügér's
Sail for
Europe.**

President Krügér secretly embarked on the Dutch warship *Guelderland* on October 19th, and the vessel sailed for Europe the next day. His arrival at Marseilles and his enthusiastic receptions there and at Paris late in November will be dwelt upon fully hereafter.

**Lord
Roberts's
Promise.**

Lord Roberts announced that Boers who surrender voluntarily, having taken the oath of allegiance to Great Britain and having then been forced to violate that oath, will not be sent out of South Africa, but may return to their farms at the end of the war, and their stock, if taken, will be paid for. He stated that no promise would be made to Boers captured in battle. General Buller arrived at Durban, in Natal, on October 20th, where he made an interesting speech. On the 23d he reached Cape Town, whence he sailed for England the next day.

**British
Captures.**

Reports from various quarters of the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony indicated a continuance of a spirit of active hostility among the Boers. A Boer attack upon Jacobsdal, near Kimberley, on October 25th, was repulsed after severe fighting. The inhabitants who admitted the Boer soldiers into their houses at night had their houses destroyed. The Boer commandant Bosman was killed. General Paget's troops captured from the Boers nine wagons, sixty-five prisoners and a large number of cattle in three days. On October 25th General Paget was attacked by Boers with a convoy of cattle, but he repulsed the attack and took twenty-six prisoners and twenty-five thousand head of cattle, the "biggest single haul of the campaign." On October 24th Lords Methuen and Erroll and General Douglas made a combined attack upon the Boer position near Zeerust, dislodging and dispersing the Boers, who left six dead and wounded on the field, while twenty-eight Boers were made prisoners by the British, who also captured a large number of cattle, the British losing eight men wounded and one missing. On October 29th Lord Methuen marched from Buffelshoek, and General Douglas from Zeerust to Makokloof, during which they captured three prisoners and six wagons. The British captured a Boer laager near Krügerspoort. A Boer detachment occupied Philippolis for a short time; but the little British garrison held out, having three killed and eleven wounded before being relieved. A British lieutenant with fifty cavalry details fell into a Boer ambush between Springfontein and Philippolis, forty-three being captured.

**Defeats of
De Wet.**

In describing the ceremony of proclaiming the annexation of the Transvaal to British South Africa, on October 25th, Lord Roberts stated that it included a march of six thousand two hundred troops in

garrison, who all looked in the best of health. On the same day General Barton attacked a Boer force under General De Wet at Frederickstad and dispersed them in all directions, but lost thirteen killed and forty-five wounded. The Boers left many dead upon the field, while twenty-six Boers were taken prisoners and thirty wounded Boers were in the British hospitals. The fighting was at close quarters, the bayonet being used. Three Boers who held up their hands in token of surrender and then treacherously fired upon the British were tried by court-martial and sentenced to death. General French arrived at Heidelberg, having captured one hundred Boers during his march, besides taking a large quantity of cattle and stores. Because of the many Boer attacks on the railway near Ventersburg, General Hunter drove the Boers from Ventersburg on October 30th, Major Hanwell being killed. On October 27th General Knox defeated the Boers under De Wet while they were in retreat, inflicting considerable loss upon them and taking two cannon and three wagons. Another Boer ammunition wagon was blown up by a British shell. The British pursuit was stopped by darkness and a heavy storm. The British did not lose a man. A small British garrison at Holfontein Siding was surprised by a small Boer force on October 28th, but the Boers were able only to capture a few rifles and some ammunition before they were driven off. Four Boer laagers were discovered near Vryburg.

Lord Roberts stated that there was a growing disposition among property-owning Boers to coöperate with the British in establishing peace. Lord Roberts expected soon to leave South Africa for England, to assume the post of commander-in-chief of the British army upon the retirement of Lord Wolseley. On October 21st General Buller arrived at Bethlehem, just in time to prevent the British sick and wounded from being sent off by the Boer commandant, and the Boers were driven from their strong position near Bethlehem. On October 28th a Boer commando captured a British outpost of ninety men near Kroonstad, and afterward stopped and pillaged a mail train. The Boers afterward released their captives. On October 24th the Boers occupied Koffyfontein, but the British garrison was relieved on November 3d. Lord Kitchener made a night march from Lydenburg and surprised two Boer laagers, one of them under General Schalk-Berger. The Boers trekked northward and could not be pursued. On November 1st General Paget defeated the Boers south-west of Magato Pass, driving them from two strong positions. On the same day a night march by General Smith-Dorrien from Belfast ended successfully, a Boer laager at Witkop being surrounded by the British; but unfavorable weather prevented the British from following up their victory. The Boers captured a military traction engine drawing

**More
British
Suc-
cesses.**

trucks loaded with stones near Kimberley. After operating in the vicinity of Bloemhof and Hoopstad, General Settle's British column, three thousand strong, arrived at Kimberley, but left at once by rail for the south. Reuter telegrams reported the destruction of Ventersburg and the appearance of Boer raiding parties at Reddersburg, Bloemfontein, Maseru and near Vryburg.

**Interest-
ing Facts.**

Three Irish Americans who were carrying dispatches from President Steyn were captured at Lebombo. Lord Roberts stated that President Steyn was doing his utmost to encourage the Boers by deceiving them with false accounts of victories. The Eleventh Division of the British army was broken up, and a number of Australian troops left for home. Some startling disclosures were made before the Transvaal Concessions Commission concerning the wholesale bribery of prominent Transvaal officials and members of the Volksraad by the Dynamite Company. A consignment of gold bars, valued at two million marks, was seized at Cuxhaven on board the *Bundesrath*, by order of the German authorities. Lord Roberts issued an appeal to the English people to refrain from treating the British soldiers with alcoholic stimulants on their return home from South Africa, when giving them the hearty welcome they deserved so well. He gave emphatic testimony to the exemplary conduct of the British army throughout the South African campaign. On November 5th the South African Hospitals Commission sat in London. Mrs. Richard Chamberlain, in giving the evidence relative to the hospital at Wynberg, said that it seemed to her that the whole place was in a horrible muddle, and doctors who frequently were intoxicated were put in charge of invalids returning home on transports.

**British
Victories
and
Captures.**

The British under Colonel Le Gallais defeated the Boers under President Steyn and Christian De Wet near Bothaville on November 5th, taking eight cannon, with all the Boer ammunition and wagons and one hundred prisoners, but Colonel Le Gallais and ten others were killed. General Smith-Dorrien had a hard fight with the Boers near Belfast on November 6th and 7th, in which the Canadians greatly distinguished themselves, and Generals Henry Prinsloo and Joachim Fourie were killed on the Boer side. On the night of November 7th General Frederick Walter Kitchener surprised the Boers near Lydenburg and routed them completely. The next day Colonel Plumer's force was attacked by four hundred of Delarey's Boers, who were beaten, leaving behind them two killed and sixteen prisoners. On the same day the British reoccupied Philippolis. On November 9th General Lord Methuen surprised the Boers under Snyman and Vermaas between Ottoshoop and Lichtenburg, taking thirty prisoners and several wagons. Boer raiders were near Bloemfontein and refugees were com-



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THE KIMBERLEY DIAMOND MINES

Upper: Sorting the Diamonds

Lower: General View of Kimberley

ing into the town. General Rundle's forces had skirmishes with small parties of Boers in the vicinity of Harrismith, Reitz and Vrede. General Douglas's column arrived at Ventersdorp on November 11th, after a very successful march from south of Zeerust. The South African Conciliation Committee protested to Prime Minister Sprigg against measures which are "not war as practiced in Europe and as regulated by the conventions of civilized nations." On November 14th General Sir Charles Warren spoke on the war at Chatham, England. On November 8th sixteen Boers were captured in trying to cross from Portuguese East Africa into the Transvaal at a place where they had been trying to get ammunition into the Transvaal. On November 10th Lord Methuen routed a Boer force and captured a "pom pom." On the same day a police post near Vryburg killed and captured several Boers. On November 14th a British cavalry column from Bloemfontein dispersed a guerrilla force eighteen miles west of that town.

On November 16th Generals Barton and Douglas occupied Klerksdorp. General Douglas had some desultory fighting with the Boers under Liebenberg and took eight prisoners and a large number of sheep and cattle. General Barton took seven prisoners and some horses, mules and cattle. Boer raiding parties were operating in the vicinity of Wepener, near Standerton and at other places. On November 19th a British outpost on the Bluffs was surprised with the loss of six killed, five wounded and thirty-one prisoners; but the post was reoccupied afterward by the British, four Boer prisoners being taken and five Boers being wounded. Commandant De Wet was in constant communication with the Boer laagers and informed the men that Lord Roberts was being prevented from burning farms and that the other Great Powers of Europe would interfere very shortly. General Delarey, with one thousand Boers, was between Vryburg and Fourteen Streams; and the Boers lost seventy-five killed and wounded in a fight near Edenburg. All the Boer families near Standerton were being brought in, with their cattle, sheep, grain and forage. Small engagements occurred near Frankfort and at Drainsfontein. The British captured large numbers of stock near Klerksdorp and Heidelberg. General Clements proceeded towards Reitfontein and dispersed one thousand Boers under General Delarey. The Boers were repulsed in a fierce attack on Brakpan by seventeen British soldiers, three Boers being killed and a Boer flag being captured. All the flour mills in the vicinity of Ladybrand were put out of working order by the British. This was considered a wise measure, as the marauding Boers would not then find large stores of meal if they revisited that region.

Mr. Pott, the former consul for the Transvaal at Lorenzo Marques, was notified by the Portuguese authorities there that he must not fly

**British
and Boer
Activity.**

**Portu-
guese
Action.**

the Transvaal and Orange Free State flags any longer, as the Portuguese government does not recognize those countries any longer as independent states. Portugal thus gave proof of her friendliness toward her old ally, Great Britain.

Plot
against
Lord
Roberts.

Lord Roberts reported a plot against his life by Europeans. On November 16th the Johannesburg police arrested five Italians, four Greeks and one Frenchman, who were charged with the design of exploding a mine in St. Mary's Church at Johannesburg during service on November 18th. Arrangements were made for the return of two thousand refugees to Johannesburg on condition that they would enroll themselves as a town guard. The hostile feeling of Dutch Cape Colony sympathizers with the Boer republics toward the British Empire caused great anxiety among the English colonial population, and the loyal newspapers at Cape Town advised martial law.

Dutch
Hostility.

General
Buller in
England.

The British colonial troops invalided from South Africa visited Oxford on November 15th; and the next day they proceeded to Windsor, where they were inspected by Her Majesty, who was visited by General Buller on November 17th. On the 20th General and Lady Audrey Buller proceeded to their home, near Crediton, England, and had a great popular welcome. General Buller visited Exeter on November 22d and received the freedom of the city and a sword of honor. Orders were issued in London for the dismemberment of twenty-one battalions of the British militia.

Henrik
Ibsen's
View
of the
War.

The newspaper *Oerebladet*, published at Christiania, Norway, gave an account of an interview with Henrik Ibsen, the Norwegian novelist, on the British-Boer War. He said that the Boers themselves had taken unrighteous possession of their territory after cruelly driving out the aboriginal inhabitants. The Boers came as a semi-civilized people and not with the intention of spreading civilization. On the contrary they had for a long time done much to hinder the spread of a higher civilization. If, then, the British, who had a higher culture, came and wished to push their way into the country, that was no worse, and, indeed, not so bad, as what the Boers themselves had done. In conclusion Ibsen said: "The British are only taking from the Boers what they themselves have stolen. The Boers must put up with that. The Boers have defended themselves bravely, but they had also good positions to defend."

President
Krüger in
France.

President Krüger landed at Marseilles on November 22d and was received with loud acclamations by an enormous multitude. In reply to an address of welcome, he said that the war waged against his people was a war of barbarians, but that the Boers never would surrender. He arrived at Paris on November 24th and was again welcomed by an immense concourse of people. He was conveyed in a state carriage to the

Elysée, where he had a brief interview with President Loubet, who returned the visit a little later. Two days later Mr. Krüger visited the grounds and buildings of the Paris Exposition. The next day he visited the French Prime Minister, M. Waldeck-Rousseau. At the Hotel de Ville he was addressed by the President of the Paris Municipality and the Seine Departmental Council, and in reply he reiterated his demand for arbitration. On the 28th he visited an exhibition of the various projects for the monument to the late Colonel De Villebois-Mareuil. One of his adherents said that Mr. Krüger hoped to obtain arbitration by appealing to popular opinion in Belgium, Holland, Germany, Hungary and Russia. Both Chambers of the French National Assembly passed resolutions of sympathy with the Boer cause.

Lord Roberts arrived at Ladysmith on November 30th and at Durban on December 7th, on his way to Cape Town, en route for England. Lord Kitchener was appointed his successor as commander-in-chief of the British forces in South Africa. In his farewell address to his troops Lord Roberts commended their courage, endurance, patriotism and humanity toward their foes. He said that the experience which he had gained would help him greatly in the work that lay before him, which was to make the British army as perfect as it was possible for an army to be.

On November 23d the British met with a serious disaster at Dewetsdorp, where four hundred British troops surrendered to twenty-five hundred Boers after losing fifteen killed and forty-two wounded. The Boers were pursued by General Knox, who defeated President Steyn and Commandant De Wet near Vaalbank on November 27th. The British also defeated the Boers near De Wagen Drift, at Tiger Kloof, near Bethlehem, at Bultfontein and at other places. On November 25th General Bruce Hamilton surprised a Boer laager six miles from Springs, in the Transvaal. Two days later General Knox defeated the rear-guard of De Wet's Boer force between Dewetsdorp and Smithfield, capturing two wagons and stampeding three hundred horses. On November 28th General Settle defeated the Boer commando under Herzog at Kloof and occupied Luckhoff. On that and the next day General Paget defeated a Boer commando under Viljoen and Erasmus north-east of Bronkhorst Spruit; but Lieutenant-Colonel Lloyd, of the West Riding Yorkshire Regiment, was killed, and ten officers were wounded, five of whom were New Zealanders, while thirteen British privates were killed and fifty-nine wounded. Three British columns under General Knox got south of De Wet, after some very hard marching. On December 4th General Knox again defeated and routed De Wet, driving him from all his positions. Further fighting resulted in favor of the British. The Fifth Battalion of British Yeomanry,

**Lord
Roberts's
Return to
England.**

**British
Disaster
and
Victories.**

under Colonel Meyrick, reoccupied Lichtenburg, after compelling the Boer commando under Lemmer to evacuate the town.

Plotters
Deported.

The eleven men arrested in Johannesburg on suspicion of being concerned in a plot to assassinate Lord Roberts were merely deported from the country, the evidence against them being insufficient to warrant a trial. A body of troops, to be called the Rand Rifles, was to be formed of all British citizens between certain ages in the district, to protect the Rand against the marauding incursions of Boer raiders and guerrilla detachments.

Rand
Rifles.

Return of
British
Troops to
England.

The British transport *Hawarden Castle*, having on board the Composite Regiment of Household Cavalry, the Second Royal Canadian Regiment and Battery A of the Royal Horse Artillery, arrived at Southampton, England, on November 29th. The First Life Guards proceeded to Windsor, where they marched past the queen. Her Majesty inspected the Canadian troops on November 30th. On December 1st the Canadian troops were welcomed in London by the Lord Mayor. On December 3d the Prince of Wales inspected the Guards and the Canadians together. On December 5th the Canadians visited the Houses of Parliament and were entertained at luncheon at Kensington Palace by the Duke of Argyll and Princess Louise. On November 30th General and Lady Buller were the guests of the evening at the annual dinner of Devonians in London. On that day the Mansion-house War Fund amounted to one million twenty-seven thousand eight hundred and fifty pounds.

Krüger in
Holland.

President Krüger left Paris on December 1st for Cologne, where he was disappointed to hear that the Emperor of Germany could not receive him; the Emperor apparently having purposely avoided meeting him, much to the chagrin and sorrow of the fugitive Transvaal President. He, therefore, decided not to go to Berlin; but he proceeded directly to Holland, where he was received warmly by Queen Wilhelmina.

Delarey's
Attack.

On December 3d the Boers under General Delarey attacked a British convoy on its way from Pretoria to Rustenburg. The Boers got into the first half of the convoy and burned the wagons. The second half was not touched. The British lost fifteen killed and twenty-three wounded.

De Wet's
Move-
ments.

On December 5th General De Wet crossed the Caledon by Kareepont Drift, going toward Odendaal, but failed to capture the Commassie Bridge, and proceeded toward the north-east, abandoning five hundred horses and many carts which he had obtained from Cape Colony, thus making his attempt on Cape Colony a failure. De Wet was pursued by General Knox, who captured a Krupp cannon and a wagon-load of ammunition and engaged in a running fight with De Wet's

force. The Boers proceeded toward Reddersburg, where they had a column ready to coöperate.

The Boers made a successful attack on a British mounted infantry post near Barberton. The British prisoners taken at Dewetsdorp, excepting the officers, were released by the Boers. On December 3d General Broadwood's Brigade reached Oliphant's Nek. In a reconnaissance at Drakensberg, General Talbot Coke collected one hundred horses, six hundred cattle and eight thousand sheep. General Settle's column marched from Luckhoff to Edenburg, seizing grain and live stock and capturing thirty prisoners.

**Various
Succes-
ses.**

The Boers murdered two unarmed Scotch Highlanders at Pretoria. The Cape Colony government issued a weekly memorandum containing official-vouched reports to correct the false reports persistently circulated about the war.

**Opposing
Reports.**

On December 6th the Afrikaner Congress at Worcester adopted resolutions demanding the termination of the war and the preservation of the independence of the two Boer Republics, at the same time condemning the attitude of Sir Alfred Milner. A deputation from the Congress conveyed the resolutions to Sir Alfred Milner, who promised to transmit them to the Imperial Government in London with an expression of his emphatic dissent.

**Action
of the
Afri-
kander
Congress.**

On December 8th Lord Roberts reached Cape Town and was enthusiastically cheered by an immense multitude. Lord and Lady Roberts, with their daughters, sailed for England on December 11th. Before sailing, Lord Roberts sent to the Prime Minister of Cape Colony a memorandum on the subject of farm-burning, explaining the reasons for which the policy was adopted and the limitations within which it was employed, and pointing out that it is in strict accordance with the usages of civilized warfare.

**Lord
Roberts's
Depart-
ure for
England.**

President Krüger arrived at The Hague on December 5th and received an enthusiastic welcome. On the 8th he was received by the young Queen of Holland. On the 10th he had an interview with the Dutch Ministers of Foreign Affairs and Finance.

**Krüger
in
Holland.**

On December 10th the German Imperial Chancellor, Count von Bülow, stated in the German Reichstag that no intervention in South Africa was possible or was contemplated at any time by Germany beyond the exercise of pacific influence. Two days later the Pan-German leader condemned the German government for refusing to receive President Krüger. The Chancellor replied at length, stating that if Germany interfered in South Africa she would have to rely on her own strength alone.

**Attitude
of
Germany.**

The British government decided to issue a war gratuity to all its troops in South Africa, the Field-Marshal to receive twenty-five hun-

**Events in
England.**

dred pounds and the privates five pounds each. On December 6th the Transvaal Concessions Commission met at Westminster. On December 10th the Princess of Wales went to Southampton to visit the hospital-ship bearing her name, which arrived from Cape Town two days before with one hundred and seventy invalids. Queen Victoria personally conferred the Victoria Cross on several officers and privates from South Africa.

**Delarey's
Victory
over
Clements.**

At dawn on December 13th General Clements's force at Nooitgedacht, on the Mageliesberg, was attacked by twenty-five hundred Boers under Delarey. The Boers reached the summit of the Mageliesberg, which was occupied by the Northumberland Fusiliers and thus commanded General Clements's camp. General Clements finally brought in his force to Commando Nek. The British lost fourteen killed and five hundred and seventy-three missing, the latter being four companies of the Northumberland Fusiliers and some Yeomanry and other details. The Northumberland Fusiliers fought until their ammunition was exhausted. As many negro drivers fled, a considerable amount of transport was lost. All ammunition that was not taken away was destroyed. The Boers reported that their own losses were very heavy.

**Boer
Defeats at
Vryheid.**

On December 10th the Boers attacked Vryheid, and only retired in the evening with a loss of about one hundred killed and wounded. The British lost six killed, nineteen wounded and thirty missing. On the 13th Colonel Bloomfield moved on Vryheid and drove the Boers in confusion from Scheeper's Nek, inflicting heavy loss upon them and capturing a large quantity of arms and stock.

**Methuen's
Victory.**

While operating in the Zastron district some of Brabant's Horse were surrounded in a defile and obliged to surrender. On December 13th Lord Methuen attacked the Boer positions at Ottoshoop and captured their laager, thus obtaining fifteen ox wagons, a number of Cape carts, fifteen thousand rounds of ammunition, fourteen hundred and sixty cattle and two thousand sheep. The Boers lost two killed and five taken prisoners. The Boer General Lemmer was killed in an attack on the British at Lichtenburg. Boer attacks on Bethlehem and Vrede were repulsed with a loss of ten Boers killed and fourteen wounded. A party of eighty-one Boer prisoners were brought into Kimberley from the Boshof district.

**De Wet's
Move-
ments.**

General Knox drove De Wet north to the line of Thabanchu and Ladybrand, which was held by the British troops. De Wet's force, three thousand strong, made several attempts to get through, aided by a number of Boers operating from the north. They were driven back, but a portion of them got north on December 14th, after losing a 15-pounder cannon which they had captured at Dewetsdorp, a "Pom-

Pom," several wagonloads of ammunition, twelve prisoners and some horses and mules, besides thirty killed and wounded.

About six hundred Boers invaded Cape Colony about the middle of December. Lord Kitchener requested that the New Zealand contingent should remain in South Africa until the end of the war, and the New Zealand Cabinet consented.

**New
Zealand
Continent.**

Queen Victoria expressed her grateful appreciation of the signal services of the Yeomanry, volunteers, militia and colonial troops in South Africa during the year 1900. It was decided to recruit up to five thousand men in the United Kingdom for the South African Constabulary. On December 13th and 14th the Transvaal Concessions Committee met at Westminster, when evidence was given as to the Selati Railway. President Krüger, who was still in Holland, dined with Queen Wilhelmina at The Hague and visited Amsterdam. Manifestations of popular sympathy with him and his people were still very warm.

**Events in
England.**

**Krüger in
Holland.**

On December 19th about eight hundred Boers invaded Cape Colony by crossing the Orange River at Rhenoster Hoek, and a second band crossed near Sand Drift. Lord Kitchener sent forces of mounted troops to flank them and thus check the invasion. About two hundred Boers who occupied Britstown retired after commandeering supplies. It was rumored that a force of Yeomanry was entrapped by the Boers and most of them captured. On December 18th a fight occurred on the Colesberg road, eleven miles from Steynsburg, the Boers retreating to the Zuurberg. On the 23d there was some indecisive fighting at Rooipoort, fifteen miles from Burghersdorp. Fighting also occurred at De Aar. The damage to the railway and telegraph lines in Cape Colony was slight. Very few Cape Colony Dutch joined the invaders. After visiting Naauwpoort, Lord Kitchener returned to the north. Martial law was proclaimed in Cape Colony by the British authorities.

**Boer Raid
into Cape
Colony.**

General Clements defeated the Boers under Delarey in two engagements near Nooitgedacht on December 19th and 20th, driving them from the valley south of the Mageliesberg. General French defeated two Boer commandos with considerable loss. The British Secretary for War informed Lord Kitchener that eight hundred mounted infantry would sail for South Africa during the last week of December. It was also announced that two cavalry regiments would leave England for South Africa as soon as possible.

**British
Successes.**

**British
Recruits.**

The recruiting of colonial police to make up ten thousand was being expedited. A sixth New Zealand contingent, half of whom were Maoris, was preparing to sail for South Africa in January, 1901. Major-General Baden-Powell visited Port Elizabeth on December 23d

**Various
Events.**

and Grahamstown on the 24th. Lord Roberts arrived at Madeira on Christmas day and left the next day.

**De Wet's
Escape.**

General De Wet himself was foiled in an attempt to invade Cape Colony, but he finally escaped from the British who sought to entrap him. As the British now were keeping him continually on the move, his horses were wearing out.

**Boer Suc-
cess and
Defeat.**

The Boers captured a strong post at Helvetia, on the Machadodorp and Lydenburg Railway; but General Reeves afterward reoccupied Helvetia, the Boers escaping with a British 4.7-inch cannon and two hundred British prisoners. The British also lost eleven men killed and twenty-six wounded.

**Boer
Defeats.**

The Boers blew up a train near Pan on December 26th, and attacked Utrecht and Benoni, near Boksburg, but were driven off. Colonel Colville was engaged with the Boers near Greylingstad, when another Boer commando attacked the baggage, but were driven off, the British loss being eight killed, twenty-seven wounded and twenty missing. On December 28th General French occupied Ventersburg, the Boers evacuating their position on the approach of the British.

**De Wet's
Move-
ments.**

De Wet was now endeavoring to break through the British lines to the south, but General Knox's column and Boyes's Brigade were holding him. De Wet tried to move towards Bethlehem, but was headed off by Colonel Pilcher, and retreated toward Lindley or Reitz. General Knox defeated the Boers and occupied Senekal. Colonel Hallett's column captured a large quantity of stock and eleven thousand horses at Jagersfontein. The British made several captures at other points.

**Boer
Raiders
in Cape
Colony.**

In Cape Colony the Boer invaders broke up into many small commandos, which held up trains and captured convoys, and also engaged in looting operations. The eastern invaders were moving rapidly about, waiting for support from the north, while the western force moved toward Caernarvon; but the British under De Lisle and Thorneycroft pursued them. The British under Williams engaged the Boers south-west of Middelburg. The British also occupied Graaf Reinet, in Cape Colony. The Cape Colony government called on the loyal inhabitants of the colony to form a colonial defense force.

**Lord
Roberts's
Reception
in
England.**

Lord Roberts arrived at Cowes, in the Isle of Wight, on January 2, 1901, and drove with the Duke of Connaught and Princess Henry of Battenberg to Osborne to see Queen Victoria. Addresses of welcome were presented at East Cowes Town-hall; and Lord Roberts, in his reply, said that he did not think he should have left his command had he not had the most implicit confidence in Lord Kitchener. The task which had devolved on that commander was surrounded with difficulties, partly owing to the marvelous mobility of the enemy, but mainly owing to the vast extent and absolute barrenness of the country. Neverthe-

less, there was no need to fear as to the result if England's enemies were made to understand clearly that England is determined, however long the war might last and whatever it might cost, to bring it to a successful issue. With the British Empire firmly knit together Great Britain need fear no foe so long as she was careful to see that there was no weak point in her armor.

Lord Roberts was welcomed by Queen Victoria at Osborne, and the Queen bestowed upon him an earldom and the Knighthood of the Garter. Lord Roberts spent the night on board the *Canada* and left for London the next morning. Over twelve thousand troops were already in London to line the route arranged to be taken by the Prince of Wales and Lord Roberts from Paddington Station to Buckingham Palace.

General Colville, commanding the infantry brigade at Gibraltar, who was requested to resign, refused to comply with the request, and returned to England at the close of December. He issued a long statement concerning the surrender of the Imperial Yeomanry at Lindley in May, 1900. He insisted that the chief cause of the surrender was bad staff work. Colonial Secretary Chamberlain refused the services of Maoris in the New Zealand contingent.

The Princess of Wales, as President of the Soldiers' and Sailors' Families Association, appealed for further public support. President Krüger was still in Holland and was suffering from bronchitis, one of his lungs also being affected.

Two skirmishes took place in Cape Colony on the first two days of January, 1901, south of Middelburg. There were few Boer invaders, but these few were very mobile. The British threw up intrenchments all around Caernarvon. The country around Kimberley was being cleared of people and stock. The loyal inhabitants of Cape Colony spontaneously responded to the appeal for the formation of a defensive force, the whole able-bodied population practically offering themselves. Though the Dutch population had not actually risen, the Boer invaders were assisted by them in many places. The Boers in Bechuanaland were again joined by some of the Cape Colony Dutch who had been already in rebellion. Martial law still prevailed in Cape Colony.

A deputation from one hundred thousand negroes waited on Sir Alfred Milner and offered to help the British forces in every possible way. He told them they could aid without taking up arms; for instance, by giving information. Mr. Malan, a member of the Cape Colony Parliament and editor of *Ons Land*, was arrested on a charge of defamatory and seditious libel.

A detachment of General Knox's force encountered a superior Boer force near Lindley, and Lieutenant-Colonel Laing was killed, seventeen of his troops being killed and twenty-two wounded. On January 5,

His
Welcome
by the
Queen.

General
Colville's
Action.

Charity
Fund.

Krüger.

Events
in Cape
Colony.

Negro
Offer.

Malan's
Arrest.

British
Suc-
cesses.

1901, General Babington drove back the Boer commandos under Delarey and Steenkamp at Naauwpoort, Commandant Dupreez being taken prisoner by the victorious British.

**Boer
Repulses.**

On the night of January 7th the Boers simultaneously attacked all the British posts at Belfast, Wonderfontein, Wildfontein, Nootgedacht and Pan. The Boers took advantage of a dense fog to creep up close to the British posts. Heavy firing continued until late in the day, when the Boers were driven off. On the British side Captain Fosberg and twenty-three of his followers were killed and fifty-nine were wounded. The Boer loss was heavy, twenty-four dead being counted.

**Boer
Defeat.**

A British convoy carrying supplies to General Gordon's Brigade north of Krügersdorp was attacked by Beyer's commando on the morning of January 8th. The Boers were driven off, leaving eleven dead on the field. The British loss was only four men slightly wounded. On January 9th the Boers were repulsed in a night attack at Machado-dorp.

**British
Recruits.**

The British were preparing to send more men to South Africa from Great Britain and her colonies. Men were being enrolled rapidly in Australia and New Zealand for the new contingent to be sent to the scene of war in South Africa.

**Peace
Agents
Flogged.**

Three agents of the Peace Committee were taken as prisoners to De Wet's laager near Lindley on January 10th. One British subject was flogged and shot and two Boer peace agents were flogged by De Wet's orders.

**Boer
Defeats.**

On January 13th about fourteen hundred Boers crossed the line between Zuurfontein and Kaalfontein and attacked both stations, but were driven off. On January 7th the Boers attacked Zeerust. Fighting also occurred north of Krügersdorp and near Senekal.

**Boer
Raiders
in Cape
Colony.**

Lord Kitchener decided to evacuate all towns lying outside the lines of communication, so that there would be no convoys for the Boers to loot. The Boers still avoided fighting in Cape Colony. Hertzog's commando was near Sutherland, in Cape Colony. On the Midland's line the Boers seemed to have broken up into small bands, one-half going north and the other half hiding in the mountainous country north-west of Jamestown. Several small parties of Boers appeared to be returning to the Orange River Colony. The Boers attempted to cut the water main at Towns River, on which the railway depended. In the Australian colonies of New South Wales and Victoria great enthusiasm was shown in response to the call for volunteers for the new colonial contingents for South Africa.

**Aus-
tralian
Contin-
gents.**

**Boer
Defeats.**

About three thousand Boers concentrated at Carolina, in the Transvaal. On January 17th General Colville's mobile column was attacked north of Standerton, but the Boers were driven off with severe loss.

The Boers were also defeated near Ventersburg. The Johannesburg Mounted Rifles captured a Boer outpost at Springs. The Boers captured a train with mine materials near Balmoral. On January 21st small Boer bands seriously damaged electric light works near Johannesburg. A Boer detachment entered Aberdeen, in Cape Colony, on January 15th and plundered the stores. Skirmishes occurred at other points, the Boer invaders suffering great losses.

On January 24th General Cunningham moved from Oliphant's Nek and captured seventeen Boers of Delarey's commando. General Babington moved north from Ventersdorp and menaced the Boer flank, whereupon the Boers retired westward. General Smith-Dorrien dispersed the Boers after a five hour's engagement between Wonderfontein and Carolina.

**More
Boer
Defeats.**

On January 25th the Boers captured a goods train with cattle and provisions for troops north of Kimberley, after they had surrounded and captured an outpost of the Dublin Fusiliers. General Knox attacked Haasebroek's laager and captured a field cornet, four other prisoners and twenty horses.

**Boer
Success.**

General Knox engaged De Wet's force about forty miles north of Thabanchu. De Wet intended again to attempt the invasion of Cape Colony. The Boer invaders of Cape Colony were entrenched at Calvinia, which was regarded as their base, and were engaged in pillaging the country. Colonel Bethune and Colonel De Lisle were about to begin operations for the purpose of driving them out of the colony.

**De Wet
and Cape
Colony.**

On January 29th General Knox fought De Wet's force north of Thabanchu. General French engaged two thousand Boers east of the Pretoria and Johannesburg Railway. A British outpost of two hundred men was captured by the Boers at Modderfontein. The Delagoa Bay Railway was cut by the Boers within the limits of Portuguese East Africa.

**Various
Opera-
tions.**

The Boer invaders of the Oudtshoorn district of Cape Colony were repulsed completely by the British. A detachment of about four hundred Boers inflicted considerable damage to the Modderfontein and Van Ryn mines on January 29th. The mine guard was being organized as rapidly as possible. In compliance with Lord Kitchener's request, the British government decided to send thirty thousand more cavalry to South Africa to put an end to the destructive guerrilla warfare.

**Boer
Raiders.**

A British column destroyed Boer supplies at Petrusburg and brought in thirty-five hundred horses and cattle without sustaining any casualty. Lord Methuen dispersed the Boers at Lillifontein and captured twelve wagons and two hundred cattle. The British columns operating east occupied Ermelo on February 6th; General Louis Botha,

**British
Suc-
cesses.**

with a Boer force of seven thousand men, retiring eastward. About fifty Boers surrendered.

**Botha's
Defeat.**

General Louis Botha, with two thousand Boers, attacked the British under General Smith-Dorrien at Bothwell early on February 6th, and was repulsed after severe fighting. General French captured a convoy of fifty wagons and fifteen carts, besides forty-five prisoners.

**De Wet's
Band.**

General De Wet, with his Boer force, appeared to be crossing the line south of the Jagersfontein road to the west. A deserter from De Wet's commando stated that great dissatisfaction prevailed among De Wet's followers, and that they had little food and ammunition.

**Events
in Cape
Colony.**

In Cape Colony the British under Colonel De Lisle occupied Calvinia on February 6th. A British convoy and forty Yeomanry were captured by the Boer invaders in Cape Colony. About this time the Boers derailed three trains near Vlaklaagte.

**Official
Dis-
patches.**

In the parade of the City Guard of Cape Town on February 10th over seven thousand men were present, and their officers were addressed in a stirring speech by Sir Alfred Milner. A number of official dispatches relating to the war were published in the London *Gazette*, including reports of General Sir George Stuart White and Sir Redvers Henry Buller on the defense and relief of Ladysmith, with Lord Roberts's comments and his explanations of his operations while in chief command in South Africa, and the dispatches of his subordinates on the defense and relief of Mafeking, the defense of Wepener, Sanna's Post, the capture of Prinsloo in the Brandwater Basin, General Buller's march after the relief of Ladysmith, etc.

**Other
Events.**

Mr. Burdett-Coutts, M. P., commented on the report of the Hospitals Commission in a letter. The Transvaal Concessions Commission heard evidence from Baron von Eckhardstein, of the German embassy in London, as to the position of the German and Austrian shareholders in the Netherlands Railway.

**De Wet
again
in Cape
Colony.**

Commandant De Wet crossed the Orange River into Cape Colony, near the Sand River, on February 10th or 11th, and attacked Philipstown, but was repulsed after three hours' fighting. De Wet's force crossed the railway at Baartman's Siding, north of De Aar, on February 15th, closely followed by Colonel Plumer. Colonel Crabbe, with two armored trains, engaged the Boers and captured twenty wagons, several of which were loaded with ammunition, besides a Maxim cannon, twenty prisoners and over one hundred horses. De Wet was still reported to be north-west of Hopetown. His animals were said to be exhausted and badly fed. Large bodies of British troops were in contact with the Boers or close to them. The Boer invaders of Cape Colony were plundering and cruelly treating the negroes in the Calvinia and Caernarvon districts.

A British supply train, running in front of Lord Kitchener's special train, was blown up by the Boers at Klip River, south of Johannesburg. The Boers were driven off by a party of Lord Kitchener's bodyguard, who came up in armored trains. General French drove a large Boer force on to Piet Retief, capturing a large number of wagons, carts and cattle about twenty-five miles south-east of Ermelo.

**Boer
Defeats.**

De Wet was in full retreat and his forces were dispersing. Colonel Plumer engaged him on February 23d, on the south bank of the Orange River, and captured a cannon, a "Pom Pom," over forty prisoners and some carts. De Wet then moved toward Petrusville with a force of over five hundred men. In a letter written to Hertzog, De Wet requested that officer to tell all the Boer commandants and field cornets that if they did not meet with signal success on entering Cape Colony they should consider the question of surrender.

**De Wet's
Retreat.**

About forty Boers and the whole of the Boer supplies at Scheeper's laager, near Willowmore, were captured by the British. The Boers in General French's front were retreating before him in scattered and disorganized bands numbering together about five thousand men, losing almost three hundred men killed and wounded, two hundred and thirty-nine prisoners, a 15-pounder cannon, four hundred and sixty-two rifles, one hundred and sixty thousand rounds of small-arm ammunition, thirty-five hundred horses, seventy mules, three thousand five hundred and thirty trek oxen, eighteen thousand seven hundred cattle, one hundred and fifty-five thousand four hundred sheep and one thousand and seventy wagons and carts, all of which were captured by the British. The British lost forty-six killed and one hundred and twelve wounded. In the course of the next few days General French captured a 19-pounder Krupp cannon, a Maxim cannon, a howitzer, twenty rounds of small-arm ammunition, one hundred and fifty-three rifles, three hundred and eighty-eight horses, fifty-two mules, eight hundred and thirty-four trek oxen, fifty-six hundred cattle, ninety-eight hundred sheep and two hundred and eighty-seven wagons and carts. The Boers lost four men killed, five wounded and about three hundred made prisoners. The British sustained no casualties. Lord Methuen defeated fourteen hundred Boers under De Villiers and Liebenberg at Haartbeestfontein, the Boers leaving eighteen dead on the field, and the British losing sixteen men killed and thirty-four wounded.

**Boer
Losses.**

**Boer
Defeat.**

The National Liberal Federation's General Committee passed a resolution calling on the British government to announce and, on the cessation of hostilities, to carry out a policy which would secure equal rights to the white races and just and humane treatment to the negroes.

**Liberal
Party's
Attitude**

De Wet was driven northward across the Orange River out of Cape Colony, the British taking about two hundred prisoners and capturing

**De Wet's
Expul-
sion from
Cape
Colony
and His
Losses.**

a number of stragglers from the Boer ranks. President Steyn was with De Wet, who was also joined by Hertzog and Brand. Prisoners in the hands of the British reported the Boers as much dispirited. General Babington dug up a Krupp cannon, a "Pom Pom" and some ammunition which had been buried at Sandfontein. Captain Dallimore, with sixteen of the Victoria Rifles, captured thirty-three Boer soldiers and fifty horses on the Seacow River. General Dartwell captured a Hotchkiss cannon from the Boers near Piet Retief. Boer surrenders continued in that district; over fifty Boers, with a commandant, surrendering on March 2d. Colonel Plumer captured De Wet's last cannon from his rear-guard on February 23d. It was stated that De Wet's attempted invasion of Cape Colony was the most disastrous adventure that yet had befallen him, as he was forced to abandon over four thousand horses and most of his convoy. Colonels Plumer, Haig and Williams were pursuing him closely. His troops were undergoing great hardships.

**Other
Boer
Bands.**

About eighty of Lord Kitchener's scouts surrendered to a superior Boer force after a prolonged fight. About five hundred Boers under Van Reenan, a Steynsburg rebel, were laagered for several weeks at Diepkloof, on the south-east border of the Colesberg district of Cape Colony, and this commando was increasing gradually.

**General
French's
Opera-
tions.**

General French's operations and convoys were delayed by continuous rains. Boers surrendered to the British daily or were taken prisoners in battle, and the entire Boer force confronting General French was broken up into small parties. General French dug up a Krupp cannon, a Maxim cannon and some ammunition, all of which the Boers had buried. Sir Alfred Milner arrived at Pretoria on March 4th.

**Armis-
tice.**

Lord Kitchener met Commandant Louis Botha and other Boer leaders at Middelburg on February 27th, and Lord Kitchener granted Botha a week's armistice to enable him to confer with the other Boer generals.

**Boer
Defeats.**

The Boers were repulsed in their attack on Lichtenburg, and their commander, General Celliers, was killed. In the eastern Transvaal, General French's troops captured a 14-pounder Creuzot cannon, a Hotchkiss cannon, one hundred and sixty-nine rifles and large quantities of forage and live stock. De Wet was now north of Brandfort, having escaped by forced marches with about four hundred men. Continuous heavy rains interfered with the military operations.

De Wet.

**Boers
in Cape
Colony.**

In Cape Colony two small Boer commandos were being hunted amongst the hills by the British troops. The Boers occupied Pearston on March 3d, but the British reoccupied the town two days later. The Boers had captured sixty rifles and over fifteen thousand rounds of ammunition. There was some skirmishing near Rouxville and

Aliwal North. Two Cape Colony rebels, who had been arrested in connection with an attack on a railway train at Taaibosch, were tried, convicted and sentenced to death. The British occupied Maraisburg on March 8th.

In the Orange River Colony, Colonel Pilcher's troops drove the Boer forces out of the country between the Orange River and Bloemfontein. There were eight Boer commandos at large in the Orange River Colony, but military rule was being superseded by a civil administration, as far as possible. A large proportion of the Boers were now frankly throwing in their lot with the British, and many of them were actually serving against the Boers who were still in the field fighting the British. The Victoria Cross was conferred on Lieutenant Maxwell, of Roberts's Light Horse, for conspicuous bravery at Koorn Spruit on March 31, 1900.

**Boers
in the
Orange
River
Colony.**

Rewards.

On March 14th it was learned that De Wet had reached Senekal. General French's troops killed and wounded forty-six more Boers and took one hundred and forty-six prisoners, two hundred rifles, thirty-seven hundred rounds of ammunition, twenty-four hundred horses, one hundred and twenty mules, three hundred and seventy trek oxen, twenty-five hundred cattle and four hundred carts and wagons. On March 14th a British column from Lydenburg captured a Boer laager at Krügerspost, with thirty-two prisoners and a large quantity of grain and live stock.

**Boer
Losses.**

The operations for the surrender of the Boer commando under Kruitziuger on March 16th and 17th were rendered abortive by a mistake on the part of Colonel De Lisle's force. Four British subjects were shot at Wolmaranstad on March 9th, by orders of Smuts and Delarey. In Cape Colony and the Orange River Colony the British continued active operations against the scattered Boer guerrilla bands. Three Cape Colony Dutch rebels sentenced to death for wrecking a train were executed at De Aar on March 19th.

**Other
Events**

Lord Kitchener telegraphed to England that any comforts which private individuals might desire to send out for the British soldiers in South Africa would be very acceptable, in view of the approaching winter in the southern hemisphere, and should be sent as early as possible. The British War Office issued a statement as to the articles most likely to be useful to the troops in the field, and also regulations as to the transmission of parcels. Lord Roberts said that he had every hope that, in the able hands of Lord Kitchener, it would not be long before peace would be restored.

**Comforts
for
Soldiers.**

Colonel Babington's force defeated the Boers under Delarey near Ventersdorp, capturing two 15-pounder cannon, a "Pom Pom," six Maxim cannon, large quantities of ammunition, carts and wagons, and

**Delarey's
Defeat.**

one hundred and forty-four prisoners. The British lost two killed and seven wounded, while the Boers left twenty-two dead and thirty wounded on the field.

British Captures. General French arrived at Vryheid late in March, after having killed, wounded or captured twelve hundred Boers and taken seven cannon, one thousand rifles, two hundred and twenty-six thousand horses, cattle and sheep, and eighteen hundred wagons. In a night march from Thabanchu, Colonel White surprised a party of Boers and took four prisoners, six wagons, thirty-four horses and a number of cattle. Colonel Thorneycroft's column brought three thousand horses, three thousand cattle and seventeen thousand sheep into Dewetsdorp.

Boer Losses. General Philip Botha, brother of General Louis Botha, was killed in the fighting at Doornberg. The Boers in the Orange River Colony disbanded and dispersed. A Boer force wrecked a British supply train north of Vlakraagte on March 22d.

British Recruits. The British transport *Bavarian* left England on March 25th, sailing out of the Mersey with seventeen hundred troops for South Africa. The British War Office issued a list of promotions and appointments for exceptional gallantry in the field.

Peace Terms. The peace negotiations between Lord Kitchener and General Botha failed, and the war continued. As the question of absolute Boer independence was not listened to by Lord Kitchener, the discussion turned on other points, the terms of which were quite generous on the British side; but the Boers would not listen to Lord Kitchener's demand that civilized, intelligent and property-owning negroes should have the same right to vote as the whites.

British Captures. At the close of March the Boers derailed a train near Pan by exploding a mine, but two hundred Boers who advanced to plunder it were driven off, leaving six dead and one wounded. In the Orange River Colony fifteen hundred horses, besides other stock, were brought into the British lines at the close of March, seven Boers being killed, nine wounded and seventy taken prisoners. General French's forces captured prisoners, arms, ammunition and horses and other live stock in the vicinity of Vryheid. Colonel Plumer occupied Nylstroom. General French captured a 15-pounder cannon and two "Pom-Poms" on the lower Pongola River. In the Orange River Colony thirty-one Boer prisoners were captured.

Boer Losses. In the Springfontein district General Bruce Hamilton's force traversed eighty miles in three days, collected a large number of horses and cattle and destroyed much grain. The Boers of Fourie's commando acknowledged that they lost seven hundred men in killed, wounded and prisoners during their invasion of Cape Colony and that they brought back only four Cape carts out of their entire convoy.

They lost thirty men drowned in crossing the Orange River. On March 29th General French drove the Boers out of several positions east of Vryheid, killing four Boers and wounding several and capturing wagons and cattle.

General Bruce Hamilton's mounted column fought the Boers of Fourie's commando near Dewetsdorp, the British capturing horses, cattle and carts. On March 28th the Boers derailed a train on the Delagoa Bay Railway near Balmoral, and another Boer detachment derailed a train near Newcastle, Natal. In Swaziland the Imperial Light Horse took an entire convoy of wagons, with cattle, sheep and horses, and at the same time captured another herd of one thousand head of cattle.

**British
Captures.**

Colonel Davies was forming a permanent police force for Johannesburg. It was decided not to issue any further application forms for the South African Constabulary for the time being. The Victoria Cross was conferred on Lieutenant H. E. Douglas, of the British Army Medical Corps, for conspicuous bravery at Magersfontein. The British War Office issued an army order specifying the various clasps to be awarded with the South African medal.

**Other
Occur-
rences.**

On March 29th the Mansion-house War Fund amounted to one million one hundred and fourteen thousand nine hundred and fifty-five pounds. General Sir Redvers Henry Buller, in a reply to a correspondent, deprecated the drawing of comparisons between Lord Roberts and himself, and asked that both might be allowed to stand as having done their best.

**War
Fund.**

Early in April, General French captured another "Pom-Pom," thus accounting for all of the Boer cannon known to be in the south-eastern Transvaal. General French also took prisoners, wagons and cattle. Colonel Plumer occupied Pietersburg with little opposition, capturing sixty prisoners, a 7-pounder cannon, two locomotives and thirty-nine trucks. Lord Kitchener's forces captured sixteen prisoners, sixty horses and a depot of stores in the Orange River Colony.

**British
Captures.**

On April 3d Colonel Crabble surprised a Boer laager at Sand Drift and captured three hundred horses, besides arms, ammunition, etc. On April 6th the Boers under Scheepers captured a party of the Fifth Lancers and Imperial Yeomanry north of Aberdeen, Cape Colony. About eight hundred Boers were baffled in an attempt to get north between Vryheid and Zululand, and one hundred and twenty Boers surrendered in Zululand.

**More
British
Captures.**

Commandants Botha and De Wet met at Vrede, and Botha was reported to have reopened negotiations for peace, being convinced of De Wet's insanity. The Boers shot another peace envoy, Meyer de Kock, at Belfast.

**Peace
Efforts.**

Relief Fund.

About two million six hundred thousand pounds was contributed to the British war relief fund down to the end of the year 1900, and a million remained unexpended. The *Matin*, of Paris, published an interview with President Krüger.

British Captures.

After two hours' hard fighting, Bethune's mounted infantry captured eighty Boers and eight wagons near Dewetsdorp. Two Boers were killed, one wounded and six captured in a fight near Brandfort. In General Babington's operations Sir Henry Rawlinson's column rushed Smuts's laager, north-west of Klerksdorp, six Boers being killed, ten wounded and twenty-three taken prisoners, and a 12-pounder cannon and a "Pom-Pom" were captured, along with ammunition, wagons, horses and cattle. Colonel Plumer captured field-cornet Briel and sixteen other Boers, besides rifles, wagons and horses.

Operations in the Transvaal.

Early in April military operations were begun in the eastern Transvaal. Since Sir Bindon Blood took command of the British forces in that district the wrecking of trains had ceased. On April 14th Colonel Plumer's force left Pietersburg, and the next day it crossed the most difficult pass in the country without opposition.

Boer Treachery.

Two men of the Imperial Yeomanry who asked for water at a farm at Jagersfontein Road were treacherously directed by a woman to a place where some Boers were in ambush, and one yeoman was killed and the other wounded. Andries Wessels, a peace envoy to the Boers, who had been reported to have been shot, was said to be still alive.

Other Events.

On April 10th a British transport arrived at Port Elizabeth with four hundred Australians. The British established a definite civil administration of justice in the Transvaal. Transvaal law was allowed to remain, but pleading was to be conducted in English. The Victoria Cross was conferred on Sergeant Donald Farmer for conspicuous bravery at Nooitgedacht on December 13th.

British Captures.

General Sir Bindon Blood's forces captured eighty-one prisoners, one hundred thousand rounds of ammunition, two hundred horses and many wagons and cattle. About the middle of April the British columns captured two hundred and forty-two prisoners, two hundred and forty-eight rifles, some ammunition, wagons and carts. A party of the Ninth Lancers was ambushed by the Boers, four of the Lancers being killed and five wounded. The Boksburg commando of one hundred and six Boers surrendered, with rifles and horses.

Cape Colony.

There still were Boer roving parties in Cape Colony, where slight skirmishes occurred, and the Boers captured a train near Molteno on April 19th. Lord Kitchener issued a warning in Cape Colony against interference with the British operations.

Editors Jailed.

Mr. Cartwright, editor of the *South African News*, and Mr. Malan, editor of *Ons Land*, were sentenced to a year's imprisonment for

seditions libel. The proprietors of two other Afrikander organs were sentenced to six months' imprisonment for libel.

During the last week of April the British had captured one hundred and thirteen prisoners, one hundred and thirty-eight rifles, ninety-eight horses, a 12-pounder Krupp cannon and fifteen thousand rounds of small-arm ammunition, while the Boers lost twelve killed, twenty wounded and ninety-nine prisoners. Besides these, it was afterwards learned that Lieutenant Reid and twenty Imperial Bushmen had captured Commandant Schroeder and forty-one Boer soldiers, with a Maxim cannon, horses, wagons and much ammunition on April 25th; while four Boers were killed and one hundred and eighty taken prisoners, with three thousand cattle, six thousand sheep and many wagons, near Paardeplatz.

**British
Captures.**

The British scouts under General Grenfell surprised and captured Van Rensburg's laager north of Pietersburg, seven Boers being killed, thirty-seven taken prisoners, and eight thousand rounds of ammunition, with all the wagons, oxen, horses, etc., of this Boer commando being captured. General Grenfell afterwards made additional captures, while the British detachment under Byng defeated the Boers on the frontier of Basutoland. About four hundred Boers were repulsed in an attack on the Malalatini Magistracy in Zululand, on April 28th. General Grenfell routed the Boers at Bergplaats, where they had their last "Long Tom" in position, the Boers blowing up this cannon and fleeing, ten of them being captured. General Sir Bindon Blood's forces cleared the country in the vicinity of Roos Senekal and captured sixty-five armed Boers, thirty wagons, a quantity of stock, a Krupp cannon and a quantity of ammunition.

**More
British
Captures
and
Successes.**

After abandoning his wagons and destroying two cannon, Ben Viljoen, with five hundred armed Boers, went south along the Steelpoort Valley. After successful operations in the south-eastern portion of the Orange River Colony, Major Du Moulin's column returned to Aliwal North, with three hundred prisoners, sixty thousand sheep, six thousand cattle, one hundred wagons, three hundred horses and eight hundred refugees.

**More
Boer
Losses.**

It was afterwards learned that early in May the British columns reported ten Boers killed, one hundred and six taken prisoners, and two hundred and eighty-six thousand rounds of small-arm ammunition, one hundred wagons, with their teams, and two thousand and seventy other horses being captured. Several days later it was learned that the British columns had, in addition, killed four Boers, wounded five and captured one hundred and eighteen prisoners, one hundred and twenty wagons and one hundred and six thousand rounds of small-arm ammunition.

**More
British
Captures.**

**Boer
Losses.**

At this time the first real Boer surrenders since Prinsloo's capitulation occurred. General Babington drove a large Boer force from its intrenched position at Hartebeestfontein, and was heavily engaged the next day at Lopfontein. General Colville's column surprised Hans Botha's laager near Heidelberg, the Boers fleeing and leaving their wagons to the British. Generals Douglas's and Benson's columns defeated the Boers at Goedekop, capturing their laager.

**Boer
Success
and
Defeats.**

A small patrol of the Diamond Fields Horse was captured by the Boers near Cradock, but was rescued the same day. A small Boer force which had reoccupied Roos Senckal was dispersed, losing three killed, nine taken prisoners, seven wagons and one hundred cattle. Lord Methuen reoccupied Lichtenburg, and the British columns operating in the Standerton district captured two Boer laagers. General Plumer's column arrived at Eerste Fabrieken, after successful operations near Oliphant's River.

**More
Boer
Losses.**

A week later it was announced that the Boers had in several days lost twenty-eight killed, six wounded and three hundred and thirteen prisoners, while the British also captured nine thousand rounds of small-arm ammunition, two hundred and thirty wagons, fifteen hundred horses and large quantities of grain and stock. General Grenfell occupied Louistrichart and fifty Boers were made prisoners. In the next few days the Boers lost eight killed, twenty wounded and one hundred and thirty-two made prisoners, besides a machine cannon, sixty-four hundred rounds of small-arm ammunition, one hundred and fifty wagons and eight hundred and seventy horses.

**British
Captures.**

The net result of the combined operations in the bush veld was the capture of fifteen hundred armed Boers and the Pietersburg base by the British columns. Most of the stores at Johannesburg were reopened and a number of mines were restarted. Lord Methuen recaptured from the Boers the cannon belonging to the "O" Battery.

**Boer
Losses.**

A British armored train was derailed by the Boers, and Major Heath, of the South Lancashire Regiment, was killed. During the third week in May the Boers lost nineteen killed, fourteen wounded and two hundred and thirty-eight taken prisoners, while two hundred and twelve rifles, one hundred and five thousand rounds of ammunition, two hundred and eighty-six wagons and large numbers of horses and other live stock were captured.

**De Wet
and the
Boer
Invaders
of Cape
Colony.**

There now seemed to be a distinct change in the attitude of the Boers, who came forward in large numbers to surrender. The Boer invaders in Cape Colony were slightly reinforced, as the result of the continued harrying movements against the Boers in the southern part of the Orange River Colony. De Wet made strenuous efforts to induce his lately-dispersed followers to return with him to Cape Colony, but

they flatly refused. Bands of Boers were defeated at Cradock and Middelburg, in Cape Colony, and at Paardefontein, in the Orange River Colony.

During the last week of May the British captured large numbers of prisoners, rifles, cattle and horses from the Boers, who also lost sixty-three killed and thirty-six wounded. The Boers in the eastern Transvaal trekked in confusion, breaking up into small parties. The Highland Light Infantry surprised a Boer laager in the Brandfort district, killing twelve, wounding thirteen and capturing twelve Boers. Colonel Wilson, with Kitchener's scouts at Pietersburg, completed another successful expedition. The Johannesburg Rifles routed some Boers in the hills near Johannesburg and entrapped eleven of them.

**British
Captures.**

About eight hundred Boers under Kruitziuger advanced southward in Cape Colony and captured forty-one men of the Midland Mounted Rifles, after a stout resistance. A British patrol successfully defended themselves against the attacks of two hundred Boers north-east of Bangor until the arrival of reinforcements, when the Boers retired. About one hundred Boers were routed by a patrol of Border Scouts near Kenhardt, losing fifteen killed and seventeen wounded and captured.

**Boer
Losses.**

On May 29th fourteen hundred and fifty British troops, with seven cannon, were returning to camp at Vlakkfontein, when the Boers under Delarey, under cover of a veld fire, attacked the British rear-guard, composed of three hundred and thirty men, with two cannon, which were captured, but recovered when the rest of the British force came into action, the Boers being driven off and their position being occupied by the British, the British losses being sixty-two killed, one hundred and twenty-one wounded and eight missing, and the Boer killed numbering forty-one.

**Delarey's
Defeat.**

On June 2d Kruitziuger's commando captured Jamestown, in Cape Colony, the British losing three killed and two wounded, and the stores in the town being pillaged, but the small garrison was released soon after it had surrendered. The next day Colonel White's column attacked the Boers, five miles north of Jamestown, and drove them from the field with heavy loss, recapturing fifty horses and a large quantity of rifles, ammunition and stores.

**Boer
Victory
and
Defeat
in Cape
Colony.**

Lord Kitchener placed General French in command of the British forces in Cape Colony. On June 2d seven hundred Boers, under Scheepers, attacked Willowmore, but were repulsed after nine hours' fighting. Boer raiders were active in Zululand.

**Another
Boer
Defeat.**

The Victoria Cross was conferred on Captain Howse, of New South Wales; Captain J. E. Masterson, of the Devonshire Regiment; Corporal J. J. Clements, of Rimington's Guides, and Private C. C. Ravenhill, of the Royal Scots Fusiliers.

Rewards.

**Boer
Losses.**

Lord Kitchener reported that during May twenty-six hundred and forty Boers were killed or made prisoners, and that during the first week of June twenty-six Boers were killed, four wounded and four hundred and forty-two made prisoners, while six hundred and fifty-one rifles, one hundred and fifteen thousand five hundred and fifty rounds of ammunition, one hundred and twenty wagons and four thousand horses were captured. Lord Kitchener also reported that Commandant Van Rensberg and his command had surrendered at Pietersburg.

**British
Suc-
cesses.**

In Cape Colony the British gained two important successes. Colonel Scobell surprised a party of Boers under Kruitinger at Diepfontein, north-west of Barkly East, and took twenty prisoners, one hundred and sixty-six horses, etc. Colonel Wyndham attacked the Boers under Van Reenen at Ruigte Vlei and took twenty-two prisoners, with horses, rifles and ammunition.

**Escaped
Boers
Recap-
tured.**

Nine British soldiers were killed in a railway collision near Pretoria. Six Boers who had taken the oath of neutrality escaped from Pretoria, with arms, to join one of the Boer commandos, but three of them were recaptured by the British and two of them were shot.

**Other
Occur-
rences.**

The Victoria Cross was awarded to Sergeant W. Firth, of the West Riding of Yorkshire Regiment. The Compensation Commission in London heard evidence of two Belgian claimants, one of whom, E. Burton, was a stationmaster on the Netherlands Railway. Mrs. Louis Botha arrived in England and several days later went to Belgium. The report of the Transvaal Concessions Commission was now completed and published.

**De Wet's
Defeat.**

The British under General Elliot marched from Vrede and engaged the Boers under De Wet near Reitz, capturing seventy-one loaded wagons, forty-five prisoners, fifty-eight rifles, ten thousand rounds of ammunition and four thousand cattle. The Boers left seventeen killed and three wounded on the field, while the British lost twenty killed and twenty-five wounded.

**Boer
Victory.**

A superior Boer force surprised two hundred and fifty Victorians near Wilmansrust, in the Transvaal, the Victorians losing eighteen killed and forty-two wounded, and only fifty-two escaping, the remainder being captured but soon released. The Boers also captured two "Pom-Poms."

**Boer
Defeat.**

A very belated dispatch described the surprise of a Boer laager by British scouts on the Pienaars River on May 31st, when the Boers lost all their wagons, seven thousand cattle, forty prisoners, twenty-seven killed and eighty-six wounded, the British losing five killed and twenty-one wounded.

**Boers
in Cape
Colony.**

It was stated that eighteen hundred Boers still were in Cape Colony, many of them being dismounted. The Boer commandos were repulsed

with loss near Tarkastad by the British under Colonel Munro. In the western Transvaal the Boers were worsted at Haartebeestepen.

There now were many Boer refugees at the camps at Bloemfontein. In a speech at Bulawayo, Mr. Cecil John Rhodes said that the war was practically over and that South African confederation would come within four years.

**Rhodes's
Speech.**

Lord Kitchener reported that during the second and third weeks of June the Boers lost forty-one killed, twenty-seven wounded, two hundred and thirty who were made prisoners, forty-one thousand eight hundred rounds of small-arm ammunition and two hundred and sixty-four rifles. On June 20th a party of Cape Midland Mounted Rifles suffered a reverse at Waterkloof from Malon's Boer commando, the British losing ten killed, four wounded and sixty-six taken prisoners.

**Boer
Losses
and
Victory.**

The British had swept the Orange River Colony so thoroughly in May and June that there was a perceptible desire on the part of the Boer commanders to make voluntary surrenders. General Blood endeavored to capture the Boer government officials who were hiding twenty miles south-west of Carolina, but Commandant Louis Botha escaped by leaving his wagons and cattle and turning south-westward in the direction of Bethel.

**Escape
of Boer
Officials.**

Lord Methuen arrived at Zeerust after a fight in which the Boers lost twenty-six killed and some taken prisoners. A number of Boer families trekked into Bechuanaland from the Transvaal and surrendered to the British. A number of other Boer families trekked into Damaraland, but the German authorities arrested all who entered that German territory. Mr. Botha, a Dutch member of the Cape Colony Parliament, was captured and sjamboked. The report of the South African Land Settlement Commission was now completed and published.

**Boer
Treks.**

**Other
Events.**

Lord Kitchener reported that during the last week of June seventy-four Boers were killed, sixty wounded, two hundred and ninety-six taken prisoners, and a large quantity of rifles, ammunition and live stock captured by the British. On June 26th a British armored train repulsed Boer attacks on two blockhouses on the Delagoa Bay Railway. Many Boer refugees were brought into Harrismith, with large capture of wagons, horses, cattle, sheep and grain. Conroy's Boer commando was defeated near Uppington, in Cape Colony. Fouche's Boer commando invaded the native Transkei territory, but soon fled towards the Drakensberg Mountains. A large Boer force attacked Richmond, in Cape Colony, on June 25th, but retired on the approach of a British column.

**Boer
Losses
and
Defeats.**

Lord Kitchener reported that during the first week of July forty Boers were killed, twenty-seven wounded and two hundred and three made prisoners, while one hundred and forty-nine rifles and three hun-

**Boer
Losses
and
Raids.**

dred and twelve wagons were also captured. By the wrecking of a train a British officer and eighteen other persons lost their lives. The Roodepoort railway station was burned by the Boers, who were, however, driven off with heavy loss. The Rimington Rifles captured a Boer position, taking nineteen prisoners.

**Other
Occurrences.**

The Dutch pastor at Kroonstad and a prominent Boer prisoner appealed to the Boers to settle down under the British flag. A Parliamentary paper was issued containing documents on the peace negotiations between Lord Kitchener and Commandant Botha and on the measures taken to coerce the Boers into resistance to the British. A dispatch from Lord Kitchener covering the military operations during March and April was also published. M. Jean Bloch replied at the United Service Institution to the criticisms upon his paper about the war in South Africa.

**British
Captures.**

General Broadwood captured the Orange Free State government, except President Steyn, who escaped in his shirt sleeves. The British also captured Scheepers's laager at Cambdeboo with thirty-one prisoners, most of them Cape Colony Dutch rebels. Lord Kitchener reported that during the second week of July thirty-two Boers were killed, thirty-four wounded and four hundred and forty-seven made prisoners. In an attack by the Boers on a South African Constabulary post the British lost three killed and seven wounded, the Boers capturing an old 7-pounder screw cannon. In a message about the skirmish near Warmbaths Lord Kitchener explained how it was that he contradicted Reuter's account, and added that he does not telegraph news of actions unless they have definite results.

**More
British
Captures.**

Lord Methuen surprised and captured a Boer laager, taking forty-three prisoners. Sir John Gordon Sprigg considered the war at a more hopeful stage for the British at this time than ever before. Major-General Baden-Powell now started for England on sick leave. Lord Kitchener reported that during the third week of July forty-three Boers were killed, twenty-five wounded and three hundred and sixteen made prisoners. General French was pressing northward the Boer bands in Cape Colony, but the Boers made two determined attacks on Aberdeen, and they also captured and burned a train near Beaufort West, killing three and wounding eighteen of the British. Seven of the Connaught Rangers were killed and twenty wounded near Jamestown, but the Boers were driven off.

**Boer
Defeats
in Cape
Colony.**

On July 19th a Boer commando in the Orange River Colony was surprised by the British under Major Pine-Coffin, fourteen Boers being captured. On July 22d a Boer laager in Cape Colony was surprised, ten Boers being made prisoners and one hundred and five horses being captured by the victorious British. A subaltern in charge of a British

garrison tracked and surprised a Boer party, killing three or four and capturing as many. Two Cape Colony rebels were hanged at Burghersdorp and Somerset East, and four others were sent into penal servitude for ten years each. Death sentences on thirty-four rebels were commuted.

Letters found in President Steyn's baggage showed that Secretary Reitz was anxious for peace, in view of the desperate condition of the Boer forces. It was now announced that in June the concentration camps contained eighty-five thousand four hundred and ten whites and twenty-three thousand four hundred and eighty-nine blacks. A woman physician and philanthropist wrote showing that the refugee camp complaints were much exaggerated and that the British refugees fared worse than the Boer refugees. Major-General Badeu-Powell was ordered to take a three months' complete rest. President Krüger's wife died of pneumonia at Pretoria on July 20th, and was buried there the next day, Sunday, July 21st.

**Other
Matters.**

On July 21st a Boer convoy was surprised, twenty-five prisoners being captured. Lord Kitchener reported that during the last week of July the Boers lost twenty-four killed, twenty-five wounded and three hundred and three made prisoners, while large quantities of stock, etc., were also captured. The British surprised Potgieter's laager near Wolmarans and Myburgh's commando near Dassiespoort, the Boers losing heavily in both cases. The British under General Frederick William Kitchener, while operating against Boers under Ben Viljoen north of Middelburg, captured a "Pom-Pom," twenty wagons and thirty-two prisoners. On July 21st a small British column was attacked by four hundred Boers on the northern frontier of Natal, the Boers being repulsed with heavy loss.

**British
Captures.**

A detachment of Steinacker's Horse, occupying Bremersdorp, in Swaziland, were driven out on July 24th, and fought their way sixteen miles, losing about ten men killed and wounded and a few missing. General Sir Charles Knox's columns arrived at Bethulie and Aliwal North, having cleared the country from Thabanchu. Mr. Van Rhyn, a member of the Cape Colony Legislative Council, was arrested for treason. In the Orange River Colony the Boers were driven westward by the British under General Plumer.

**More
British
Captures.**

The British War Office published certain evidence of the shooting of wounded British soldiers by the Boers. It was now stated that in the refugee camps the death rate was diminishing and that everything that was possible was being done for the refugees. The Compensation Commission decided that the Netherlands Railway employees, as a class, were so actively hostile against the British that they had forfeited any right to compensation as neutrals. Major-General Baden-Powell,

**Other
Matters.**

on his arrival in England, was given most enthusiastic popular receptions at Southampton and Woking. Lord Chesham also was accorded a most hearty popular welcome in Buckinghamshire on July 25th, on his return home from South Africa.

**Boers
in Portu-
guese
Africa.**

A dispatch from Lorenzo Marques on July 31st stated that a Boer commando, with two cannon, had entered Portuguese territory, encamping at Guanetz, where there already were five hundred Portuguese troops, and to which artillery was sent on the morning of the same day, while three hundred Portuguese troops in addition were ready to proceed there unless the Boers surrendered.

**Other
Matters.**

Commandant Hermanus Steyn, a cousin of President Steyn, was killed while fighting the British at Ficksburg on August 1st. On July 31st the British House of Commons voted an annuity of one hundred thousand pounds (half a million dollars) to Lord Roberts for his services in South Africa. On August 9th Lord Kitchener issued a proclamation warning the Boers that unless they ceased their resistance by September 1st their leaders would be banished permanently from South Africa.

**Boer
Shooting
of
Natives.**

The Boer leaders having announced their intention to shoot all blacks in the service of the British, whether armed or unarmed, Lord Kitchener warned them that if they carried out their threat all Boers who shot natives would be court-martialed and shot. In the British House of Commons, Colonial Secretary Chamberlain also announced that all Boers who shot natives would be court-martialed and executed.

**Land
for
British
Soldiers.**

Mr. Chamberlain asked the House of Commons to vote a grant of six million five hundred thousand pounds (thirty-two million five hundred thousand dollars) in aid of the Transvaal and Orange River Colonies, the grant to be for the purchase of land for British soldiers who would settle in those colonies and for Boers who accepted British sovereignty.

**Outrages
and
Reprisals.**

Much had been said about British cruelty in this war, but such charges are made against invaders in every war. The British burned farm buildings because Boer guerrillas fired shots from them at British troops. United States Consul-General Stowe at Cape Town said: "The British only burned buildings from which shots were fired at them. I know of several instances myself in which they refrained from burning buildings where they would have had very good reasons for doing so." In our Civil War the same thing was done by Union troops as a reprisal for guerrilla outrages and murders, all buildings being sometimes burned for several miles around, and after the war many houseless chimneys could be seen in the Southern States. In the Shenandoah Valley in 1864 General Hunter ordered a fine mansion with piano and all furniture to be burned, because two shots had been fired at him

from the windows. In a dispatch to General Grant, dated October 7, 1864, General Sheridan, while in the Shenandoah Valley, in Virginia, made this statement: "I have destroyed over two thousand barns filled with wheat and hay and farming implements, over seventy mills filled with flour and wheat, have driven in front of this army four herd of stock, and have killed and issued to the troops not less than three thousand sheep. * * * Lieutenant John R. Meigs, my engineer officer, was murdered beyond Harrisonburg, near Dayton. For this atrocious act all the houses within an area of five miles were burned." Early in 1865 General Grant ordered General Sheridan to desolate the Shenandoah Valley so completely that a crow in flying over it would have to carry its food with it. In Raleigh, North Carolina, in April, 1865, General Kilpatrick had a man hanged to a tree for firing a shot at him from a second-story window near his quarters. In the Franco-German War of 1870-'71 the Germans punished the outrages of the franc-tireurs, the French guerrillas, by burning buildings. In the Philippine War American troops burned villages to punish guerrilla outrages.

Bishop Hartzell, an American Methodist missionary in South Africa, said that the Boers were entirely responsible for the war and that Great Britain had God and right on her side. United States Consul-General Stowe at Cape Town said: "I think Sir Alfred Milner is the man for the occasion, as he is a man of firmness, like Grant. * * * I cannot understand Webster Davis. When he was in Cape Colony he was making pro-British speeches." Captain Musgrave, who fought in the Cuban army and in the American army in Cuba, went to South Africa a Boer sympathizer, but ceased to be one when he got there, saying that he saw Boers fire on white flags and do other things that turned him against them. In answer to the oft-made assertion that nine-tenths of the American people sympathized with the Boers, an American in Cape Town said that nine-tenths of the Americans in South Africa sympathized with the British.

In answer to the pro-Boer demands for the independence of the two Boer republics, Sir Alfred Milner presented a petition signed by one hundred and fifty thousand natives of South Africa, protesting against such Boer independence, as it meant oppression for the negro races within the limits of the territory of the former Boer republics. The negroes of South Africa were on the British side, one traveling in the United States saying that the English protected them in their rights, while the Boers oppressed them wherever they had the opportunity.

The pro-Boer sympathizers in Europe and America still were very loud and demonstrative in their utterances, though all the Continental European governments, as well as the government of the United States, refused absolutely to intervene or mediate in the interest of the Boers.

**American
Pro-
British
Sympa-
thizers.**

**Negro
Petition
against
Boer Inde-
pendence.**

**Pro-Boer
Sympa-
thizers.**

The press of France and Germany especially, as well as a large portion of that of the United States and even a small part of that of Great Britain itself, were as ardent as ever in their sympathy with the Boers. In France, Germany and the other Continental European countries the press showed a disposition to couple Great Britain and the United States together in their denunciations, condemning the British for their attitude in South Africa and the Americans for their course in the Philippines, and accusing the British of cruelty toward the Boers and charging the Americans with the same treatment toward the Filipinos. The American pro-Boer sympathizers, with some exceptions, also generally sympathized with the Filipinos.

**Boer
Notions.**

Letters to the London *Times* from Natal declared that the people of that British colony were either thoroughly loyal or thoroughly rebels, while in Cape Colony thousands of Afrikanders were "on the fence." These letters also stated that in dealing with the Boers the British were dealing with a very peculiar people, who, from childhood, have been imbued with the belief that they are the chosen of God Who has called them to the dominion of South Africa, and that ultimately the British intruders are to be driven into the sea, leaving the millions of blacks to be the slaves of the Boers.

**Boer
Emis-
saries
in the
United
States.**

On February 24, 1902, Messrs. Wessels and Wolmarans arrived at New York as Boer emissaries to the United States; and on March 5th they called on Secretary of State John Hay and President Roosevelt at Washington, who received them personally, but not in their official capacity, and informed them that the United States could not and would not intervene in the South African conflict, and that the shipment of horses to the British in South Africa could not be stopped, as it was perfectly legitimate under international law and the laws of war.

**Sir
Wilfred
Laurier's
Remarks.**

In the meantime Sir Wilfred Laurier, Canada's Prime Minister, said in a speech in the Canadian Parliament: "There is but one future for the Dutch. They have been conquered, but I pledge my reputation and my name as a British subject that if they have lost their independence they have not lost their freedom. There is but one future for South Africa, and that is a grand confederation on the pattern of the Canadian confederation. It is a federation in which Cape Colony and Natal, the Orange Free State, the Transvaal and Rhodesia shall be united under a federal constitution under the British flag. * * * They will have that which has been found everywhere during the last sixty years under the British flag—namely, liberty for all, equality for all, justice and civil rights for British and Dutch alike."

**Refugee
Camps.**

In the meantime many thousands of the population of districts that were the scenes of disturbance had been collected in refugee camps,

where they were guarded, sheltered and fed by the British, who thus took care of the Boer families whose adult male members were in the Boer guerrilla bands raiding the Vaal River Colony, the Orange River Colony and Cape Colony. These were practically concentration camps, though they were wholly unlike the concentration camps of the Spaniards in Cuba, where the reconcentrados were left to starve, and were more like the concentration camps of the Americans in the Philippines, where the Filipino refugees were guarded, sheltered and fed by the American military forces. These British concentration camps in South Africa and the American concentration camps in the Philippines frequently were denounced as "Weylerism in South Africa" and "Weylerism in the Philippines"; but these comparisons with Weyler's methods in Cuba were wholly incorrect, as the British and the Americans did not starve the inmates of their refugee camps as did the Spaniards in their concentration camps in Cuba. The Boer soldiers, thus being relieved of the care of their families, seemed to be enabled to prolong their guerrilla warfare for an indefinite period. In the meantime large numbers of Boers, tired of the useless guerrilla war, gradually laid down their arms and returned to their farms, and some even coöperated with the British in restoring order by taking the field against their kinsmen and their former companions in arms, thus being looked upon as traitors by the irreconcilable Boers who seemed determined to keep up the struggle with the British.

There were the usual Boer raids on the British convoys and the capture of small Boer bands of raiders during August, 1901. The Boer bands under Kruitzinger and other leaders in Cape Colony, which had been raiding in various districts in that colony and even menacing important towns, with the aid of several thousand Dutch farmers of the colony, who joined their ranks or furnished them with supplies, were driven out of that colony before the end of August.

Reports of atrocities by the Boers, such as the murder of wounded men, of prisoners and of natives, were frequent and at first were discredited and even suppressed by the British government. These reports were denied by the Boers, and in England some of them were considered false or very much exaggerated; but evidence of such atrocities increased during August, 1901, thus calling forth a public demand for summary vengeance upon all Boer guerrillas guilty of such outrages. On August 1st Lord Kitchener telegraphed that, after the surrender of an officer's patrol of twenty men and a few native scouts who had been surrounded by two hundred Boers in the Orange River Colony, the Boers forced the native scouts to hold up their hands and then shot them down in cold blood, afterward shooting a wounded trooper whom they believed to be a Cape Colony boy. On the same

**Military
Situation.**

**Reports
of Boer
Atrocities.**

day General French informed Lord Kitchener that he had received a letter from Krutzinger declaring his intention to shoot all natives found in British employ, whether armed or unarmed. Reports were received of many atrocious murders of natives by Boers in Cape Colony. On August 29th the British government ordered Lord Kitchener to proclaim the death penalty for all found guilty of such atrocities as those at Vlakfontein.

**Boer
Raiders
in Cape
Colony.**

Regarding the field of military operations in September, 1901, Rudyard Kipling remarked: "The front is precisely where it has been for the last year—neither in the Transvaal nor in the Orange River Colony, but in Cape Town and Cape Colony." The scene of operations sometimes extended to the frontier of Natal, and parts of Cape Colony hitherto unmolested were now invaded by Boer raiders. As a large portion of the Cape Colony Dutch were either in secret or in open sympathy with the Boer invaders, and to prevent disorders in the vicinity of Cape Town, severe restrictions were considered necessary by Lord Milner, by which title Sir Alfred Milner was now known, having been created Baron Milner in 1901 and Viscount Milner in 1902. General French had driven the Boer raiders out of Cape Colony. In the meantime Scheepers's bands had dashed southward into the colony toward the coast two hundred miles east of Cape Town, but by September 5th Scheepers's three hundred raiders had been driven northward.

**Progress
of the
Guerrilla
Warfare.**

Early in September, 1901, the British mounted columns scoured the deserted regions of the Orange River Colony and Cape Colony in pursuit of guerrilla bands consisting of from one hundred to three hundred men. These guerrilla bands were well informed of British movements. They evaded their pursuers, and when they were pressed very hard they dissolved into small squads, which afterward united into larger bands. These Boer bands always were raiders, traversing the country to surprise and plunder some village held as a British post, embracing every opportunity to ambush the British mounted columns. To meet this kind of guerrilla warfare on the part of a few thousand Boers, the British now had more than one hundred and seventy-five thousand men, more than a hundred thousand men being required to guard three thousand miles of railway, while about seventy-five thousand were required to search, pursue and fight the roving guerrilla bands, all numbering about twelve thousand men.

**Delarey's
Defeat
and
Botha's
Victory.**

On September 11, 1901, Lord Methuen defeated the Boers under Delarey and Van Tonder, driving them from their strong position in Great Maries Valley, the British losing twenty-five killed and thirty wounded. About September 17, 1901, the Boers achieved two very notable victories; when one thousand Boers under Botha ambushed three companies of British mounted infantry near Scheepers's Nek, the

British losing sixteen killed, thirty wounded and one hundred and fifty-five prisoners, the latter soon being released; while a Boer force commanded by Smuts, dressed in Khaki and mistaken for British troops, made a sudden dash on about a hundred British lancers, killing forty-two and wounding thirty-six.

On September 26, 1901, a force of two thousand Boers under Botha attacked Forts Italia and Prospect, near the Zululand frontier, but were repulsed with heavy loss. The garrison of Fort Italia numbered three hundred men, of whom eighty occupied an outpost on a hill. About midnight six hundred Boers made a sudden and fierce attack on the outpost and soon seized it, killing the commander and disabling the whole force; after which they assailed the main camp from all sides, the garrison resisting them successfully from one o'clock in the night until seven o'clock in the evening of the next day, when the Boers retired as the garrison's ammunition was failing, the Boers losing one hundred and twenty-eight killed and two hundred and seventy wounded, while the British lost twelve killed and about a hundred wounded or missing. Fort Prospect was garrisoned by twenty men and was attacked by five hundred Boers, who were repulsed with the loss of sixty killed, among whom were two generals and a commandant, while many of them were wounded, the British losing only one man killed and eight men wounded.

**Botha's
Defeats
near the
Zululand
Frontier.**

After these two disastrous repulses Botha's force broke up into small bands, which moved swiftly in the rough and bushy region on the frontier of Zululand and near Luneburg, in the Transvaal. There were several rumors of Botha's capture while he was preparing to reunite his forces for a serious attack. Near the close of October he had a narrow escape, the British suddenly seizing his quarters at night, capturing some prisoners and finding Botha's hat, revolver and papers, which he had left in his hasty flight a few moments previously.

**Botha's
Narrow
Escape.**

On September 29, 1901, about a thousand Boers under Delarey made a night attack on Colonel Kekewich's camp at Moedwell, seventy-five miles west of Pretoria, but were repulsed after two hours' fighting, with the loss of many killed and one hundred and twenty-eight wounded, the British loss being thirty-three killed, eighty-eight wounded and forty missing. On October 24, 1901, the Boers under Generals Delarey and Kemp attacked a British force near the Bechuanaland frontier, but were repulsed after severe fighting, carrying off eight British wagons, but leaving forty of their dead on the field, while the British loss was twenty-eight killed and fifty-five wounded. Near the end of October, 1901, Colonel Kekewich captured seventy-eight Boers in a night surprise of Van Albert's camp about sixty miles west of Pretoria. Finally, on October 12, 1901, Lord Kitchener reported that General

**Delarey's
Defeats.**

Capture
and
Exile of
Scheep-
ers.

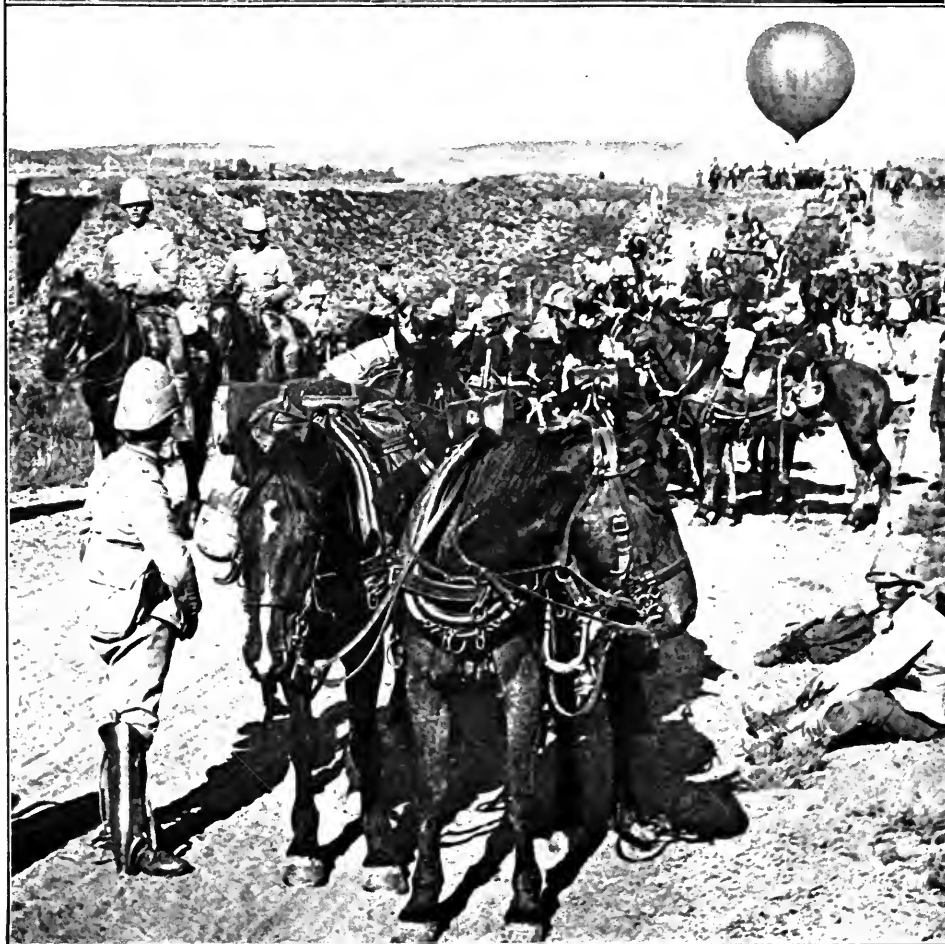
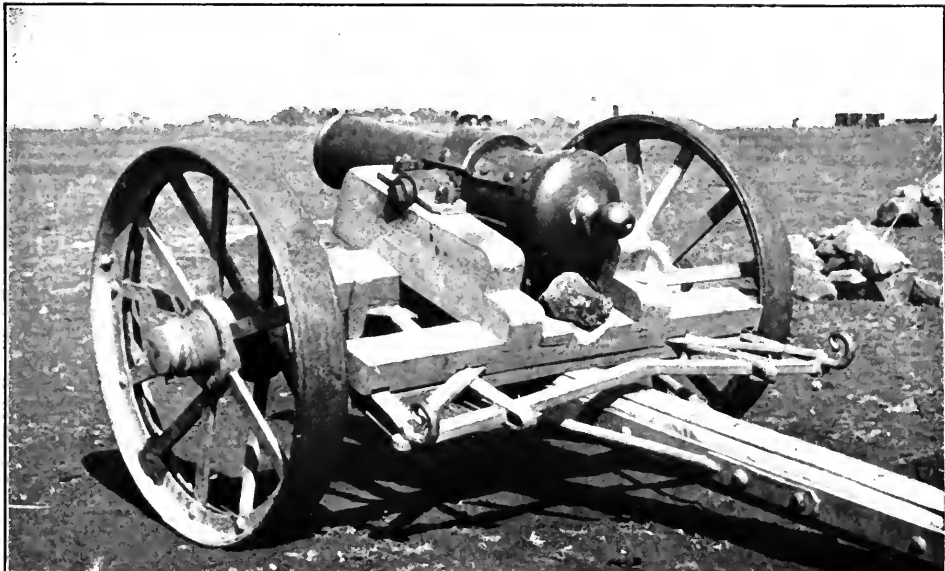
French had captured Commandant Scheepers, an active Boer invader of Cape Colony. Scheepers and eighteen other Boer leaders were banished permanently from South Africa.

Martial
Law in
Cape
Colony.

The British began their threatened infliction of the death penalty on Cape Colony rebels after sentence by court-martial. Lotter, a Cape Colony rebel, who for months had led a Boer commando in that colony, was executed at Middelburg, in that colony, on October 11, 1901. Schoeman, his second in command, was sentenced to death. A few other rebels were executed, and the death sentences of a number of others were commuted to penal servitude. There was some anxiety in London as to possible Boer reprisals for the capital punishment of Cape Colony rebels, as it was feared that Botha and De Wet might retaliate by killing captured British soldiers. Lords Milner and Kitchener had decided to make treason in Cape Colony odious and hazardous, as they now felt that the Boer leaders no longer were able to capture British soldiers and shoot them in retaliation, the total Boer forces now being reduced to about eight thousand men. The only persons on whom the Boers now could retaliate were those Boers in the Transvaal and the Orange Free State who had accepted British rule and thus had become abettors of the British cause. In fact, the Boers themselves had made a precedent for the British to follow; as General Delarey had issued a proclamation on August 16, 1901, warning all Boers not to aid the British by word or deed, as "by doing so they will be guilty of high treason and be dealt with stringently according to law, not only as regards their persons, but their property as well." The only persons upon whom the Boers inflicted the death penalty under this proclamation were a few poor Kaffirs who had assisted the British.

Battle of
Brakens-
laagte.

On October 31, 1901, Colonel Benson's rear guard was surprised in a fierce attack by a thousand Boers under General Louis Botha, near Brakenslaagte, in the eastern Transvaal, about twenty miles north-west from Bethel. The Boers began the attack in a blinding rainstorm, and fierce fighting ensued during the day and the following night, the Boers charging again and again upon the British lines and being repulsed in every assault until the following morning, November 1, 1901, when the British were reinforced by a detachment under Colonel Barker, which had marched all night. The Boers then retired, having captured two cannon; while the British convoy had retired under the brow of a hill, in which movement the greatest British losses occurred. Colonel Benson was wounded mortally in the beginning of the conflict and was succeeded in command by Major Woods-Sampson. The British loss was sixty-one killed and one hundred and seventy-three wounded, the loss in officers being heavy. The Boer loss was



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SCENES IN BOER WAR

Upper: Cannon Made at Mafeking During the Siege
Lower: Balloon Reconnaissance near Johannesburg

forty-four killed and about a hundred wounded, General Opperman being among the killed.

About the middle of November, 1901, De Wet assailed a British rear-guard in the north-eastern part of the Orange River Colony, but he was repulsed very easily. The Boers captured fifty-eight of the British South African Yeomanry patrol at Brakspruit, on November 13, 1901, but they soon released their captives. A Boer commando under Grobelaar surrounded and captured a hundred Cape railway pioneers at Villiersdorp, about November 20, 1901; but this Boer detachment was driven off by a British force under Colonel Rimington. The British under General Knox captured thirty-six Boers of Buoy's commando who had escaped after the fight, among whom were Commandant Joubert and two field cornets.

Lord Kitchener's blockhouse system had cleared the Dutch districts of the Boer raiders to such an extent as to prevent systematic hostilities from being carried on in those districts, the Boer fighting forces being simply roaming and scattered bands. Some sickness among the refugee camps where the Boer women and children were collected under the supervision of the British military authorities drew some criticism from Miss Emily Hobhouse, but certain stories as to the sufferings of the refugees were denied, not only by the British, but by Americans and persons of other nationalities.

At the beginning of December, 1901, Lord Kitchener's blockhouse system had become so effective that the Boer bands of raiders were able no longer to roam over vast areas at their will; but the great number of these small Boer commandos made it very difficult to pursue and capture them. There were seventy of these small bands registered—twenty-six in the Transvaal, thirty-one in the Orange River Colony and thirteen in Cape Colony, the latter comprising about fifteen hundred men. Eight bands under Delarey were scattered through the western Transvaal. Two hundred Boers under Ben Viljoen were north of the Delagoa Bay Railway. Eleven bands, comprising eighteen hundred men, were south of that railway about December 3, 1901, being in touch with General Louis Botha and the so-called Boer government near Lake Chrissie. All these bands would separate whenever they were threatened with attack and would reunite quickly whenever an opportunity afforded for an assault on a small British force. The War Office in London decided at once to withdraw twenty batteries of artillery from South Africa, because heavy cannon were of little use and were a hindrance to swift movements in guerrilla warfare. The British blockhouse system was so effective that there was not a single interruption of railway operation from October 1 to November 21, 1901, while there had been thirty-two such interruptions in November,

**De Wet
Repulsed.**

**Boer
Captures.**

**British
Capture.**

**Block-
house
System
and
Refugee
Camps.**

**Boer
Bands.**

1900. A large and increasing area was cleared of Boer guerrillas, and more than sixteen hundred miles of railway were now protected by blockhouses, rendering it possible not only to confront the military situation, but also to accommodate the large and increasing volume of business traffic.

It was now reported that civil administration was reëstablished firmly in the Transvaal, and that the war could not last many months longer. All the Boers except the most obstinate had been captured or had surrendered voluntarily; and among these a strong pro-British feeling had grown up gradually, which recognized the hopelessness and uselessness of further resistance to the British arms, and they resolved to accept the inevitable and to promote the prosperity of the country under the British flag. Many of these reconciled Boers were even offering their services to the British to assist in restoring order. Those who remained with the irreconcilable Boers were believed to be desperate men and were not expected to surrender, as every Boer now taken prisoner fought savagely before he could be captured. The British were as determined as ever, and their proposed method was to wear out the small remaining Boer force by constant harassing. Lord Kitchener's report for September, 1901, showed that more than two thousand men had been withdrawn from the Boer ranks during that month—one hundred and seventy men being killed in fighting, one hundred and fourteen wounded prisoners being taken, also one thousand three hundred and eighty-five unwounded prisoners and three hundred and ninety-three surrendered Boers. Some of the British successes of the time were attributed to the coöperation of the new Boer allies of the British, these reconciled Boers having been organized into a pro-British corps under the command of Cellier and Cronje, acting under General Bruce Hamilton.

On December 5, 1901, three British columns near Ermelo, in the Waterberg district, and in the north-western Transvaal, captured about two hundred and fifty Boers. Lord Kitchener's report for the week ending December 9, 1901, showed the following Boer losses: thirty-one killed, seventeen wounded, three hundred and fifty-two prisoners, thirty-five submitted—total, four hundred and forty-four. On December 11, 1901, General Bruce Hamilton surprised and captured nearly the entire Bethel commando after a night march, killing seven Boers and taking one hundred and thirty-one prisoners. After another night march he surprised Piet Viljoen's laager, twenty-five miles north-west from Ermelo, killing sixteen Boers, capturing seventy-six armed men and wounding many others, who were left at farms.

On December 5, 1901, an engagement also occurred near Luneberg, in the Transvaal, in which the British took eighty prisoners, and in

Rapid
Wane
of the
Boer
Fortunes.

Boers
in the
British
Service.

British
Captures.

Botha
Defeated.

which Commandant Louis Botha was wounded severely in the left leg below the knee, escaping capture only by crawling into a bush. About December 15, 1901, Commandant Badenhorst and fourteen other Boers were captured in the Waterberg. About the same time Commandant Kruitziuger was wounded severely and captured while attempting to break through the cordon of blockhouses at Hanover Road, in the eastern Transvaal.

**Capture
of
Baden-
horst and
Kruitzi-
inger.**

On December 18, 1901, the flooding tide of British successes commenced ebbing. On three successive days the Boers were assailing the British at various points, suddenly surrounding advance guards or dashing on small British posts and inflicting heavy losses. The losses of both sides were about equal, but the losses of the Boers were more serious on account of the smallness of their remaining forces. On the above-named date—December 18, 1901—De Wet, at the head of a Boer force of eight hundred men, attacked the British at Langberg, but retired after four hours' fighting. On the night of the 19th the Boers were repulsed in an attack on the British at Eland Spruit, with the loss of eight killed and four wounded left on the field, other wounded having been carried off, while the British loss was seven killed and twenty-four wounded. On the same day a British detachment attacked Commandant Smit's band in the eastern Transvaal, killing six Boers and capturing sixteen. On the 20th—December, 1901—the most serious of the three days' fighting occurred at Tabel Kop, or Maggiesdeel, in the Orange River Colony, where the Boers, disguised as British Yeomanry, deceived Colonel Damant and gained the race for a commanding summit, whereupon they opened a heavy fire from this point and inflicted a serious loss upon the British, who lost thirty-two killed and forty wounded; after which Colonel Rimington's force appeared on the field and dispersed the Boers in all directions, capturing some prisoners, one of whom was a commandant, and killing thirty-three Boers.

**British
Reverses
and Suc-
cesses.**

Lord Kitchener reported the Boer losses for the week ending December 21, 1901, as forty-five killed, twenty-five wounded, three hundred and ten captured and thirty-five voluntarily surrendered—total, four hundred and fifteen. Reports of Boer losses for the week of December 23–30, 1901, showed eighty-nine killed, fifty-five wounded, four hundred and thirty-one captured and voluntarily surrendered—total, five hundred and seventy-five.

**Boer
Losses.**

On Christmas morning, 1901, before day, De Wet, with his guerilla band, said to number over a thousand men, defeated a British detachment of over three hundred men at Zeefontein. The British camp, on the edge of a precipice which was guarded inadequately, was assailed by the Boers, who climbed up the precipice, suddenly over-

**De Wet's
Victory.**

powered the picket, rushed through the camp and shot the British soldiers as they came out from their tents. The few British soldiers who got clear from their camps fought heroically, but were soon overpowered by the superior numbers of the Boers. The British loss was fifty-six killed, fifty-four wounded and two hundred and forty-nine prisoners. It was reported that the Boers carried off two wagon-loads of their own dead and wounded. The Imperial Light Horse came a distance of fourteen miles and arrived at Zeefontein after six in the morning, pursuing the Boers, who fled safely into the rough country, with the ammunition and supplies which they had captured, but released their prisoners, as usual, a few days later, as they were unable to guard them. Lord Kitchener's report stated that the victorious Boers treated the British wounded very well.

An English translation of the Boer telegrams, reports and proclamations showed that the Boer leaders constantly deceived their people as to the real state of affairs by reporting British defeats in every fight, the Boers being represented as losing only in cattle and horses, while the British were accused of attacking Boer ambulances and of ignoring the Red Cross and the white flag. Lord Kitchener's reports showed that the Boers shot Kaffirs on slight cause and cruelly treated the British wounded at Brakenslaagte. There were contradictory statements as to the condition of the refugee camps, and a great outcry was raised by pro-Boer sympathizers in Europe and America.

The year 1902 opened with the South African situation unchanged on the surface, the Boer bands being so small that no regular battle occurred in January; but the Boer guerrillas still were unceasing in harassing the British convoys by ambushes and night surprises of small detached British posts. Lord Kitchener's blockhouse system was hampering the Boer movements, and the small Boer forces were becoming still smaller constantly by surrender, capture or death in conflict. British reports for the week ending January 6, 1902, showed the Boer losses as thirty-six killed, nine wounded, two hundred and sixty-one captured and seventy-two willingly surrendered—total, three hundred and seventy-eight. For the week ending January 13th twenty Boers were reported killed, nine wounded, two hundred and three captured and ninety-five willingly surrendered—total, three hundred and twenty-seven. For the week ending January 27th thirty-one were reported killed, twenty wounded, three hundred and twenty-two captured and fifty-three willingly surrendered—total, four hundred and thirty-four.

The British official reports for 1901 showed that the Boer forces during that year lost eighteen thousand three hundred and twenty men in killed, wounded, captured and willingly surrendered. It was

Boer
State-
ments.

Shooting
of
Natives.

Refugee
Camps.

Guerrilla
Warfare
at the
Opening
of 1902.

British
Official
Reports.

believed that all the Boer artillery—twenty-seven cannon—was captured, though two cannon were taken by De Wet. The British captured twenty-nine thousand eight hundred and eighty-two horses from the Boers. The British losses were half as heavy as the Boer losses and numbered nine thousand one hundred and thirteen men, of whom one thousand five hundred and thirteen were taken prisoners, but soon were released because the Boers could neither feed nor guard them. The total British losses for 1899, 1900 and 1901 by death in battle and from disease and missing was twenty-four thousand two hundred and ninety-nine. Deaths in battle or by disease or accident were reported as numbering nineteen thousand four hundred and thirty. A great majority of the large number invalided home recovered and again joined their commands. The total British expenditure for the war up to 1902 was computed as one hundred and fifty million pounds, and the rate of expenditure at the beginning of 1902 was about four million pounds monthly.

During January, 1902, two able Boer leaders were captured—General J. D. Opperman and General Ben Viljoen. General Louis Botha narrowly escaped capture, being pursued seven miles by General Bruce Hamilton. On January 18th Commandant Scheepers met with a sad fate in Cape Colony. After his capture in October, 1901, he was tried for seven heinous crimes, was convicted and was sentenced to be shot. A resolution was introduced into the United States House of Representatives directing the State Department to ask the British government to set aside the sentence, but the House took no action on the resolution. It was discovered afterward that Scheepers had been shot three days previously. In the British House of Commons, on January 23d, Mr. Broderick, Secretary of War, was asked by William E. Redmond, Irish Nationalist, why Scheepers had been executed, and was answered that he was shot because he had been convicted of various offenses against the usages of war, including seven cold-blooded murders of natives and the flogging of a white man.

General Ben Viljoen, one of the surrendered Boer leaders, was authorized to raise an additional corps of fifteen hundred Boers to fight on the British side. He notified ex-President Steyn of his intention and said that the Boers who had surrendered were weary of the useless struggle and were resolved to bring it to its only possible end.

The month of February, 1902, showed little variation in the general military situation in South Africa. There were no great battles, and the small Boer bands were on the move constantly, but they effected small captures in a number of places. The lines of blockhouses and the raids by British detachments greatly annoyed the Boers, and the latter were a menace to Boer stores of grain hidden in the north-east

**Boer
Leaders
Captured.**

**Fate of
Scheep-
ers.**

**Viljoen's
Espousal
of the
British
Cause.**

**Progress
of the
Guerrilla
Warfare.**

of the Orange River Colony. One of the blockhouse lines was one hundred and twenty miles in length, from Kroonstad to Harrismith. The number of Boers enlisting in the British service was increasing all the time, almost three hundred Boers having joined the National Scouts in one week near the close of January.

**British
Capture.**

Though there were no regular battles in February, 1902, there was some extraordinary fighting in consequence of the effort to surround and capture De Wet in the region of Frankfort and Heilbron, near the southern frontier of the Orange River Colony, on February 6th and 7th. A preliminary struggle occurred on February 3d, when Colonel Byng, after a night march, attacked one of De Wet's bands under Colonel Wessels; the Boers being dispersed, and their horses, mules, ammunition and three cannon, the last that De Wet had, being captured, while the British losses were slight.

**De Wet's
Dashing
Escape.**

On the night of February 5, 1902, the British under Major Leader attacked a Boer commando near Klerksdorp, Commandant Alberts and six other Boers being killed. The British forces closed in gradually and formed a triangle in which the Boers were inclosed at nightfall on February 7th, the sides of the triangle respectively having a length of sixty-six, fifty-five and thirty miles. De Wet was within this inclosure on February 6th; but, as he perceived his peril, he ordered his followers to disperse, while, with some of his troops and a herd of cattle, he proceeded to a point on the southern blockhouse line, in the midst of a very dark night, and after midnight he rushed his cattle at the barbed-wire fence, through which he broke with a loss of three men, twenty-five horses and many cattle.

**His Next
Escape.**

During the night of February 7th the intrenched outpost lines were attacked by the Boers in various places, but no large organized bodies of men broke through. Armored engines with searchlights patrolled the tracks on the railway lines, but individuals broke through the obstructions at various points, and in some places bands with cattle rushed through. At daybreak on February 8th the British columns on one side along a length of forty miles rushed forward, and it was apparent that most of the Boers had escaped. While De Wet was not captured, which was the main object of the movement, two hundred and eighty-three Boers and seven hundred horses were captured by the victorious British.

**Boer
Losses.**

The British official report of all Boer losses during the week ending February 9, 1902, reached a total of seven hundred and seventeen; sixty-nine being killed, seventeen wounded, five hundred and seventy-four captured and fifty-seven voluntarily surrendering.

**British
Capture.**

On February 22, 1902, three hundred mounted National Scouts, Boers now fighting on the British side, surprised a Boer force at

Nooitgedocht, in the Transvaal, and captured one hundred and sixty-four prisoners, with horses, wagons and munitions of war, there being no losses by the National scouts.

On February 24, 1902, a severe fight occurred in the Transvaal, south-west of Klerksdorp, where the Boers attacked and captured a British convoy of empty wagons and four hundred and sixty-seven prisoners, of whom one hundred and six were released, the British losing heavily in killed and wounded.

**Boer
Capture.**

On the night of February 13, 1902, six hundred Boers made a desperate effort to break through the British outpost lines near Botha's Berg, in the Transvaal, with an immense herd of cattle, thus bringing on a stubborn fight. A few Boers broke through; but the main body of the Boer force crouched behind the dead cattle which thickly strewed the ground, and from that defense they fired on the British troops. The British returned the fire vigorously and finally drove back the Boers, who left fifteen dead and six wounded on the field, also leaving one hundred and seventy horses dead or wounded, besides the captured herd of cattle, said to number six thousand. The British loss was twenty killed and thirty-eight wounded.

**Boer
Defeat.**

On February 26 and 27, 1902, the British made a combined movement from the north-east of the Orange River Colony over a region ninety miles long and forty miles wide, within which the Boers had collected large army supplies and thousands of horses and cattle.

**British
Move-
ments.**

The British drove the Boers against the Harrismith and Van Reenen blockhouse line. The British held the river Wilge and formed on the Frankfort and Botha's Pass blockhouse line and advanced southward, holding the entire region between the Wilge and the Natal frontier. On the first night the Boers made a desperate effort to break through the blockhouse line, and the fighting was at close quarters. As usual, the Boers drove the herd of cattle in front of them. Manie Botha, the Boer leader, was killed, and thirty-five dead Boers were left on the ground. Over one hundred horses were killed, and six thousand head of cattle were left in the possession of the British. On the last day four hundred and fifty Boers were captured, with their rifles and horses. Over eight hundred Boers were either killed or captured by the British, along with two thousand horses, twenty-eight thousand head of cattle, sixty thousand sheep, two hundred wagons, six hundred rifles and fifty thousand rounds of ammunition. Among the prisoners were General De Wet's son and his secretary, Commandants Meyer and Truher and several field cornets.

**British
Suc-
cesses.**

On February 25, 1902, Delarey's Boer band made a successful attack on Lieutenant-Colonel Anderson's British force in charge of "Von Donop's convoy" of empty wagons, about ten miles from Klerksdorp,

British
Disaster
near
Klerks-
dorp.

in the south-western Transvaal, one hundred and twenty-five miles from Pretoria. The Boer assault was planned very skillfully and with careful preparation in every particular. Anderson's troops numbered about eight hundred and eighty, and the Boer force was estimated at from twelve hundred to seventeen hundred. Six Boer commandants participated in the conflict. The Boers began the struggle by opening a heavy rifle fire from the dense bushy growth, but were driven off; whereupon the convoy resumed its march, and the Boers made a more determined attack on the British left flank, thus stampeding the mules hitched to a number of wagons. This Boer attack also was repulsed. Soon afterward the British rear-guard was assailed by a large number of Boers, while another Boer detachment charged the center of the British convoy, thus stampeding hundreds of mules in all directions. The stampede of the mules threw the British escort into confusion, in the midst of which the Boers charged repeatedly, riding down the scattered British troops in a two hours' conflict. The Boer losses were thirty killed and twenty-eight wounded. The British loss in killed, wounded and prisoners was six hundred and thirty-two; the prisoners being released soon afterward. Five British cannon were reported to have been captured.

Lord
Meth-
uen's
Startling
Reverse.

General Delarey's Boer force of fifteen hundred men won a still more decisive victory over Lord Methuen's force halfway between Klerksdorp and Mafeking, on March 7, 1902. With nine hundred mounted troops, three hundred infantry, four cannon and a pom pom, Lord Methuen was marching to effect a junction with Colonel Grenfell and his force of thirteen hundred mounted men near the western frontier of the Transvaal. Methuen's column was moving in two bands, one with the ox wagons starting from Twe-Bosch at three o'clock in the morning, and the other with the mule wagons starting an hour later. Just before dawn the British rear-guard was attacked by the Boers from behind and on both flanks. The flank attacks were resisted for a time, but the rear-guard had given way before it could be reinforced. The mules had been startled into a stampede, and all efforts to check them were of no avail, so that the mule wagons were mingled unmanageably with the mounted yeomanry and with native boys galloping wildly while leading horses, these mule wagons being rushed among and through the lines of ox wagons and their guards, thus throwing the whole British force into inextricable confusion. When the mounted yeomanry, mainly South African raw recruits, were driven in with Delarey's Boer troops galloping alongside the wagons the British regulars were unable to distinguish their own men from the enemy, as most of the Boer soldiers wore British Khaki uniforms. Major Paris, with forty men, was surrounded by the Boers, but held his ground until ten

o'clock in the morning. Sections of two batteries of British artillery, with three hundred of the Northumberland Fusiliers and Lancashires, bravely protected the wagons. Lord Methuen and Major Paris were captured, with all the British cannon and baggage. Lord Methuen was wounded seriously in one thigh, but he recovered very rapidly. The British loss was forty-one killed, seventy-seven wounded and about two hundred prisoners, the latter soon being released.

General Delarey added to his renown for remarkably-brilliant and dashing exploits a fame for magnanimity, courtesy and diplomacy in his generous care and speedy release of Lord Methuen. It was said that many of the Boers bitterly opposed the British general's release, and the British themselves were surprised at the release. The anti-British utterances of pro-Boer sympathizers in Europe and America, echoed loudly by a large body of British Liberals, with almost fierce demands for the withdrawal of the British government from a war which they denounced as hopeless as well as unjust, along with the Boer defiance, which had grown more sullen as the Boer strength waned—all these had prepared the English people to expect anything but kindness and magnanimity from a victorious Boer general. However, Lord Roberts testified in the House of Lords that Delarey's previous conduct in the war gave assurance of great care and kindness for the wounded British general. The questions in London generally were: What will be the price for the release of a British major-general? Will the release of General Cronje suffice? Or will Methuen be held as a hostage? The latter was the prediction ascribed to the Transvaal legation at Brussels.

While Delarey's victory was bewailed in England it was also admired there for its skillfulness and brilliancy, and the news of his generous release of the captive Lord Methuen was received with admiration as well as with welcome by the English people. The Irish Nationalist members of the House of Commons had received the news of Methuen's capture with loud cheers. The news of the reverse was received in London with stoical calm. The effect on English feeling as voiced by the English press was one of stunning surprise and disappointment at the prospect of the war being prolonged, with a corresponding strengthening of British determination by sending to Lord Kitchener six thousand yeomanry with strong recruits of cavalry and infantry. The great sympathy at first expressed for Lord Methuen was without criticism of his judgment or his capability.

The effect of Lord Methuen's disaster in France was quite unexpected; as hitherto the news of every British reverse had been welcomed there with delight, not only as a Boer gain, but apparently more as a British loss. However, in this instance, the Paris press found occasion to express sympathy for Great Britain by expressing sympathy for

Lord
Meth-
uen's
Release
by
Delarey.

Effect
of Lord
Meth-
uen's
Reverse
in
England.

Effect in
France.

Lord Methuen, reaching this attitude through sympathy for Colonel de Villebois-Marcuil. The Paris *Figaro* thus was constrained to admire the "magnificent spectacle" of Great Britain's "stoic resolution," which only confirms itself under cruel disaster. A well-known writer in the Paris *Journal* predicted that the middle of the twentieth century will find the Anglo-Saxon race overwhelmingly preponderant in South Africa. General de Gallifet, a military critic who had studied the South African struggle very carefully, in an article in the Paris *Matin*, said that nothing but defeat could be expected for Lord Methuen's raw recruits, young and untrained mountain yeomanry, if attacked in a wilderness by a force of veterans under one of the most experienced of living leaders.

**Effect in
Germany.**

The effect of Lord Methuen's disaster in Germany was similar to its effect in France. In the Prussian Diet, in Berlin, Baron von Richtofen, the Foreign Secretary, after reading the British government's reply allowing the delivery of German charitable gifts to the Boers in concentration camps, under surveillance of the British camp authorities, uttered the following strong sympathetic words: "The English and German nations are connected by ties of blood, race and friendship. They are cousins who may again find themselves side by side. General Methuen deserves our complete sympathy. As the military attache to the British embassy in Berlin he enjoyed the esteem of the Emperors William and Frederick." Baron von Richtofen said further that Great Britain's susceptibilities had been made more acute by her sacrifices in blood and treasure; that every harsh word was doubly felt by her, and that there was need of a somewhat more just mode of criticism. Said he: "Let us not always assume that everything done by the English is wrong and bad. * * * I have read descriptions of the prisoners' camps which made my hair stand on end." He then quoted the testimony of one whom he said was a perfectly-capable witness, General von Trotha, who had said to him a few days before: "I consider it my duty, and authorize you to use my name, to declare that I found the prisoners' camps in Ceylon to be perfect models." Baron von Richtofen then went on to say: "In my opinion, the dignity of the nation would not have suffered derogation if it had displayed some human sympathy, as, for instance, yesterday, when the news came of the severe wounding of General Methuen. With proper consideration for national feelings it will be possible to make further progress in the direction desired by the Boer relief committee." In conclusion he said that Germany's policy was conducted with the purpose of pleasing the German people and no one else, but he believed that the lines which he had indicated might be followed without any relinquishment of German views in regard to the war itself.

Toward nightfall on March 23, 1902, a combined movement to capture General Delarey was undertaken by British columns of mounted men without artillery or impediments of any kind. These mounted columns moved north-westward rapidly all night, and at dawn they had formed a line of positions eighty miles long, from the Vaal River to the vicinity of Mafeking. This line then moved eastward swiftly for the purpose of driving the Boers against the cordon of blockhouses or of forcing a battle. The chief design failed, but the British captured one hundred and thirty-five prisoners and five cannon, with many mules and wagons, the cannon being those taken by the Boers in the disaster to "Von Donop's convoy," three weeks before, to which we have alluded already.

Effort to Capture Delarey.

The Canadian government offered a fourth contingent of two thousand mounted infantry to go with dispatch to South Africa. In the House of Commons, on March 20, 1902, Colonial Secretary Chamberlain estimated the number of Boers then in the field at five thousand. The estimate of the Boer delegates in the United States was twelve thousand.

Other Military Items.

Early in March, 1902, two British troopers, irregulars, who were convicted by court-martial of shooting a Boer after his surrender, were shot under British orders at Pretoria. For the same crimes committed repeatedly against British officers, the Boer Commandant Scheepers had been shot under Lord Kitchener's order a short time previously; and the Boer Commandant Kruitinger had been condemned to death after trial by court-martial, but his sentence was commuted finally to permanent banishment.

Military Executions.

Mayor Seth Low, of New York city, made public in the press a series of resolutions passed in a public meeting of the citizens of Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange River Colony, on February 18, 1902, and attested to by the town clerk and ordered to be sent to the Mayors of Paris, Berlin and New York, denouncing as utterly false the accusations of inhumanity and barbarous cruelty in the treatment of defenseless women and children by the British soldiers.

Charges of Cruelty Refuted.

There were several sharp conflicts on March 31st and during the first two weeks of April, 1902. In an engagement in the south-western part of the Transvaal two thousand Boers under Generals Delarey and Kemp attacked the British under Cookson and Keir, but were compelled to retreat with a loss of one hundred and thirty-seven killed and wounded, the British losing heavily also. On April 11th the British under Colonel Kekewich were attacked by the Boers under Generals Kemp and Potgieter, who were forced to retreat and were pursued eighteen miles, Potgieter being killed and three cannon being captured by the British, thus leaving Delarey with only one cannon. The Boer

Boer Defeats.

forces in the field late in April, 1902, were estimated at from six thousand to eight thousand.

**Military
Trials
and Sen-
tences.**

An official statement from the War Office in London on April 4, 1902, showed the result of the trial of the Colonials, an irregular corps recruited in South Africa, accused of serious crimes against Boer prisoners. As a result of a court of inquiry, convened on October 16, 1901, five officers were tried at Pietersburg in January, 1902, and were convicted as principals or accessories in twelve murders. Two lieutenants were found guilty of murder and were sentenced to death, which sentence was commuted to imprisonment for life at penal servitude. Another lieutenant was found guilty of manslaughter and was expelled from the service. A major was found guilty of culpable neglect in not reporting the crimes and was sent home in disgrace. The trial of the Boer Commandant Kruitzinger on the charge of shooting natives was resumed on April 5, 1902, and ended in his acquittal on all four of the charges.

**Great
Britain's
War Ex-
penses
and
Losses.**

Official reports showed Great Britain's war expenses thus far to have been about one hundred and fifty million pounds and the war's monthly expense to be about four hundred and fifty million pounds. The total British loss in men to January 1, 1902, amounted to twenty-four thousand two hundred and ninety-nine, of which nineteen thousand four hundred and thirty were killed in battle or died from disease. Sixty-four thousand three hundred and thirty were sent home as invalids. The Boer losses were not known. On September 1, 1901, more than thirty-six thousand Boer soldiers were held as prisoners by the British government.

**Indefinite
Situation.**

The military situation in South Africa from the end of April to the end of May, 1902, was somewhat indefinite, though for the first time since the Boers declared war against Great Britain there was a serious movement on the part of the Boer leaders toward the consideration of terms of peace, even on the part of such men as Botha, De Wet, Schalk-Berger and Steyn, who now perceived the folly and hopelessness of further resistance to the inevitable; and the month of May was signalized by peace negotiations, whose progress and final result we shall notice at the close of this section and chapter. In fact, both sides were weary of the protracted struggle and were longing for its conclusion, though the British were as determined as ever on insisting on their conditions of peace.

**Final
Military
Opera-
tions.**

The final military operations of this protracted guerrilla warfare, while the peace negotiations were in progress, were very much restricted in area, though prosecuted actively in various districts. On May 12, 1902, Lord Kitchener reported that more than eight hundred prisoners had been taken during the previous week, along with a large quantity

of supplies. Early in May Colonel Barker reported the capture of Commandant Manie Botha, nephew of General Louis Botha and De Wet's ablest subordinate leader. A brother of General Delarey was captured about May 15th, and eight hundred and sixty of Delarey's troops had been captured within two months previous to May 12th. The chief military activity late in May, before the end of hostilities, was in Cape Colony, where about twenty places were occupied by bands of Boer raiders who eluded British pursuit. As the struggle was nearing its close the bitter feeling between the two parties seemed to have died out largely, as shown by baseball games between groups of Boer and British soldiers, who were tired of fighting each other.

As before noticed, both parties had grown weary of the long and sanguinary guerrilla war; but the great obstacles to peace were the obstinacy of the irreconcilable Boers under the leadership of ex-President Steyn and the redoubtable General De Wet, as well as the question of the treatment of the Cape Colony Dutch rebels, whom the British regarded as traitors, but whom the Boers of the two former republics were anxious to save from punishment for their assistance to their kinsmen of the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony. Many months before the peace negotiations some of the Boer women interested themselves in peace efforts, and Mrs. General Louis Botha went to England on a peace mission.

Peace
Move-
ments.

The final peace negotiations occupied a period of almost two months. As early as March 12, 1902, General Schalk-Berger, the acting President of the Transvaal since President Krüger's flight from South Africa, informed Lord Kitchener of his readiness to make proposals of peace. A month later the Boer delegates submitted certain peace propositions; but the British Secretary of War, Mr. Broderick, rejected these proposals on April 13, 1902, because they included the independence of the two Boer republics. Then President Steyn and Generals Schalk-Berger and Louis Botha proposed that the question of the surrender of the independence of the Boer republics be submitted to the Boers in the field. The British government expressed surprise at this Boer attitude, but announced its willingness to give facilities for a consultation of the Boer commanders in the field and to accept a surrender by the Boers on terms which Lord Kitchener previously had offered to General Louis Botha. After the Boers had availed themselves of the British offer to refrain from attack on or interference with their convention at Vereeniging, General Schalk-Berger and President Steyn informed Lord Kitchener on May 17th that the Boers assembled there had authorized a commission to negotiate terms of peace which would require ratification at Vereeniging. Two days later Lord Milner and Lord Kitchener met the Boer commission at Vereeniging, when the Boer

Final
Peace
Negotia-
tions.

commissioners offered to surrender the independence of the republics concerning foreign relations and to surrender a portion of the territory of the republics, but to retain self-government under British supervision; but Lords Milner and Kitchener instantly rejected these terms. On the same day—May 19, 1902—Lord Milner and two of the Boer commissioners, General Smuts and Judge Hertzog, drew up a form of agreement which was to be submitted to the convention at Vereeniging for a simple yea or nay vote. This form became practically the final agreement, as Colonial Secretary Chamberlain approved it with slight alterations when it was submitted to him. In giving notice of his approval, Mr. Chamberlain directed Lord Kitchener to inform the Boers that if they did not accept the agreement within a fixed time limit the whole peace conference would be regarded as ended and the British government would not consider itself bound in any manner by the declarations which it had made in this instance. The Boers asked to be permitted to deliberate until the last night in May, when they would give their final answer. Lords Milner and Kitchener granted this last Boer request, and the result was that before midnight on the appointed night the great British-Boer War was ended by a treaty of peace in which the Boer leaders accepted the British terms, the final vote of the Boer convention at Vereeniging being fifty-four in favor of surrender and six in opposition to such terms. Ex-President Krüger was ignored entirely in the terms of peace, the British not recognizing him as having had any part in the negotiations. The Boer deliberations in their convention were conducted with much bitterness, the irreconcilable Boers hotly taunting their kinsmen who advocated peace on the terms proposed.

Peace of
Pretoria.

Finally, at 10:30 on the night of Saturday, May 31, 1902, a document containing the terms of surrender and submission was signed at Pretoria by all the Boer commissioners, with General Christian R. De Wet at their head, as well as by Lord Milner, the British High Commissioner in South Africa, and by Lord Kitchener, the commander-in-chief of the British military forces in South Africa. This peace agreement was the result of the decision arrived at on the morning of that day in the Boer convention at Vereeniging by the Boer political and military leaders. The signing of the agreement was entirely devoid of ceremony, as are likely to be the acts of most momentous results. The Boer and British signers met in the dining room of the house in which the Boer commissioners had been lodging, where the significant document was spread on a table. In profound silence the Boer commissioners took a pen and affixed their signatures to the momentous document, in the order of their rank, General Christian R. De Wet's name being first, as he had been appointed as acting President by Mr. Steyn,

who did not sign the document on account of absence through illness. After being signed by the representatives of both parties, the document was handed to official messengers for delivery to King Edward VII. In all the concentration camps in South Africa the glad tidings of peace came like the dawn after a long gloomy night; the refugees in the camps assembling and singing Psalms, the women weeping for joy. By the terms of agreement the Boers accepted British sovereignty, while the British government granted them three million pounds sterling (fifteen million dollars) to restore their destroyed buildings and restock their farms; exempted them from taxation for thirty years; allowed them all civil and political rights; permitted the Dutch language to be taught in the Boer schools, and brought back to their homes at British expense all the Boer prisoners in St. Helena, Ceylon and other places.

The following were the terms of the Peace of Pretoria, as announced by the Rt. Hon. Arthur James Balfour in the British House of Commons on June 2, 1902.

**Terms
of the
Peace
Treaty.**

First—The burgher forces in the field will forthwith lay down their arms and hand over all the guns, rifles and ammunition of war in their possession or under their control, and desist from further resistance, and acknowledge King Edward VII. as their lawful sovereign.

Second—All burghers outside the limits of the Transvaal and Orange River Colony and all prisoners of war at present outside South Africa who are burghers will, on duly declaring their acceptance of the position of subjects of His Majesty, be brought back to their homes as soon as means of transportation can be provided and means of subsistence assured.

Third—The burghers so returning will not be deprived of their personal liberty or property.

Fourth—No proceeding, civil or criminal, will be taken against any burghers surrendering, or so returning, for any acts in connection with the prosecution of the war. The benefits of this clause do not extend to certain acts contrary to the usages of war, which have been notified by the commander-in-chief to the Boer generals and which shall be tried by court-martial after the close of hostilities in accordance with military law.

Fifth—The Dutch language will be taught in the public schools of the Transvaal and Orange River Colony, where the parents desire it, and will be allowed in the courts of law, for the better and more effectual administration of justice.

Sixth—Possession of rifles will be allowed in the Transvaal and Orange River Colony to persons requiring them for their protection, on taking out a license, according to law.

Seventh—The military administration of the Transvaal and Orange River Colony will, at the earliest possible date, be succeeded by a civil government; and, as soon as circumstances permit, representative institutions, leading up to self-government, will be introduced.

Eighth—The question of granting the franchise to natives will not be decided until after the introduction of self-government.

Ninth—No special tax will be imposed on landed property in the Transvaal or Orange River Colony to defray the expenses of the war.

Tenth—So soon as the conditions permit it, a commission, on which the local inhabitants will be represented, will be appointed in each district of the Transvaal and Orange River Colony, under the presidency of a magistrate or other official, for the purpose of assisting in the restoration of the people to their homes, and supplying those who, owing to war losses, are unable to provide for themselves, with food and shelter and the necessary amount of seed, stock and implements, etc., indispensable to the resumption of their normal occupations.

Eleventh—His Majesty's government will place at the disposal of these commissions the sum of three million pounds [fifteen million dollars] and will allow all the notes issued under the law of 1900 of the South African Republic, and all receipts given up to officers in the field of the late republics, or under their orders, to be presented to a judicial commission, which will be appointed by the government, and if such notes and receipts are found by this commission to have been duly issued in return for valuable considerations, they will be received by the first-named commissions as evidence of war losses suffered by the persons to whom they were originally given.

Twelfth—In addition to the above-named free grant of three million pounds, His Majesty's government will be prepared to make advances, on loan, for the same purposes, free of interest for two years, and afterward repayable, over a period of years, with three per cent. interest. No foreigner or rebel will be entitled to benefit under this clause.

After Mr. Balfour had read the foregoing peace agreement in the British House of Commons he proceeded, in reference to "certain important points not dealt with in that document," to read a dispatch from Lord Kitchener dated May 30, 1902, relating to the more delicate and difficult question of the treatment to be accorded to Cape Colony and Natal colonists who had become rebels by enlisting in the Boer armies. In this dispatch Lord Kitchener reported that he had read to the Boer delegates and given them a copy of the following statement:

"His Majesty's government must place on record that the treatment of the Cape and Natal colonists who have been in rebellion and who now surrender will, if they return to their colonies, be determined by the

Mr.
Balfour's
Declarations.

colonial courts and in accordance with the laws of the colonies; and any British subjects who have joined the enemy will be liable to trial under the law of that part of the British Empire to which they belong."

Mr. Balfour proceeded to say concerning the colonial rebels as follows:

"His Majesty's government are informed by the Cape government that their views regarding the terms to be granted to British subjects in Cape Colony now in the field or who have surrendered or been captured since April 12, 1901, are as follows:

"With regard to the rank and file, they should all, after surrender and giving up their arms, sign a document, before the resident magistrate of the district in which they surrender, acknowledging themselves guilty of high treason; and the punishment to be accorded them, provided they are not guilty of murder or acts contrary to the usages of civilized warfare, shall be that they are not entitled, for life, to be registered as voters, or vote in any Parliamentary or Provincial Council or municipal election.

"With reference to Justices of the Peace, field cornets and all others who held official positions under the government of Cape Colony, or who have been occupying a position of authority, or who have held commands in the rebel or burgher forces, they shall be tried for high treason before the ordinary courts of the country, or such special courts as may hereafter be constituted, with the proviso that in no case shall the penalty of death be inflicted.

"The Natal government is of the opinion that rebels should be dealt with according to the law of that colony."

"These arrangements the government have approved."

The British terms of peace were regarded everywhere as most magnanimous. Thus at last the British had surprised the Boers. The nation which had been denounced as the great robber nation of the world, selfish, pitiless, yielding nothing except to superior force, thus far had spent seven hundred and fifty million dollars in a war suddenly commenced by the Boers, with a loss of twenty-eight thousand four hundred and thirty-four men dead or permanently disabled by disease; the Boer forces actually remaining in the field being only about three thousand men, with a few thousand more of boys and old men; while the British force numbered more than two hundred thousand men. This same great nation which had sent a quarter of a million men seven thousand miles by sea—a feat never performed by any other nation—now calmly appropriated two hundred million dollars more, to demobilize and transport her own troops home; to bring home the thirty-one thousand Boer prisoners from Ceylon, from St. Helena and from the Bermudas; to move the one hundred and eleven thousand Boer

Change
in the
Boer
Feeling
toward
the
British.

women and children from the various concentration camps where they had been sheltered, fed and clothed, and to grant to each Boer in the two former republics about five hundred dollars toward restoring his home on the veldt. The British peace terms were firm on all the main political issues, while generous in all personal matters. The simple-hearted Boers evidently were surprised at British generosity, and their former feelings of animosity toward their recent foes had disappeared. Their sense of defeat had been soothed by the generous allusions of King Edward VII. and Mr. Balfour in the British Parliament to their bravery and by Lord Kitchener's address to them in their camp at Vereeniging when he said that if he had been one of them he would have been proud to have done so well in the field as they had done. So much for the change in the feeling of the Boers toward their late foes.

As sudden as had been the revulsion of Boer feeling in favor of the British had been the Boer revulsion against the French, the Germans and other nationalities who had encouraged the Boers to begin the war. The Dutch farmers of the South African veldt, who had been unfamiliar with the intricacies of European international politics, had trusted the people of Continental Europe who had assured them that the governments of the Great Continental European Powers hated Great Britain as an overbearing and rapacious rival and that these governments would aid the Boers either openly or secretly in breaking British power in South Africa. Apparently the Boers now ascribed to those misleading European advisers the suffering and desolation which the war had brought upon the Boer population. Leading Boers declared at Pretoria that the war had been prolonged unnecessarily through the false hopes of European assistance held out to the struggling Boers by the French and German press. Three weeks after the conclusion of the peace agreement sixteen thousand five hundred Boers had surrendered by accepting the British terms; and at the end of June, 1902, all indications showed that the recent powerful and hated enemy of the Boers actually had come to be regarded by them as their trusted friend. The late enemy had dealt generously with the Boers in her peace terms in furnishing them with material aid in repairing the ravages of the late bloody war, while the pretended friends from Continental Europe had brought them well-nigh to ruin by their false encouragement and false hopes and thus deceived them to their detriment. Thus the only ill-feeling which the Boers now manifested was against those European advisers who had been urging them to continue the war and against those of their kinsmen who had entered the British service as National Scouts. The Boer feeling regarding the result of the war was illustrated in General De Wet's speech at Winburg, where he made his appearance after signing the peace agreement and shook the hands of

Change
in the
Boer
Feeling
toward
the
French
and the
Germans.

thousands of Boer men and women who had crowded around him. In his speech on this occasion De Wet praised the Boer women for their staunch support of the Boer cause during the war and urged his hearers to support loyally the government to which they now owed their allegiance, uttering the following words: "God has decided thus. I fought until there was no more hope of upholding our cause. * * * The time has now come to lay down our arms. As a Christian people, God now demands that we be faithful to our new government." Several hundred Boers enlisted in the British service to fight the Mad Mullah of Somaliland.

In Great Britain the news of the peace agreement was received with profound gratification, as giving relief from a long anxiety and a heavy burden. The London *Daily Chronicle* remarked: "The close of the war has converted us all to pro-Boerism." Even such a pro-Boer journal as the London *Daily News* called the peace agreement "a peace with reason." The London *Times* declared the peace terms "excellent in all respects." A peculiar trait of the English character was exemplified in the very general expression of magnanimous feeling toward the Boers, with praise for their qualities as warriors and ardent approval of all reasonable proposals for instantly aiding them in the distressful condition to which they had been reduced by the two and a half years of the war which they had undertaken against the great British Empire. To this general magnanimous British feeling there were a few exceptions, a few extremists fearing that the Boers had not been punished and humiliated sufficiently for their fierce and fruitless attack on Great Britain. In Canada the peace terms at first were considered too liberal to the Boers, and the permission of the Dutch language in the Boer schools and courts was regarded as very dangerous. The pro-Boer sympathizers in Great Britain, as well as those in other lands, lamented the destruction of the two little Boer republics at the hands of what they denounced as a selfish and unscrupulous power; and to this lamentation was added the bitter outcry of the Irish Nationalist leaders. In Great Britain and in the United States the lamentation over the overthrow of the Boer republics in some instances developed into exaltation that Great Britain and not the Boers had made the real surrender; that Great Britain had been unable to conquer the Boers and therefore had conceded practically all for which the Boer had begun the war, having then assumed her usual attitude of magnanimity, the Boers in reality not having been conquered. With the preceding exceptions, in the United States the peace was a welcome relief, the terms being regarded as generous on the part of Great Britain.

The news of the conclusion of the Peace of Pretoria was received with satisfaction everywhere on the Continent of Europe. The expressions

Feeling
in Great
Britain
and Her
Colonies,
and in the
United
States.

**Feeling
on the
European
Continent.**

of the French press were generally anti-English in tone, their utterances frequently belittling the importance of the magnitude of the British victory, the more popular French newspapers denouncing Great Britain as the enemy of mankind. In Paris the *Journal des Debats* and the *Temps* expressed satisfaction at the end of the war; the *Temps*, however, reviewing the situation in Cape Colony as menacing. On June 2, 1902, the Paris municipal council adopted a resolution of sympathy with ex-President Krüger, "whose people have so valiantly fought for right against might." The general tone of the German press displayed a profound disappointment at what appeared to be the sudden close of the war without either Great Britain's disgraceful defeat or a disastrous diminution of her power, there being scarcely any effort to conceal the fact that the German people had cherished a hope that the war would last until Great Britain had been thoroughly humbled and ruinously weakened. While the business circles of Germany were glad that the war was over and were expecting to share in the revival of business due to increased financial confidence in London, the world's great money center, almost the entire German press eulogized the Boer valor and steadfastness, regarded the result as a shameful victory of brute strength, of might over right, and lamented that the gallant Boers had been forced to yield to an unrighteous and overwhelming power. The *Berliner Tageblatt* predicted that as Great Britain was now freed from pressure in South Africa she would take advantage of her fortunate situation to enter on a more decided foreign policy in other quarters of the globe, as, for instance, in Morocco and in Persia, but that this would not disturb the world's peace, as Great Britain's release from the South African trouble would make her European rivals adequately cautious. While the German press very generally showed its anti-English tone respecting the South African war, the Count von Waldersee, at a dinner given him with other German officers in London by Lord Roberts on June 22, 1902, toasted King Edward VII. and the British army, bestowing on that army a high compliment in these words: "We German soldiers know how difficult and arduous was the task the British army had to accomplish in South Africa and that this task was accomplished with bravery, humanity and the utmost devotion to the country." At Vienna the news of peace was received with almost universal satisfaction, and the Austrian Minister of Commerce expressed the opinion that under British rule the trade in the Transvaal would be developed greatly to the benefit of Austria-Hungary and of all Europe. The leading Hungarian newspaper said on June 2, 1902: "The Boers will doubtless soon find that British ideas of freedom and toleration are more liberal than those which prevailed under the regime of republican Krügerism." At The Hague and in

Holland generally there was satisfaction at the end of the war, but this satisfaction was mingled with general regret at the loss of Boer independence, while a general complaint was heard because in the last days of the war the British government had refused to permit the Boers to communicate with their agents in Europe and thus excluded those agents from participating in the negotiations. At Brussels and in Belgium as a rule there also was general satisfaction at the return of peace in South Africa, and the pro-Boer *Independence Belge* assumed an unusual tone in advising the Continental European press to stop slandering Great Britain. In Russia the St. Petersburg newspapers disclosed their regret at the tidings of peace and intimated that as Great Britain now was released from her trouble in South Africa she might interfere with some of Russia's movements in the East.

The general popular judgment seemed to be that Great Britain had shown great military incapacity and inefficiency during the war, but German and Austrian military experts did not sustain this popular notion. An Austrian field-marshal declared that "England's army may look back with justifiable pride upon its achievements"; that the usual diminution of efficiency during a war was not seen, but, instead, an increase; that "it must be admitted that the war has raised England's military prestige." German military officers of high rank expressed the opinion that under all the circumstances of the war not any troops in the world could have done better. Military critics declared that in all history no other nation ever had shown the capacity to transport a quarter of a million soldiers who could keep the field and win a war seven thousand miles from home.

Lord Kitchener emerged from the war with fame both as a warrior and as a peacemaker. He constructed four thousand miles of block-house wire-fence, thus effectively interfering with the Boer style of migratory warfare; and immediately after the surrender of the Boers he made a speech in which he won their friendship by his noble tribute of respect for their bravery as soldiers. His services were recognized and rewarded by King Edward VII., who created him a viscount on June 4, 1902, and promoted him to the rank of General. On June 5th Parliament voted him a gift of fifty thousand pounds (a quarter of a million dollars), the vote being three hundred and eighty in favor of the grant and forty-four in opposition to it.

Commandant Kemp, Delarey's chief subordinate, who did not surrender until June 11, 1902, said that fifty thousand Boers were in the field at the beginning of the war. The British mortality, except during the first year of the war, was not as great as usually has been the case in wars; the number of deaths in battle or from wounds being seven thousand seven hundred and ninety-two, and the number of deaths from

Effect on
British
Prestige.

Lord
Kitchener's
Achievements.

Boer
Military
Strengths.

British
Mor-
tality.

disease being thirteen thousand two hundred and fifty, making a total of twenty-one thousand and forty-two deaths.

**British
Aid to
the Boers.**

Though the Dutch language was to be allowed in the Boer courts and schools when the people desired it, the English was to be the official language. The concentration camps were to be converted into supply depots to provide the returning Boers with the means to rebuild and restock their farms, while their wives and families were being maintained for the time at the British government's expense. At the request of the Boers for an increase of the grant of three million pounds for the restoration of the Boer buildings and farms, the British government soon raised the amount to eight million pounds (forty million dollars) and a little later to fifteen million pounds (seventy-five million dollars). Some months later some of the Boer leaders visited England and were welcomed with most courteous and kindly receptions by all classes of the English people.

**Krüger's
Last
Days.**

A dispatch from Brussels on June 11, 1902, stated that ex-President Krüger finally had lowered the Transvaal flag in front of his house. For many months he suffered from ill health; and finally he died of pneumonia and supervening heart weakness at Clarens, Switzerland, July 14, 1904, at the age of seventy-nine years. He was born at Colesberg, Cape Colony, October 10, 1825, and in his boyhood was one who went from that colony in the Great Trek of 1835, which led to the founding of the Transvaal Republic and the Orange Free State. He had been a leader in Transvaal affairs from the beginning of the Transvaal until his exile during his last few years.

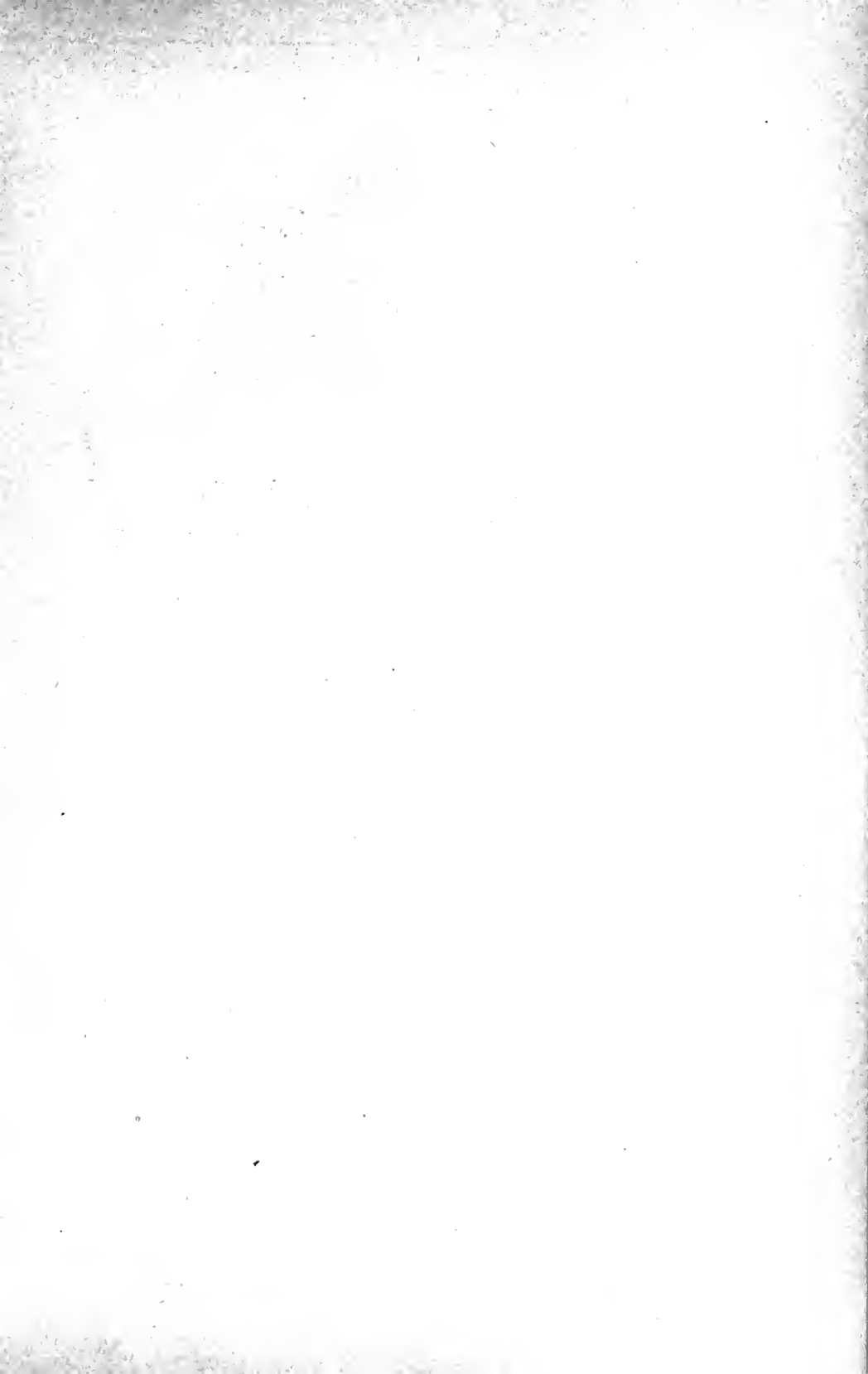
**Relations
of Great
Britain,
Germany
and the
United
States.**

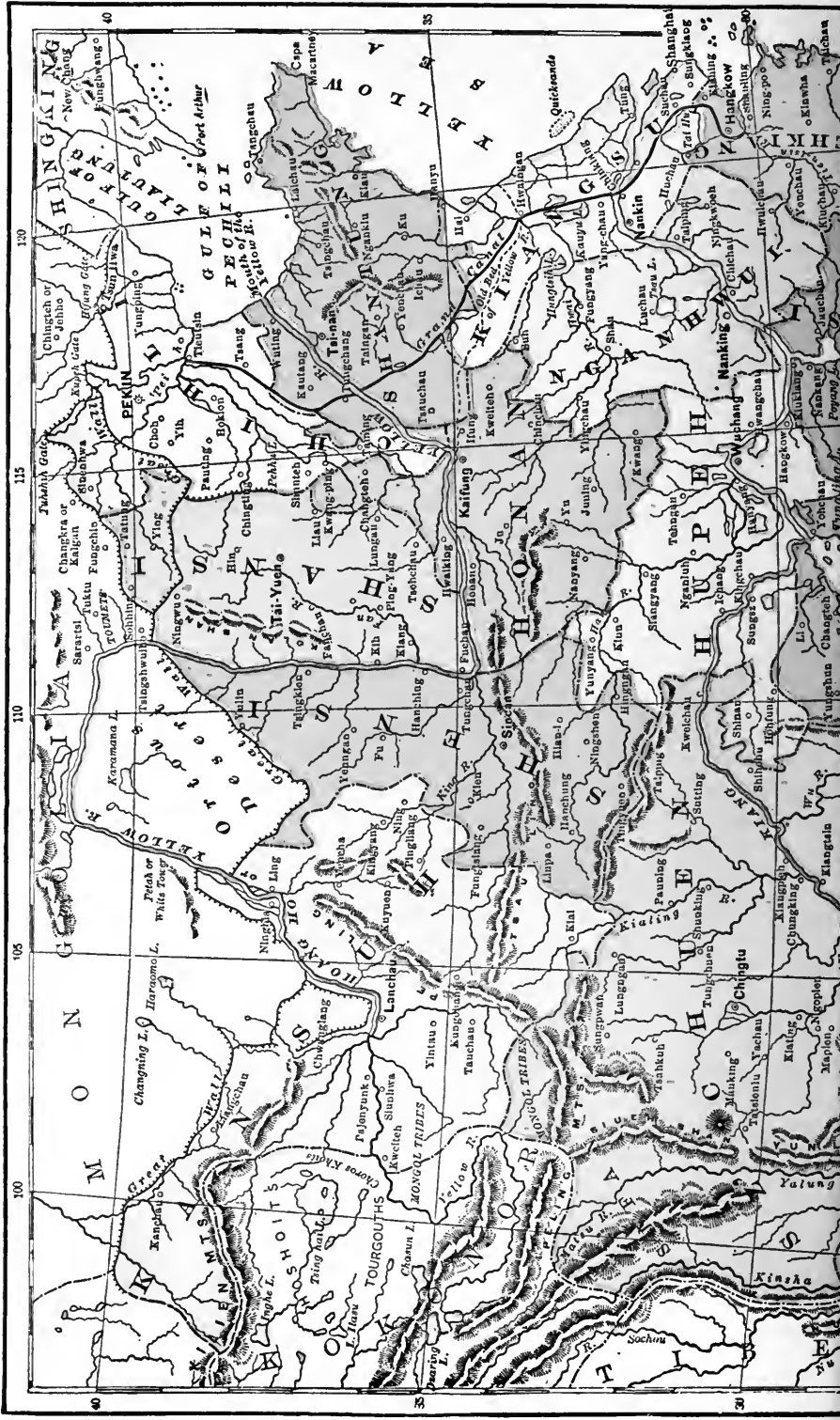
Various utterances of the German press displayed a feeling of disquietude respecting the relations of the two great English-speaking nations with Germany. The press of both Great Britain and Germany did not conceal the mutual dislike of the two nations for each other, but the governments of the two nations were indulging in frequent expressions of their reciprocal trust and regard. The *Berliner Tageblatt* accused the English newspapers of being responsible largely for exciting animosity in the United States against Germany concerning Germany's attitude during the Spanish-American War, to the great injury of Germany, and complained that the English newspapers also reproduced all the anti-English utterances of the German press about the British-Boer War. The German government publicly expressed a desire that the bitter feeling occasioned by the British-Boer War might be forgotten speedily in both Germany and Great Britain, but the German government also accused the English newspaper correspondents in Germany of being responsible wholly for the continuance of the bitter feeling between the two nations. At a Parliamentary reception early in June, 1902, the Baron von Richtofen, the German Secretary of Foreign

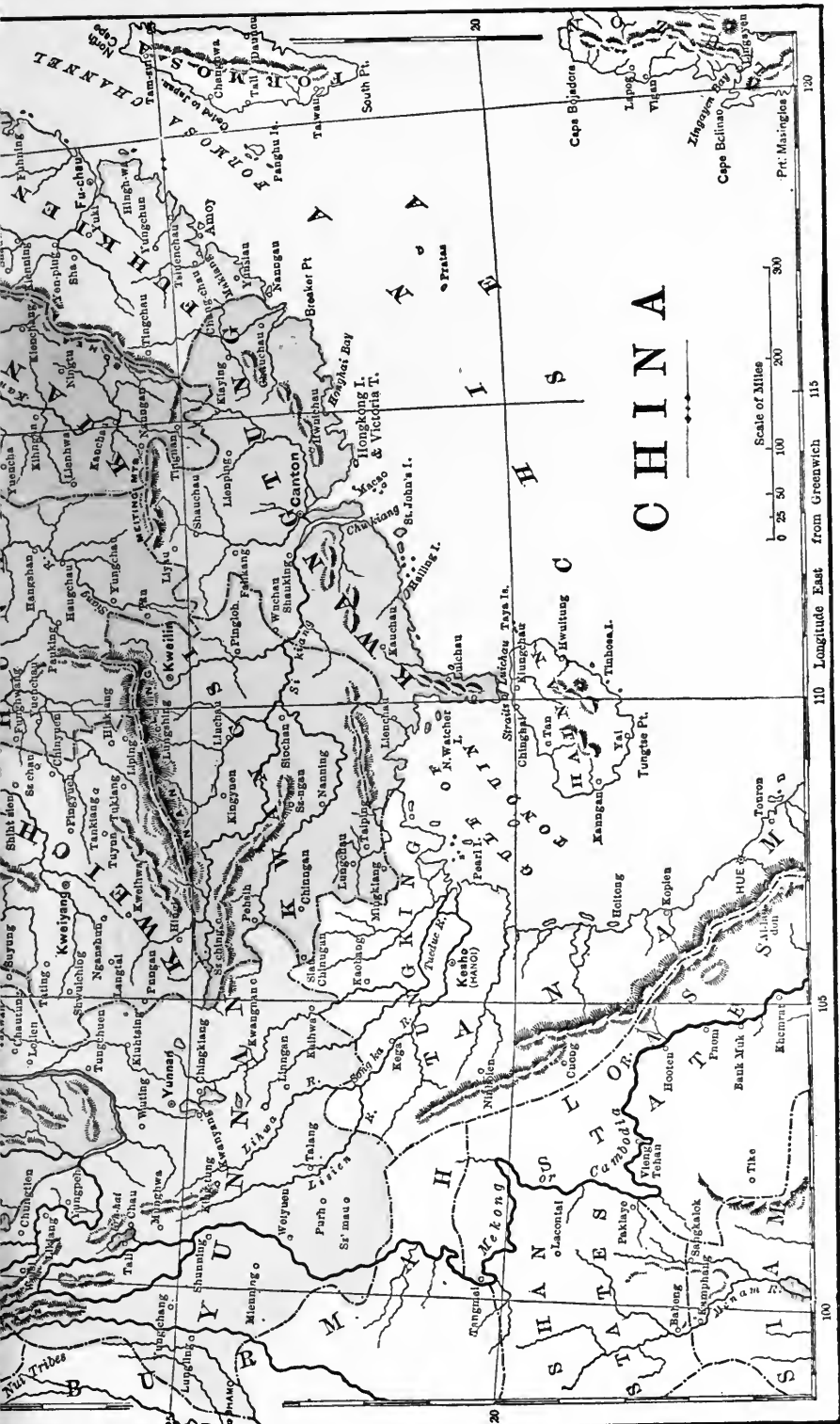
Affairs, in conversing with the Berlin correspondent of the *London Times*, accused him of "poisoning public opinion in England against Germany," drawing general attention by saying loudly: "Your biased and venomous reports were an absolute calumny to both countries."

A Dutch Republic of the United States of South Africa would not mean freedom, but would mean oppression of the black race and of all whites except Dutch, and would be as great a misfortune for the black race in South Africa as would have been the founding of an independent republic of the Confederate States of America south of the Potomac and the Ohio for the same race in this country forty years ago. Under a British South African Confederation there would be equal political rights for all white men and all civilized black men, and equal civil and religious freedom for all uncivilized blacks; but under a united Dutch South African Republic it would not be so. In the British colonies of South Africa, Englishmen and Dutchmen and all other white men have equal civil, political and religious rights. In the so-called Transvaal Republic only Dutchmen and Protestants had equal political rights, and blacks had not even equal civil rights, while Jews and Catholics were proscribed and politically disabled. So, it was the British side, not the Dutch side, which represented civil, political and religious liberty for the individual. Abraham Lincoln said: "Those who deny liberty to others deserve it not themselves and will not long retain it." As in the American Civil War, so in this South African War, the wrong of human slavery, fastened upon the country two centuries before, was the great cause of bloodshed, as its abolition was responsible for the prolonged race hatred. The people of later years had been paying the penalty for the crimes of their ancestors. In answer to the general charge that the British robbed the Boers of their country, it can be said that, going back to the principle of original abstract right, neither the Boers nor the British have a strict moral right to the country. Thus the Boers had no birthright to the Transvaal. It was the negro's country. The Boers stole it from the negro. It was not the original Boer home, but was the birthright of the native negro tribes inhabiting that country.

View
of the
Result
of the
War.







120

Scale of Miles
0 25 50 100 200 300

110 Longitude East from Greenwich

115

100



CHAPTER XLVI.

MODERN CHINA AND JAPAN.

SECTION I.—CHINA UNDER THE MING AND MANCHU DYNASTIES (SINCE A. D. 1368).

As before remarked, the sixteen Chinese Emperors belonging to the native Ming dynasty, which ruled China after the expulsion of the Mongol Tartars, in 1368, were mostly able sovereigns. Toward the middle of the fifteenth century the Tartars renewed their invasions of China, but were repulsed. During the reign of the Emperor SHI-TSUNG, A. D. 1522–1567, the Manchu Tartars invaded China, but were driven back. The Manchus seem to have originated ages ago by the commingling of the Mongols and the Tungouse in the country afterward called Manchuria, which is north of China proper and east of Mongolia.

**Ming
Dynasty.**

During the long reign of Shi-tsung, in the fifteenth century, began the intercourse between China and Europe by the trading ventures of the Portuguese, who established themselves on the Chinese island of Macao. In 1604 the Dutch sought to open a direct trade with China by sending three vessels to that country, but these Dutch vessels were not permitted to enter any Chinese port. In 1622 the Dutch made a second effort to open a trade with China, but again they were resisted; whereupon they endeavored to enter the Chinese Empire by force, but were driven off. The Dutch, however, effected a lodgment on one of the Pescadore Islands, which afterward they relinquished for the more important Chinese island of Formosa.

**Portu-
guese and
Dutch
Inter-
course
with
China.**

In the meantime several wars had taken place between the Chinese and the Manchus, and the Chinese reduced the Manchus to subjection. Finally the Emperor of China caused the King of Manchuria to be assassinated—an act which so exasperated the Manchus that they renewed the war with the Chinese.

**Chino-
Manchu
Wars.**

The last Chinese Emperor belonging to the Ming dynasty was HWAE-TSUNG. Very soon after this Emperor's accession the King of Manchuria led his army toward the Chinese frontier and issued a pro-

**Manchu
Invasion.**

lamation declaring that he had been divinely commissioned to rule the Chinese Empire.

**China's
Internal
Troubles.**

In the midst of this Manchu invasion, China was distracted by rebellions in different parts of her Empire. Bands of robbers infested the roads, placed themselves under favorite chiefs and bade defiance to the imperial army. One of these rebel chiefs was Li-tse-ching, who marched into the provinces of Shensi and Honan, where he put to death all the mandarins and gained the favor of the common people by freeing them from the payment of taxes. Multitudes flocked to his standard, and whole battalions of the imperial army deserted to him. Li-tse-ching then considered himself sufficiently powerful to declare himself Emperor of China. He therefore led his army to Peking and contrived to convey a number of his men in disguise into the capital, who were to open the gates to him when he appeared before the city at the head of his army.

**Li-tse-
ching's
Rebellion.**

**His
Capture
of Peking.**

Shortly afterward the rebel chief entered Peking in triumph at the head of three hundred thousand men, while the Emperor Hwae-tsung shut himself up in his palace and devoted himself to superstitious ceremonies. When the Emperor found himself betrayed and deserted by his own troops and servants, and saw that he was unable to escape, he resolved to kill his own children and to commit suicide rather than incur the disgrace of being taken captive by his rebellious subjects.

**Hwae-
tsung's
Despera-
tion.**

**Suicide
of the
Emperor
and the
Empress.**

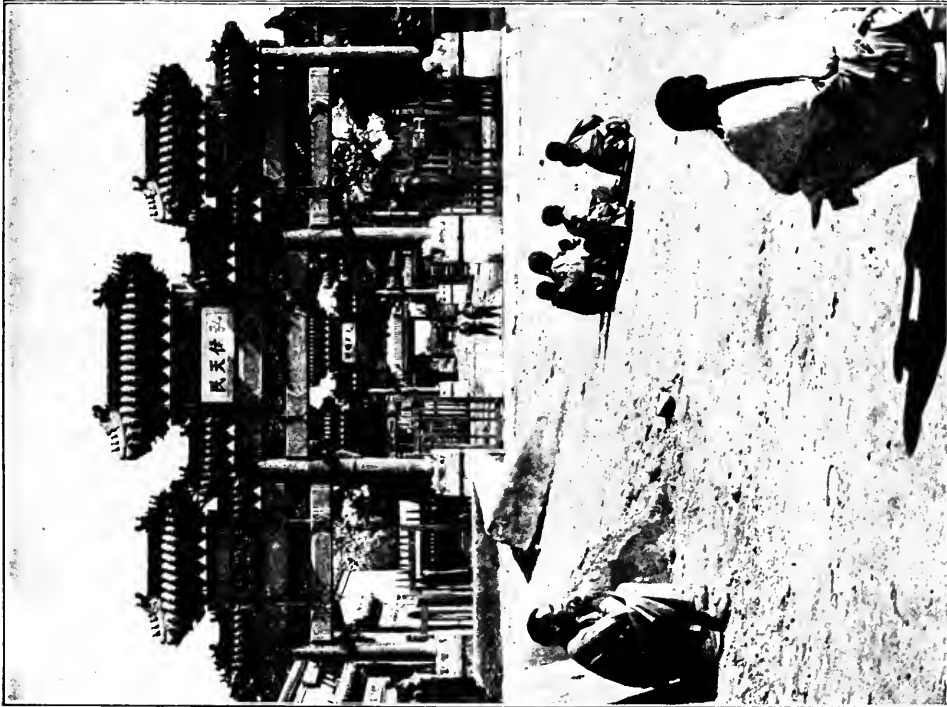
Hwae-tsung accordingly conducted his beloved empress into a private and distant part of the gardens without saying a word. She at once comprehended his silent emotions of agony and despair; and, after embracing him tenderly, she retired into the woods, where she suspended herself by a silken string. The Emperor hastened to follow her in suicide. After cutting off the head of his young daughter with his cimeter, he hanged himself on another tree. His Prime Minister, his queens and his faithful eunuchs soon followed his example.

**Li-tse-
ching's
Brutality.**

Hwae-tsung had left behind him a written request that the conquering rebel leader should be satisfied with the destruction of the imperial family and not inflict any cruelty on the people. When the self-immolated Emperor's body was laid before Li-tse-ching, as he was seated upon the throne, the brutal wretch treated the corpse in the most shameful manner. He also beheaded two of the dead Emperor's sons and his Ministers, the eldest son making his escape.

**Woo-
san-kee's
Attitude.**

While the princes and nobles of the Empire submitted to the usurper Li-tse-ching, there was a celebrated general who alone refused to acknowledge the usurper. This was Woo-san-kee, who commanded the Chinese army stationed on the frontier of Manchu Tartary. This general resolved to avenge his dead sovereign and to punish the usurper. Li-tse-ching march against him with a powerful army.



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OLD CHINESE ARCHITECTURE



After investing the capital of Woo-san-kee's provinces of Liao-tung, Li-tse-ching resorted to the most cruel expedient to force him to surrender. The usurper showed Woo-san-kee his father loaded with chains, declaring that he should be sacrificed instantly if the son refused to submit. The brave general was almost overcome at so sad a spectacle, but remained firm in his opposition to the usurper. The good father of Woo-san-kee, understanding his son's intentions by the signs which he made, applauded his resolution and quietly submitted to his fate.

**His
Father's
Resolution
and
Devotion.**

For the purpose of revenging his dead sovereign, as well as his dead father, Woo-san-kee immediately concluded a peace with the Manchu Tartars and even solicited their active aid. The Manchus gladly accepted a proposal which opened to them a passage into China; and Tsong-ti, the Manchu king, immediately joined Woo-san-kee, thus forcing Li-tse-ching to raise the siege of the capital of the gallant general's province. The usurper was defeated in three great battles by Woo-san-kee and the Manchu king, but when Woo-san-kee desired to dismiss his Manchu allies they refused to return to their own country, and they even marched upon Peking in pursuit of the fleeing Li-tse-ching. But the usurper, thinking himself unsafe in his capital, plundered and burned his palace and then fled with his vast treasures into the province of Shensi.

**His
Alliance
with the
Manchus.**

**Li-tse-
ching's
Defeat
and
Flight.**

Tsong-ti, the victorious King of Manchuria, at once took possession of China's great capital, but died almost immediately thereafter, after declaring his son Shun-chi his successor. SHUN-CHI soon afterward was conducted to Peking, where he was welcomed joyfully on all sides as a deliverer, A. D. 1644. Thus ended the Ming dynasty of native Chinese Emperors, and thus began the Ta-tsing, or Manchu dynasty, which still occupies the throne of the Celestial Empire. Thus China was for the second time placed under the rule of a Tartar dynasty. The war which had effected this important revolution had lasted twenty-seven years, A. D. 1617-1644.

**Shun-chi,
First
of the
Manchu
Dynasty,
A. D.
1644-
1662.**

During this calamitous period for China a Chinese pirate named Coxinga kept the entire coast of China in constant alarm and laid siege to the city of Nankin, where his followers abandoned themselves to dissipation on their leader's birthday, in which condition they were attacked by the garrison, and many of them were slaughtered. Coxinga expelled the Dutch from the island of Formosa, which flourished for a time as an independent kingdom; but after Coxinga's death his son submitted to the Manchus, and that large island was annexed to the Chinese Empire.

**The
Chinese
Pirate
Coxinga.**

The Manchu Tartar conquest of China was not yet complete, as resistance was kept up against the Manchus in different portions of the

**Manchu
Conquest
of China
Com-
pleted.**

Celestial Empire. The Chinese nobility imagined that they should find the Manchus mere auxiliaries who would aid them in placing a native Chinaman upon the Chinese throne, but these allies regarded the Chinese Empire as the just reward of their trouble. Under these circumstances, submission to them was difficult. Competitors arose in the various provinces of China against Shun-chi, the Manchu Emperor, and hostilities were carried on obstinately both by sea and land; but the vigor of the Tartars, stimulated by the inestimable value of the prize within their grasp, was crowned with complete success.

**Shun-
chi's
Good
Rule.**

Shun-chi was a mere youth when he ascended the throne of China; and his education was conducted by Adam Schall, a German Jesuit, who afterward was made Prime Minister of China by Shun-chi. Shun-chi acquitted himself with great address in his new station. He showed a marked deference to the ancient and fixed laws and customs of China. He conferred the offices of state upon such native Chinese as were found qualified for them, and he adhered to this principle in the disposal of the most exalted dignities. He evidently sought the public welfare rather than the extension of his own power. He encouraged learning and himself acquired some proficiency in several sciences.

**Russian
Trade.**

In 1653 the Dutch again endeavored to open a trade with China, but again were refused admittance. Permission, however, was granted to the Russians to trade with the northern parts of the Chinese Empire. In consequence of misconduct and affliction in his domestic relations, the Emperor Shun-chi became melancholy, and died in 1662.

**Shun-
chi's
Death.**

**Kang-hi,
A. D.
1662-
1722.**

KANG-HI, the son and successor of Shun-chi, reigned sixty years, A. D. 1662-1722, and was, next to Kublai Khan, the greatest sovereign that ever reigned over China. Under him the whole of the Celestial Empire was brought under subjection to the Manchu, or Ta-tsing dynasty; and the Empire, which had been distracted by repeated rebellions, impoverished by long and ruinous wars and oppressed by vicious administration, was restored to order and prosperity.

**Kang-hi's
Good
Rule.**

Kang-hi was both a great statesman and a great general. His chief counselors were two Frenchmen, Bouvet and Gerbillon, to whom he was indebted for much of the success which attended his efforts in governing China. He introduced wise reforms into the financial administration of the Chinese Empire and caused the Empire to be surveyed and a map of it to be made by European engineers. He was very anxious to make his subjects acquainted with the arts and sciences of Europe. He established institutions of learning and in every way vastly promoted science and literature. He showed great favor to the Jesuit missionaries who came to his court, and he profited so much by their instructions that he wrote a treatise on geometry; but all his efforts to give a new turn to Chinese literature were frustrated by the native Chinese

scholars and literary men, who refused to abandon the tracks of their ancestors, and the consequence was that nothing new was produced.

At one time Kang-hi issued a severe decree against the Catholic converts among his subjects, demolishing all their churches; and only the influence of a Jesuit at the Chinese court prevented the destruction of the whole city of Ma-kau, but afterward this Jesuit was imprisoned with others and loaded with irons.

His Persecution of His Catholic Subjects.

As we have seen, the long reign of the Chinese Emperor Kang-hi extended into the eighteenth century. Kang-hi was unhappy in his domestic relations on account of the conduct of his two sons, who rebelled against their father and successively were banished from China.

His Unhappy Domestic Relations.

Kang-hi enlarged the Celestial Empire by the conquest and annexation of the island of Formosa and the Kingdom of Thibet, the latter near the close of his reign. In 1720 he received the congratulations of his whole Empire upon the signal Chinese victory over the Eleuts, or Thibetans, who had ravaged China for several years—a victory which made Thibet a dependency of the Chinese Empire.

Conquest of Formosa and Thibet.

In November, 1720, the illustrious Czar Peter the Great of Russia visited Peking, with a splendid retinue in European costume, and was received at the Chinese court with all due respect; but he failed to secure the adoption of measures for the establishment of free intercourse between the Chinese and Russian Empires, which had been the object of his visit.

Czar Peter the Great's Visit.

Kang-hi died December 20, 1722, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, after a reign of sixty years; just before his death having declared his fourth son YUNG-CHING his successor. Yung-ching did not pursue his illustrious father's enlightened policy. The haughty conduct of the Jesuit missionaries in China aroused the new Emperor's suspicions; and he broke up their schools, imposed many restrictions upon them and finally banished them from China, retaining at court only a few with whose services he could not dispense. The native Christians were then persecuted, not excepting those of the imperial family. It must be confessed that the intriguing spirit of the Jesuits had given Yung-ching some reasonable grounds for alarm, and that their extravagant assertions of papal supremacy might have infused suspicion of their designing to render the Emperor of China dependent upon the Pope of Rome.

Yung-ching, A. D. 1722-1736.

His Persecution of the Jesuits and His Catholic Subjects.

In other respects Yung-ching was a good sovereign, assiduous and indefatigable in the discharge of his duties, steady and resolute in his disposition, endowed with a degree of eloquence and address, and attentive in answering the petitions which were addressed to him. He himself governed entirely, and no monarch ever was more absolute in his rule or more dreaded by his subjects. By this unlimited authority he

His Good Rule.

was enabled to enforce a great many excellent laws and regulations, in the framing of which he had spent entire days and nights with the most unrelenting industry and perseverance. The most certain method of gaining his favor was by presenting him with some scheme tending to the public welfare or to the relief of his subjects in times of famine and pestilence—in the execution of which he spared no pains, if the measure seemed practicable. He preserved peace during his reign, and by his prudent precautions he averted the horrors of those famines and pestilences that periodically devastated China.

Great Earthquake at Peking.

The city of Peking was almost destroyed by an earthquake, November 13, 1731—the severest earthquake that ever had been felt in China, and in which four hundred thousand persons are said to have perished. The first shocks were so sudden and so violent that a hundred thousand of the inhabitants of the Chinese capital were buried in the ruins of their houses. Three hundred thousand people perished in the surrounding country, and entire villages were laid prostrate. The Emperor Yung-ching was affected deeply by the great calamity; and he ordered an account to be taken of the families that had suffered by it, with an estimate of the damage it had occasioned, while he himself advanced considerable sums for the relief of his suffering subjects.

Kien-lung, A. D. 1736-1796.

Yung-ching died in 1736 and was succeeded on the Chinese throne by his illegitimate son KIEN-LUNG, who, upon his accession, made a vow that if, like his grandfather Kang-hi, he were permitted to reign sixty years he then would abdicate his throne. In the estimation of Europe, Kien-lung was the greatest of the sovereigns of the half-civilized nations during the last half of the eighteenth century.

His Vow.

Conquest of Central Asia.

Kien-lung's long reign was spent almost entirely in wars with the barbarous nations on the entire western frontier of China. These wars were mainly a series of ruthless massacres. The Chinese conquered the greater part of Central Asia. The Emperor Kien-lung always thought that he had a just cause when he massacred whole tribes. After the defeat and massacre of the Kalmuck Tartars, he erected a stone tablet at Elee with the following inscription: "The tree which Heaven plants, though man may fell it, cannot be uprooted. The tree which Heaven fells, though man may replant it, will never grow."

Stone Tablet at Elee.

Persecution of the Chinese Christians.

To his own subjects Kien-lung was on the whole a just and good sovereign; but he inherited his father's dislike of the Christians, and for a time he cruelly persecuted them, accusing them of treasonable designs without the least shadow of reason. The relentless fury which he thus displayed was seconded eagerly by the mandarins, who had been jealous of the superior intelligence of the Jesuit missionaries, who had come as the apostles of a proselyting propaganda for the diffusion of Roman Catholic Christianity in China.

Kien-lung's fame extended to Europe; and missions from England, Holland and Russia were sent to his court. It was in 1793 that the famous British embassy under Lord Macartney arrived in China with the design of establishing commercial intercourse between Great Britain and China. It was in 1795 that the Dutch embassy under Titsing appeared in China. These embassies were not productive of the good results expected therefrom. The Chinese believed themselves the only enlightened nation in the world and claimed homage from all others as barbarians. The Emperor Kien-lung himself seems to have been free from these prejudices; but all his officers of state were opposed to an increase of foreign intercourse, which they feared would be fatal to their privileges. Kien-lung therefore pursued the narrow-minded, illiberal policy of his predecessors; and he sternly refused to permit the European powers to open commercial relations with China, making a single exception in favor of Russia, which country carried on considerable commerce with Mongolia and Manchuria, the Tartar provinces of the Celestial Empire.

British and Dutch Embassies in China.

Kien-lung's Illiberal Foreign Policy.

Kien-lung's expressed desire to live to reign sixty years was granted; and, in accordance with the vow which he had made at the time of his accession, in 1736, he abdicated the Chinese throne in 1796, appointing his fifth son, KIA-KING, his successor. Kien-lung died February 11, 1799. Kia-king's twenty-four years' reign, A. D. 1796-1820, was the first Chinese reign in the nineteenth century. He was a cruel and lustful tyrant, whose oppressions at length caused a rebellion of his subjects, which he was unable to suppress. Like his predecessors, Kia-king pursued the traditional Chinese policy in guarding against the admission of foreigners into the Celestial Empire. During his reign the Bible was translated into the Chinese language by Mr. Morrison, an English Protestant missionary, A. D. 1807. Mr. Morrison and Mr. Milne, another English missionary, founded the Anglo-Chinese College at Malacca.

Kien-lung's Abdication.

Kia-king, A. D. 1796-1820.

Rebellion.

Bible in Chinese

Upon Kia-king's death, in 1820, his second son, TAOU-KWANG, ascended the Chinese throne. Taou-kwang was chosen because he had saved his father's life during the insurrection of 1813. He is the first Chinese sovereign whose name is connected with English and American history. Soon after his accession the Tartar tribes in the remote western dependency of Little Bucharria revolted, and they were subdued only after the most shocking barbarities had been committed. Soon afterward a more formidable rebellion of the mountain tribe of the Meaou-tse broke out; and this rebellion was suppressed by the government only after a struggle of six years, mainly by the bribery of the revolted chiefs. An insurrection of the Tartars of Mongolia occurred in 1826.

Taou-kwang, A. D. 1820-1850.

Rebellions of the Tartars and the Meaou-tse.

**Com-
mercial
Inter-
course
with
Great
Britain.**

The commercial intercourse between China and Great Britain was carried on entirely by the English East India Company until the charter of that powerful corporation expired in 1833, when the British government sent Lord Napier to superintend the English trade with China. As Lord Napier was refused permission to communicate with the Chinese viceroy at Canton on terms of equality, he attempted to force his way to Canton; but after a spirited engagement at the Bogue forts, September 11, 1834, he withdrew to Macao, where he died a month afterward. Thereafter for several years the trade between the Chinese and the British merchants was carried on without the superintendence of the British officials. One of the principal articles of this traffic was opium, of which large quantities were sold annually in China by British merchants.

**Opium
Traffic.**

The Chinese government at first tolerated this traffic; but, at length, becoming alarmed by the terrible evils which the use of opium was producing among the Chinese people, it sought to put an end to so injurious a traffic. In the fall of 1837 Captain Elliott, the British agent at Canton, was ordered by the Chinese government to send away the opium ships and to discontinue the harmful traffic. This demand was disregarded, and the trade continued. Early in 1839 the Chinese viceroy Lin, by the orders of the imperial government at Peking, seized and destroyed all the opium then at Canton, valued at ten million dollars. Thereupon an illicit traffic in opium sprang up, which was resented by the Chinese government, which declared all commercial intercourse with Great Britain at an end, thus bringing on the "Opium War," which has been alluded to in a preceding volume of this work. The British captured the island of Chusan and took the Bogue forts by storm.

**China's
Opium
War
with
Great
Britain.**

The capture of Canton in 1841 led to a suspension of hostilities, and that city was ransomed by the Chinese by the payment of six million dollars; but the war was renewed, and the great cities of Amoy, Ningpo and Chin-kiang-foo were taken by the British. By the Treaty of Nankin, August 29, 1842, China was required to pay a war indemnity of twenty-one million dollars; to cede the island of Hong Kong to Great Britain; to open five of her principal ports—Canton, Amoy, Ningpo, Shanghai and Foo Chow—to the commerce of the world, and to allow European consuls to have official residences therein.

**Capture
of
Chinese
Cities.**

**Treaty of
Nankin.**

**Other
Treaties.**

In 1842 Caleb Cushing arrived in China as an envoy from the United States government; and two years later he negotiated a treaty between China and the United States, July 3, 1844. A treaty between China and France was signed October 23, 1844.

**China's
New Era.**

These treaties with the Western nations broke down the barriers of Chinese exclusiveness and opened a new era in the history of the

Celestial Empire by bringing China into more intimate commercial relation with Christendom.

In 1846 and 1847 there were anti-foreign outbreaks in China. In 1846 riots broke out at Canton, caused by a superstitious belief that a weather-vane on the top of the flagstaff over the American consulate interfered with the spirits of the air. A Chinaman was shot during the riots. The British interfered on behalf of the threatened Americans. The Emperor Taou-kwang allayed the excited passions of the mob by a conciliatory declaration that the Christian religion could be commended as a faith for inculcating the principles of virtue. He also sent Ke-Ying as a special commissioner to regulate amicably the commerce of the foreign merchants at Canton.

Anti-American Riots at Canton.

In March, 1847, riots again occurred at Canton, when a small English hunting and fishing party violated the agreement confining them to the foreign concessions at Canton, the party being stoned by a Chinese mob. Sir John Davis denounced this riot as an international outrage; and, regardless of the accepted treaty stipulations, he declared: "I will exact and acquire from the Chinese government the guarantee that British subjects shall be as free from molestation and insult in China as they would be in England." On April 1, 1847, all the available British forces at Hong Kong were summoned to Canton. Three steamships, conveying two regiments of British troops, convoyed by a British man-of-war, attacked and recaptured the Bogue forts, without any resistance on the part of the Chinese garrison, who acted under orders from Ke-Ying. A British landing force seized the batteries and spiked all the cannon. The forts opposite Canton were occupied without opposition, and Canton was at the mercy of the British. Ke-Ying accepted the British ultimatum that Canton be opened to Englishmen two years later. The Chinese Emperor accepted the result under protest.

Anti-English Riots at Canton.

The Emperor Taou-kwang died February 24, 1850, and was succeeded by his son HIEN-FUNG. During the same year a formidable rebellion headed by Tae-ping Wang broke out in the southern provinces of China. The rebels were at first successful and overran a considerable portion of Southern China. This rebellion continued fourteen years. In 1857 the Mohammedans of Yunnan, the most south-western province of China, rose in rebellion; and for some time they were successful. This revolt lasted sixteen years.

Hien-fung, A. D. 1850-1862.

Tae-ping Wang and Yunnan Rebellions.

The Chinese government never intended to observe its treaties with the Christian powers in good faith, and its treatment of the foreigners within its dominions always was marked by deceit and ill-concealed hostility. This feeling caused constant disputes between the Chinese authorities and the foreign consuls and merchants. Matters were

China's Deceit.

China's War with Great Britain and France. brought to a crisis in October, 1856, by the seizure of the *Arrow*, a British vessel built in China, by the Chinese officials. This act led to a desultory war of several years between China and Great Britain, in which the Chinese generally were successful. France, having suffered the same wrongs at the hands of the Chinese, made common cause with Great Britain. These two European powers determined to compel China to a settlement, sending a combined expedition against China in 1857. The Anglo-French fleet bombarded Canton, December 28, 1857; and the next day the British and French land forces, numbering six thousand men, entered the city. The Chinese viceroy, Yeh, was taken prisoner; but the Chinese government sought to offset this reverse by degrading Yeh and appointing his successor.

Capture of Canton. Russia and the United States now united with Great Britain and France in seeking to compel China to negotiate more liberal treaties with the Western powers. As the action of the Chinese government was unsatisfactory, the allied forces assailed and took the Taku forts, at the mouth of the Peiho, and advanced to Tien-tsin, fifty miles above the mouth of that river. Thereupon the Chinese government yielded and at once concluded treaties with Great Britain, France, Russia and the United States, stipulating for the residence of foreign Ministers at Peking; for the opening of several additional ports to foreign commerce; for the free navigation of the river Yangtse-kiang, and for the settlement of the transit-dues question. China paid to Great Britain an indemnity of five and a half million dollars and paid a smaller sum to France.

China's Evasion. As usual, China sought to evade this treaty, endeavoring to prevent the foreign Ministers from reaching Peking by prescribing a most unusual route for them and imposing various vexatious delays upon them. Thereupon the British Minister ordered the British fleet under Admiral Hope to force the passage of the Peiho river. That naval commander attempted to execute the orders of the Minister, but was repulsed with heavy loss by the Taku forts.

British Fleet Repulsed. The British and French Ministers then retired to Shanghai to await instructions from their respective governments. The United States Minister, Mr. Ward, decided to accept the Chinese conditions; and, after undergoing many inconveniences and indignities, he at length arrived at Peking; but, as he was granted an interview with the Chinese Emperor only on conditions degrading to himself and his country, he returned in disgust to Shanghai, where he joined the British and French Ministers.

Action of the Foreign Envoys. Great Britain and France resented China's bad faith by renewing the war with the Celestial Empire, and a combined British and French expedition proceeded against Peking. The allies took the Taku forts

Capture of Tien-tsin and Peking.

August 21, 1860, and occupied Tien-tsin three days later. The Chinese authorities sought to check the advance of the allies by negotiation; but the allies, understanding the Chinese design, pushed on to the Chinese capital. The allies reached Peking on October 6, 1860, plundered and burned the Emperor's summer palace and obtained possession on one of the gates of the city on October 13, 1860. Thereupon the Chinese government yielded and at once renewed and ratified its treaties with Great Britain and France. The allies then retired from Peking, and China ever since has observed her treaties with the Western powers in good faith. In 1859 China ceded a large part of the valley of the Amour river, embracing much of Manchuria, to Russia.

Treaty of
Tien-tsin.

The Emperor Hien-fung died in 1862, and was succeeded by his son YUNG-CHI. After great bloodshed, the gigantic rebellion of Tae-ping Wang finally was suppressed in 1864, and the imperial authority was reestablished in the revolted districts of Southern China. The Mohammedan rebellion in the south-western province of Yunnan was quelled in 1873, in the spring of which year the Chinese imperial forces captured the city of Tali-foo, the capital of the province of Yunnan, after a vigorous siege. Upon entering the conquered city the imperial army massacred thirty thousand of their captives. The Mohammedan Sultan, Suleiman, poisoned himself rather than be taken prisoner by his victorious enemies. In 1862 a second Mohammedan rebellion broke out in the north-western provinces of China, but it was crushed in 1873.

Yung-chi,
A. D.
1862-
1875.

Three
Great
Rebellions
Suppressed.

In 1864 the provinces of Soongaria and Kashgar achieved their independence under the able and powerful Yakooob Khan, who maintained an independent government until his death in 1877, and who was one of the greatest chieftains of Central Asia in modern times.

Yakooob
Khan's
Revolt.

In 1868 a Chinese embassy headed by Anson Burlingame, formerly United States Minister to China, visited the United States and the various European powers and entered into new treaties with all those powers. Mr. Burlingame died at St. Petersburg in 1869, during his mission to Russia as the head of this Chinese embassy.

Burlingame
Embassy.

In 1870 the Chinese attacked the French at Tien-tsin and massacred the consul, the vice-consul, the interpreter of the French legation at Peking and his wife, a Catholic priest, nine Sisters of Charity and some others. The French consulate, the cathedral and the missionary hospital were destroyed by the Chinese mob. The Chinese government severely punished the outrage and made an apology to France.

Anti-
French
Riots.

In 1871 China became involved in a dispute with Russia and was obliged to cede to that European power the district of Kulja and the entire basin of the Elee, a region comprising about six hundred thousand square miles and containing about two million inhabitants.

China's
Cession
to
Russia.

Kwang-su, since A. D. 1875. The Emperor Yung-chi, who had become of age only in 1873, died in 1875 and was succeeded by his son KWANG-SU, who was a mere child. The first railway in China—from Shanghai to Wu-Sung, a distance of eleven miles—was opened June 30, 1876. This road was built by an

China's First Railroad. English company and at first was regarded with hostility by the Chinese, so that it seemed probable at one time that the Chinese government would cause the tracks to be torn up; but the vigorous protestations of the British Minister obliged China to remain faithful to her obligations and to respect the rights of the owners of the road. The hostility of the Chinese changed to delight as soon as the trains commenced running, and they loudly praised this new means of locomotion.

China's Recovery of Kashgar. For twelve years the Chinese had been engaged in a struggle for the recovery of Kashgar, which had gained its independence under Yakoob Khan in 1864; but they were able to recover their lost province only after the death of Yakoob Khan, in 1877.

China's War with France. The French invasion and conquest of Tonquin during France's war with Anam in 1883 brought on a war between France and China in 1884, as the Chinese government claimed a suzerainty over Tonquin. The French navy bombarded Foo Chow in August, 1884, and the French armies gained some victories over the Chinese forces in Tonquin; but the great Chinese victory at Langson, in the spring of 1885, led to a treaty of peace by which France was obliged to relinquish her claim for indemnity from China, while China recognized France's suzerainty over Tonquin.

Neighboring Empires of Siam, Anam and Burmah. Farther India, or India beyond the Ganges, has been the seat of several empires. Of these Siam is very ancient, but Anam and Burmah rose to importance only in the eighteenth century. Pegu was an ancient kingdom of Farther India which was conquered about 1755 by Alompra, the victorious founder of the Empire of Burmah, who established the complete independence of Burmah, subdued the small neighboring kingdoms, invaded Siam, and, after a series of victories, besieged the Siamese capital. Only Alompra's sudden illness and death in 1760 prevented his entire subjugation of Siam. The Burmese army at once evacuated Siam, which thus remained independent. In 1767 a Chinese army invaded Burmah and approached its capital, but was routed with great slaughter in a pitched battle. The Chinese failed in another invasion of Burmah some years afterward. Several subsequent wars between Siam and Burmah resulted in the extension of Burmese territory.

British Conquest of Burmah. Burmah's three wars with Great Britain resulted in the conquest and extinction of the Burman Empire as an independent power. In the first of these wars the British conquered and annexed a large slice of Burmese territory in 1826. In the second war the British conquered

and annexed another large portion of Burmese territory in 1852. In the third war the British subdued the remainder of the Burman Empire, and that once-powerful state of Farther India ceased to exist as an independent nation by annexation to British India in 1885.

In 1858 the Empire of Anam became involved in a war with France and Spain, and the French conquered and annexed a large part of Anamese territory in 1862. Another war between France and Anam begun in 1883 ended in the conquest of Tonquin and Cochin China in 1885, and the whole of Anam since has been under the sovereignty of the French Republic, under the name of French Indo-China. In 1893 France forced Siam to cede all her territory east of the Mekong river to French Indo-China.

French
Conquest
of Anam.

SECTION II.—ANCIENT, MEDIÆVAL AND MODERN
JAPAN (B. C. 660—A. D. 1894).

THE early history of Japan is purely fabulous. The islands of Yezo and Hondo were occupied by an indigenous savage race, called Ainōs. The islands of Shikoku and Kiushiu were inhabited by mixed races from various portions of Southern Asia. The Japanese legends state that when the divine ancestors of the Japanese imperial family came to the southern islands they found those islands thus peopled. These and their descendants taught the people the simple arts of civilization and conquered the savage inhabitants of the two great northern islands.

Japan's
Early
History.

The authentic history of Japan begins with JIMMU TENNO, the first *Mikado*, or Emperor, about B. C. 660. This great personage established his power over the southern islands about that time and subdued the Ainōs of the northern islands, whereupon he ascended the throne of Japan. He was a good and wise ruler as well as a great warrior. He established his capital near Kioto and gave his subjects a code of laws and a strong, settled government. He exerted himself earnestly to promote the civilization of his dominions and was esteemed highly by his subjects. His descendants occupied the Japanese throne for many centuries, bearing the title of Mikado and claiming to reign by divine right, as their illustrious ancestor was considered the fifth in descent from the sun-goddess. The anniversary of Jimmu Tenno's accession to the Japanese throne still is celebrated in Japan as a national holiday.

Jimmu
Tenno,
the First
Mikado.

Under Jimmu Tenno's descendants Japan steadily advanced in civilization and prosperity. We are told that twelve Mikados reached the age of a hundred years. One of them is said to have reigned one hundred and one years. The reigns of the first seventeen are said to

His Suc-
cessors.

have averaged over sixty-one years. From the seventeenth to the thirty-first the average reign is little over twelve years.

**Sujin, the
Civilizer.**

In B. C. 97 began the reign of the tenth Mikado, **SUJIN THE CIVILIZER**, who labored to promote the prosperity of his subjects, improved the Japanese system of irrigation and founded a new military system.

Keiko.

The twelfth Mikado was **KEIKO**, whose son Yamato-Daké extended the Empire by conquering the Kwanton and was a great legendary hero.

**Jingu-
Kogu.**

In A. D. 203 the Empress-Regent **JINGU-KOGO** subdued Korea. Her son and successor **OJIN** was a great warrior. He was deified after his death and is now worshiped as the Japanese god of war.

Ojin.

After the Japanese conquest of Korea there was a large Korean migration to Japan, and the Korean immigrants introduced Buddhism into the Empire. This faith spread silently among the Japanese; and in A. D. 552 a company of doctors, diviners, astronomers and mathematicians came from Korea to live at the Japanese court, bringing a band of Buddhist missionaries with them. This Korean immigration introduced the civilization of continental Asia into Japan and brought with it art, science, letters, literature and the Buddhist religion, all of which hitherto had been unknown in the Japanese Empire; thus changing the character and history of Japan forever.

**Korean
Migration
and Bud-
dhism.**

The Mikado and his subjects endeavored to suppress Buddhism; but that religion grew in spite of all opposition, and in A. D. 593 the Empress **SUIKO** granted perfect toleration, since which time Buddhism has grown with unceasing rapidity. At present it is one of the national religions of Japan, the other being Shintoism. The Empress **Suiko** was one of the great sovereigns of Japan. She caused written codes of laws to be framed, constituted a new and rigid system of official grades, caused the Empire to be resurveyed and fixed the boundaries of its provinces more accurately.

**Triumph
of Bud-
dhism.**

For the next five centuries the Mikado's power declined, and Japan was distracted by the contentions of rival families. The Mikado became a mere puppet of the great nobles, who increased their own power. The Mikado was allowed one wife and twelve concubines, so as to insure offspring; and the succession depended upon the Mikado's arbitrary will. This was the cause of the centuries of civil war that followed. To end this anarchy and strife, the Mikado finally established the office of *Shogun* and assigned to him the civil power of the realm.

**Empress
Suiko.**

**Dissen-
sions and
Civil
Wars.**

Yoritomo, the first Shogun, was a great Japanese hero and was the son of a Minamoto noble by a peasant family. He quickly established his power over the whole Empire and soon reduced all the rebellious nobles to submission. He usurped all the powers of the government, leaving to the Mikado his hereditary rank, dignity and character, A. D. 1184. Thenceforth until the Japanese revolution of 1868 the

**Office of
Shogun.**

**Yoritomo,
the First
Shogun.**

Shogun was the real ruler of Japan, while the Mikado was the true source of power. The office of Shogun was made hereditary in Yoritomo's family, but eventually passed to other families. Yoritomo established his capital at Kamakura, about thirty-five miles from Yeddo, and set up a magnificent court. Kioto remained the Mikado's capital. Yoritomo died A. D. 1199, after a reign of fifteen years.

Dual Government.

The Hojo family then held the Shogunate until 1333 and maintained order and tranquillity in Japan for over a century. They encouraged literature, science and art. During their rule the resources of Japan were developed, and some branches of useful handicraft and the fine arts attained a perfection in that country never since surpassed. Uneki, the celebrated image carver, sculptor and architect, flourished during that period; as did also the lacquer artists, who are the "old masters" in that branch of art. The military spirit of the Japanese people was kept alive, and tactics were improved, while the civil administration was simplified. Splendid temples were erected, and the glory and prestige of this isolated Far Eastern empire were maintained at a high state.

The Hojo Family.

Japan's Progress in Civilization.

In 1274 Kublai Khan, the great Mongol conqueror of China, sent an expedition against Japan; but these Tartar invaders were routed. In 1281 Kublai Khan sent a still more formidable fleet and army against Japan, but this armament was destroyed by a storm and by the desperate valor of the Japanese. Since then no foreign power has attempted to invade Japan.

Kublai Khan's Invasions.

In 1333 the Mikado cast off the Shogun's rule and asserted his power; but in 1336 he again was forced to submit to his great vassal, and the dual government was restored. From 1336 to 1573 Japan was governed by thirteen Shoguns of the Ashikaga family. Nobunaga, who became Shogun in 1558, attempted to reduce the whole Empire to submission to him, but finally was killed by an officer whom he had offended. He persecuted the Buddhists, burned their temples and monasteries and caused thousands of them to be massacred. To counteract their influence, he showed great favor to the Jesuits, who were then in the midst of their labors in Japan. After his death Japan was torn by dissensions for a year until Hidéyoshi defeated his rivals, made himself Shogun and forced the Mikado to confirm him permanently in his office.

Ashikaga Family of Shoguns.

Nobunaga.

Persecution of Buddhists.

Hidéyoshi.

Hydélyoshi was a great warrior and a great statesman and framed a useful code of laws, called the *Laws of Taiko*. He contemplated the conquest of China and sent an army of one hundred and sixty thousand men into Korea in 1592. The Koreans at once submitted; but Hydélyoshi's death, September 15, 1598, obliged the expedition to return to Japan immediately.

Laws of Taiko.

Invasion of Korea.

**Toku-
gawa
Iyeyasu
as
Shogun.**

**His
Great
Rule.**

After a struggle of a few years, the great Tokugawa Iyeyasu deprived Hidéyoshi's infant son of the Shogunate and made himself Shogun, A. D. 1603. His family held the Shogunate until 1867, and during the period of their rule Japan was blessed with profound peace. Yeddo hitherto had been a small town; but Iyeyasu made it his capital, and in a few years it became a populous and magnificent city. He perfected the system of dual government; and, although he did not dare to depose the Mikado and professed to rule in his name and for his benefit, he and his successors firmly wielded the real powers of the Empire. Under Iyeyasu the feudal system of Japan was brought to perfection, and the great nobles were made directly responsible to the Shogun.

**Tyranny
of the
Shoguns.**

Under Iyeyasu and his successors a perfect tyranny had full sway in Japan. The Chinese classics were to constitute the limit of learning. The Buddhist hierarchy was given the encouragement of government example and patronage to crush the intellect of the Japanese masses. Foreign ideas were interdicted. Edicts ordered the destruction of all boats built upon a foreign model and forbade the building of vessels of any size or shape superior to that of a junk. Belief in Christianity was punished with death, as was also traveling abroad or studying foreign languages or introducing foreign customs. People were required to seal their upper windows and to bow their faces to the earth before the august train of the Shogun. The populace were required even to do obeisance with their faces in the dust before his tea jars and cooking pots. The study of ancient history was forbidden to the lower classes and discouraged among the higher, because it would expose the origin of the Shogunate. The life-blood of many a master spirit was drained by a rigid censorship; while the preparation of false and garbled histories, which extolled the reigning Shogunate or which glorified the dual system of government as the best and only one for Japan, was encouraged. A large army of spies was kept in the pay of the government. The eight classes of the Japanese people were kept contented and happy. A fertile soil and genial climate gave food in abundance. As there was no commerce, there was no vast wealth to be accumulated. The Samurai alone possessed all learning and education and also were given the sword and privilege. The daimios were kept poor, and no two of them were permitted to meet in private or to visit each other without spies.

**Marco
Polo,
Dutch
and Por-
tuguese
Traders
and the
Jesuits.**

In the meantime Christianity had been introduced into Japan. Japan was first made known to Europeans in the thirteenth century by Marco Polo, the great Venetian traveler, during his residence in China. This knowledge was extended subsequently by Portuguese and Dutch traders, during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The Portu-

guese first visited the country in 1542. Jesuit missionaries soon followed; and in 1549 St. Francis Xavier, "the Apostle of the Indies," came to Japan. These Jesuit missionaries were treated kindly at first; and they made many converts to Christianity, even among the most powerful nobles.

In 1582 these Japanese Christians sent an embassy to the Pope to assure him of their submission to the Roman Catholic Church. In 1598 the Dutch opened commercial intercourse with Japan; and in 1609 they were granted the port of Hirado, where they built a factory or trading post. They were granted important privileges. We have seen that Nobunaga favored the Portuguese and the Jesuits for the purpose of destroying Buddhism. Hidéyoshi persecuted the native Christians because they opposed his tyranny, and he finally banished the Portuguese and the Jesuit missionaries on account of their insolent defiance of his government.

This edict was renewed in 1596, and the next year twenty-three priests were massacred at Nagasaki in one day. The native Christians espoused the cause of the Jesuit missionaries; whereupon they were persecuted terribly, their churches and schools being destroyed, while it was declared treason to hold to or teach Christianity. The Portuguese were deprived of their privilege of free access to the Empire and were confined to the island of Deshima at Nagasaki.

In 1622 a terrible massacre of the Christians occurred at Nagasaki, many being sacrificed with horrible tortures. Driven to despair, the surviving native Christians plotted to overthrow the government. This plot was discovered in 1637, whereupon the persecution was renewed with increased severity. The Portuguese were banished from Japan forever, and all natives and Japanese ships were forbidden to leave the country under severe penalties.

After the Portuguese had been thus expelled from Japan their trade and privileges at once were bestowed upon the Dutch, who, being Protestants, were not hated as were the Jesuits and their disciples. In 1640 the native Christians openly rebelled, but finally were reduced to submission; and thirty-one thousand of them were massacred at the capture of their last stronghold. In 1641 the Dutch were forced to abandon their factory at Hirado and to remove to the island of Deshima, whence they were permitted to trade with the Empire under certain rigid conditions; and for the next two centuries they enjoyed a monopoly of the trade with Japan.

After Christianity had been thus stamped out in Japan the Japanese devoted themselves to their old religions. The Shoguns favored Buddhism, while the Mikados supported Shintoism. Thus for two centuries Japan rigidly excluded herself from the rest of the world.

Privileges to Dutch Traders.

Expulsion of Portuguese and Jesuits.

Persecution of Japanese Christians.

Massacre and Renewed Persecution of Christians.

Trade with the Dutch.

Christian Rebellion and Massacre.

Buddhism and Shintoism.

Reaction against the Shoguns. In the meantime a strong reaction had been growing up in Japan against the Shogun's rule. The educated classes of Japan never had ceased to consider the Mikado the only legitimate sovereign of Japan. These persons began to draw nearer to the Mikado as early as the beginning of the eighteenth century and discussed among themselves measures for restoring the Mikado to his lawful position. The second Prince of Mito originated this movement by gathering many scholars about him and having the *History of Japan* prepared under his guidance.

Prince of Mito. This prince died in 1700, but his son and successor took up his work and caused the great history to be completed in 1715. This work immediately became a classic and was read eagerly by all classes. Its main objects were to show that the Mikado was the rightful sovereign of Japan and that the Shogun was a military usurper.

His History of Japan. The *External History of Japan*, the product of twenty years of labor on the part of the great scholar, Rai Sanyo, published in 1827, had the same object in view. The influence of these works was great, and thinking men were convinced that a collision between the partisans of the Mikado and those of the Shogun was inevitable.

External History of Japan. Thinking the time propitious, the Prince of Mito resolved to bring on the struggle in 1840; but his efforts were suppressed promptly by the Shogun, and he was taken prisoner and kept in captivity twelve years. After this failure the southern clans prepared secretly for another effort.

Failure at Revolt. The Japanese having treated the wrecked crews of European and American vessels on the Japanese coasts with great harshness, the United States government sent an expedition under Commodore Matthew C. Perry to Japan in 1852, to negotiate a treaty of commerce and friendship with the Empire of Japan. After delivering the President's letter to the Japanese authorities Commodore Perry sailed for China, but returned to Japan in 1854 and succeeded in negotiating a treaty with the Shogun at Kanagawa, March 31, 1854, by which the ports of Shimoda and Hakodate were opened to foreign commerce and made the places of residence of American consuls.

Commodore Perry's American Expedition to Japan. In September of the same year, 1854, a British squadron under Sir James Stirling entered the harbor of Nagasaki and concluded a treaty with the Shogun, opening the ports of Hakodate and Nagasaki to foreign commerce. The Russians and the Dutch made similar treaties with the Shogun. Mr. Harris, the United States consul, made a still more liberal treaty with the Shogun, June 17, 1857, by which the harbor of Nagasaki was opened to American commerce. In spite of the opposition of the Japanese, Mr. Harris proceeded to Yeddo in 1858 and concluded a third treaty still more favorable to the United States.

His Treaty.

Japan's Commercial Treaties with the Western Nations.

During the same year Lord Elgin, escorted by a British squadron, reached Yeddo and negotiated a treaty with the Shogun by which the ports of Hakodate, Nagasaki and Kanagawa were opened to British commerce after July 1, 1859. Thenceforth until 1874 Japan concluded treaties of friendship with Russia, Holland, Prussia, Portugal, Spain, France, Switzerland, Italy, Austria, Greece, Denmark, Sweden and Norway, the Hawaiian Islands, Peru and China. Commodore Perry's treaty was the beginning of Japan's intercourse with the Western nations—an intercourse which has entirely changed the destiny of that ancient and remote Oriental empire.

The Japanese considered the Shogun's action in negotiating these treaties as another usurpation of the Mikado's power, and his course aroused a strong reaction in favor of the Mikado. The nation resented the Shogun's violation of the traditional policy of non-intercourse with foreigners, and the country resounded with the cry of "Honor the Mikado and expel the barbarian." The Shogun was considered a traitor, and the Mikado's cause was vastly strengthened.

Reaction in Favor of the Mikado.

Upon the Shogun's death, in 1858, his able but unscrupulous Prime Minister, Ii, became regent, and, setting aside the legitimate successor, conferred the Shogunate upon the infant Prince of Kii, but kept the real power in his own hands. He suppressed the opposition to his arbitrary act by imprisoning and executing the leaders of the movement against him. His action in sending an embassy to the United States and Europe in 1859 without consulting the Mikado increased the hatred of the Japanese people toward him; and he was assassinated in the streets of Yeddo, March 23, 1860.

Ii's Usurpation of the Shogunate.

The Mikado's party now rapidly increased in numbers; and the Shogun's followers sought to recover their lost ground by trying to persuade the foreigners to close the ports and leave the country, but failed in this effort. About this time the forces of the Prince of Choshu, or Nogato, by the Mikado's order, fired upon the ships of the United States, Great Britain, France and Holland. These powers punished this act by sending a combined squadron to Shimonoseki and capturing that port after a severe bombardment, A. D. 1864. Japan was obliged to pay an indemnity of three million dollars. This occurrence showed the Japanese the power of the foreigners and made them more careful in their conduct toward them in the future.

War with the United States, Great Britain, France and Holland.

Though the Prince of Choshu had obeyed the Mikado in firing upon the foreign vessels, he had disobeyed the Shogun; and in 1866 the Shogun marched against him to punish him for his disobedience. The Shogun's forces were armed and disciplined in the old Japanese style, while those of the Prince of Choshu were armed with European rifles and artillery and had been disciplined by Dutch officers. A campaign

Civil War between the Shogun and the Mikado.

of three months ended in the Shogun's overwhelming defeat; and he died September 19, 1866, worn out with disease and with mortification at his failure.

**Keiki,
the Last
Shogun.**

His successor, Keiki, was the last Shogun. The Mikado's party grew bolder, and in October, 1867, urged the Mikado to abolish the Shogunate and to resume the government himself. This proposal was sustained so generally by the most powerful princes and nobles of the Empire that Keiki resigned the Shogunate, November 9, 1867.

**The
Mikado's
Revolutionary
Changes.**

The Mikado's party seized the palace on January 3, 1868, drove out the nobles and established a government under which the highest offices were filled by the *kuge*, or court nobles of the imperial family; those of the next order by the *daimios*, or courtiers, and those of the third order by men selected by the Samurai. This gave the whole power of the government of the great Japanese Empire to the Satsuma, Choshu, Tosa and Hizen clans.

**Complete
Restoration
of the
Mikado's
Author-
ity.**

The ex-Shogun was highly displeased with this arrangement and appealed to arms to recover his lost power, but he was defeated in a three days' battle and fled to Yeddo in a United States steamer. Seeing the hopelessness of further resistance, he surrendered to the Mikado's forces, announced his determination never again to oppose the Mikado and retired to private life. The Shogun's submission fully restored the Mikado's authority throughout the Empire as it had existed previous to A. D. 1184 and gave tranquillity to Japan.

**The
Mikado's
New
Foreign
Policy.**

Hitherto the Mikado's party had been the most inveterate enemies of the treaties negotiated by the Shogun with the foreign powers. A few men among them had profoundly studied the subject and had perceived the folly of holding their country isolated from the rest of the world. These men now devoted themselves to promoting the intercourse of Japan with the treaty powers and found this an easy task, as the leaders of the Mikado's party now had become convinced of the vast superiority of the foreign system of warfare over the native. They likewise feared that the foreign powers would force Japan to observe the treaties negotiated with the Shogun and were convinced that the Japanese were not able to make a successful resistance. They therefore invited the representatives of the foreign powers to a conference at Kioto.

**Friendly
Inter-
course
with the
Western
Nations.**

Many of the Japanese court nobles never had seen a foreigner, and when they saw these foreign representatives at the conference they instantly abandoned their prejudices against them. The treaties with the Western powers therefore were renewed cordially, and the foreign powers recognized the Mikado as the only legal sovereign of Japan. The foundations thus were laid for the cordial relations which ever since have existed between Japan and the nations of Christendom. Foreign



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FARMERS' WIVES HEADING BARLEY

Ideas and customs ever since have been adopted gradually by the Japanese, who are great imitators.

Since 1868 the character of Japanese civilization has undergone a total change. The government, the army, the navy and the finances are administered on the European plan. The European dress is rapidly taking the place of the old Japanese costume, and many Japanese young men destined for the public service of their country are sent to the schools and colleges of Europe and the United States to be educated in the learning and civilization of the Christian world. In all these measures the young Mikado MUTSUHITO, who ascended the Japanese throne in 1867, has taken an active part; and he has sought constantly to promote the civilization of his Empire and to render its intercourse with the United States and the European powers more intimate.

European-ization of Japan.

The Mikado Mutsu-hito.

The changes which occurred in the Japanese government since 1868 have been very rapid. In 1871 the Mikado abolished the titles of *kuge* and *daimio*, or court and imperial noble, and replaced them with that of *kuazoku*, or noble families. This decree deprived the great Japanese nobles of their territorial fiefs, which were reclaimed by the crown, thus destroying the feudal system of Japan at one blow. In the same year the Mikado removed his capital from the old sacred city of Kioto to the great city of Yeddo, the name of which was changed to *Tokio*, meaning "Western capital." The Mikado granted to the daimios one-tenth of their former incomes on condition of residing permanently at Tokio.

Abolition of the Feudal System of Japan.

Yeddo, or Tokio, the Capital.

In December, 1871, Japan sent an embassy to Europe and the United States. This embassy visited each of the Western nations in succession and negotiated new treaties of commerce and friendship with them. The embassy returned to Japan in September, 1873.

Japanese Embassy.

In 1874 Japan sent an expedition to the island of Formosa to chastise the natives for their outrages upon Japanese sailors wrecked on their shores. This expedition was successful, but involved Japan in a dispute with China, which claimed Formosa as one of her dependencies. War was threatened, but the firmness of the Japanese ambassadors induced China to enter into a treaty with Japan and to make reparation to that power for her losses.

Japan's Dispute with China in 1874.

In July, 1875, Japan ceded the island of Saghalien to Russia in exchange for the Kurile Islands. In 1876 a long standing quarrel with Korea was settled upon terms favorable to Japan. In the same year Japan took part in the Centennial International Exhibition at Philadelphia, where that Oriental empire gave satisfactory evidence of its success in the new national career upon which it so recently had entered.

Exchange with Russia.

Japan in the Centennial.

Conservative Party.

Rebellion of 1877.

Eminent Japanese.

Japan's Constitution and Transformation.

In the meantime Japan had been making great progress in the adoption of Western civilization, but there still was a conservative party which adhered to the old traditions. In 1877 a formidable rebellion headed by the daimio Saigo broke out at Satsuma and Choshu to check the Europeanizing of Japan, but the rebellion was crushed after desperate fighting. Among great Japanese, Count Saigo, Minister of Marine and Admiral of the Fleet, and Generals Oyama, Kawakami and Kabayama are from Satsuma, while Field-Marshal Yamagata, Count Ito, the Premier, and Count Inouye, the other Chief Minister, are from Choshu.

In February, 1889, Japan adopted a new constitution, giving the Empire two legislative Chambers and a Ministry; thus making it a constitutional monarchy and modeling its government upon that of Great Britain. On account of the wonderful and peaceful progress in recent times by which Japan has turned her back upon the past and taken her place among the most enlightened nations of the world, that Oriental nation has been called the "England of the East."

SECTION III.—THE CHINO-JAPANESE WAR (A. D. 1894-1895).

Chino-Japanese War and Result.

THE old rivalry between Japan, the representative of Western civilization in the Far East, and China, the champion of the old civilization of Fohi and Confucius, broke out into a fierce and bloody war during the summer of 1894—a war which lasted about nine months and which was characterized by uninterrupted victory on the side of Japan, with her forty million people, and the utter humiliation of China, with her four hundred million population.

Collisions of the Mikado with His Parliament.

In the course of time, for many years past the position of the Mikado's government, face to face with an intractable Parliamentary opposition, had been extremely difficult. The lower chamber, or popular branch of the Japanese Parliament, frequently had refused to vote supplies, and the Mikado and his Ministry repeatedly had been obliged to strain their constitutional powers. A particularly acute crisis in December, 1893, and January, 1894, was ended by a dissolution of Parliament; but a general election in April, 1894, left the Mikado and his Cabinet at the mercy of their opponents, who suffered but slight loss in the elections. In this emergency the Mikado and his Ministers resolved to gain popularity and strength by the old device of resorting to foreign war.

In May, 1894, a month after the general elections, public opinion in Japan was excited intensely by the murder of a Korean rebel poli-

tician at Shanghai, China, with Chinese connivance. The murdered Korean rebel's intrigues in his own country had been favored and fostered by Japan. In June, 1894, a month later, rebellion broke out in the Kingdom of Korea; and the Chinese Emperor, as suzerain of the little kingdom, undertook the suppression of the rebellion in his tributary kingdom. About the same time the Japanese Parliament was again dissolved, and the Mikado and his Ministers found themselves with a free hand and a considerable support of public sentiment behind them. In July, 1894, Japan sent troops to Korea, and Japanese warships were in Korean waters. The Korean port of Chemulpo was occupied by a Japanese garrison; and Seoul, the Korean capital, was garrisoned by six thousand Japanese troops. Thus a state of war between the Empires of China and Japan actually existed by the close of July, 1894.

Korean Rebellion against China.

Japan's Aid to Korea.

The Chinese Emperor resolved to sustain his suzerainty over the Kingdom of Korea, which had been tributary to China for several centuries. This Chinese supremacy over Korea always had been a source of rivalry between China and Japan; and in 1874, twenty years before the recent war, a war was threatened between the two great Oriental empires, but finally was averted by diplomacy and by the mediation of the great European powers, which exerted their good offices to prevent the kindling of the flames of conflict in Eastern Asia, and peace was preserved for a score of years longer.

Chino-Japanese Rivalry over Korea.

Early in July, 1894, Japan summoned the King of Korea to relinquish the suzerainty of China, to declare independence of China, to accept Japanese protection and to dismiss the Chinese Resident. Three thousand more Japanese troops were sent to Seoul. Japan then had ten thousand troops in Korea, consisting of infantry, cavalry and artillery. Li Hung Chang sent twenty battalions of Chinese troops by sea to Korea to oppose the Japanese. Russia and Great Britain endeavored to mediate between the two great Oriental powers for the preservation of peace, Russia urging both China and Japan to withdraw their troops from Korea.

Japan's Demands on Korea.

Chinese and Japanese Troops in Korea.

Civil war actually had broken out in Korea about the middle of May, 1894. The rebels against the Korean king had possession of one entire province. Korea had been distracted by insurrections of the Tonghak, a reform party, for three years. In July a number of Christians were massacred.

Civil War in Korea.

Japan continued her warlike preparations. Japanese pickets and detachments were posted along the great northern road from China and held the principal pass, Ping Yang, in force. The Chinese troops remained where they were landed originally, near the seat of the recent Korean rising, sixty miles south of Chemulpo.

The Rival Armies.

**More
Japanese
Demands
on Korea.**

The Japanese Minister now made further demands upon the Korean king, including the reform of civil government, the development of the resources of the country, including railway and telegraph concessions and the employment of Japanese capital in industry, and reform in the military system, providing for internal and external security. The Japanese Minister also required the Korean king to abjure his allegiance to China. The Japanese government refused to withdraw its troops from Korea.

**Korean
Defeat by
Japanese.**

On July 24, 1894, the Korean troops, instigated by the Chinese Resident, attacked the Japanese garrison at the palace of Seoul, but were defeated after spirited fighting. The six thousand Korean troops at Seoul were armed with several Gatling guns. Twelve thousand Chinese troops despatched from China in Chinese transports effected a landing in Korea. Li Hung Chang had thirty thousand troops in his camp at Tien-tsin. The Japanese captured the King of Korea, July 23d.

**Chinese
Troops
in Korea.**

**Chinese
Transport
Sunk by
Japanese
Cruiser.**

On July 25, 1894, the Japanese cruiser *Naniwa* sunk the Chinese transport *Kowshing* with thirteen hundred Chinese soldiers on board, in Korean waters, about forty miles off Chemulpo, thus creating a profound sensation throughout the civilized world. Captain von Hanneken, the commander of the *Kowshing*, escaped miraculously and arrived at Chemulpo, July 28th, in a Korean fishing boat; and one hundred and fifty of the Chinese soldiers on board the *Kowshing* reached a rock, but over a thousand perished in the waters with the sunken vessel. The Japanese vessel continued discharging broadsides into the *Kowshing* and fired upon the Chinese troops struggling in the water. The Chinese vessel fired to the last and went down with her colors flying. Some of the Chinese fired upon their own people, who tried to escape with their lives by swimming, determined that all should die together.

**Japan's
Apology
to Great
Britain.**

The Japanese government, upon being informed that the *Kowshing* was a British vessel chartered by the Chinese government to carry troops, at once spontaneously apologized to the British Charge d'Affaires; and the Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs declared that if, after thorough investigation, the Japanese were found to be in the wrong the Japanese government was prepared to make full reparation.

**Japanese
Victories
over the
Chinese.**

On July 29, 1894, the Japanese under General Oshima gained a decisive victory over twenty-eight hundred Chinese at Chanhon, capturing the Chinese intrenchments; the Chinese losing over five hundred men killed and wounded, and the Japanese only seventy-five. A few days later the Chinese under General Yeh were routed with the loss of five hundred killed and wounded, thus giving the Japanese possession of Seikwan and Asan, or Yashan.

The Emperor of China issued an edict bidding his troops to "rout these pestilent Japanese out of their lairs," and Li Hung Chang declared that China would fight to the bitter end. The Chinese placed an order in Germany for four torpedo-boats, and Chinese agents ordered twenty-five thousand army rifles from New England manufacturers.

China's Preparations.

On August 1, 1894, the Japanese government declared to the foreign ambassadors and Ministers at Tokio that a state of war existed between Japan and China. The Japanese army and navy reserves were called out. The Chinese residents in Japan were fleeing in great numbers. Japan and China issued formal declarations of war against each other.

Japan's Declaration of War.

In the meantime a Chinese army of twenty thousand men marched into Korea from Manchuria. The Japanese attacked and maltreated Chinese residents at Kobe, and the Chinese at Taku openly insulted members of the Japanese embassy returning from Peking. Li Hung Chang sent a personal message to the Japanese Minister regretting that the Chinese soldiery so far forgot themselves. The riotous soldiers were punished. Japanese residents in China were mobbed, but the police tried to protect them.

Riotous Soldiery on Both Sides.

On August 11, 1894, a large Japanese fleet exchanged a few shots with the Chinese forts on the Straits of Pechili. Both China and Japan were sending reinforcements to their armies in Korea. Twenty thousand Japanese were marching on Seoul. On August 17, 1894, the Chinese under General Tio attacked and routed Japanese detachments at Ping Yang and the next day at Chungho. On September 6th a large body of Chinese cavalry were routed by the Japanese, who captured the Chinese intrenchments and a quantity of stores and ammunition; the Chinese retreating to Ping Yang, after losing over four hundred killed and wounded, and the Japanese losing less than one hundred. The Koreans routed two thousand Japanese marching on Seoul, with a loss of twelve hundred men. On September 13th a Japanese column from Pong-San, making a reconnaissance in force, was fired upon by the Chinese forts.

Rival Armies in Korea.

Chinese Victories.

Japanese Victory.

Korean Victory over Japanese.

Field-Marshal Yamagata prepared to reduce Ping Yang; and at dawn on September 15, 1894, the Japanese opened a cannonade upon the Chinese fortifications. In the afternoon the Japanese infantry took part in the fight. The Chinese replied vigorously to the Japanese fire. The firing was renewed at intervals during the night. Before daybreak, Sunday, September 16, 1894, the Japanese renewed their attacks, assailing the Chinese intrenchments in front and rear in three columns, sixty thousand strong. The unsuspecting Chinese were taken utterly unawares and fell into a panic, being completely surrounded by their foes and cut down by hundreds. After half an hour's

Battle of Ping Yang.

fight, this night attack gave the Japanese possession of Ping Yang. Of the twenty thousand Chinamen defending Ping Yang very few escaped death or capture. Whole regiments surrendered after the retreat of a detachment of two thousand panic-stricken Chinese had been cut off. The Chinese loss in killed, wounded and prisoners was seventeen thousand. General Tso Fonk Wai, commander of the Chinese Manchurian army, was wounded mortally and captured. The Chinese Generals Tsa Paok Woi, Wei Jink Woi and Sei Kinlin also were taken prisoners. The Japanese lost over seven hundred killed and wounded. The battle was decisive and the Japanese victory was complete. They captured all the Chinese stores, provisions, arms and ammunition and hundreds of colors. Field-Marshal Yamagata telegraphed the news of his victory to the Mikado at Hiroshima and was congratulated by His Majesty. Field-Marshal Yamagata issued an address to his troops, commending them for their bravery.

Naval
Battle of
the Yalu
River.

On Sunday, September 16, 1894, while the Chinese army was annihilated at Ping Yang, the Chinese fleet of eighteen vessels was attacked at the mouth of the Yalu river, while covering the landing of troops. These troops comprised the Second Chinese Army Corps, consisting entirely of Hunanese. Before the Chinese transports had landed all the troops the Japanese fleet of thirteen ships attacked them. The Chinese battleships *Chih-Yuen* and *King-Yuen* were blown up and sunk by torpedoes, after fighting desperately. The Chinese steel cruisers *Chao-Yung* and *Yang-Wei* were driven ashore and set on fire by Japanese shells and burned. The Chinese warship *Chen-Yuen* and the flagship *Ting-Yuen* were damaged seriously. Three Japanese cruisers *Matusima* and *Yoshino* and the Japanese transport *Saikiomaru* were damaged badly. The fighting was desperate on both sides. The Chinese loss in killed and wounded was about fifteen hundred men. Among the wounded were Admiral Ting and Captain von Hanneken. The Japanese also lost heavily in killed and wounded.

Li Hung
Chang's
Disgrace.

In the meantime the Viceroy Li Hung Chang was disgraced officially by the Chinese Emperor, through the instrumentality of the Tsung-li-Yamen, or Foreign Office of the Celestial Empire, making him responsible for the disasters to the Chinese arms in Korea, thus making him the scapegoat for its blunders.

Formid-
able
Japanese
Invasion
of Korea.

In the meantime thirty-two Japanese transports had arrived at Chemulpo, convoyed thither by the Japanese fleet, bringing seven thousand Japanese troops, three thousand coolies, two thousand pack horses, pontoons and mountain guns. The Japanese government decided to follow up its victories and to prosecute the war with all possible vigor before the opening of winter. A second Japanese army, thirty thousand strong, was mobilized at Hiroshima, under the command of Count

Oyama, the Japanese Minister of War. The national enthusiasm over the recent Japanese victories in Korea was unbounded. The war loan, which was raised entirely in Japan, was subscribed three times over. The Empress, as chief patroness of the Japanese Red Cross Society, personally set the example of preparing lint and bandages for the wounded, in which humane work Her Majesty was supported actively by all the ladies of the Japanese court, whose handiwork was to be distributed between the wounded Japanese and Chinese soldiers without distinction. The Japanese Parliament was convened for an extraordinary session at Hiroshima on October 15, 1894.

**Japanese
Enthu-
siasm.**

The Chinese rapidly fortified the city of Moukden, the capital of the Chinese dependency of Manchuria, where the Chinese Emperor was believed to have had twelve hundred million dollars of treasure, accumulated in the course of two centuries. Thousands of Chinese soldiers were poured into the city to defend it at all hazards against any force which General Kawakami, the generalissimo of the Japanese armies, might send against it. The naval battle in the Yalu river practically annihilated the naval power of China, and, in connection with the land battle of Ping Yang, virtually placed the Celestial Empire at the mercy of the triumphant army and navy of Japan.

**Chinese
Fortifica-
tion of
Moukden.**

**China's
Weak-
ness.**

The remnant of the vanquished Chinese army, in its flight from the disastrous field of Ping Yang, acted the part of bandits and robbers, pillaging and burning villages, destroying farms and burning the stored produce, also massacring the natives who resisted these outrageous acts.

**Chinese
Pillage**

An imperial decree in China appointed Prince Kung, the Emperor's uncle, and the Presidents of the Tsung-li-Yamen and of the Admiralty as a special committee to conduct the military operations. This decree was suggested by Li Hung Chang and was supported vigorously by the Empress-Dowager. The news that the imperial treasure and the dynastic archives at Moukden had been removed to a safer place inland produced a bad effect at Peking.

**China's
Prepara-
tions.**

An imperial decree in China assigned General Sung to the command of the Pei-Yang Army Corps in Manchuria and also to the command of the Manchu militia, except the Kirin division, which was left under the command of the Tartar general. The other Chinese generals were ordered to obey General Sung on pain of death.

**The
Chinese
General
Sung.**

The Chinese Emperor and his Councilors were in a state of alternate terror and indignation at the possibility of a Japanese invasion. The Emperor declared that the recent defeats could have been caused by incompetence and corruption only, and the enemies of Li Hung Chang sedulously encouraged this mood of the Emperor. The disorganization of the Chinese military affairs was appalling, and the corruption

**Chaos,
Corrup-
tion and
Dismay
in China**

of the Chinese officials was astounding. There was no clothing and only scanty food for the Chinese troops. Guns, rifles and ammunition which had been bought and paid for could neither be found nor traced. Chaos and terror prevailed everywhere. The great Chinese camp between Tien-tsin and Taku was filled with raw levies. Disorders were rampant, and the daily beheadings of delinquents did not produce any improvement in discipline. There were no rifles or muskets for these troops.

Anti-
Foreign
Feeling
in China.

No foreigners ventured near the Chinese camp unless they were guarded sufficiently. Most Europeans went to the coast towns, where they were under the protection of the warships of their respective nations. Foreigners were menaced with violence constantly, and the authorities were unable to keep the mobs in check. All the European women and children in Hankow were sent to Shanghai for safety. The European men, traders and officials alike, formed a volunteer corps to defend their lives and property. The native hostility to foreigners was growing stronger daily. Many Chinese merchants also migrated to the coast towns, as they felt more secure near foreigners than with their own countrymen. The Viceroy feared that the mobs would break out into armed rebellion; and fortifications were thrown up at Woo-chang, opposite Hankow, in anticipation of a serious attack upon the city. The European powers acted in accord for the protection of their subjects in China. Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Russia and the United States reinforced their squadrons in Chinese waters.

Cheng's
Disgrace.

Cheng, nephew of Li Hung Chang and the chief magistrate of Tien-tsin, was disgraced officially after an investigation conducted by Li Hung Chang himself, revealing the fact that Cheng had bought three hundred thousand obsolete rifles from German agents for two taels each, while he charged the imperial treasury nine taels each for them. The cartridges were of inferior quality and of various patterns, and Cheng made a large profit from them also. Li Hung Chang sent for his nephew, who did not deny his guilt. Li Hung Chang ended a strong interview by slapping his nephew's face, and Cheng was removed from his position at once.

China's
Defensive
Measures.

Wang Seng Tsao, the late Chinese Minister to Japan, was reprimanded by his government for his ignorance of the Japanese designs against Korea. The Chinese Emperor now took matters into his own hands, and precautionary measures were taken at all the ports. The Chinese closed Foochow and put Canton in a state of defense. Prince Kung was occupied mainly in providing for the defense of Peking and its approaches. Li Hung Chang sent eight thousand men, well armed and disciplined, to Peking; but his best regiments were with him at Tien-tsin. Two thousand Chinese troops in Korea deserted for want

of pay and joined the enemy. The Chinese soldiers lived off the country they happened to be in and reduced it to a desert, thus obliging the inhabitants to abandon their homes for want of the means of subsistence.

**Chinese
Lack of
Disci-
pline.**

In the meantime Japanese spies were detected in China and were arrested, tried, convicted and beheaded. These spies were discovered cutting telegraph wires and laying torpedos along the coast.

**Japanese
Spies.**

The Japanese Parliament was convened in extraordinary session, October 15, 1894, at Hiroshimo, where the Mikado established his headquarters, and remained in session one week, during which it authorized war loans amounting to one hundred million yen and a total war expenditure of one hundred and fifty million yen. Count Ito, the Japanese Premier, addressed both Houses.

**Action
of the
Japanes
Parlia-
ment.**

The Japanese occupied Wi-ju, October 8, 1894, after a slight encounter with the Chinese, who fled precipitately after a feeble resistance and crossed the Yalu river, after losing about a hundrd men out of a force of two thousand. The Japanese advanced steadily on Port Arthur, in the peninsula of Liao-tung, and a Japanese force invaded Manchuria from Korea. A Japanese detachment of sixteen hundred men which crossed the Yalu river above Wi-ju captured a Chinese in-trenchment after brief fighting, the Chinese losing twenty killed and wounded and the Japanese none, October 24, 1894. The next day the Japanese gained a signal victory at Hoosan, near Kiu-lien-tcheng, after three hours' fighting. The Chinese force, numbering thirty-five hundred men, was routed utterly and scattered, with the loss of over two hundred killed, while the Japanese lost a little over a hundred killed and wounded. Before dawn on October 26th the Japanese army under Field-Marshal Yamagata attacked sixteen thousand Chinese under General Sung at Kiu-lien-tcheng. The Chinese fled; and the victorious Japanese next captured Andong with twenty cannon, besides rifles and ammunition. The Chinese also took Tatung-Kao. These Chinese defeats produced consternation at Tien-tsin.

**Japanese
Victories.**

A Chinese court-martial convicted Generals Yeh and Wei of cowardice and neglect of duty in retreating from Ping Yang without justification, thereby leaving General Tso and his Kirin troops alone to fight the Japanese armies; and both generals were degraded from military rank and deprived of honors, for their cowardice. General Wei was beheaded afterward.

**Disgrace
of Two
Chinese
Generals.**

The Chinese Board of War made great efforts to obtain more troops for the defense of Peking. The Viceroy of Nankin, who already had raised twenty thousand Hunanese troops, was ordered imperatively to send several additional battalions overland from Chin-kiang to Tien-tsin. He accordingly collected several thousand men from various

**Pr para-
tions to
Defend
Pekin.**

garrisons, but they refused to go unless their three months' arrears of pay had been handed them.

Prince
Kung's
Appeal
and
Offers of
European
Media-
tion.

In the meantime the Great European Powers made efforts to bring about peace. Their Ministers in China met the Tsung-li-Yamen on November 3, 1894, to hear what the Chinese government had to say respecting the critical Chinese situation. Prince Kung calmly and frankly avowed China's impotence and her inability to withstand the Japanese attack, and he appealed to the Powers to intervene for peace. He stated that China was willing to relinquish her suzerainty over Korea and to pay a war indemnity. The foreign Ministers promised to use their influence in procuring the mediation of their respective governments in favor of peace. The United States also endeavored to mediate.

Japan's
Defiant
Attitude.

The dream of the Japanese nation, flushed with victory, was the complete submission of China to any terms which Japan chose to dictate. The Japanese were so intoxicated with their successes that they now considered themselves invincible and powerful enough to defy any interference from any or all of the European Powers.

Japanese
Suc-
cesses
in Man-
churia.

The Japanese entered Feng-huang-tcheng on October 31, 1894, the Chinese having fled, their generals going to Moukden. The inhabitants of the captured town, hating the violence and rapacity of the Chinese, welcomed the Japanese army. Thus the Chinese defense of Moukden collapsed; and the Japanese invaders marched westward, though cold weather had set in and snow had fallen in Manchuria. The Japanese here took no prisoners, but they disarmed and dispersed the Chinese soldiers wherever found. By Field-Marshal Yamagata's orders, the peaceable inhabitants were treated with the utmost consideration, all food purchased being paid for at a recognized scale, and laborers being paid daily for any extra help required; the result of which was that the Japanese camp was thronged with Chinese peasants offering produce, while more Chinese laborers were asking for work than could be accommodated. The Japanese established a local government at An-tung for the administration of the Chinese territory occupied by the Japanese, and the taxes leviable on the Chinese were remitted for a year. The Chinese there welcomed the Japanese with open arms. The Japanese reputation for humanity in paying for supplies did the Japanese immense service; and their conduct was contrasted with that of the Chinese troops, who made war in the ancient style and were dreaded by the people and officials alike in victory and in defeat.

Siege of
Port
Arthur.

A Japanese army of forty thousand men under Marshal Oyama left Hiroshimo and landed on Chinese territory in the peninsula of Liao-tung without meeting any opposition, captured fifteen timber-laden

Chinese junks, blockaded Port Arthur and Talienwan, completely invested Port Arthur before the end of October, captured one of the forts at Port Arthur and defeated the Chinese in a spirited engagement. The Chinese troops at Port Arthur, Kinchou and Talienwan numbered thirteen thousand men. The Chinese situation at Port Arthur now was extremely critical, and the Chinese Pe-Yang squadron in the port was caught in a trap. Early in November the Japanese established a complete cordon around Port Arthur and captured the two outermost forts on the land side.

The Japanese took Kinchou and Talienwan on November 8, 1894, the Chinese garrisons offering little resistance and fleeing in the direction of Port Arthur. Two thousand Chinese troops under General Shui were overpowered by the Japanese east of Kinchou on the same day, after two days' fighting. The next day the Japanese routed the Chinese at Namquan Pass, twenty-five miles from Port Arthur. At Talienwan the Japanese captured eighty cannon, large stores of ammunition and one steamer.

**Japanese
Victories.**

Field-Marshal Yamagata continued his victorious march in Manchuria, his various divisions defeating the Chinese detachments in several engagements. The defeated Chinese troops suffered from cold and hunger. Field-Marshal Yamagata sent a brigade under General Osako to disperse six thousand Chinese troops under General Ma at Siu-Yen, but the Chinese fled on Sunday night, November 18, 1894, without offering any resistance, and the Japanese quietly occupied Siu-Yen and took possession of the five cannon which the Chinese had abandoned in their flight. The Chinese retreated toward Hai-tcheng.

**More
Japanese
Suc-
cesses.**

The second Japanese army under Marshal Oyama marched toward Port Arthur in two divisions by different routes. On November 19, 1894, a Chinese force strongly intrenched in the passes north of Port Arthur was attacked, and, after desperate fighting, was driven from its intrenchments, fleeing to Port Arthur. Both sides suffered severe losses. On the same day the Japanese captured a fort two miles west of Port Arthur. The next day the right division of Marshal Oyama's army had a skirmish with the Chinese, who retired in good order. The same division captured the fort and village of Shui-sy-Ching.

**Japanese
Victories
near
Port
Arthur.**

The next morning the right division carried the low range of hills north-west of Port Arthur with a rush and then cannonaded and bombarded a strong redoubt a thousand yards distant. The Chinese garrison returned the fire briskly; but the Japanese infantry advanced in the face of a well-directed shell fire without faltering, and before nine o'clock they carried the redoubt by storm in the most gallant style. The Chinese resisted fiercely for several minutes and then fled toward the dockyard.

**Capture
of a
Redoubt
at Port
Arthur.**

**Capture
of Forts
at Port
Arthur.**

In the meantime the left division of Marshal Oyama's army had been engaged fiercely with the Chinese on the south-east side of Port Arthur. After advancing over the hills this division was raked by a heavy fire from three forts connected by trenches strongly held, and a heavy duel ensued between the Japanese artillery and the heavy Chinese cannon in the forts, while the Japanese infantry meanwhile advanced all along the line, taking advantage of the brushwood and other cover. The forts finally were carried by assault, the Chinese garrisons being driven from the three forts after making the most gallant defense.

**Capture
of Port
Arthur.**

By evening of the same day, November 21, 1894, Port Arthur was in the possession of the Japanese; but the Chinese still held ten redoubts on the coast line, armed with about twenty cannon. Early on the morning of the 23d (November, 1894) these works were captured by the Japanese without serious loss on their part. Twenty-three Japanese torpedo-boats suddenly rushed through the entrance to Port Arthur, thus surprising the Chinese and distracting their attention while the land attack was being delivered.

**The
Spoils of
Victory.**

Thus the Japanese captured Port Arthur after several days of continuous fighting. They found eighty cannon and mortars in the captured forts and redoubts and many more in the dockyards. They also obtained possession of an immense quantity of ammunition, besides completely-equipped torpedo stores and large quantities of rice and beans. All the Chinese vessels, factories and docks were taken intact and were ready for use. The Chinese forces at Port Arthur numbered about twenty thousand men and lost more than a thousand men, while the Japanese lost about two hundred and fifty killed and wounded. Most of the Chinese escaped from Port Arthur on the night of November 21st.

**Japanese
Reprisals.**

In revenge for the mutilation and decapitation of a number of Japanese prisoners in the hands of the Chinese, the triumphant Japanese troops gave no quarter to their vanquished foes during the storming of the defenses of Port Arthur and shot many Chinese soldiers who attempted to escape. The Japanese also pillaged the town and killed nearly every man in it. They also committed atrocities on Chinese prisoners, who were pinioned, stripped, shot, hacked with knives, disemboweled and dismembered.

**Japanese
Victory
near
Moukden.**

The capture of Port Arthur was followed by a victory of the Japanese arms in Manchuria. The first Japanese army under Field-Marshal Yamagata, in its advance in that Chinese dependency, defeated the Chinese near Mo-thieu-ling. The Japanese lost about forty killed and wounded, while the Chinese lost over two hundred. Moukden was evacuated by the foreign residents early in November. The city was deserted by its inhabitants also, and for miles around the ground was

covered with broken household furniture and articles of clothing. All the treasure also had been removed. The country traversed by the Chinese army was stripped of its vegetation and resembled fields ravaged by locusts.

A rebellion broke out at Jehol, in the Chinese dependency of Mongolia, in revenge for the assassination of six Mongolian princes by the Chinese General Yeh. Very soon the rebellious Mongols committed ninety-one murders. Many deserters from the Chinese armies joined the permanent Manchurian banditti, who now formed a dangerous band, after the death of the Chinese General Tso in the battle of Ping Yang, who had been a terror to the robbers. Robbery now was prevalent in Manchuria and already was extending southward across the Great Wall into China proper. Ordinary traffic and traveling were suspended. The country people had implicit confidence in foreign protection, and the fugitive peasants asked only the nearest way to an English settlement.

**Rebellion
in
Mongolia.**

Over two hundred Chinese mandarins signed a memorial charging Li Hung Chang with corruption, peculation and treason and demanding his instant punishment. Accordingly an imperial edict was issued depriving him of his rank and all his titles, but allowing him to retain his office of Viceroy.

**Li Hung
Chang's
Disgrace.**

The fall of Port Arthur and the advance of the Japanese in Manchuria made the Chinese government exceedingly anxious for peace, and a customs officer in the employ of China was in Japan for the purpose of opening peace negotiations; but Count Ito, the Japanese Prime Minister, refused him an audience or to receive any communication from him, as the sending of a subordinate official was regarded as little less than an insult on the part of the Chinese government. Japan was ready to accept peace proposals if put forward by a properly-accredited envoy and not by a mere messenger sent by a Chinese Viceroy. The only credentials of Detring, the messenger, were a letter from Li Hung Chang to Count Ito. China intimated her intention to offer a war indemnity of one hundred million taels and to pay Japan's war expenses as one of the conditions of peace.

**China
Sues for
Peace.**

Fighting continued in Manchuria between Japanese detachments and small bodies of Chinese troops. Several thousand Tonghaks who attacked a Japanese force at Kong-ju, in Southern Korea, on November 28, 1894, were defeated with great slaughter.

**Japanese
Victories**

Two high Chinese officials—Olo Ho Pu, President of the Board of War, and Chang Chi Wan, President of the Civil Board—were superseded at the Chinese Court in consequence of the discovery of certain designs in which a number of high officers were interested. This was another blow to Li Hung Chang's party. Li Hung Chang still was

**Disgrace
of
Chinese
Officials.**

Viceroy of Pechili. A Court of Inquiry at Peking condemned the Chinese commandant at Kinchou for surrendering the post to the Japanese, and he therefore was degraded from military rank. General Chan was found guilty of gross neglect in allowing his troops to pillage the populace and more particularly in not preventing them from burning down the Roman Catholic church at Ki-chow, and he was handed over to the Board of War for punishment. The Chinese government gave a four-and-a-half per cent. loan of twelve hundred thousand pounds sterling to an English firm.

Japanese
Regret
for the
Atrocities
at Port
Arthur.

The Japanese authorities expressed great sorrow for the atrocities of their troops at the capture of Port Arthur and instituted an official inquiry. It appeared that the Japanese soldiers who committed the atrocities had been frenzied by intoxicating drinks which they had captured from the Chinese. These atrocities were an exception to the conduct of the Japanese during the entire war. Marshal Oyama, commander of the second Japanese army, upon his invasion of Manchuria, early in November, 1894, had issued a proclamation in which occurred a passage of which the following is a translation:

Marshal
Oyama's
Order.

“Our army fights for the right and for the principles of civilization. Our enemies are the military forces of the country with which we are at war, not the individuals of the country. Against the forces of our foe we must fight with all resolution; but as soon as any of his soldiers surrender they cease to be enemies, and it becomes our duty to treat them with all kindness. * * * These principles apply with still greater force to the peaceful inhabitants of an enemy's country. Except in cases where the inhabitants offer opposition they should be treated with the utmost consideration.”

Chinese
General's
Order.

Among the abandoned papers and effects on one of the Chinese generals who fled during the Japanese attack upon Port Arthur were found letters from Chinese officers claiming, as a matter of course, rewards for Japanese hands, heads and feet forwarded to headquarters.

Japanese
Victory.

On December 10, 1894, the Japanese division under General Techimi defeated over three thousand Chinese near Kinhuahu, the Chinese fleeing in great disorder after a sanguinary struggle. The Japanese loss was forty killed and wounded. The Chinese left about a hundred dead upon the field. The Japanese advanced in force upon Tso-hun-kou.

Capture
of
Fouchou
and Hong-
kaputz.

A brigade of Marshal Oyama's army took Fouchou from the Chinese without encountering any opposition and advanced rapidly towards Niu Chwang. The first Japanese army had considerable fighting in its advance through Manchuria in the middle of December, 1894. On December 11th General Osako's brigade, after several days' slow advance and occasional skirmishing, made a dashing attack upon Hungkaputz, where the Chinese had concentrated their forces. The Chinese

line was broken and the Chinese troops fled in disorder, abandoning all their heavy war material. Some fled northward toward Hai-tcheng and others westward in the direction of Yingkow.

The third division of the left wing of the first Japanese army attacked Si-mu-tcheng, December 12, 1894, and drove the Chinese from the place. The left wing effected a junction with General Osako's brigade the same day, and the combined forces marched upon Hai-tcheng, which was garrisoned by about five thousand Chinese troops. The Japanese attacked the place the next day, and the greater part of the Chinese at once fled, while the fifteen hundred who resisted were routed after a severe engagement, and the Japanese immediately occupied the town.

**Capture
of Si-mu-
tcheng
and Hai-
tcheng**

On the same day a Japanese force repulsed several attacks by five thousand Chinese at Yih-man-shan, five miles from Feng-huang-tcheng. The next day the Japanese attacked the Chinese left flank and routed it after a severe struggle, driving it in disorderly retreat by a second charge, the Chinese losing about four hundred killed and wounded, while the Japanese lost about eighty.

**More
Japanese
Victories.**

Prince Kung now was appointed President of the Grand Council of the Chinese Empire, thus making him virtual dictator. Li Hung Chang's position at Tien-tsin was established firmly. The Empress-Dowager gave emphatic assurances of her confidence in him, and the Chinese court found him indispensable, as he was the only capable man, the others having proven useless.

**Prince
Kung and
Li Hung
Chang.**

Li Hung Chang was ordered to arrest the civil and military officials who were in command at Port Arthur and to send them to Peking to be tried and punished for the loss of the fortress. Generals Yeh and Wei, who escaped from Ping Yang, also were to be handed over to the Board of Punishment. The Court slowly sifted out the truth in regard to the conduct of the campaign, and it discovered that General Yeh was rewarded undeservedly for his retreat from Asan. The Emperor was indignant.

**Punish-
ment of
Chinese
Officials
and
Generals.**

Cheng, Li Hung Chang's nephew, was arrested at Nankin, charged with peculation, and his property was seized. Orders were issued also for the arrest of Li Hung Chang's son-in-law at Tien-tsin.

**Chang's
Arrest.**

The native rebellion at Jehol, in Mongolia, was spreading; and Li Hung Chang tried to raise a special force of five thousand Chinese troops to cope with the Mongols, but no arms were available for this force.

**The Jehol
Rebellion**

The Japanese government intimated that the overtures of China for peace through the United States Ministers at Tokio and Peking were futile, as Japan did not believe in China's sincerity; and Japan intimated further that China must sue for peace directly.

**Japan's
Reply to
China.**

**Japanese
Investi-
gation of
the Port
Arthur
Excesses.**

The Japanese authorities made a strict official inquiry into the excesses committed by the Japanese troops upon the capture of Port Arthur. It was found that the reports of the cruelties of the Japanese were true, but that, besides the mutilated bodies of captured Japanese soldiers, the Japanese, on entering the town, found many heads of Japanese soldiers stuck upon poles erected over or in front of the residences of civilians resident in the town. The Japanese officials at Port Arthur adopted stringent regulations for the protection of the inhabitants who returned to their homes, also furnishing food to many of them.

**Battle of
Kung-
wasai.**

On December 19, 1894, the Japanese force under General Katsura attacked ten thousand Chinese under General Sung at the village of Kungwasai, about eight miles from Hai-tcheng, and a severe fight followed. General Osako's brigade was the first to engage. Meanwhile the Japanese were reinforced by General Oshima's brigade from Hai-tcheng. The Japanese artillery played havoc in the Chinese ranks. The Japanese infantry cut their way through the Chinese ranks, but the Chinese rallied and stubbornly held their ground. Thrice the Japanese dashed through the Chinese lines, and after five hours' desperate hand-to-hand fighting the Chinese began to falter and were in full and disorderly flight, while the Japanese occupied the village of Kungwasai. The Chinese lost about nine hundred killed and wounded, while the Japanese lost four hundred and fifty. A division of the second Japanese army under Lieutenant-General Baron Yamagi entered Kai-chou, or Kai-phing, without resistance, December 18, 1894.

**Guards'
Passes.**

After a stormy session of the Tsung-li-Yamen, the opposition of Prince Ching was overruled, and passes were granted for foreign guards for the foreign legations at Peking.

**Victories
of Korean
Rebels.**

The Tonghak rebels in Korea captured Hai-ju, the capital of Hwang-hai-do, north-west of Seoul, expelled the governor and installed one of their own leaders in the place. The rebels also were very active in the south of Korea, where they burned three towns. A thousand Tonghaks attacked and defeated the garrison of Chollado, consisting of three hundred troops, December 17, 1894, looting and burning the houses in the vicinity and compelling the people to flee. The rebels murdered the chief Korean official at Sunchou. Chinese were reported to be among the Tonghak rebels. The Korean government decided to borrow five million yen from the Japanese and to issue notes to the amount of fifteen million yen.

**Japanese
Parlia-
ment.**

The Japanese Parliament convened on Christmas eve, 1894. The Mikado's speech referred briefly to the Japanese victories in the field and also alluded to the satisfactory relations of Japan with the great Western powers.

Isolated encounters occurred between the Japanese and roving bands of Chinese, who were being driven beyond the Japanese line of occupation in Manchuria. At this time Field-Marshal Oyama established a central civil administration at Kinchou, in order to preserve confidence among the people of the Liao-tung peninsula. He assured peaceful inhabitants of protection by the Japanese authorities and invited those in distress in consequence of the war to apply to the administrator for relief.

Marshal
Oyama's
Civil
Rule.

Lin-kun-yi, late Viceroy of Nankin, was appointed to the chief command of all the Chinese armies in the field, superseding both Prince Kung and Li Hung Chang. He immediately petitioned to be relieved on account of indisposition, but his request was refused. The Governor of Shantung sent a memorial to the Chinese court, bringing further grave charges of cowardice, negligence and incompetence against several high officials, including Admiral Ting and General Wei. These accusations were supported by fresh evidence, and an imperial decree ordered the immediate arrest and punishment of the accused.

New
Chinese
Com-
mander-
in-chief

Charges
against
Chinese
Officials.

A censor who had the temerity to charge the Empress-Dowager of China with exercising undue influence in matters of state entirely beyond her capacity to understand was condemned to perpetual banishment.

Censor
Banished.

John W. Foster, Secretary of State in President Harrison's administration in the United States, agreed to go to Japan to aid the Chinese plenipotentiaries to negotiate peace, in accordance with a request from the Chinese government to President Cleveland's administration.

American
Media-
tion.

Japanese marines under Tsukuba Kan landed in the province of Chollado, in the south-west of Korea, and dispersed the Tonghak rebels, who had founded a new kingdom, styling it the Kingdom of Kainan and installing a member of the Nieng family as king. A Japanese detachment defeated and dispersed more than six thousand Tonghak rebels in the province of Whang-hai-do-met, after four hours' fighting, December 23, 1894.

Japanese
Victories
over
Korean
Rebels.

Mr. Detring, who had been appointed peace envoy to Japan by Li Hung Chang, was recalled by a telegram from Prince Kung, whose action was prompted by the American Minister at Peking. In the latter part of December, 1894, Chang-yin-houan, the Vice President of the Tsung-li-Yamen, was appointed envoy; and the Japanese government promised to receive him with an honest desire to help him in his peaceful mission.

Chinese
Peace
Envoys

The independence of Korea was proclaimed solemnly at Seoul, January 7, 1895. In the forenoon the king and his Cabinet, with civil and military dignitaries and officers of the royal household, proceeded to the Temple of the king's ancestors and there declared that thence-

Korea's
Independ-
ence Pro-
claimed.

forth Korea would be independent of every other country. The ceremony was a striking one. The Korean soldiers of His Majesty's escort wore uniforms fashioned in the modern Japanese style. Ministers Bokuyeiko and Yokohan were guarded specially by Japanese policemen, but the streets were guarded entirely by the newly-formed native Korean police, who performed their duties well. Everything went on smoothly at Seoul, and the Koreans seemed quite reconciled to the presence of the Japanese and disposed to follow their advice. Several Tonghak leaders were captured and beheaded near Sunchou; and the Korean soldiers dispersed the rebels, who were disheartened by the death of their leaders.

Chinese Excesses in Manchuria.

The Chinese under General Sung retreated from Niu Chwang after severe fighting on December 22, 1894, but on Christmas day General Sung marched back and reoccupied Niu Chwang without opposition. The Japanese soldiers in Manchuria suffered intensely from the cold. A state of anarchy prevailed at Moukden, where the Chinese and Manchu soldiers frequently fought each other; and the populace were outraged and plundered by both, who killed every civilian who dared to offer the least resistance to the brutal soldiery. Twelve thousand more Chinese troops were sent to the Manchurian capital. A Chinese force under General Nieh between Hao-cha-fang and Shi-hao-tsu harried the district as though it were an enemy's country, all able-bodied Manchurians being pressed into the Chinese military service and every village being ransacked for arms, the Chinese soldiers paying for nothing.

Chinese Peace Envoys in Japan.

Chang-yin-houan, the Chinese peace envoy, proceeded to Japan and afterwards was joined by the other Chinese envoys in the peace negotiations. John W. Foster, the American ex-Secretary of State, left Victoria, British Columbia, for Japan to assist the Chinese envoys. Li Hung Chang handed General Wei over to the Board of Punishment at Peking, as there was a disposition to hold the Viceroy himself responsible for the accused general's cowardice and incapacity. The Board of Punishment found General Wei guilty of cowardice, extortion and plundering; and soon afterward he was beheaded at Peking.

General Wei Beheaded.

Disorders in Shantung and Pechili.

Disturbances occurred in the Chinese provinces of Shantung and Pechili, and the government was endeavoring to repress disorder. Two detachments of Mohammedan cavalry, five thousand each, arrived at Tien-tsin early in January, 1895. These men were fanatics and swore to avenge the death of their chief, killed at Ping Yang.

Desolation in Manchuria.

The Manchu princes took the defense of their country into their own hands, having been thwarted hitherto by the Chinese officials, a disagreement which paralyzed the executive and rendered the central government bewildered and helpless. The district between the rivers Yalu

and Liao, in Manchuria, presented one ghastly scene of desolation, reducing a populous region to a vast solitude. No houses were left standing, the very timbers being burned. Towns and villages were without a vestige of life, the entire populations having perished. Only scattered groups of frozen corpses were seen, while neither food nor fuel could be procured. The stragglers from the Chinese army who sought refuge in the hills and forests became savages and lost all human feeling. The sufferings of the wounded were terrible. The movements of both armies were hindered by the exhaustion of supplies which had been brought in by the country people from fear. The prospect of the continuation of such scenes appalled even the stolid Chinese who witnessed them.

A brigade of the second Japanese army, under General Nogi, in the midst of a deep snow, which hindered the movements of artillery, attacked four thousand Chinese under General Seh, who had fourteen cannon, at Kai-phing, January 10, 1895. After four hours' fighting, the Japanese infantry made successive charges on the right and left flanks and the center of the Chinese, who were thrown into confusion and routed in headlong flight, leaving the Japanese in possession of the town. The Chinese lost two thousand killed and wounded, nearly half their force. General Neih, narrowly escaped capture by the Japanese while fleeing from Kai-phing through Honmonzen in a carriage, his horse being killed and himself being wounded in the thigh. The Japanese loss in killed and wounded in this action was over three hundred.

**Battle of
Kai-
phing.**

On January 16, 1895, about thirteen thousand Chinese cannonaded the Japanese position at Niu Chwang. The Japanese under General Katsura replied by an artillery fire, and their shells threw the Chinese into confusion, and finally a charge by the Japanese upon the Chinese right flank resulted in the capture of five Chinese cannon and the rout of the entire Chinese force, while a charge upon the Chinese center completely dispersed the fleeing host, one portion fleeing northward, while the remainder retreated toward Niu Chwang. The victorious Japanese pursued the fleeing Chinese, charging them wherever they made a stand. The Chinese lost about two hundred. The Japanese lost less than fifty killed and wounded.

**Battle of
Niu
Chwang.**

The Japanese bombarded Teng-chou, north-west of the Shantung promontory, one whole day, January 19, 1895, dismounting many of the Chinese cannon and silencing the fire of the Chinese forts. The next day, Sunday, January 20, 1895, fifty Japanese transports appeared off Yung-tcheng Bay, south of the Shantung promontory, and landed twenty-five thousand Japanese troops, after three Japanese men-of-war had silenced the Chinese earthworks.

**More
Japanese
Suc-
cesses**

**Situation
at Wei-
hai-wei
and
Chefoo.**

Many Chinese warships were blockaded in the harbor of Wei-hai-wei, which was garrisoned by eleven thousand Chinese troops. The population of Chefoo were so excited by the near approach of the Japanese that sailors were landed from the British, German, French and American warships, and all the foreign consulates were guarded specially, while foreign blue jackets and marines patrolled the European quarter of the city.

**Chinese
Repulses
at Hai-
tcheng.**

On January 22, 1895, ten thousand Chinese attacked the Japanese at Hai-tcheng, but were repulsed, leaving one hundred dead upon the field, while the Japanese lost none killed and only twenty-eight wounded. On January 24th the Chinese renewed their attack on the Japanese at Hai-tcheng, but were repulsed again after a short engagement.

**Japanese
Repulses
at Yung-
tcheng
and Wei-
hai-wei.**

On January 23, 1895, the Chinese repulsed an attack of the Japanese advance guard near Yung-tcheng. The Japanese also were repulsed in several attacks on Wei-hai-wei with considerable loss. On January 26th the Japanese fleet advanced in two divisions of nineteen ships on Wei-hai-wei, but was driven off by a fire from the Chinese fleet and shore batteries. The Chinese lost twenty-seven sailors. At the same time the Japanese army made an attack upon Wei-hai-wei from Ning-Hai, but was repulsed. In these attacks the Japanese lost over three hundred killed and wounded.

**Chinese
Peace
Envoys.**

On January 18 and 19, 1895, three Japanese war vessels bombarded T'eng-chou. Continued risings occurred in Southern Korea and the adjacent islands. The Chinese peace envoys who arrived at Kobe, Japan, late in January, 1895, were received by the populace with a hostile demonstration. A Tartar from the border of Kerin, the eastern district of Manchuria, arrived in the camp of the Japanese General Nodzu, where he denounced the ravages of the Chinese and offered the services of sixty thousand Manchus to join the Japanese in attacking Moukden and avenging the cruelties of the Chinese. The Japanese paid the man's traveling expenses and instructed him to report upon the condition of the Chinese army, but refused his services.

**A
Tartar's
Offer.**

**Capture
of Wei-
hai-wei.**

On January 30, 1895, the Japanese captured all the southern forts at Wei-hai-wei, after a spirited resistance on the part of the Chinese garrisons and considerable loss on both sides, the Chinese evacuating the forts and retreating to Fung-lin-Chu. The Japanese attack had been made under cover of a severe bombardment from the Japanese fleet in the harbor. The next day the Japanese garrisons in the captured forts and the Japanese warships cannonaded and bombarded the Chinese fleet, finally driving back the Chinese war vessels. The Japanese entered Wei-hai-wei on February 2, 1895. On Sunday, February 3, 1895, the fortress island of Leu-kung-tau, in Wei-hai-wei harbor, was captured by the Japanese, after a severe bombardment

from the Japanese fleet and the Japanese shore batteries on the mainland and a spirited resistance on the part of the Chinese garrison in the island forts. The loss was heavy on both sides, the Chinese losing about two thousand killed and wounded. A Japanese gunboat was sunk, and a magazine in one of the forts was blown up by the explosion of a shell from the Japanese. Japanese torpedo-boats entered Wei-hai-wei harbor and sunk the Chinese cruisers *Ting Yuen*, *Lai-Yeun* and *Chen Yeun* during the nights of February 4 and 5, 1895, and pursued and captured or destroyed thirteen Chinese torpedo-boats. Japanese marines and sailors landed on Leu-kung-tau island on February 6th, but were resisted obstinately by the Chinese, and desperate fighting followed. Admiral Ting surrendered the remaining Chinese war vessels and the Leu-kung-tau forts to Admiral Ito. Admiral Ting, General Chang and Captain Liu committed suicide. The Chinese soldiers and sailors just surrendered were liberated at once by the Japanese.

In the meantime the Japanese were experiencing great difficulties at Niu Chwang, where the cold was intense, the thermometer at one time registering thirteen degrees below zero. On January 17, 1895, the Japanese suffered a slight reverse between Hai-tcheng and Liao Yang, at the hands of fifteen hundred Manchus under Han, a rebel squatter from Northern Manchuria. The commander of a Manchu battalion who failed to support Han was beheaded promptly for cowardice. The mob at Niu Chwang plundered and ill-treated the native merchants and alarmed the foreign residents, who feared for their lives and their property.

The Chinese peace envoys, with Mr. Foster, their American adviser, arrived at Hiroshima, in Japan, January 31, 1895, and were refused an audience by Count Ito, the Japanese Prime Minister, on the ground that their plenary powers were utterly inadequate. As the Japanese government officially declined all further negotiations, the envoys left Hiroshima on February 4th. The text of the credentials given to the Chinese envoys empowered them to "meet and negotiate the matter with the plenipotentiaries of Japan," but directed them to "telegraph to the Tsung-li-Yamen for the purpose of obtaining our commands, by which you will abide."

Eleven foreign residents of Chefoo sought refuge at Shanghai, while many Chinese merchants also left Chefoo. The Chinese authorities at Chefoo beheaded all runaway Chinese soldiers who came there from Wei-hai-wei. The Chinese Emperor was so incensed at the loss of Wei-hai-wei that he authorized the Viceroy of the province of Shantung to behead all fugitives without previously reporting to His Majesty.

Situation
at Niu
Chwang.

Chinese
Peace
Envoys
in Japan.

Situation
at Chefoo.

Chinese
Em-
peror's
Wrath.

**Black
Flags in
Formosa.**

The Black Flags committed ravages on the island of Formosa, and a British war vessel went thither from Hong Kong in response to a request from the British residents. The foreign Ministers in China were received by the Emperor on the occasion of the Chinese New Year, February 14, 1895. The Ministers obtained certain ceremonial concessions, one of which was that they be admitted by the front gate of the imperial palace at Peking. They afterward ordered guards from Tien-tsin for the protection of their respective legations.

**Foreign
Ministers
in China.****Plot
against
China's
Emperor.**

A formidable conspiracy in Peking against the Chinese Emperor and his government was discovered, the conspirators being members of a secret society called the *Thalli* and said to number fifty thousand persons. Their plans for an outbreak had been almost completed when they were frustrated by the discovery of the plot and the arrest of the leaders.

**Li Hung
Chang's
Peace
Mission.**

Li Hung Chang was restored to all his honors and was appointed Imperial Commissioner to negotiate for peace with Japan. China requested that the Japanese peace commissioners might meet Li Hung Chang at Port Arthur to conduct the negotiations there. The Japanese government declined absolutely to treat anywhere but on Japanese soil.

**New War
Credit in
Japan.**

The Japanese government asked the Japanese Parliament for a fresh credit of one hundred million yen on account of the war expenditure, which was voted at once, thus making the amount thus far voted two hundred and fifty million yen. The Korean Ministry tendered their resignations, but the king refused to accept them, and the anti-reform Ministers instigated several attempts to assassinate Prince Pok.

**Chinese
Repulses
at Niu
Chwang.**

Fifteen thousand Chinese were repulsed in an attack on the Japanese position at Hai-tcheng, February 16, 1895, with the loss of one hundred and fifty killed and wounded, the Japanese losing only three men killed. Twelve thousand Chinese from the Niu Chwang and Yinkow districts made a concerted attack on the Japanese position on February 21st, but were repulsed with considerable loss. The repeated attacks of the Chinese were repelled by the well-directed fire of General Nodzu's artillery. The first attack was made from the Liao Yang road, but the most determined assaults were from the Tong-wa-shan road, where more than a hundred Chinese were killed by the Japanese shells. At three o'clock the Chinese retreated on all sides and were pursued by the Japanese cavalry, who took some prisoners. Six Japanese were killed.

**Chinese
Repulse
in Man-
churia.**

In Manchuria a Chinese force of three thousand infantry and one hundred cavalry and eight cannon attacked Kumo-tcheng on February 17, 1895, but was repulsed with the loss of thirty killed and a number captured, without any loss by the Japanese.

An imperial decree issued at Peking, February 19, 1895, announced that the Taotai Kung and General Yeh-chi-cao had been tried by the Board of Punishment for the loss of Port Arthur and sentenced to imprisonment until the next autumn, which was the time set for their execution.

Punishment of Chinese Officials.

The Tsung-li-Yamen deliberated on the question: "Shall the war with Japan be continued or shall we treat for peace?" It was decided to submit the question to all the provincial authorities of the first three ranks, and their opinion was demanded urgently by telegraph. The replies were to the effect that, although Japan had provoked the war unjustly, peace was very desirable. But some of the replies declared that the terms of peace must be "bearable." In an interview with a news correspondent Prince Kung said that Japan had provoked the war deliberately, and he asked: "Can the Japanese overrun all our provinces? Will Heaven permit such a thing? Will other nations acquiesce in it?"

China's Peace Deliberations.

On Sunday, March 3, 1895, the Chinese army in Manchuria made two attacks on the Japanese positions at Hai-tcheng, but were repulsed in both instances, with the loss of two hundred killed and as many wounded.

Chinese Repulses at Hai-tcheng.

The Japanese under General Nodzu attacked eighteen thousand Chinese, between the Liao Yang and Niu Chwang roads, with complete success, on Sunday, March 3, 1895; the Japanese losing ten men killed and about a hundred wounded, while the Chinese lost a hundred and fifty killed and about two hundred wounded. The Japanese captured Niu Chwang the next day, after desperate fighting, the fortifications being carried after a two hours' bombardment and the Chinese driven out after eleven hours' fighting. The Chinese lost nineteen hundred killed and five hundred prisoners. The Japanese lost over two hundred killed and wounded. On the same day an attack by ten thousand Chinese under General Sung on the Japanese positions at Taping-shan was repulsed without loss to the Japanese. Two days later a division of the second Japanese army captured Yinkow, the port of Niu Chwang, after severe fighting with the Chinese under General Sung, who lost several hundred killed and wounded, while the Japanese loss was small.

Capture of Niu Chwang and Yinkow.

Disturbances were increasing throughout the Chinese Empire. A general in the province of Shantung who attempted to suppress pillage was beheaded by his own troops, and similar disorders occurred in the province of Honan.

Disorders in China.

The Chinese warships captured by the Japanese at Wei-hai-wei were taken to Yokohama by their Japanese crews. The Japanese abandoned Wei-hai-wei and the entire province of Shantung, after destroying the

Japan's New Warships.

forts. During the last few months of the war Japan bought war vessels from Chili at several different times.

Events
in Korea.

Bands of Manchurian soldiers ravaged the province of Ham-Gyong-Do, in Northern Korea, and plundered the gold mines. The Korean Minister of War and several other high Korean officials were permitted to accompany the second Japanese army to witness the military operations.

Battle of
Thien-
chuang-
thai.

After the capture of Niu Chwang and Yinkow the first and second Japanese armies effected a junction; and a division of the first army attacked the Chinese under General Sung at Thien-chuang-thai, March 9, 1895, and gained a decided victory after three hours' hand-to-hand fighting in the streets, nearly two hundred Chinese being killed and wounded and six hundred taken prisoners, while eighteen cannon and a large quantity of rifles and ammunition were captured by the victorious Japanese. General Sung's army was broken up completely by his repeated reverses. The Mikado congratulated General Nodzu on his successes in Manchuria and promoted him to the rank of Field-Marshal. The Chinese held their ground in fighting near Kiu-lien-tcheng on March 18, 1895. Prince Komatsu, the Japanese commander-in-chief, was ordered to China.

Li Hung
Chang's
Peace
Mission
to Japan.

The Chinese government now reluctantly recognized the abandonment of a war policy as the only possible course in view of the uninterrupted disasters to the Chinese arms, and Li Hung Chang was sent to Japan as a peace envoy. China already had agreed to the points to be discussed at the peace conference, but instructed her Ministers in Great Britain, France, Germany and Russia to solicit the intervention of those powers for the protection of the integrity of China's continental territories in case Japan insisted on concessions on the mainland.

Attempt
to Assas-
sinate
Li Hung
Chang.

Li Hung Chang arrived at Shimonoseki, Japan, March 19, 1895, and was received by the Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs. On Sunday, March 24th, a dastardly attack was made upon the life of Li Hung Chang by a young Japanese, named Koyama Rukonosoki, who rushed from the crowd in the street, pistol in hand, and shot the distinguished Chinese statesman in the left cheek, while he was being conveyed to his hotel in his palanquin from a conference with the Japanese peace negotiators. The would-be-assassin was arrested on the spot. The strongest indignation was expressed by the native and foreign press in Japan. Special messages of sympathy and regret were sent to the wounded envoy from the Mikado and his Empress, and the Japanese Ministers of State and high government officials called at his residence. The Japanese Parliament adopted fitting resolutions of regret at the dastardly outrage, and the Mikado and his

Ministry published in the *Official Gazette* a message condemning the horrid deed. General indignation at the attempted assassination prevailed throughout Japan. By the Mikado's command two eminent surgeons and physicians attended the wounded Chinese envoy, and the Empress of Japan sent two nurses to attend him. Li Hung Chang soon recovered from his wound. The would-be-assassin was tried for his dastardly crime and convicted and was sentenced to fourteen years' imprisonment.

On March 22, 1895, the Japanese effected a landing on one of the Pescadore Islands and took the forts the next day. Makung Castle was taken only after two engagements. A thousand Chinese troops on the Yen-kung peninsula surrendered. The trophies captured by the Japanese were nine heavy cannon and a large number of rifles. The Chinese lost thirty killed and sixty prisoners, while the Japanese lost only one killed and sixteen wounded. The Chinese themselves blew up the magazine on Fisher Island. On March 24th a Japanese squadron bombarded the forts of Haichow, on the Kiangsu coast, and under cover of the fire a force of several thousand Japanese troops landed and captured the city after a determined resistance from the Chinese, who lost three hundred killed and wounded.

The Japanese plenipotentiaries proposed the following conditions for an armistice: 1. The occupation of Shan-hai-kuan, Taku and Tien-tsin by Japanese troops. 2. Japanese control of the unfinished railroad from Shan-hai-kuan to Tien-tsin, and custody of the various forts and fortifications, together with the arms and ammunition. 3. The payment by China of the war contributions required for such occupation.

The Japanese refused Li Hung Chang's request for more moderate conditions, but the Mikado finally ordered the Japanese plenipotentiaries to consent to an armistice until April 20, 1895. The armistice applied only to Feng-thien, Pechili and Shantung.

The most responsible statesmen of Japan desired peace, but their efforts were thwarted by the war party. The Japanese newspapers were practically unanimous for a continuance of the war. Some influential newspapers called for the occupation of Peking and the conquest of Southern China.

The peace negotiations proceeded leisurely for several weeks, China hesitating to accept the Japanese conditions; but finally, when Japan by an ultimatum threatened to renew hostilities within twenty-four hours unless her terms were accepted, China agreed to Japan's conditions and the treaty was signed, April 16, 1895. The following were the conditions of the Peace of Shimonoseki: 1. The independence of Korea. 2. The retention of the conquered places by Japan. 3. The

More
Japanese
Suc-
cesses.

Japanese
Terms
for an
Armis-
tice.

An
Armis-
tice.

Japan's
War
Party.

Peace of
Shimo-
noseki.

cession of the Liao-tung peninsula by China to Japan. 4. The permanent cession of the island of Formosa and the Pescadores by China to Japan. 5. The payment of a war indemnity of two hundred million taels in silver (one hundred million dollars) by China to Japan, in seven yearly instalments, five per cent. interest being added each year on the amount remaining unpaid, the whole of the interest to be canceled if China paid the entire indemnity within three years. 6. The opening of the ports of Chingtu, Kai-fong, Huchou and Shao-king, in China, to foreign commerce. Three weeks were allowed for the exchange of ratifications, and the armistice was prolonged to May 8th.

Rejoicing
in Japan.

The conclusion of peace was received with great satisfaction in Japan, the only disapproval being by the extreme war party, whose leading members still declared that the humiliation of China ought to have been completed by a Japanese occupation of the Chinese capital. The war had produced a terrible strain on Japan, and there was general and sincere rejoicing among the Japanese people at the termination of the struggle. The Mikado, in a proclamation to his subjects, expressed his appreciation of their unselfish and patriotic conduct, which had enabled the Japanese to be victorious everywhere on land and sea, but at the same time he pointed out that it is through peace that the national prosperity is to be promoted and the national greatness to be advanced.

Dissatis-
faction
in China.

The extreme war party in China, like that of Japan, was dissatisfied with the treaty of peace; and this party at once accused Li Hung Chang of needlessly consenting to and even facilitating the degradation and dismemberment of his country. In Canton the discontent was very strong, and a popular rebellion against the Manchu Tartar dynasty and for the expulsion of the Viceroy and other imperial officials from the city was threatened. In Formosa there was great opposition to the cession of that island to Japan, and open rioting resulted, in which nearly a hundred persons were killed and wounded.

Protest of
Russia,
France
and
Germany.

The cession of Chinese territory on the continent of Asia to Japan was opposed bitterly by Russia, France and Germany; and the Ministers of these three European powers at Tokio issued a formal protest against the articles of the Peace of Shimonoseki stipulating for the cession of the Liao-tung peninsula to Japan. Great Britain refused to unite with the three powers in the protest and was denounced bitterly by the Russian press, which intimated that Russia should seize India in revenge for Great Britain's attitude in this emergency. Japan finally receded in this matter and agreed to accept a money compensation in place of the cession of the Liao-tung peninsula, whereupon the treaty of peace was ratified speedily by both China and Japan.

Thus the Chino-Japanese War ended in the triumph of Japan. Such was the result of the vigorous, progressive civilization of the smaller of the two great empires of the Orient in its contest with the old, effete civilization of the larger of these empires with its tenfold greater population and its fiftyfold more territory. The new triumphed over the old—the modern over the past. China, which so stubbornly had rejected Western civilization, had been taught that she had lived in the past. In an incredibly brief space of time the defenses of the great Chinese Empire had been shown to be rotten; while Japan had proved herself to be on a level with the highest European standards in organization, in science, in discipline and in military spirit.

Late in May, 1895, the Formosans proclaimed their island a republic, electing Tang, the late Chinese governor of the island, for their President; but when the Japanese troops took possession of the island President Tang fled, and the Formosan republic fell as suddenly as it arose, the Japanese defeating the Black Flags in several actions early in June.

The selfishness of Russia threatened to deprive Japan of the fruits of her victories. No sooner had Japan liberated Korea from the suzerainty of the Emperor of China than Russia coveted the little kingdom, claiming that the possession of Korea was indispensable to the eastern dominions of the Czar. It seemed as if war between Russia and Japan would follow in the course of a few months, as the Russians were mobilizing an army of eighty thousand men at Vladivostok, the Russian port on the western coast of the Sea of Japan.

An outbreak in Koera on October 8, 1895, removed the queen of that "Hermit Kingdom," who had been the chief obstacle to Japanese influence in the little peninsular kingdom. All the officials at the Korean court had been superseded by others who were in thorough sympathy with Japan. But on February 11, 1896, a counter-revolution began at Seoul, the Korean capital; and affairs were in so unsettled a condition that Russia intervened and sent a body of troops for the protection of the Czar's subjects and for the restoration of order. In June, 1896, Russia and Japan entered into an arrangement for a joint protectorate over Korea, Japan's control being merely nominal, while the Korean king practically relied upon Russia. The Korean monarch's title was soon changed from that of King to that of Emperor.

The constant rivalry between Russia and Japan during the next few years for trade supremacy and political influence in Korea threatened to break out into open hostilities on several occasions, and, along with the Russian aggressions in Manchuria, eventually led to the great Russo-Japanese War of 1904–1905, which will be dwelt upon fully in the last section of this chapter.

**Pro-
gressive
Japan's
Superior-
ity over
Conserve-
ative
China.**

**Revolt of
Formosa
against
Japan.**

**Russia's
Designs
on Korea.**

**Revolu-
tions in
Korea.**

**Russo-
Japanese
Rivalry
in Korea.**

**Result
of this
Rivalry.**

SECTION IV.—FOREIGN AGGRESSIONS AND BOXER OUTBREAK IN CHINA (A. D. 1895–1900).

Russo-
Chinese
Financial
Relations
and the
Chinese
Indem-
nity to
Japan.

AFTER the Chino-Japanese War, Russia increased her influence upon China as a result of a clever financial coup organized between the Russian government and the Paris bankers. A Chinese indemnity loan was floated successfully in the French capital in July, 1895, the proceeds of which were handed over to China by Russia, which power guaranteed the interest. Ten million pounds sterling of the amount thus raised, which was paid over to Japan in accordance with the treaty of peace, was deposited by the Japanese government in the Bank of England, most of it being destined to pay for new Japanese ships of war. Japan's industrial progress after her war with China was most remarkable, and Japan was becoming as preëminent in the arts of peace as she had been victorious in war.

China's
Foreign
Relations.

After the Chino-Japanese War there were a series of isolated, though in some cases very serious, outbreaks of the anti-foreign mob spirit in China; which spirit resulted in the destruction of the foreign mission station and the massacre of several British missionaries at Ku-cheng, near Fu-chen, in August, 1895. In compliance with the stern demand of the British government, the Viceroy of the Chinese province of Szu-chuan was degraded, a consular investigation was held and a number of the guilty were executed. France obtained a rectification of the frontier between China and French Indo-China and considerable trade advantages with China. By a treaty with China in 1896 Russia secured the right to extend her Trans-Siberian Railway through Manchuria.

China's
Demoral-
ized
Condi-
tion.

The close of the Chino-Japanese War found China in a demoralized condition. Her navy was annihilated; her army was broken up; her finances were in disorder; her government was reeking with corruption; her condition generally was absolutely helpless, and her Empire was believed to be in the throes of dissolution. China's general policy in opposing modern progress had borne its legitimate fruit; and even the brilliant abilities of such distinguished statesmen as Prince Kung, the Marquis Tseng and Li Hung Chang, who had been prominent in China's public affairs during the last forty years of the nineteenth century, were unable to stay the progress of decline and decay which seemed destined to overtake the oldest nation still existing in the world—the only modern nation which dates its existence from the remotest antiquity. While her apparent end seemed pathetic, she had brought herself to her present pass by her persistent opposition to modern progress and enlightenment.

The Great Powers of Europe were not slow to take advantage of China's helpless condition to aggrandize themselves at her expense. For the purpose of extending their trade, Russia, Germany and France seemed intent upon a partition of the Celestial Empire, each to take a large slice of territory wherein to plant its political influence as well as to establish its trade firmly. In the latter part of 1897 Kiao-Chau Bay was occupied by a German military and naval force on the pretext of punishing the massacre of German missionaries by a Chinese mob, and China was forced to cede Kiao-Chau Bay and the adjacent territory to Germany for trade purposes, January, 1898. Soon afterward Russia seized Port Arthur and obtained the cession of that port and Ta-lien-wan from the Chinese Emperor for naval and commercial purposes. A little later a French fleet occupied the large and important island of Hainan, off the southern coast of the mainland of China, and obtained the cession of territory in Southern China for commercial purposes. These cessions of Chinese territory were called "leases" and "spheres of influence," and the European powers which obtained them were aiming for political influence as well as for trade and commercial privileges. It was believed that the European powers were seeking to partition China among themselves as they had partitioned Africa.

Threat-
ened
European
Partition
of China.

Long and complicated negotiations ended in the conclusion of a large loan to China by an Anglo-German syndicate, which was completed only after M. Pavloff, the very energetic Russian Minister to China, had opposed successfully a proposal for a loan to China guaranteed by the British government and many other proposed arrangements. In the meantime the business of obtaining concessions for the construction of railways and the development of mines in China was pushed very actively by Russian, German, French, Belgian, Italian, British and American syndicates, thus causing intense commercial rivalry among the European powers and the United States. A concession for a railway from Peking to Hankow was granted by the Chinese government to a Belgian syndicate acting in the interest of France and Russia, in June, 1898. Russia was busy at the port of Niu-Chwang as well as at fortifying Port Arthur and Ta-lien-wan, the name of the latter afterward being changed to Dalny. The agents of the German-Asiatic Bank were active also. Besides obtaining valuable concessions in South China, France was granted privileges at Shanghai, in spite of the most vigorous opposition from Great Britain, which for many years had controlled the commercial activities of the Yang-tse-Kiang valley, the chief port of which was Shanghai.

Foreign
Railway
and
Mining
Conces-
sions in
China.

These concessions to foreign syndicates in China never were relished by the Dowager Empress and the Conservative party at Peking; and the

Coup
d'état
of the
Dowager
Empress
of China.

result was a remarkable *coup d'état* in the imperial palace in China's capital, in September, 1898, by which the wicked Dowager Empress, a woman guilty of many political murders and having the active support of the anti-foreign mandarins, practically deposed her nephew, the Emperor Kwang-su, reëstablished herself as regent and caused six of the leading reformers to be beheaded. After this palace revolution the energetic and vigorous but wicked Dowager Empress announced herself as favoring a policy of moderate reforms and proceeded to adopt a remarkable new precedent by receiving the wives of the foreign Ministers at the imperial palace in Peking. After that remarkable palace revolution in China's imperial capital the Dowager Empress was practically the real ruler of China for the rest of her days.

Russia's
Rivalry
with
Great
Britain
and
Japan.

Lord Salisbury was criticised very severely in England for his lack of vigor in opposing the aggressions of Russia in the Far East, his course in this instance being in direct contrast with his vigorous and effective opposition to France's threatening attitude in Africa in connection with the Fashoda incident. The political and commercial rivalry of Russia with Great Britain and Japan in China, Manchuria and Korea continued; Russia seeking political preponderance and commercial monopoly in those countries, while Great Britain and Japan were striving for equal trade privileges, or for the "open door" policy of all nations in the Far East, having the support of the United States in this attitude, as the great American Republic was competing with the other great nations of the world for the Chinese trade. As an insular nation, like Great Britain, Japan depended upon foreign commerce for the support of her people; and China was her nearest market. There was a constant rivalry between Russia on one side and Great Britain and Japan on the other side for commercial supremacy and political influence in the Far East, and this rivalry threatened to break out into hostilities several times during the year 1899. The combined fleets of Great Britain and Japan in Far Eastern waters were far superior to the fleets of all other powers in those waters. Russia and Japan by turns had controlled the policy of Korea, according as which party at Seoul swayed the destinies of Korea. Japan was alarmed at Russia's aggressions in Manchuria as well as at her spasmodic influence in Korea. Great Britain was as jealous of Russia's aggressions in Korea as was Japan; and when Russia caused the British commissioner of customs at Chemu'po, Korea, to be superseded by a Russian customs commissioner a British fleet proceeded to that Korean port and restored the deposed British commissioner, and the matter was settled by British and Russian diplomacy. The rivalry between Russia and Japan on repeated occasions threatened to break out into a war between those two empires. In case of hostilities Japan would

have had the advantage of numerical superiority on both sea and land, as her navy in those waters was far superior to that of Russia, while on land she could have poured several hundred thousand troops into Korea and Manchuria long before the Russians could have put an equal force into the field in those countries, as the Russian troops would have had to be transported by land five thousand miles from European Russia, and the Trans-Siberian Railway was not yet completed.

The active rivalry between the Russian and British Ministers at the Chinese capital, sometimes amounting to direct opposition early in 1899, was terminated eventually by an agreement between the Russian and British governments regarding their respective interests in China. These two Great Powers agreed to maintain the integrity and independence of China and provided against any clash of interests concerning railway development in Manchuria and in the Yang-tse-Kiang valley. This Anglo-Russian agreement for the time put an end to Anglo-Russian rivalry in the Far East.

An imperial decree issued by the Dowager Empress on January 24, 1900, announced the incapacity of the Emperor Kwang-su and the appointment of Prince Tuan's nine-year-old son, To-Pu-Chun, as the heir to the Chinese imperial throne. The Dowager Empress immediately dismissed the generalissimo of the Chinese armies and other prominent state officials. These arbitrary proceedings produced rebellious outbreaks at Swatow and in the interior provinces of China under the instigation of the Chinese reform party, which appealed to the British, American and Japanese Ministers at Peking to intervene and restore the Emperor Kwang-su to his throne. The deposition of Kwang-su caused great indignation in Japan. Kang-Yu-Wei, one of the reform leaders, telegraphed from Singapore, British India, that he could raise an army of four hundred thousand men to restore the deposed Emperor. The *China Gazette* accused the Dowager Empress of fearing a revolution in Peking and appealing to Russia for aid, against which Japan protested. The Dowager Empress continued her persecution of the Chinese reform party and her antagonism to all Western ideas in China, drawing up a list of three hundred reformers who were to be proscribed and another list of thirty-five who were to be killed as soon as they were captured, at the same time offering a sum equal to one hundred thousand dollars for the head of Kang-Yu-Wei. The arbitrary course of this woman ruler threatened to involve China in both civil and foreign war. In a secret edict which she issued the Dowager Empress asserted that foreign powers were coveting China with "tiger-like voracity" and that she deprecated "the evil habits" of Chinese viceroys and governors attempting peaceable solutions of international disputes, saying: "It is our special command that should

Russo-
British
Agreement.

Another
Coup
d'état
by the
Dowager
Empress
of China.

any high official find himself so hard pressed by circumstances that nothing short of war would settle matters he is expected resolutely to set himself to work out his duty to this end." In the new examination for degrees in honor of the Chinese Emperor's birthday the Dowager Empress ordered that the examining officials should suppress all essays mentioning reform, Western science or "new ideas"; threatening severe punishment to all who disobeyed this decree.

In the spring of 1900 the disorders in China became extreme, especially in the provinces of Shantung and Pechili, whence they threatened to spread into other provinces. The boldness of the *Boxers*, a powerful anti-foreign league of Chinamen, increased as time went on. The *Boxers* were so called because the pretended reason for their existence was to indulge in the athletic pastime of boxing. They continued their outrages on foreigners in the provinces of Shantung and Pechili. The efforts of Chinese officials to fulfil the government's promises to suppress and punish the *Boxers* were only half-hearted; and the lawlessness had become so serious as to give rise to the report from Shanghai that the British, French, German and American Ministers in China had sent a joint note to the Tsung-li-Yamen, or Chinese Foreign Office, on April 7, 1900, to the effect that if the *Boxers* were not suppressed by the Chinese authorities foreign troops would be landed in China and would march into the interior of the country to protect foreigners whose lives and property were menaced.

The Chinese government, under the Dowager Empress, showed itself either unwilling or powerless to suppress the constantly-increasing lawlessness of the *Boxers*. It issued wordy commands which were not enforced, and it expected the foreign diplomatic representatives to accept these commands as evidence of fulfilling its obligations. On April 19, 1900, an imperial edict was issued to all Chinese viceroys and governors, directing them to warn armed organizations to refrain from hostile and lawless acts toward native Christians and to punish with great severity any violation of this edict. To offset this the Dowager Empress issued a secret edict to the Chinese soldiers not to fire on the *Boxers*, and no *Boxer* had been arrested so far. The Tsung-li-Yamen discussed an offer of Russian troops to suppress the disorders which the *Boxers* had excited. During the second week of June, 1900, the Dowager Empress issued another decree virtually justifying the *Boxer* disturbances. From the very beginning of the outbreak the Chinese government's attitude was practically one of approval of the anti-foreign *Boxer* movement; and the Chinese troops supposed to be fighting the *Boxers* were operating against them in a half-hearted manner, while many of the troops openly deserted to the *Boxers*. The Dowager Empress issued an edict censuring the Chinese General Nieh for killing

**Boxer
Out-
breaks
in 1900.**

**Insincere
Attitude
of the
Chinese
Govern-
ment.**

Boxers and transferring him to another station, and the military desertions to the Boxers were with her connivance and approval.

A mob of three thousand Boxers attacked sixty British troops under Captain Watson at Wei-hai-wei, but were repulsed without any loss to the British. On May 16, 1900, it was announced that the Boxers who had murdered the English missionary Brooks had been punished by order of the Dowager Empress, one of the murderers being beheaded, another being sentenced to strangulation, a third to life imprisonment and four others to ten years' imprisonment. It was stated afterward that the two men condemned to death purchased substitutes to receive the penalty in their stead, one for a sum equal to one thousand dollars and the other for a sum equal to six hundred dollars.

**Boxer
Repulse
and
Punish-
ments**

A condition of anarchy existed between Peking and Tien-tsin. The destruction of the Christian mission stations and the massacre of native Chinese Christians was spreading throughout the provinces of Pechili and Shantung; and thousands of foreign missionaries and native Christians fell victims to the inhuman fury of the Boxers and the Chinese troops, being hacked to pieces in the most inhuman manner at Tungchow, Weiksien, Kung-tsun and other places. Several thousand were massacred at the Roman Catholic convent at Paotingfu. The English missionaries Norman, Robinson and Ellis were cut to pieces. The Christian missionaries in Peking appealed to Christendom to come to their rescue. The Methodist missionaries in Peking cabled an appeal to President McKinley. The great foreign powers told the Dowager Empress of China to restore order or they would do so.

**More
Boxer
Massa-
cres.**

Late in May, 1900, owing to the spread of the Boxers' outbreak and the dangerous excitement which prevailed in Peking, the legations of the Great European Powers and the United States notified the Tsung-li-Yamen that foreign guards had been summoned and would arrive immediately. The disturbances which the Boxers excited in the vicinity of Peking produced a crisis which brought three hundred and forty British, American, French, Italian, Russian and Japanese troops into the Chinese imperial capital, with quick-firing cannon. Several American warships under the command of Admiral Kempff were stationed at Taku, with the warships of the Great European Powers and Japan.

**Foreign
Guards
in Peking.**

On June 10, 1900, about two thousand foreign troops—British, Americans, French, Germans, Italians, Russians and Japanese—left Tien-tsin for Peking by train, under the command of the British Vice-Admiral Edward Hobart Seymour; and the next day—June 11, 1900—this allied international force routed the Boxers at Lang-fang, midway between Tien-tsin and Peking, about thirty-five Boxers being killed; but, as many miles of the railway had been torn up by the Boxers, Admiral Seymour's relief force was delayed in its advance to the

**Admiral
Seymour
and His
Relief
Expedi-
tion.**

Chinese capital to rescue the foreign legations, missionaries and others. The foreign Ministers in Peking were virtual prisoners, and their only protection against attacks from Chinese troops and mobs was a small international guard. Admiral Seymour's relief force was not heard from for several weeks. Captain McCalla, the commander of the American marines in Admiral Seymour's expedition, saved the expedition from starvation. A few American marines under Lieutenant Jayne went on a perilous expedition up the Peiho river. The famous United States battleship *Oregon* ran ashore on Hookie Island and was disabled.

Foreign
Troops
and War-
ships.

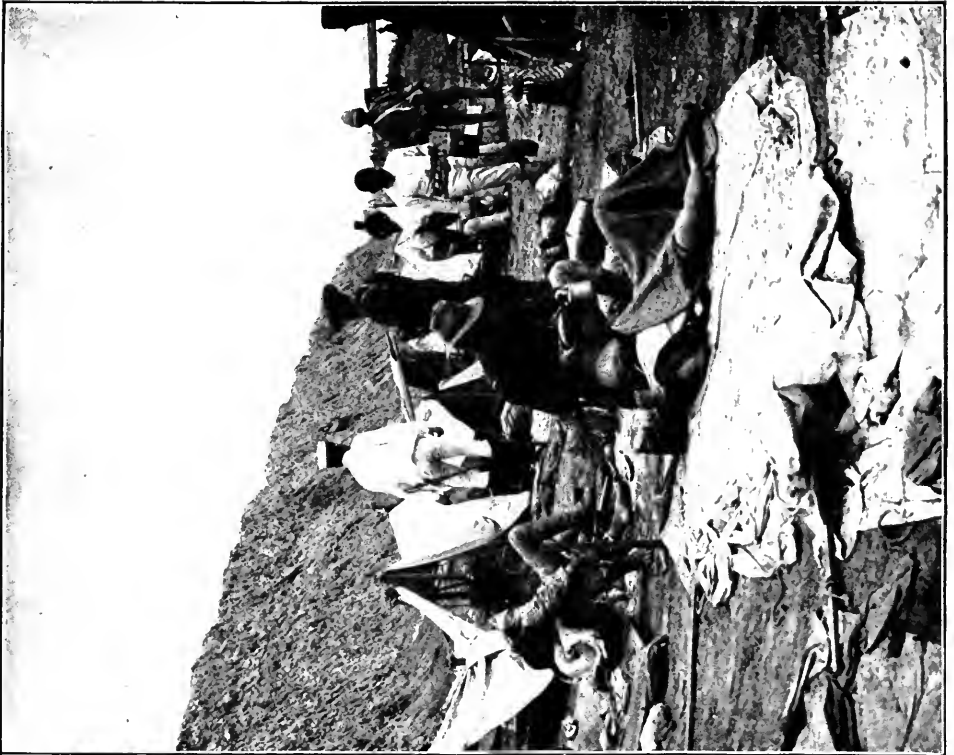
The allied foreign powers came to an understanding by which each agreed to send troops to rescue their beleaguered envoys in Peking. Russia sent six thousand troops from her garrison at Port Arthur, and Great Britain sent six hundred from Hong Kong; while warships of Great Britain, Russia, Germany, France, Japan and the United States had collected in the vicinity of Taku, to be prepared for any emergencies. Thus China had arrayed herself against Christendom and defied all the great nations of the world.

Capture
of Taku
by the
Allies.

On Sunday, June 17, 1900, the allied international fleet was fired upon by the Chinese forts at Taku without warning, whereupon the allied foreign fleets bombarded the Taku forts and took them. The British gunboat *Algerine* was damaged. The losses of the allies were as follows: Twenty-one killed—one Briton, one Frenchman, three Germans and sixteen Russians; fifty-seven wounded—four Britons, one Frenchman, seven Germans and forty-five Russians. The heavy Russian losses were due to the blowing-up of the magazine at Mandjur. About four hundred Chinese were killed and a large number were wounded. Thirty-two allied foreign warships were engaged in the fight with the Chinese forts. Two of the forts were blown up, and several of the foreign warships were struck by shells from the 12-inch cannon of the forts. While retreating from the forts the Chinese garrisons were captured by the Russian land forces. Admiral Kempff, the commander of the American warships, reported that he did not join in the attack on Taku because, to use his own words, "I was not authorized to initiate any act of war with a country with which my country was at peace."

Allied
Troops
Ordered
to China.

The action of the Taku forts in firing upon the allied fleet was said to have been in accordance with secret orders conveyed in a personal edict from the Dowager Empress of China, by advice of Kang-Yi, President of the Chinese Ministry of War. As China, by this action, practically declared war against the allied foreign powers, the powers took prompt action. Germany ordered four thousand troops to China. France ordered ten thousand from French Indo-China. Russia ordered



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THE BOXER TROUBLES

five thousand more from Port Arthur. Japan prepared to send twenty thousand men to the seat of action. Great Britain ordered several additional regiments from British India and ten thousand troops from South Africa, at the same time sending the warship *Daphne* to the scene of hostilities. The United States ordered three infantry regiments under General Adna Romanza Chaffee from the Philippines to China and ordered the cruiser *Brooklyn* under Admiral Remy from Manila to Taku. Li Hung Chang instructed the Chinese envoys in Europe and America to implore the allied powers not to send any more troops to China, but his request was refused outright by all the interested powers.

On June 21, 1900, it was announced officially that the Chinese portion of Tien-tsin was being bombarded by the allied fleets, because the Chinese were bombarding the foreign settlement there, having shelled and destroyed the American consulate and much of the foreign concessions. Admiral Seymour had not been heard from for more than a week, and a report spread to Europe that he had been killed. The foreign quarter of Tien-tsin was bombarded for five days by Chinese imperial troops, and the allied naval commanders at Taku were hurrying a relief expedition to that place. The United States gunboat *Nashville* rescued the whole foreign community at Peitaho, including thirty-three Americans; and eight hundred American soldiers took part with three thousand troops of other nations in defending Tien-tsin against a greatly-superior Chinese force. On June 21st four of Major Waller's United States marines were killed and seven wounded and one hundred and eighty Russians were killed and wounded in a Chinese ambush near Tien-tsin, in trying to relieve the besieged foreigners. In the fighting at Tien-tsin on June 22d the commander of the British battleship *Barfleur* was killed and the allies lost three hundred men in killed and wounded.

Bombardment of Tien-tsin.

On Sunday, June 24, 1900, the allied relief force of two thousand troops, half of them Japanese, started for Tien-tsin. On the same day a British Indian force consisting of eight hundred Sikhs and two hundred Welsh Fusiliers joined the American, German and Russian forces which had been cut off by the Chinese about nine miles from Tien-tsin. These combined allied troops made an assault on the Chinese force at Tien-tsin the same day and rescued the besieged foreigners. The British and American troops broke the lines of the Chinese besiegers and silenced the Chinese artillery, and they were the first of the allies to enter the city. The allies suffered small losses, the Russians suffering most, their loss being four killed and thirty wounded. Late in June three thousand Japanese troops landed at Taku, where a French battalion also arrived. After the allied relief force had gone

Relief of Tien-tsin

to rescue Admiral Seymour the Chinese regulars under General Nieh again fiercely bombarded the foreign settlement at Tien-tsin.

**Rescue of
Admiral
Seymour.**

Admiral Seymour's heliograph message for help spurred the international relief force under the Russian general to haste. The Russian general started on June 25, 1900, to rescue the British admiral and his allied troops and the foreign envoys who were supposed to be with him, as the American Admiral Kempff and the British Admiral Bruce had cabled their respective governments that Admiral Seymour's relief expedition then was eight miles from Tien-tsin and in dire straits and that the foreign Ministers were with the expedition. To the great relief of Christendom, it was learned on June 29, 1900, that Admiral Seymour and his brave marines from the allied nations had been rescued by the allied international force under the Russian general, the relief being effected by the advance column under the British Colonel Dorward. American marines under Commander McCalla, of the United States navy, participated in the rescue and saved the expedition from starvation; while Lieutenant Jayne, of the United States warship *Newark*, with a few American marines, went on a hazardous expedition up the Peiho river. It was learned now that the foreign Ministers were not with Admiral Seymour's expedition, which for fifteen days before its rescue had been fighting the immense hordes of Chinese who had surrounded and threatened to overwhelm the heroic little band of allies, who lost sixty-two killed and two hundred and six wounded. The four thousand Russians who had left Tien-tsin four days after Admiral Seymour never got into communication with him. The allied troops which had relieved the besieged foreigners at Tien-tsin and rescued the international column under Admiral Seymour were considered too few to rescue the imperiled foreign Ministers at Pekin, whose fate was unknown, as reports were conflicting.

**Massa-
cres in
Pekin.**

In the meantime Pekin was in the power of the Boxer mob; but this mob was directed and controlled by the Dowager Empress, Prince Tuan and their party; while Prince Ching, who desired to protect the foreigners, was utterly powerless. On Sunday night, June 10, 1900, the British legation's new summer residence near Pekin was burned down. On the 11th the Chancellor of the Japanese legation in Pekin was assassinated by Chinese soldiers belonging to the Dowager Empress's bodyguard. The next day—June 12, 1900—while a delegation from the Tsung-li-Yamen was calling on the British Minister, Sir Claude Macdonald, two thousand Christians were seeking refuge in Peitang Cathedral under Monseigneur Favier; and that very night the demoniac yells of the Boxers and the shrieks and groans of their dying victims resounded in other quarters of China's capital. According to Dr. Morrison, correspondent of the *London Times*, "acres of houses

were destroyed and the [native] Christians in thousands put to the sword." Said the same writer: "During the awful nights of the 13th and 14th [June, 1900] Duke Lan, brother of Prince Tuan, and Chao-Shu-Chiao, of the Tsung-li-Yamen, had followed round in their carts to gloat over the spectacle." On the 15th—June, 1900—the Boxers set fire to a foreign drugstore and the flames spread and destroyed "the most interesting street in China, filled with priceless scrolls, manuscripts and printed books," along with "the pearl and jewel shops, the silk and fur, the satin and embroidery stores, the great curio shops, the gold and silver shops and nearly all that was of the highest value in the metropolis."

On June 19, 1900, the Chinese government, directed by the Dowager Empress, Prime Tuan and the reactionary mandarins, sent a message to the foreign legations in the Chinese capital to the effect that the capture of the Taku forts two days before—June 17, 1900—constituted a state of war and that therefore all foreigners must leave the Chinese capital within twenty-four hours under safe conduct and retire to Tien-tsin. The British Minister, Sir Claude Macdonald; the United States Minister, Hon. Edwin Hurd Conger, and the other diplomats, with the single exception of the Baron von Ketteler, the German Minister, suspecting Chinese treachery, feared to comply with the Chinese official demand; and their suspicions were justified by the tragedy of the following day. On the morning of June 20, 1900, as the Baron von Ketteler and his secretary were riding along Legation street, on their way to the Tsung-li-Yamen, they were attacked fiercely by Chinese soldiers; the Minister being killed and his secretary being wounded. The secretary escaped almost miraculously and returned to the other foreign legations in the British legation inclosure, and his account of the tragic end of the German Minister finally induced the other foreign Ministers to remain where they were and not to venture away from the British legation grounds and run the risk of assassination by a treacherous Chinese mob. In revenge for the murder of the Baron von Ketteler, the German guards burned the building of the Tsung-li-Yamen. The German government received messages of condolence and sympathy from the other great powers of the world; and all the foreign Ambassadors in Berlin, along with the Chinese Minister, called at the Foreign Office in that capital to express their sympathy. The Emperor William II. was furious with rage at the assassination of his diplomatic representative in China's capital and prepared to send an army to that country sufficiently large to avenge the crime. The Baron von Ketteler's wife, who still was in Peking, was an American woman, as was the wife of his successor, Dr. Mumm von Schwarzenstein, then German Envoy Extraordinary to the Grand Duchy of

**Assassination of
Baron
von
Ketteler.**

Luxemburg, who had been in Germany's diplomatic service for many years and who started for his new post in China a few days after his appointment.

**Siege
of the
Legations
in Peking.**

The siege of the foreign legations at Peking definitely began on June 20, 1900, the day of the murder of the Baron von Ketteler. The foreign diplomats and missionaries, all penned up in the British legation grounds, were fighting for their lives, being besieged under constant rifle and artillery fire, with women and children starving and dying in the legation buildings. The British legation grounds in Peking are an inclosure of ten acres surrounded with a high wall of sun-dried clay, and in this inclosure are a series of legation buildings. In this inclosure and in the adjoining palace of Prince Su the little band of foreign diplomats and missionaries, exposed to the constant rifle and artillery fire of the Boxers and Chinese troops, for eight long and weary weeks were protected by three hundred and forty foreign guards, who successfully repelled all the attacks of their infuriated foes, in one of the most heroic and celebrated defenses against superior odds to be found in all history, until finally rescued by the allied army of deliverance on August 14, 1900. Heads of massacred foreigners were paraded constantly in the streets of Peking, at the tops of spears, followed by crowds who sang: "Tapi yang kwei tse; tapi, tapi!" ("Kill the foreign devils; kill, kill!") Peking's millions were roused to patriotic fervor, breaking out into the wildest excesses, while over half the city could be heard fighting around the legations. The foreign inmates of the British legation buildings could escape bullets only to face starvation. The survivors were short of food. During those terrible weeks of suspense Europe and America were without authentic news of the inmates of the legations, and even in official circles at times it was believed that the legations had fallen and that all the inmates had become victims to the fanatical rage of the Chinese mob. The American missionaries were assembled in the Methodist compound (inclosure), which had a guard of only ten marines. A committee of American missionaries sent out the following appeal: "Arouse the Christian world immediately to our peril. Should this arrive too late, avenge us." Sir Robert Hart reported several times that there was little hope of holding out successfully. A message from United States Minister Conger, dated July 4th, got to Tien-tsin and was as follows: "Been besieged two weeks British legation. Grave danger general massacre by Chinese soldiers, who are shelling legation daily. Relief soon, if at all. City without government except by Chinese army (which is) determined massacre all foreigners Peking. Entry relief forces into city probably be hotly contested. Conger." A cipher dispatch from Minister Conger on July 18th said: "Quick relief only can prevent

a general massacre." The United States government ordered Admiral Remy to "use and urge every means possible for the immediate relief of Minister Conger." Minister Conger sent to General Chaffee, the commander of the American contingent of the allied army marching on Peking, the following message: "We will hold out until your arrival." Sir Robert Hart cabled the following cipher message to London: "The sooner we are out of this the better, for it is inconvenient for the Chinese government and unsafe for ourselves."

The Dowager Empress of China issued two edicts declaring that reconciliation with the Christians is impossible; the whole nation—princes, military officials, literati and nobles—being united against them and now engaged in stamping them out. The Dowager Empress asserted that the allied foreign powers began the struggle by attacking Taku, thereby aggravating the bitter feeling against all foreigners. She asserted that any attempt to suppress the Chinese people would be dangerous, saying: "Therefore it seems expedient now to utilize the anti-foreign movement." One of the Dowager Empress's edicts asserted that she is ready to protect the threatened legations at Peking, remarking, however: "But it remains to be seen whether the foreigners or the Chinese are the stronger. In any case, all the Governors should immediately enroll troops for the defense of their districts, as they will be held responsible for loss of territory."

**Edicts
of the
Dowager
Empress
of China.**

It was reported the Boxers burned the mission hospital at Moukden, in Manchuria, and massacred the native Christians and that Boxers also destroyed a Roman Catholic mission near the Korean frontier of Manchuria. Boxers also shelled and burned Blagovestchensk, destroying much property, thus assailing the Russians in Manchuria. Aigun was burned after some days fighting, and the Chinese again bombarded Blagovestchensk late in July. The Russians burned some villages and drove the Chinese from Bejantum, capturing five Krupp cannon and four gun carriages.

**Boxers
and
Russians
in Man-
churia.**

In the meantime fighting had been going on almost daily at Tien-tsin, and the Chinese quarter of the city was bombarded constantly by the allies. By the end of June, 1900, the allies had landed fourteen thousand troops at Taku, and these foreign troops were going daily to reinforce the allied force at Tien-tsin. The Chinese surrounded and bombarded the foreign settlement. The Japanese pushed on to Tien-tsin; and a Russo-Japanese force left Tien-tsin, following the railway as far as Lang-fang, whence they swept swiftly to the west, attacking the Chinese troops sent out by Prince Tuan, eighteen miles north of Tien-tsin, and killing one thousand of them. On July 6, 1900, the allies were defeated in a six hours' battle at Tien-tsin, the Chinese reoccupying the eastern arsenal after inflicting great loss upon the allies, and

**Incessant
Fighting
at
Tien-tsin**

both sides fighting with the greatest determination. The allied commanders sent urgent appeals for reinforcements, and the Japanese commander said that the international forces under his command were in imminent danger of general defeat. Chinese cannon were sweeping the streets of the foreign settlement at Tien-tsin, driving the allies from position after position. In the incessant fighting at Tien-tsin the Chinese were using twelve new cannon in advantageous positions; and, although they drove the allies from one position after another, they lost three thousand killed, among whom was General Kek. The Chinese were defeated twice at new positions commanding the river communications with Tien-tsin near the middle of July, but the Chinese forces besieging Tien-tsin were growing stronger daily and were attacking the foreign settlement incessantly.

Allied
Repulse
at
Tien-tsin.

On July 13, 1900, the allies were repulsed terribly by the Chinese at Tien-tsin. The Ninth United States Infantry was cut to pieces; and its commander, Colonel Emerson H. Liscum, was killed. Other allied officers also were killed. More than one hundred of the allied troops were killed and over three hundred were wounded in an attempt to storm the native city wall. Seven thousand allied troops were engaged—Americans, British, Japanese, Russians and French; while the Chinese troops numbered twenty thousand. The battle began at dawn and lasted all day, ending at nightfall in a Chinese victory. The Chinese troops at Tien-tsin were armed with modern Krupp canon and Mauser rifles, more than eighty thousand Chinese troops being armed with these improved implements of war. The accuracy of their fire showed how rapidly the Chinese learned under German, French, Russian and English tutors.

Capture
of
Tien-tsin
by the
Allies.

Finally, on July 15, 1900, after terrific fighting, the allies drove the Chinese forces entirely out of Tien-tsin, back to the Shekan arsenal. Tien-tsin was taken and the battle won by the British naval cannon and lyddite shells, the Chinese troops being demoralized so thoroughly that they stole away quietly in the night, leaving the native Chinese quarter to the mercy of the frenzied inhabitants, who plundered that entire district. The left wing of the allies consisted of the British and Americans under the command of the British General Dorward. Only after repeated assaults by the British, American and Japanese troops was the city taken. The city caught fire from the British lyddite shells and was almost destroyed. Thus Tien-tsin—a Chinese city with a million inhabitants—was in the military possession of the allied international forces. The British standard floated over the north gate of the city walls, the American flag over the south gate, the Japanese banner over the east gate and the French tricolor over the west gate. The victorious allied troops, exhausted by the long and fierce fighting, rested or

the city walls. When the triumphant foreign forces entered the native Chinese quarter they found the walls strewn with the dead bodies of Chinese soldiers and a large part of the Chinese population dead in their houses, all killed by the destructive British lyddite shell fire. The Chinese quarter was plundered by its own inhabitants while the city was burning. In the attacks upon the city before its capture the Russians were upon the east and north; and other allied forces, which were under the command of the Japanese General Fukushima and the British General Dorward, were on the south. The Chinese imperial troops had destroyed the bridge and flooded the canal, thus making it impossible to cross the canal. The Chinese finally evacuated all their positions near Tien-tsin about July 21, 1900, and three hundred tents were pitched there for the wounded allies.

The allied foreign powers still were sending troops and warships to China. More British troops proceeded to China from British India. French troops and warships sailed from Toulon for the scene of hostilities. German troops and warships sailed from Kiel for the same destination. American troops under General Adna Romanza Chaffee were sent to China from the Philippines, and American warships under Admirals Kempff and Remey were near the seat of action. Russian troops were on the way from Manchuria. Japan was sending twenty thousand troops to China, and of all the international troops in the field hers were the best-equipped as well as the most numerous. There were nine foreign warships at Shanghai—four British, two Japanese, one American, one French and one Dutch. The French Chamber of Deputies voted an additional fourteen and a half million francs to conduct military operations in China, and drastic measures were proposed in the British Parliament to deal with the situation there. Great Britain also notified the Chinese imperial government and the Viceroys of the various Chinese provinces that they would be held responsible personally if any Europeans within their respective jurisdictions were harmed by the bloodthirsty Boxers.

In the meantime Prince Tuan's emissaries had been endeavoring to spread the Boxer propaganda over China. Risings were feared at Niu-Chwang, Chefoo, Fouchow, Shanghai, Nankin, Amoy, Canton and Hankow. Fiendish massacres of foreign missionaries and native Chinese Christians were perpetrated at various places. The distinguished Chinese statesman, Li Hung Chang, then Viceroy of Canton, was threatened by the Boxers because he protected "foreign devils." The Viceroy of Hankow nipped the threatened Boxer outbreak there. The Boxer movement threatened to spread over southern China, but the energetic action of the Viceroys of the southern provinces stayed the anti-foreign craze.

**More
Foreign
Troops
Sent to
China.**

**Threat-
ened
Spread
of the
Boxer
Move-
ment.**

**Situation
at
Canton.**

Li Hung Chang, as Viceroy of the Kwang provinces, Kwangtung and Kwangsi, was doing all in his power to protect the foreigners within his jurisdiction; and he caused the daily arrests and executions of Boxers and smugglers loaded with arms and ammunition, but the rowdy element there was undismayed. In the surrounding country the people were more threatening than in the city, and the following inflammatory placards were posted freely:

**Inflam-
matory
Placards.**

“ We, the Chinese children of the sages, are faithful and filial as well as modest. How does it come to pass then that any of us can so far forget himself as to become the proselyte of a barbarian’s religion? Tens of thousands of native converts have been killed in North China and their houses and possessions destroyed. Because of this all the countries of the world have sent soldiers to Tien-tsin to protect the converts. This they have failed to do. The mission churches, the foreign consuls and all the barbarian troops have been slaughtered, just as you kill chickens and dogs. You converts have involved the barbarians in this calamity. We look upon you as rebels, and soon your doom will overtake you. Unhappy is your condition, for all men hate and despise you. Great is your distress. Your hands hang helpless to your sides. Despair has seized your minds. Death alone will relieve you. By following the doctrines of these renegades and foreigners you have forfeited your rights as men. We warn you at once to fly to safe hiding places while yet there is opportunity.”

**China’s
Plea for
Peace.**

Li Hung Chang, who had been transferred from the post of Viceroy of Canton to that of Viceroy of the province of Pechili, in which Peking is situated and which has a population of eighteen million inhabitants, exerted himself for peace, appealing to the United States to stop the allied movement on Peking; but the United States refused to do so as long as the Chinese were fighting the allies and besieging the foreign legations in Peking. The Emperor Kwang-su appealed successively to President McKinley, the Emperor William II. and President Loubet for peace and for the stopping of the allied advance on his capital; but all these rulers refused his request so long as the foreign legations were besieged in Peking and so long as the Chinese troops were opposing the march of the allied troops for the relief and rescue of the beleaguered foreign envoys.

**Field-
Marshal
Count
von Wal-
dersee.**

Owing to the animated rivalry and jealousy between the British and the Russians as to which should furnish the chief commander of the allied troops in China, the allied powers finally agreed upon the German Field-Marshal Count von Waldersee, a warrior high in the estimation of the Emperor William II. The United States agreed to accept him as the international generalissimo provided war existed in China when he arrived there.

In the meantime jealousies among the allied powers hindered harmonious action among them, especially the traditional jealousy between Russia on the one side and Great Britain and Japan on the other; and only the urgent necessity for common united action prevented an open rupture on several occasions. The apparent disposition of the Russians to hold on to Manchuria, where they had defeated the Boxers in a number of engagements, aroused the jealousy of the British and the Japanese; while the attitude of the British at Shanghai was causing uneasiness to the French and Germans, who protested against the landing of British troops there. Great Britain and the United States acted harmoniously as allies in their policy toward China, opposing all schemes for wars of conquest and all projects for the partition of China, their only purpose being to rescue their beleaguered legations and to protect their respective subjects and citizens in that Far Eastern country. The allied powers seemed to be alligned thus: Great Britain, the United States and Japan standing together, while Russia, France and Germany appeared to be acting in harmony. There was no open expression of such attitude; but the apparent disposition of the powers acting for the moment in unison against the Boxers furnished seeming evidences of such division among them, which only the most skillful diplomacy was able to conceal.

The Emperor William II. of Germany called for vengeance on China and prepared a fleet and army to execute his demands. In addressing the force of German marines which sailed from Wilhelmshaven for China on July 2, 1900, His Majesty spoke as follows:

“The firebrand of war has been hurled in the midst of the most profound peace. Unhappily, this was to me not unexpected. A crime of unspeakable insolence, horrifying in its barbarity, has been committed against the person of my trusty representative and has taken him from us. The Ministers of the other powers hover between life and death, and with them comrades sent for their protection. It may be that while I speak they have already fought their last fight. The German flag has been insulted and the German Empire treated with contempt. This demands exemplary punishment and vengeance. Events have moved with frightful rapidity and have become profoundly grave and still graver. Since I called you to arms what I hoped to effect with the help of the marine infantry has now become a difficult task, which can only be fulfilled with the help of the serried ranks of all civilized states. This very day the commander of the cruiser squadron has asked me to consider the dispatch of a division. You will have to face an enemy who are no less courageous than yourselves and trained by European officers. The Chinese have the use of European weapons. Thank God, your comrades of the marine infantry and my navy, when

**Attitude
of the
Allied
Powers.**

**Speech
of the
German
Emperor
at Wil-
helms-
haven.**

they have encountered them, have proved true to the old German battle cry. They have defended themselves with glory, have won victory and have done the duty committed to them. I now send you out to avenge the wrong and ill. Do not rest until the German flag, joined to those of the other powers, floats triumphantly over China's flag, and until it has been planted on the walls of Peking to dictate peace to the Chinese. You will have to maintain good comradeship with all the other troops whom you will come in contact with over yonder. Russians, British and French, all alike, are fighting for one common cause—for civilization. We must bear in mind, too, something higher—namely, our religion and the defense and protection of our brothers out there, some of whom staked their lives for the Saviour. Think, also, of the honor of our arms. Think of those who fought before you. Go forth with the old Brandenburg motto: 'Trust in God, stand bravely. This is the whole of thy honorable duty. For who, helped by God, dares battle heartily, is never driven from the world.' The flags which here float above you go under fire for the first time. See that you bring them back to me clean and stainless and without a spot. My thanks, my prayers and my solicitude go with you."

Address
of the
German
Emperor
at Kiel.

Addressing his First Naval Division at Kiel, prior to its departure for China, on July 9, 1900, the German Emperor said:

"Yours is the first division of armored ships which I send abroad. Remember, you will have to fight a cunning foe, provided with modern weapons, to avenge the German blood which has flowed. But spare the women and children. I shall not rest until I have forced China upon her knees and all the bloody deeds are avenged. You will fight together with the troops of various nationalities. See that you maintain good comradeship with them."

Speech
of the
German
Emperor
at
Bremer-
haven.

A part of the German force destined to invade China sailed from Bremerhaven on July 27, 1900, on board three transports, on which occasion the Emperor William II. delivered a farewell address, of which the following is a part:

"Every German has been filled with pride to learn that the highest praise bestowed upon German warriors has come from the mouths of foreign leaders. The task before you is a great one. That a people like the Chinese should cast to the winds international rights a thousand years old, and treat with scorn the sanctity of an Ambassador and the rights of hospitality in a manner so horrible, is unprecedented in the history of the world. Every civilization not founded on Christianity is sure to be brought to naught. So I send you out. May you all prove your German efficiency, devotion and bravery, bear joyfully all discomfort and uphold the honor and glory of our arms. You must set an example of discipline, self-domination and self-control. If you close

with the enemy, remember this: Spare nobody! Make no prisoners! Use your weapons so that for a thousand years hence no Chinaman will dare look askance at any German! Open the way for civilization once for all. * * * * The blessing of the Lord be with you. The prayers of the whole people will accompany you in all your ways. My best wishes for yourselves and for the success of your arms will ever follow you. Give proofs of your courage, no matter where. May the blessing of God rest on your banners and may He vouchsafe to you to find a path for Christianity in that far-off country. For this you have pledged yourselves to me with your oath to the colors. I wish you god-speed. Adieu, my comrades."

The Emperor William II. also preached a sermon on board the imperial yacht *Hohenzollern* on Sunday, July 29, 1900, the day of the assassination of King Humbert of Italy by an anarchist; the subject of this sermon being: "The Holy Duty and Holy Power of Intercession." The reports showed that the imperial sermon was bellicose throughout. Of the soldiers going to China the imperial preacher said:

"They shall be the strong arm which punishes assassins. They shall be the mailed fist which smites the chaotic mass. They shall defend, sword in hand, our holiest possessions. True prayers can still cast the banner of the Dragon into the dust and paint the banner of the Cross upon the walls. * * * * Once again has the heathen spirit of the Amalekites been raised in distant Asia, with great power and much cunning. With destruction and murder it will dispute the way to European trade and European culture. It will dispute the victorious march of Christian customs and Christian faith. And again is heard God's command: 'Choose us out men, and go out to fight with Amalek.' A hot and sanguinary struggle has begun. Already a number of our brethren are over there under fire. Many more are traveling along hostile coasts. You have seen them, the thousands who, to the call of volunteers to the front who will guard the Empire, have assembled themselves to battle with victorious banners. We who remain at home are bound by other sacred duties. Woe unto us if we remain slothful and sluggish while they are engaged in their difficult and bloody work, and if, from our place of security, we only curiously look on while they wrestle in battle. Not only should we mobilize battalions of troops, but we should also and shall set in motion an army of trained people to beg and entreat for our brethren that they may strike into the wild chaos with sword in hand. May they strike for our most sacred possessions. We would pray that God, the Lord, may make heroes of our men and lead those heroes to victory, and that then, with laurels on their helmets and orders on their breasts, He may lead them home to the land of their fathers. Our fight will not be finished in one day, but let

Sermon
of the
German
Emperor
on the
Imperial
Yacht
Hohen-
zollern.

not our hands grow weary or sink until victory is secured. Let our prayers be as a wall of fire around the camp of our brethren. Eternity will reveal the fulfillment of an old promise: 'Call upon Me in trouble, and I will deliver thee.' Therefore, pray continuously."

**Allied
March
on Peking.**

**Battles of
Peit-
sang,
Yang-
tsun and
Tsi-nin.**

On August 1, 1900, the allied army of twenty-five thousand men, consisting of British, French, Russians, Japanese and Americans, started from Tien-tsin for the advance on Peking, making good progress the first day. The main body of the Chinese imperial troops had left Peking on July 21st to oppose the march of the allies. The Chinese were fortifying their position outside the British legation. On Sunday, August 5, 1900, the Chinese were repulsed by the allies in a hard fight at Peit-sang, near Tien-tsin, with the loss of almost four thousand men killed and wounded, while the allies lost twelve hundred killed and wounded. The allied troops engaged numbered sixteen thousand and the Chinese thirty thousand. The engagement lasted seven hours, and the Chinese displayed great courage and military discipline. Two days later—August 7, 1900—the allies captured the Chinese position at Yang-tsun after a hard forced march in intense heat, which prostrated many men, the allies losing seven hundred men, sixty of whom were Americans. The next day—August 8—1900—the allies routed the Chinese in a brief engagement at Tsi-nin. The victorious allies now were rushing to Peking, with orders to take no rest; while the Chinese, in a panic, were retreating toward their capital, making little opposition to the advance of the allies, although Prince Tuan had ordered them to contest every inch of ground. The British-Indian contingent under General Sir Alfred Gaselee and the American contingent under General Adna Romanza Chaffee constituted the allied advance. The British General Dorward pronounced the American troops to be "soldiers of the highest class." The Count von Waldersee, who had not yet arrived in China, considered it a great honor to command such gallant soldiers as the American troops.

**Capture
of Peking.**

Finally, on August 14, 1900, the allies captured Peking, after an obstinate resistance on the part of the Chinese, and rescued the besieged legations and missionaries. It is said that when the overjoyed little band of foreigners heard the booming of the cannon of the allied armies coming for their deliverance they sang the familiar Doxology: "Praise God, from Whom all Blessings Flow." The Japanese lost one hundred men, the Chinese four hundred. The allies immediately surrounded the foreign legations to protect them. The allies were obliged to blow up the gates of the city before they could enter. The British and the Americans entered at the Tung Pien gates unopposed; while the Japanese and the Russians, after fierce fighting, blew up the two eastern gates of the Tartar city and entered. Among the Americans killed

was Captain Reilly, of the Fifth United States Artillery. After surrounding the legations the victorious allies drove off the Chinese and rescued the foreigners, all the Ministers being found safe. The Austrian Charge d'Affaires, Dr. von Rosthorn, was wounded slightly. It was said that Prince Ching extended a friendly reception to the allies. The Dowager Empress, The Emperor Kwang-su and the imperial court fled from the capital before the allies entered, going to Singanfu, an ancient capital of China, in the inaccessible portion of the province of Shensi, about seven hundred and fifty miles west of Peking.

The victorious allies still were fighting the Chinese in the streets of Peking and were bombarding the point where the Chinese still were resisting, part of the city being in flames. The Chinese were making a last stand in the inner city, the "Forbidden City," the allies surrounding that quarter and shelling it vigorously. The foreign envoys still were in Peking and were guarded. The United States consul at Tien-tsin reported that the American troops were surrounded in the palace grounds at Peking. The allies in Peking sent to Tien-tsin and Taku earnest requests for reinforcements. The Chinese troops soon were surrounded in the palace grounds of the sacred city, whither they had retired when the allies battered down the outside gates of the Tartar city. It was learned now that the foreign legations had been assailed furiously for two days and soon must have succumbed had not the allied relief force arrived just at the opportune moment. The relieving forces met with a joyful reception from the emaciated inmates of the foreign legations, who had only three days' rations left. About four thousand shells fell in the legation buildings during the siege, and sixty-five of the inmates were killed and one hundred and sixty were wounded. The British Indian troops had entered the British legation building at one o'clock and the Americans at three o'clock. The American and Russian flags had been planted on the eastern wall of Peking at eleven o'clock in the morning. The British and Americans had encountered little resistance until they entered the city, where there was street fighting. The flags of all the allies now were waving over the sacred city, the Chinese Holy of Holies, the imperial palace; five hundred American troops having attacked the palace and captured four of the courts, the Stars and Stripes thus flying over the Chinese Emperor's granary. The American troops were the first of the allied forces to enter the imperial city. The whole Chinese capital now was occupied by the allies, who divided it into districts for police supervision by international commissions, composed of British, Americans, Japanese, Russians and French. The American troops in Peking now were encamped on the grounds of the Temple of Heaven. Captain Reilly, of Battery F, Fifth United States Artillery, who was killed before the imperial palace, was buried in the legation

Occupation
of the
Sacred
City.

grounds; the American, British and Japanese generals and many civilians being present at the burial. Captain Reilly was known as a very brave and efficient artillery officer.

Street
Fighting
in Peking.

Street fighting continued in Peking, the allies being opposed at every step when they entered new districts, and not having sufficient force to police the city efficiently and put down the half-armed Chinese mobs, though they drove the Boxers from all points which they had occupied. The allies marched through the doors of the imperial palace, probably for humiliating effect on the Chinese nation; and afterwards they closed the doors of the palace, thus shutting out the Chinese soldiers. The Chinese forces rallied to attack the allies in Peking, and there were signs that the foreign troops might be besieged in the Chinese capital. The American troops were drawn up so as to face thirty thousand Boxers, and Japanese official advices showed that the struggle was not over by any means. By August 18, 1900, forty-six thousand foreign troops had landed at Taku. The allied army in Peking soon was reinforced by a German contingent, which constituted the vanguard of the army which the Emperor William II. was sending to China to avenge the murder of his Minister; and very soon the Count von Waldersee arrived in the Chinese capital to assume the chief command of all the allied forces there.

Shameful
Pillage.

The Germans, French and Russians disgraced themselves by their pillage of the Chinese capital, sending much valuable plunder to their respective countries; in which reprehensible proceedings the British, Americans and Japanese did not participate and against which they protested most vigorously. Among the valuable plunder sent to Europe was the famous clock which had been put in China's capital several centuries before by a celebrated Roman Catholic missionary. During the allied occupation of Peking it was learned that the Chinese had discovered America in A. D. 499.

Military
Operations
in
Pechili
and
Shan-
tung.

During the fall of 1900 the allies prosecuted military operations vigorously against the Boxers and the Chinese troops in the provinces of Pechili and Shantung, and won a number of victories over small Chinese detachments, while the Russians achieved a number of successes over the Chinese in Manchuria. The British and Germans sent several punitive expeditions to punish Boxer outrages. The Germans treated their vanquished Chinese foes with the most barbarous cruelty, shooting many of them after taking them prisoners and compelling them to stand over the graves which had been dug for them so that they would fall right into the graves as they were shot.

Attitude
of Russia
and the
United
States.

The trouble between China and the allied nations was settled only after many weary months of negotiations, prolonged largely by the attitudes of Russia and the United States. The proceedings of the

Russians in Manchuria caused uneasiness to Great Britain, Japan and the United States, as the Russian generals were issuing edicts of annexation in that Tartar province of China, in utter violation of recent assurances of the Russian government that it had no designs on Manchuria and that its troops were there only to suppress the Boxers; and the allies were convinced that the Russians did not intend to get out of Manchuria. The United States all along had acted with its allies in a half-hearted manner, fearing public sentiment at home, especially as a Presidential campaign was in progress there during that fall; though after the election the United States was brought into line with the other powers in the terms to be demanded of China. The Anglo-German agreement of October 16, 1900, by which Great Britain and Germany bound themselves to prevent the partition of China was a guarantee of the integrity of Chinese territory and of peace among the allied powers. As the principle of this agreement all along had been insisted upon by the United States, the United States thenceforth acted more harmoniously with her allies; her chief concern after the suppression of the Boxer outbreak being the integrity of the Chinese Empire and the maintenance of the "open door" in China, or equal privileges for all nations to trade with China, in which policy she always had been in full accord with Great Britain.

Anglo-German Agreement.

As early as August 20, 1900, Li Hung Chang had asked the allied powers for the cessation of hostilities and for the appointment of commissioners to negotiate a permanent peace, as Peking then had been captured and the foreign legations rescued. The next day he made a request for the speedy evacuation of the Chinese capital by the allied troops. The peace commission met in Paris on October 20, 1900, when the Chinese plenipotentiaries proposed an indemnity amounting to two hundred and thirty million dollars to be paid in sixty installments, all customs and similar taxes to be placed under foreign control in the meantime.

Peace Negotiations.

After almost a month passed in daily conferences, the allied Ministers at Peking finally agreed upon a joint preliminary demand upon China, subject to the approval of their respective governments. The terms were as follows: An indemnity amounting to three hundred and fifty million dollars to be paid by China to the allied nations; the execution of eleven guilty Chinese princes and high officials as a punishment for the Boxer outrages; the Taku forts and other forts on the Gulf of Pechili to be razed and the importation of arms and war material to be prohibited; permanent legation guards at Peking and guards of communication between Peking and the sea; imperial edicts suppressing the Boxers to be posted throughout the Chinese Empire for two years; the Tsungli-Yamen to be abolished and its functions to be vested in a Minister of

Peace Agreement.

Foreign Affairs, and rational intercourse to be permitted with the Chinese Emperor as in all civilized countries; provincial examinations to be suspended for five years, and in future all officials who have not made due effort to prevent outrages on foreigners within their respective jurisdictions to be removed from office immediately and punished; the indemnity to include compensation for the Chinese who suffered because of being employed by foreigners; the erection of a monument by China to the Baron von Ketteler at the site of his murder and the sending of a Chinese imperial prince to Germany to make an apology for the crime. China finally accepted the allied terms of peace, and the international troops were withdrawn gradually from the country.

Boycott
Against
American
Merchan-
dise.

National
Progress.

Tatsu
Maru
Affair.

By this agreement China gave Russia exclusive mining and railway privileges in Manchuria for three years, but on October 8, 1903, Russia failed to evacuate as agreed. The Russo-Japanese War, however, intervened, and by the Treaty of Portsmouth in 1905 Manchuria was restored to China. On January 15, 1908, the United States remitted ten millions eight hundred thousand dollars of the indemnity claims against China as being unjust. On January 13, 1904, a commercial treaty was proclaimed with the United States, but as Chinese immigration restrictions were still enforced by the latter, a boycott against American goods was declared by Chinese trade guilds on July 19, 1905. During 1906-8 internal affairs assumed a more progressive spirit, special features being the promise by the emperor on September 2, 1906, of constitutional government, army reform, extension of railways, telegraph lines, etc.; the agreement with Great Britain to suppress the opium traffic, and the approval in March, 1908, of laws introducing Western banking methods. In February, 1908, occurred the dispute with Japan over the *Tatsu Maru*, a Japanese vessel seized off Macao by Chinese officials, who claimed that she was transporting arms for Chinese revolutionists. This Japan denied, but after much diplomatic intercourse the incident was amicably settled. China continued her disputes with Japan, however, over railway concessions in Manchuria, and in May, 1908, a boycott was declared against Japanese merchandise.

SECTION V.—RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR (A. D. 1904-1905).

The
Great
War.

THE greatest event in the world's history during the years 1904 and 1905 was the great Russo-Japanese War, one of the most gigantic struggles in the annals of time—a conflict characterized by battles which for magnitude of numbers engaged and losses on each side as well as for length of duration have no parallels in history. To the surprise of mankind generally, the little insular Empire of Japan won



MUTSUHITO, MIKADO OF JAPAN

an unbroken series of victories on sea and land and came out victorious after a struggle of nineteen months, humbling her great rival in the dust and taking her place as one of the great military and naval powers of the world. Thus Japan, with only about fifty millions of people, after humiliating China with her four hundred million inhabitants, ten years later humbled Russia with her one hundred and thirty million.

The action of Russia in 1895, with the support of France and Germany, in depriving Japan of the great fruits of her victory over China by preventing the cession of the Liao-tung peninsula by China to Japan and afterward obtaining that peninsula for herself by treaty with China, eventually rendered war between Russia and Japan inevitable. In fact, it was inevitable long before that. Russia's gradual expansion eastward through northern Asia, which rendered ultimately necessary to her the control of important points on the Pacific coast of Asia opposite Japan, along with Japan's natural ambition to obtain possessions and commercial advantages on the Asiatic mainland, long before portended an armed collision between the empires of the Czar and the Mikado.

Russia's first acquisitions in the Far East since the middle of the nineteenth century were obtained by astute diplomacy at the expense of China; and her successes in this regard were due largely, first and last, to a full acquaintance with the Manchu characteristics. The acquisition of the Amour province by Russia from China through Count Muravieff's skillful diplomacy in 1858 as far south as the site of Vladivostok, with the right to navigate the Amour river for military and other purposes, seemed to open an auspicious way for the absorption of Manchuria by Russia, a very desirable country having an area of four hundred thousand square miles and vast deposits of coal, iron and other minerals and containing "the promise and potency of a splendid industrial future." There was no doubt that while the Chino-Japanese War was in progress that Russia had resolved fully to obtain the whole of Manchuria and that she also contemplated absorbing Korea with its valuable harbors, which were far superior to the port of Vladivostok, which is frozen over completely for five months of every year.

The starting-point in the recent rivalry between Russia and Japan was the Treaty of Shimonoseki in April, 1895, by which Japan obtained from China the possession of southern Manchuria, along with Russia's subsequent action by which Japan was deprived of the chief fruits of her victory over China. Russia had asserted that China's integrity must be preserved—that is, until China can be annexed to the Russian Empire. As compensation for confining the Japanese to their native islands, Russia obtained from China the railway and other

**Prelude
to the
War.**

**Russia's
Acquisition
of the
Amour
Region.**

**Russia's
Railway
Concessions
from
China
in Man-
churia.**

concessions in Manchuria which led directly to the Russo-Japanese rivalry which ended in war.

**China's
Integrity.**

China's integrity was the point insisted upon by the Great European Powers at the end of the Chino-Japanese War in 1895. China's integrity was insisted upon by the same Great Powers also at the time of their suppression of the great Boxer outbreak in China in 1900. During these five years many things transpired that had a bearing upon the situation between Russia and Japan. In the construction of the Manchurian Railway, in the operations of the Russo-Chinese Bank and in all the devices in which Russia is so skillful, that Great European Power had built up a claim steadily and had strengthened her hold on Manchuria, notwithstanding all her promises to China, Japan and the world not to annex that Chinese province to her own dominion.

**Great
Britain's
Rivalry
with
Russia.**

Besides Russia, the leading Great Power of Europe concerned in the Far Eastern question was Great Britain, which always had maintained that Russia's expansion eastward to the ice-free Pacific coast should be opposed as resolutely as her advance southward to the Mediterranean Sea or the Persian Gulf. Russia's acquisition of Port Arthur and Ta-lien-wan from China, in March, 1898, was not relished by Great Britain, as it disturbed very seriously the balance of power in the Far East and attacked the "equality of opportunity" for all nations which Great Britain always had upheld. To offset Russia's occupation of Port Arthur and Ta-lien-wan and Germany's acquisition of Kiao-Chau Bay, as well as France's gains in South China, Great Britain occupied Wei-hai-wei. Such was the famous scramble among the Great Powers of Europe for "leases" and "spheres of influence" in China, provoked by the insidious and subtle policy of Russia in her schemes of territorial aggrandizement in the Far East. One of the most important circumstances connected with the great Boxer uprising in China in 1900 and its results was the coming of the United States upon the scene in the Far East, with its insistence upon the same "open door" policy for international commerce in that quarter of the world as advocated by Great Britain, as a checkmate upon the "sphere of influence" scheme inaugurated by Russia, Germany and France.

**Franco-
Russian
and
Anglo-
Japanese
Alliances.**

The Chinese characterized the Franco-Russian alliance of 1895 as a coalition of freebooters and buccaneers for mutual support in the contemplated partition of China. In the spring of 1902 this Russo-French alliance was offset by an Anglo-Japanese alliance, the objects of which were the preservation of peace in the Far East and the protection of the interests of Japan, Korea and China; the prevention of war between Russia and Japan, and the prevention of France or any other power coming to Russia's aid to crush Japan. The effect of this Japanese-British alliance was "to give a new turn to the diplomacy

and politics of all Eastern Asia and to change the angle of vision of the Cabinet Ministers of the West."

As before stated, China's integrity was insisted upon by the great powers of the world after the suppression of the Boxer rising. In accordance with the terms of the Manchurian Treaty, signed by the diplomatic representatives of China and Russia in April, 1902, the Russian troops were to evacuate Manchuria within a year and a half—a result of the British-Japanese alliance and of the resolute insistence of the United States for the "open door" in the Far East. Russia gave various pretexts for her continued military occupation of Manchuria in violation of her solemn treaty with China and for her constant reinforcement of her army in that Tartar province of China. It was very evident that she never seriously intended to retire her troops from Manchuria, as she had invested millions of money in that province and as many Russian people had settled there, while the province was of so much value to her in a geographical point of view to the protection of Russian interests on the Pacific coast of Asia.

Russia's
Occupation of
Manchuria.

Japan was the main local protector of Mongolian interests; while her powerful ally, Great Britain, was her associate in that sphere. Germany and France were Russia's allies in the Far East. The United States had an interest in the commercial question involved in the situation. Both Great Britain and the United States were dissatisfied with Russia's attitude in Manchuria, but naturally Japan took the lead in checkmating Russia's schemes of aggrandizement in the Far East.

Attitude
of the
Great
Powers.

Russia's persistent meddling with Korea, especially since the close of the Chino-Japanese War, had aroused Japan to aggressive measures far more than had the Russian occupation of Manchuria. Both Russia and Japan were bound by treaty obligations to maintain the independence of Korea, but Russia's course in Manchuria and her commercial advances in Korea had aroused the most profound distrust on the part of Japanese statesmen. During the years 1903 and 1904 long and weary negotiations took place between the Russian and Japanese governments on the Korean question, Russia giving evasive answers to Japan's inquiries and evidently delaying a decisive answer until her armaments on sea and land were prepared fully for hostilities. While seemingly trying to settle the issues between them by diplomacy, the two powers were preparing for open hostilities, the Russians constantly pouring troops into Manchuria. The great issues involved were the independence of Japan and the restoration of Manchuria to China, along with the preservation of the Chinese Empire and Korea and the maintenance of the "open door" for trade in the Far East. Japan rightly feared that if Russia should annex Manchuria, Korea

Russo-
Japanese
Rivalry
over
Korea.

and China that the independence of Japan itself would be menaced; that if Manchuria were annexed to Russia the absorption of China by Russia would be inevitable, and if Korea also were annexed to Russia the days of Japan's independent existence would be numbered. Japan, therefore, concluded that war must come sooner or later, and therefore the sooner the better. The sympathies of the British and American people, therefore, were with Japan, both because they believed that her cause was just and because she stood for the "open door," thus striving to safeguard interests which were also the interests of Great Britain and the United States, Japan having resolutely pursued the policy enunciated by Secretary of State Hay's circular of 1900 and which formed the basis of the Anglo-Japanese agreement of 1902. Distrusting Russia's pretended professions of peace while she was preparing quietly for war, Japan was not caught napping and also had been silently pushing her military and naval preparations. The sequel showed that Japan was prepared fully for the struggle when it did come, while Russia was not. Russia's policy of diplomatic procrastination, giving evasive and deceptive answers to Japan's pointed interrogatories, did not work in this case; and Japan struck the great Russian Bear a hard blow full in the face before the Bear was ready to receive such blow.

**Diplo-
matic
Rupture.**

The long and tedious diplomacy between Russia and Japan was cut short very suddenly at the end of the first week of February, 1904. After waiting patiently for almost three weeks for an answer to its diplomatic note of January 13th, the Japanese government decided upon the last resort; and on the afternoon of February 7th M. Kurino, the Japanese Minister at St. Petersburg, called upon the Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs and formally announced that his government had directed him to break off diplomatic relations with the Czar's government, and he demanded his passports. After referring to Japan's demands that Russia should recognize the independence and territorial integrity of Korea, the Japanese Minister to Russia thus concluded his statement: "But finding in their efforts no prospect of securing from the Russian government any adhesion either to Japan's moderate and unselfish proposals or to any other proposals likely to establish a firm and lasting peace in the Far East, the Japanese government has now no alternative than to terminate the present futile negotiations. In adopting that course the Japanese government reserve to themselves the right to take such independent action as they may deem best to consolidate and defend Japan's menaced position as well as to protect her established rights and legitimate interests. The Japanese government, having exhausted in vain every means of conciliation with the view of removing from the relations of the two countries every cause

for future complication, and finding that her just representations and moderate and unselfish proposals made in the interest of permanent peace in the Far East were not receiving from the Russian government the consideration which is their due, have resolved to sever their diplomatic relations with the Russian government, which for the reason named have ceased to possess value."

While believing that Russia's reply to Japan's last diplomatic note would not be acceptable to Japan, the diplomatic world was surprised at Japan's action in breaking off diplomatic relations so abruptly. The Japanese Minister at St. Petersburg left the Russian capital as quick as possible, leaving Japanese interests in the hands of the United States Minister in that capital; while the Russian Minister at Tokio was recalled, thus completing the diplomatic rupture. Diplomatic ruptures do not imply war in every case; but in this instance it was recognized that such was the significance of Japan's action, and events very soon confirmed this view.

Japan instantly began naval operations. Events showed that her plans had been made well and that her preparations for an immediate advance were complete. On the very day of the diplomatic rupture at St. Petersburg—Sunday, February 7, 1904—a Japanese fleet took possession of the port of Masanpho, on the south-eastern coast of Korea; and on the night of the 8th and on the 9th—February, 1904—the war was opened in dead earnest at Port Arthur, that great Russian stronghold in the Far East being defended by massive fortifications and a strong Russian garrison under General Stoessel and by a fleet of thirty Russian warships, including five battleships and five cruisers, along with several torpedo-boats and torpedo-boat destroyers. It was not known that the Japanese were in the vicinity, and it was not expected that they would be there for several days. Evidently the Russians considered themselves as secure as in time of peace. Only one searchlight was at work, and there were few patrol boats there. Suddenly, about midnight, explosions were heard, quickly followed by the roar of small cannon from the aroused Russian fleet. Japanese torpedo-boats had approached the Russian fleet unobserved and had succeeded in placing their explosives against the big battleships *Retvizan* and *Czarevitch* and the cruiser *Pallada*. These three Russian warships were injured very seriously by the explosions, being practically disabled for the time and were reported as grounded near the inner harbor entrance. The two wrecked battleships were among the most modern in the Russian navy, the *Retvizan* having been built in the Cramps shipyards in Philadelphia in 1900, and the *Czarevitch* being the flagship of Admiral Wirenius, while the *Pallada* was a first-class protected cruiser. On the following day—February 9, 1904—a Jap-

Its
Result.

Russian
Warships
Injured
at Port
Arthur.

anese squadron of sixteen warships appeared at Port Arthur and bombarded the Russian fleet and the forts, and in the naval engagement which followed five more Russian cruisers were injured and disabled.

Russian
Warships
Injured at
Chemulpo,
Korea.

On the day after the Japanese naval successes at Port Arthur—February 9, 1904—another Japanese fleet made its appearance at the entrance of the harbor of Chemulpo, on the western coast of Korea, and demanded the surrender of the Russian cruiser *Variag* and the Russian gunboat *Koriets* within an hour; but, instead of complying with the Japanese demand, the two Russian war vessels came forward and gave battle, with the result that after an hour's fighting the Russian vessels retired and later were blown up and sunk, evidently by their own crews to prevent them from falling into the possession of the victorious Japanese, the crews escaping to other ships in the harbor. The *Variag* was recovered by the Japanese afterward and was towed to one of their own harbors. This cruiser was the flower of the Russian navy in many respects and had been built by the Cramps in Philadelphia. The Russians severely criticised the Chemulpo incident and issued a note of much force to the world, claiming that the Japanese violated all rules of war and placed themselves outside the pale of civilized nations by cutting the cable so that no news of a state of war could reach Chemulpo and by demanding that the two Russian vessels come out where they would be obliged to fight in the very midst of a neutral and peaceable shipping.

Other
Russian
Losses
at Sea.

Other disasters befel the Russians at sea, the torpedo transport *Yenisei* being blown up by accidentally striking a mine at Port Arthur, its captian and its crew of almost a hundred men being lost, while on this boat were the plans of all the mines and torpedoes in Port Arthur harbor. The Japanese also captured several Russian merchant ships or vessels loaded with coal or other supplies intended for Russian consumption.

Russian
Naval
Operations.

To offset their great losses at sea, the Russians were unable to inflict any very great damage on Japanese war or merchant ships. A Russian squadron of four cruisers, supposed to be the Vladivostok squadron, created some havoc in the northern portion of the Sea of Japan and was reported to have bombarded Hakodate on February 12, 1904, also sinking a merchant steamer flying the Japanese flag in the Tsugara Strait. The Japanese had closed this strait against any possible passage through it by laying a thorough system of mines. This Russian squadron retired westward, and little was heard of it thereafter, it being unable to join or aid the Russian fleet at Port Arthur.

Russia's
Formal
Declara-
tion of
War.

On February 10, 1904, Russia and Japan respectively issued their formal declarations of war against each other. The Czar's declaration justified Russia's position and criticised Japan's action by saying

the following: "In our solicitude for the maintenance of peace, which is dear to our heart, we made every exertion to maintain tranquillity in the Far East. In these peaceful aims we signified assent to the proposals of the Japanese government to revise agreements regarding Korean affairs existing between the two governments. However, negotiations begun upon this subject were not brought to a conclusion; and Japan, without awaiting receipt of the last responsible proposals of our government, declared the negotiations broken off and diplomatic relations with Russia dissolved. Without advising us of the fact that the breach of such relations would in itself mean an opening of warlike operations, the Japanese government gave orders to its torpedo-boats suddenly to attack our squadron standing in the outer harbor of the fortress of Port Arthur. Upon receiving reports from the Viceroy in the East of this we immediately commanded him to answer the Japanese challenge with armed force."

The Mikado's formal declaration of war against Russia was issued on the same day as the Czar's declaration of war against Japan, February 10, 1904, and stated Japan's side of the case by justifying Japan's attitude and severely censuring Russia's course during the whole controversy by saying: "It has been our constant aim to promote the pacific progress of our empire in civilization, to strengthen our friendly ties with other states and to establish a state of things which would maintain enduring peace in the Far East and assure the future security of our dominion without injury to the rights or interests of other powers. * * * The integrity of Korea is a matter of the gravest concern to this empire, not only because of our traditional relations with that country, but because the separate existence of Korea is essential to the safety of our realm. Nevertheless, Russia, in disregard of her solemn treaty pledges to China and her repeated assurances to other powers, is still in occupation of Manchuria, has consolidated and strengthened her hold on these provinces and is bent upon their final annexation. And since the absorption of Manchuria by Russia would render it impossible to maintain the integrity of China and would in addition compel the abandonment of all hope of peace in the Far East, we were determined in those circumstances to settle the question by negotiations and to secure thereby permanent peace. With that object in view our competent authorities by our order made proposals to Russia and frequent conferences were held during the last six months. Russia, however, never met such proposals in a spirit of conciliation, but by wanton delays put off a settlement of the serious questions, and by ostensibly advocating peace on one hand while on the other extending her naval and military preparations, sought to accomplish her own selfish designs. We cannot in the least admit Russia had

Japan's
Formal
Declara-
tion of
War.

from the first any serious or genuine desire for peace. She rejected the proposals of our government. The safety of Korea was in danger and the interests of our empire menaced. The guarantees for the future which we failed to secure by peaceful negotiations can now only be obtained by an appeal to arms."

**First
Japanese
Attempt
to Bottle
up Port
Arthur.**

Early on the morning of February 24, 1904, the Japanese attempted to bottle up the Russian fleet in Port Arthur harbor, in imitation of Hobson's exploit at Santiago harbor in the Spanish-American War. Five steamers, laden with stone and carrying explosives for the purpose of sinking them, came within view of the Russian searchlights and were fired upon very heavily, all five of the steamers being sunk and their crews being rescued by the Japanese torpedo-boats which accompanied them for that purpose under the protection of a Japanese squadron. At first the sinking of these steamers was heralded as the repulse of a heavy Japanese assault and therefore as a great Russian victory, being thus announced at St. Petersburg, where a *Te Deum* was ordered; but later reports showed the true nature of the affair—the intention of the Japanese to bottle up the inner harbor of Port Arthur. The effort was only partially successful, as Russian ships passed in and out of the harbor afterward. The same morning two Russian torpedo-boat destroyers were discovered detached from the Russian fleet, one being destroyed. Such was the result of the first Japanese attempt to bottle up Port Arthur.

**Bombard-
ment of
Port
Arthur.**

The Japanese fleet continued the investment of Port Arthur and daily bombarded its fortifications or its defending Russian fleet. The Japanese naval tactics seemed to be to avoid a conflict at close range, in which some of the Japanese vessels stood the possibility of being injured, but, instead, to shell the defenses of the stronghold and its protecting Russian fleet at safe range, which would be harassing and effective, until a Japanese land force could cooperate with the Japanese fleet in the reduction of this "Gibraltar of the East." The weakness of the Russian fleet enabled it only to act on the defensive, under the protection of the cannon of the forts. The capture of Port Arthur seemed to be the first object of the Japanese. Though considered impregnable by the Russians, it was already in a critical condition and resembled a great military camp, all civilians having left the city. The Russian Viceroy Alexieff already had removed his headquarters from Port Arthur to Moukden, the capital of Manchuria, two hundred and fifty miles distant. The Russian garrison of Port Arthur was reinforced by thousands of Russian troops, and the whole line of the railway was guarded closely. The Japanese made several attempts to land troops on the Liao-tung peninsula, at the southern extremity of which Port Arthur is located.



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JAPANESE HURLING A FIVE-HUNDRED-POUND SHELL AT PORT ARTHUR

Immediately upon the seizure of Masanpho and Chemulpo, the chief ports respectively on the southern and western coasts of Korea, large bodies of Japanese troops were landed in that country; and Seoul, the Korean capital, was occupied by a Japanese force, while Japanese troops were landed in northern Korea at the same time. The Yalu river was practically the dividing line between the Japanese and Russian armies, and several skirmishes between small detachments of the hostile forces occurred. By a treaty with Korea, Japan assumed a protectorate over that small independent empire. Foreign observers, officers and newspaper correspondents alluded to the organization, discipline and efficiency of the Japanese military forces in the highest terms, characterizing everything as perfect and as moving like clock-work.

**Japanese
Troops
Landed
in Korea.**

Before the outbreak of hostilities the Russians claimed to have two hundred thousand troops in Manchuria, but after the war had commenced they asserted the number to be only seventy-five thousand. The only connection which the Russian forces in Manchuria had with their European base, five thousand miles distant, was the new Trans-Siberian Railroad, a single-track and poorly-equipped line; the trip from Moscow to Harbin, in Manchuria, occupying thirteen days; and the number of troops that could be transported in one day was only three thousand, instead of seven thousand, as expected. Severe winter conditions prevailed in Manchuria, and the question of supplies was a serious one for the Russians. The Russian troops in Manchuria were surrounded by a hostile population and by Manchurian guerrilla detachments animated by a desire for revenge. Harbin was made the base of the Russian army in Manchuria.

**Russian
Forces
in Man-
churia.**

General Kuropatkin, the Russian Minister of War, was relieved of his Cabinet duties on February 22, 1904, and was appointed commander-in-chief of all the Russian military forces in the Far East. He was the best general of the time in the Russian army and had learned the art of war in the campaigns in Khiva and Khokand in 1873 and 1875 and in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-'78 under General Skobelev. The Grand Dukes Alexis, Nicholas and Boris were to accompany General Kuropatkin in his campaigns against the Japanese in Manchuria.

**The
Russian
General
Kuro-
patkin.**

An important diplomatic incident connected with the war was the sending of a note by John Hay, the American Secretary of State, to the great powers of the world, asking them to cooperate with the United States in preserving the neutrality of China. Most of them promptly agreed to do so, Japan included; and Russia also agreed, after some delay. This action of the United States was recognized as a clever diplomatic exploit, tending to restrict the area of the war and serving

**American
Diplo-
macy.**

notice on China, Japan and Russia that the great neutral powers expected these limits to be observed.

Outside
Sym-
pathy.

Though all the great neutral powers of the world strictly observed their neutrality in the contest, the inward sympathy of the governments of Great Britain and the United States, as well as the avowed popular sympathy in those countries, was with Japan, because of the selfish and aggressive attitude of Russia in Manchuria and Korea and in the Far East generally. In Continental Europe, especially in France and Germany, official sympathy was secretly with Russia. As before remarked, the British and American sympathy with Japan was both because they believed she had justice on her side and because she championed interests which were similar to their own interests in the Far East.

Siege and
Bombard-
ment of
Port
Arthur.

The main activity of the war during the months of February and March, 1904, were on the sea; and the Japanese had maintained the aggressive, Port Arthur being the center of interest. That great Russian stronghold in Manchuria suffered many bombardments from the Japanese warships; but its heroic Russian garrison under General Stoessel maintained its defense resolutely. The Japanese squadron was near enough to throw tremendous shells into the city, but always was sufficiently cautious to keep out of range of the big guns of the forts. These shells caused fires and explosions within the city and produced much loss of life. A three hours' bombardment on March 10th sent one hundred and fifty 12-inch shells from the Japanese warships, and one hundred and ten of these shells fell into the beleaguered city. As these shells weighed about eight hundred and fifty pounds each, they produced great havoc. On the same day there were two engagements between Russian and Japanese torpedo-boat destroyers in the vicinity of the besieged stronghold, both being desperate hand-to-hand struggles, two of the contesting vessels being so close to each other that explosives were used on the deck of the Japanese boat. One Russian destroyer was captured after its crew of fifty-five men was almost annihilated, only four of the crew being taken prisoners and the boat being damaged so badly that it sank. All the boats of both sides were injured more or less. The details of this struggle and of other conflicts disclosed great personal valor and desperate effort on both sides.

Admiral
Maka-
roff's
Russian
Squadron
at Port
Arthur.

Early in March, 1904, Admiral Makaroff assumed the command of the Russian squadron at Port Arthur, and he appeared disposed to adopt a more aggressive attitude. He caused the injured *Retvizan* to be moved from its position where it partly blocked the harbor, and he now was able to bring out his large vessels. The Russians could not understand where the Japanese squadron went whenever it retired from Port Arthur between attacks, as they had no trace of the

squadron when it disappeared from their sight until it reappeared. They were convinced that it could not go to a home port, and they could not conjecture where it took on the necessary supplies of coal and ammunition.

On March 6, 1904, a Japanese cruiser squadron bombarded Vladivostok, taking a position outside the range of the guns of the forts; the object evidently being to discover if the Russian ships were in the harbor and to draw them out if possible. The Russians did not respond to the Japanese firing; and the Japanese failed to discover the whereabouts of the Russian Vladivostok squadron, believing that it had escaped the vigilance of the Japanese and that it would succeed in effecting a junction with the Russian Port Arthur squadron, as this was known to be the desire of the Russians, who were using every effort to accomplish this result. It was reported that vessels carrying coal, provisions and other contraband articles had reached Vladivostok; the Japanese making no special effort to prevent them doing so, feeling confident that all these could be captured with the port afterward. Japan's control over the Yellow Sea was shown by the fact that regular steamer service had been resumed between Nagasaki and the Chinese ports.

Bombardment of Vladivostok.

Great preparations were being made for operations on land in Korea and Manchuria. Japanese troops were pouring into northern Korea as fast as they could be rushed forward, and the Russian main line fronted them on the Yalu river, though the opposing armies still were far apart. There were many rumors of skirmishes between scattered detachments of the opposing forces. Russian troops were arriving constantly in Manchuria over the Trans-Siberian Railway at the rate of four thousand daily. There was a large Russian force at Niu-Chwang, near the Chinese frontier, to protect that important strategic point against the Japanese and to watch the Chinese, whom the Russians very much feared would make common cause with the Japanese. Indeed this city became so much of a military point that residents were not allowed to go outside the inner walls of the city. General Kuropatkin, the Russian commander-in-chief in the Far East, left Moscow on March 13, 1904, on his way across Siberia to the seat of war; and much was expected of him.

Land Operations in Korea and Manchuria.

Besides her naval forces in Far Eastern waters, Russia had formidable fleets in the Mediterranean and Baltic seas, which could be sent to the scene of hostilities in case of emergency. The movements of the Russian Mediterranean fleet under Admiral Wirenius were occasioning some curiosity. That fleet left Crete on March 20, 1904, for an unknown destination. The Russian Baltic fleet under Admiral Rojestvensky consisted of seven battleships, three armored cruisers, two belted

Russia's Mediterranean and Baltic Fleets.

cruisers, five protected cruisers, about thirty torpedo-boat destroyers and at least forty torpedo-boats.

Other
Russian
War-
ships.

For home coast defense Russia had three coast-service battleships and a number of belted gunboats and torpedo gunboats. The newest vessels were five first-class battleships—the *Borodino*, the *Oriel*, the *Imperator Alexander III.*, the *Slava* and the *Kniaz Suwaroff*. Thus, if Russia's Port Arthur and Vladivostok squadrons were destroyed or captured by the Japanese, Russia still had large naval reserve forces.

Red
Cross,
Etc.

There were pleasant sidelights in the sombre war picture. The Red Cross was well organized for efficient work in both the Russian and the Japanese armies, and large contributions were made to its funds, while many nurses offered their services. A sum equal to two and a half million dollars was subscribed in Moscow for various forms of patriotic purposes in connection with the war. One Russian nobleman offered a sum amounting to more than a million dollars for this purpose if necessary. The Grand Duke Constantine's wife prepared seventeen thousand Easter eggs to provide each Russian sailor in the Far East with a souvenir; each containing a portrait of the Czar, a book, soap and towel, a tobacco pouch, note paper, etc., wrapped in a handkerchief bearing pictures of Peter the Great's boat and of Russian naval victories. The Czarina was providing similar gifts for every Russian soldier in the Far East, the Czar allowing her whatever she might need in the way of money for this purpose.

Russia's
Fear of
China.

Russia continued to be apprehensive as to China's future action in the crisis. Although the Chinese government had declared its neutrality, the Russian government feared that this declaration might not restrain some of the Chinese generals as the strain of the war became more intense. The fact that about thirty thousand Chinese troops had advanced and were maintaining a line along the Manchurian frontier and not far west of the Russian forces at Niu-Chwang had caused Russia to protest at Peking and to demand that these Chinese troops be withdrawn to the south of the Great Wall. The Chinese rejected this demand on the ground that they were there only to aid in maintaining order and to enforce the neutrality which they professed. As Russia practically took possession of a Chinese province by the occupation of Manchuria, and as she would retain possession of that province in case of victory over the Japanese, she might have expected that China naturally would favor Japan and thus felt uneasy at the concentration of Chinese troops on her flank.

Loss of a
Russian
Battle-
ship and
Admiral
Makaroff.

On April 13, 1904, the Russians experienced a very great disaster in the loss of the huge battleship *Petropavlovsk*, with Admiral Makaroff, the idol of the Russian navy, and his staff and almost six hundred of the crew by the explosion of a mine which sunk the vessel with nearly all

on board in the harbor of Port Arthur after a fierce naval engagement. The Japanese had observed that the Russian vessels followed the same course in entering or leaving the harbor, evidently to avoid their own mines. On the dark and cloudy night of April 12th the Japanese torpedo-boat *Karyu Mara*, under a mine expert, Commander Oda, in spite of the Russian searchlights and patrolling ships, approached close to the harbor and deposited mines along the course used by the Russian ships. At daybreak on the 13th a fight occurred outside the harbor between some Russian and Japanese torpedo-boat destroyers, one of the Russian vessels being sunk. The Russian fleet, consisting of fourteen warships, with Admiral Makaroff on board the *Petro-pavlovsk*, then came out of the inner harbor and attacked the six Japanese cruisers in the offing. The Japanese cruisers retired, pursued by the Russian fleet; but soon six huge Japanese battleships which had been stationed thirty miles out at sea, signalled by wireless telegraphy, approached for the purpose of cutting the Russian fleet out of the harbor. Thereupon the Russian fleet retired, and while the *Petro-pavlovsk* was moving slowly and was waiting for the weaker Russian ships to enter the harbor ahead of her she met her doom. She was near enough to the shore for watchers from the forts there to see her plainly. There was a dull boom, and the great battleship appeared to rise out of the water, followed by two other explosions, and in a moment the huge vessel turned turtle and sank in the water. The Russian battleship *Pobieda* also struck a mine, but was damaged only slightly. The Grand Duke Cyril, one of the Czar's cousins and heirs, had a narrow escape from death, being injured by the explosion and thrown into the water; but, being an athlete and of powerful build, he kept himself afloat until he was rescued by one of the smaller craft. Among those who perished in the water with the vessel's explosion was the famous Russian artist and painter of war scenes—Vassili Verest-chagin.

The Viceroy Alexieff at once proceeded to Port Arthur and took temporary command of the Russian fleet there. Vice-Admiral Skrydloff was summoned to St. Petersburg from the command of the Russian Black Sea fleet to take command of the Russian fleet at Port Arthur. The loss of one of the largest Russian battleships left the Russian navy in Far Eastern waters very much more weakened, with only two battleships in effective condition, thus obliging the Russians to act wholly on the defensive at sea and leaving the Japanese more than ever in control of the naval situation.

Not discouraged by their failure in their first effort in that direction, the Japanese again attempted to bottle up the Russian fleet at Port Arthur. Early on the morning of March 27, 1904, this second

Effect
of the
Disaster.

Second
Japanese
Attempt
to Bottle
up Port
Arthur.

attempt was made, when four large merchant vessels, fitted with explosives for sinking, convoyed by six torpedo-boats, steered for the harbor entrance; the ships being armed with small rapid-fire guns to protect themselves against Russian torpedo-boats. They were revealed by the Russian searchlights and were subjected to a severe fire from the forts and the Russian guard-boats. A Russian torpedo-boat rammed the foremost Japanese vessel, driving it from its course; and eventually all the Japanese merchant ships sank too far from the channel to effect their purpose. The gallant Japanese crews engaged in this desperate venture escaped in small boats to their own torpedo craft, though there were many lives lost among them. A lively conflict with the Russian torpedo-boats followed. The Japanese squadron afterward appeared off the harbor, but retired upon learning of the failure to bottle up the Russian fleet.

The
Japanese
Hero,
Com-
mander
Takaso
Hirose.

The Japanese naval hero of the war thus far was Commander Takaso Hirose, who was killed in the second Japanese attempt to bottle up the harbor of Port Arthur. The Japanese highly appreciated the action of the Russian authorities at Port Arthur in honoring the remains of this heroic Japanese commander with a military funeral after they had recovered his remains. The Japanese found a fragment of his body and brought it to Tokio, where it was honored with a public funeral in accordance with the Shinto ceremonial on April 13, 1904. Already the Japanese were looking forward toward obtaining the remains interred at Port Arthur after the end of the war and bringing them back to Japan.

Russian
Seizure
of Niu-
Chwang.

The Russian Viceroy Alexieff issued an order on March 28, 1904, establishing martial law at Niu-Chwang, one of the Manchurian ports which had been regarded as neutral, but whose position was so strategically important to the Russians that they had treated it as belonging to them, as it defended the head of the Liao-tung gulf and was an obstruction to any invasion from Chinese territory, also being one of the chief fortified places of the Russians, on the Pacific coast in Eastern Asia.

The
Mandjur
Incident.

At the outbreak of the war the Russian gunboat *Mandjur* was some miles up the river Yang-tse-Kiang above Shanghai, China. The Japanese sent a cruiser to Wu-Sung, at the mouth of the river, and demanded that China should force the *Mandjur* to leave neutral territory. The Chinese then ordered the gunboat to leave, but the commander paid no attention to the order. The Japanese then renewed their demand; and after much diplomacy they agreed that if the armament and certain essential parts of the *Mandjur's* machinery were removed, thus rendering the gunboat temporarily useless, they would be satisfied and would withdraw their cruiser. The Russians finally agreed to this, but

they did not carry out their agreement until March 30, 1904. The *Mandjur* was to remain disabled until the close of the war.

By the close of March, 1904, the land operations had assumed more activity, and after ample preparation the Japanese army in Korea advanced northward from Ping Yang to oppose the scattered detachments of the Russian forces in the North of Korea. On March 28th the advance guard of the Japanese encountered the Russians at Chong-ju, where a brief engagement ensued, which ended in the retreat of the Russians. The Japanese then continued their advance unopposed, and on April 3d they occupied the important town of Wi-ju, which the Russians had evacuated on their approach. The Russians then retreated across the Yalu river, leaving the whole of Korea in possession of the Japanese. The Yalu for the time separated the two armies, and several small skirmishes occurred along that river, the Russians occupying many points of vantage. The Japanese army along the Yalu then numbered about forty-five thousand men, and two other Japanese armies of equal size were ready to move. The Russian troops in the Far East now numbered three hundred thousand.

Russians
Driven
out of
Korea.

In April, 1904, the land operations assumed great importance. The first Japanese army, under General Kuroki, on the south bank of the Yalu river, was engaged in various movements during the last week of April with the view of crossing the river, and these operations extended seventy-five miles up the stream. There was serious fighting during the last three days of April, and by the night of the last of that month the Japanese had succeeded in crossing the Yalu, the main passage being made on a pontoon bridge near Wi-ju. On May 1st the Japanese made a direct attack on the Russian lines at Kin-lin-chang. The Russians had the advantage of position, but the Japanese were superior in numbers. After the most desperate fighting at close range the Russians were defeated. An-tung was evacuated by the Russians and occupied by the Japanese. The victorious Japanese captured twenty-eight Russian cannon and a large quantity of arms and ammunition. The Russian loss in killed and wounded was over three thousand, while the Japanese loss was less.

Japanese
Passage
of the
Yalu
River.

Battle of
Kin-lin-
chang.

As the Russian General Zasselitch, in opposing the advance of the Japanese, did not act in accordance with the orders of his superior, General Kuropatkin, he was relieved of his command in the Far East and assigned to duty in Russia. The first Japanese army, under General Kuroki, now numbered one hundred thousand men and was in exceedingly high spirits. After their defeat at Kin-lin-chang the Russians retreated to Feng-Wang-Cheng, the "gate of Korea," about forty-five miles from the Yalu river, in a strong position, where they received heavy reinforcements from Liao-Yang, on the line of the rail-

Removal
of
General
Zassel-
itch.

Russian
Retreat
and
Japanese
Advance.

road, where they expected to resist successfully any attack by the Japanese. But the Japanese pressed forward and occupied Feng-Wang-Cheng on May 6th, the Russians falling back toward Liao-Yang, after exploding their magazine, but leaving large quantities of hospital stores and equipment, and after several spirited engagements. Many Russians were taken prisoners. Thus General Kuroki won great successes in the first week of May, 1904.

Siege and
Investment of
Port
Arthur.

While the first Japanese army, under General Kuroki, was so successful in the region of the Yalu, the second Japanese army, under General Oku, landed on the Liao-tung peninsula on May 5 and 6, 1904, landings being made on the east coast of the peninsula at Pitsewu and on the west coast at Port Adams and Kinchou. This Japanese army encountered only small Russian forces and soon reached the lines of the Chinese Eastern Railroad, thus completely cutting off communication between Port Arthur and the North. The Russian Viceroy Alexieff and his staff had left Port Arthur only a day before the way of escape was closed. The Russians succeeded in running a train with war supplies into Port Arthur and also resumed telegraphic communication. This fact caused some elation at St. Petersburg; but this jubilation was of short duration, as the Japanese reoccupied the line of the railroad on May 11th. Fifty miles of the railroad now were destroyed, the Russians participating in this work to prevent the use of the road by the Japanese.

Another
Japanese
Invasion.

Port
Arthur
and Liao-
Yang.

A third Japanese army, under General Nodzu, landed at Takushan, to the north of the Liao-tung peninsula and west of the Yalu river, in a position to cooperate with either of the other two Japanese armies, but being more likely to support the first army, under General Kuroki, in the movement against Liao-Yang. Port Arthur and Liao-Yang apparently were the two objective points of the Japanese. Port Arthur, with a crippled Russian fleet in a harbor partly blockaded, was isolated wholly from the outside world and thus was cut off from all aid from land or sea, so that the beleaguered port was obliged to rely upon its own resources. The Russian garrison inside this besieged stronghold, this "Gibraltar of the East," numbered about twenty thousand men; while the crews of the Russian warships in the harbor numbered about ten thousand men. Heavy cannon from the disabled Russian ships were mounted on the shore. The food supplies of the besieged city were sufficient to last many months, and Chinese junks still were able to smuggle in additional supplies. The outer defenses of Port Arthur were at Kinchou, about twenty-five miles north, where the isthmus is less than four miles wide and where it was fortified strongly. Liao-Yang, where General Kuropatkin was preparing to make a stand against the Japanese, was a walled town about forty

miles south of Moukden, the seat of the Russian headquarters. The Japanese were advancing from Feng-Wang-Cheng.

On May 12, 1904, the Russian Viceroy Alexieff reported to the Czar Nicholas II. that the Russians had blown up the docks and piers at Dalny, to render the Japanese landing at that point more difficult. This destruction of valuable Russian property by the Russians themselves showed the desperate condition of the Russians at that point. Dalny and Port Arthur had been obtained by Russia by lease from China in 1898, and by 1902 Russia had expended a sum equal to more than six million dollars on the harbor system of Dalny, where five large piers had been constructed, each being supplied with numerous railway tracks and immense warehouses and elevators, gas, electric lights and water works, while a large breakwater was being constructed; the entire cost of completing the works being estimated at almost twenty million dollars. Russia intended to make Dalny the chief commercial emporium of her dominions in the Far East. The city was situated on Ta-lien-wan Bay, one of the finest deep-water harbors on the Pacific coast of Asia.

Destruction of Dalny.

On May 3, 1904, the Japanese made a third determined attempt to bottle up Port Arthur harbor. In the midst of a dense fog, eight Japanese fireships, each armed with rapid-fire cannon and each laden with stone and combustibles, convoyed by five torpedo-boats, undertook this enterprise. Four of the fireships were blown up by submarine mines and four by shells from the Russian shore batteries or by torpedoes from Russian torpedo-boats. On account of the high winds and waves and the vigorous Russian defense, the Japanese torpedo-boats could not save even one man from the crews of four of the fireships, and only about half of the entire number of the crews were saved. The crews numbered one hundred and fifty-nine men, of whom forty-four returned safely, twenty-four being wounded and fifteen being killed. Among the killed was Commander Takayangi, of the steamer *Yeddo Maru*. All the families of the killed and missing were pensioned. The total tonnage of the eight blocking fireships was seventeen thousand three hundred and thirteen tons.

Third Japanese Attempt to Bottle up Port Arthur.

The first really-serious Japanese disaster of the war at sea occurred on May 5, 1904, when two Japanese warships were lost—the battleship *Hatsuse* and the cruiser *Yoshimo*. The *Hatsuse*, Admiral Mashuri's flagship, one of the most formidable battleships of the Japanese navy, was cruising off Port Arthur and was about ten miles south-east of the port when she struck a mine and was damaged seriously. She signaled for help, when almost instantly she struck another mine, thus causing her to sink in half an hour. Admiral Mashuri and three hundred of the crew were saved by torpedo-boats and other vessels which

Loss of Two Japanese Warships.

came to their rescue. The loss of this great battleship was a serious matter for the Japanese, as it was one of the six battleships constructed on modern plans within eight years, which made up a homogeneous and formidable fleet, and its loss thus deprived the Japanese of a sixth part of their effective battleship force. On the same day—May 5, 1904—the Japanese cruisers *Kesaga* and *Yoshimo* collided in a fog off Port Arthur and the *Yoshimo* sank, only ninety of her crew being saved.

Russian
Evacua-
tion and
Reoccu-
pation of
Niu-
Chwang.

On May 8, 1904, close upon the news of the Russian evacuation of Feng-Wang-Cheng came the tidings of the Russian evacuation of Niu-Chwang, the most important treaty port at the head of the Liao-tung gulf, which the Russians had occupied as an essential strategical move, against the protest of the great commercial nations of the world. This port had been fortified very strongly and placed under martial law, and it was said to be garrisoned by a formidable military force. The hasty movement and dismantling of forts evidently was caused by the reports of the Japanese advance toward Hai-cheng, on the main line of the railroad to the east of Niu-Chwang, as the landing of a Japanese army on the Liao-tung peninsula rendered the place untenable or at least subjected its garrison to the danger of being cut off from the rest of the Russian forces in the Far East. To protect the city against possible pillage by Chinese bandits, the Russians retained a force of about a thousand men to protect the commercial interests, but prepared to leave upon a moment's notice. A Russian gunboat which had been blockaded in the harbor since the outbreak of the war was ready to be burned. The evacuation of Niu-Chwang was completed on May 16th, in consequence of the landing of Japanese troops at Kai-chou, twenty-three miles south of Yinkow, the port of Niu-Chwang, and their advance toward Tashi-Chao, a few miles from Niu-Chwang and at the junction of the railroads from Tien-tsin and Port Arthur. After thus advancing and destroying the railroad the Japanese returned to Kai-chou and embarked. Thereupon the Russians reoccupied Niu-Chwang, and Russian officials who had bidden their friends affectionate farewells only a few hours before returned and began rebuilding the forts, while the Russian sailors who had prepared to burn the gunboat *Sivouch* were refitting that vessel. British and American gunboats were ready to proceed to Niu-Chwang to protect commercial interests.

Russian
Vladi-
vostok
Squad-
ron.

The Russian squadron at Vladivostok, consisting of three armored cruisers and one protected cruiser, made a few sorties from that port late in April, 1904, doing slight damage in the Sea of Japan, sinking two Japanese trading vessels and overhauling a Japanese transport, the *Kinshiu-Maru*, with coal, war munitions and a detachment of one hundred and thirty Japanese troops on board, April 27th. The crew and

the six officers of the Japanese military detachment surrendered; but the Japanese soldiers locked themselves in a cabin and refused to surrender, and when the Russians were ordered to leave the vessel the Japanese soldiers came out and began to fire at them. The boat was sunk by a mechanical mine, the Japanese continuing to shout defiance and to fire their small arms as they were being swallowed up by the waves. Admiral Skrydloff, who had been assigned to the command of the Russian fleet at Port Arthur, was unable to reach that port when he arrived in the Far East, as the place had been invested completely by the Japanese. Consequently he was obliged to go to Vladivostok, where he arrived on May 22d. The small Russian squadron there was weakened by the disabling of the protected cruiser *Bogatyr*, which struck upon the rocks there.

About the middle of May, 1904, the Japanese defeated the Russians after a three days' battle in the Liao-tung peninsula, commencing with the battle of Vafangow on May 13th and ending with the battle of Telissu on May 15th. The sites of these battlefields were about a hundred miles south of Liao-Yang, in the vicinity of which were the main Russian and Japanese armies under the respective commands of Generals Kuropatkin and Kuroki. Vafangow was about fifty-five miles north of Port Arthur, and Telissu was about twenty-five miles still farther north. The Russian force in these battles was commanded by General Stakelberg and numbered about thirty-five thousand men; while the Japanese army was twice as large, numbering seventy thousand men. The fighting was most desperate and obstinate on both sides, the victorious Japanese and the defeated Russians both exhibiting the most daring valor and the most resolute determination. The Russians lost two thousand killed and ten thousand wounded and taken prisoners. The Japanese loss was only one thousand men in killed, wounded and prisoners. The fighting ended with a flank movement on the part of the Japanese which threatened the capture of the entire Russian force, and General Kuropatkin went south to the relief of General Stakelberg's imperiled army.

The Russian Vladivostok squadron sailed southward in May, 1904, going as far as the Straits of Korea and the coast of Japan. Vice-Admiral Skrydloff left Vladivostok with three cruisers and several torpedo-boats, eluding the vigilance of the Japanese vessels which were watching that port. These Russian vessels were reported off the Islands of Oki, in the Sea of Japan, on June 14th, when they came in contact with Japanese transports which were conveying troops and supplies from the Japanese ports to the Japanese armies in Korea and Manchuria. These Japanese transports escaped from the Russian squadron, which destroyed two Japanese transports off the island of

**Battles of
Vafangow
and
Telissu.**

**Activity
of the
Russian
Vladi-
vostok
Squad-
ron.**

Shiro, one of the Oki group, on the following day, June 15th; one thousand of the fourteen hundred Japanese soldiers on board the transports being lost, along with horses and large quantities of supplies. Three other Japanese transports in the vicinity escaped. The Japanese complained that one of their transports was raked by heavy fire and sunk without permitting noncombatants to leave the ships. Japanese cruisers sought to come in contact with the Russian warships, but the Russian vessels escaped northward and at last accounts were reported near the Tsugari Strait, the Japanese warships being between the Russian vessels and this base. The Russian cruiser *Novik* and ten Russian torpedo-boat destroyers came out of Port Arthur harbor on June 14th, driving back a Japanese flotilla of torpedo-boats and torpedo-boat destroyers which were engaged in a bombardment and reconnaissance a few miles from the harbor. Thus seeing that Port Arthur harbor was not blocked so as to prevent the entrance and departure of Russian vessels, the Japanese laid more mines across the harbor entrance.

Battle of
Kinchou
and
Capture
of Dalny.

The Japanese struck a hard blow against Port Arthur by a great victory which they won over the Russians in the battle of Kinchou, in the narrowest part of the Liao-tung peninsula, on June 25 and 26, 1904, driving them from their strong defenses on Nan-Shan Hill, thus forcing them out of their first barrier in the defense of Port Arthur. This place was one of great natural strength, and its natural strategical advantages had been augmented by strong intrenchments, heavy cannon, mines, with miles of tangled barbed wire; but, in spite of all these obstacles, the Japanese were victorious, after sixteen hours' fighting on June 26th. The defeated Russians had fought bravely. The Japanese also fought with the most reckless heroism and with the utmost desperation in their assaults. The losses were very great on both sides. This Japanese victory was followed by the evacuation of Dalny by the Russians, who fled from that port hastily after they had destroyed many of the docks and warehouses. The fall of Dalny was another blow at Port Arthur, which thus was invested more securely and more closely from the land side.

Russian
Port
Arthur
Fleet.

The Russian Port Arthur fleet made a sortie from the harbor on June 23, 1904, but was attacked by the Japanese fleet and driven back into the harbor. The Russian fleet afterward ran the blockade and ventured out of the harbor and returned. Four Russian battleships, five cruisers and torpedo-boats made voyages to the open sea and returned. It was reported that one torpedo-boat made three trips to Yinkow. A number of Chinese junks, carrying provisions, eluded the Japanese blockading fleet, one junk landing five thousand sacks of flour. It was reported also that a cargo of coal had been landed.



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JAPANESE WAR BALLOON

On June 16, 1904, was fought the second battle of Vafangow, in which the Japanese won a signal victory. This was the bloodiest battle of the war thus far. It was brought about by the Russian efforts to force the line from Pitsewu to Plan-tien, forming the northern gate of the Liao-tung peninsula. The Russian fighting line consisted of twenty-five battalions of infantry and seventeen squadrons of cavalry, with ninety-eight cannon. These were reinforced later. The Russians made a general advance, scaling the precipitous scarps and pushing back the Japanese to Tafangshin; but the arrival of Japanese reinforcements and the timely movements of the Japanese cavalry threatened the Russian left and rear, thus giving the Japanese the advantage, so that the entire Japanese line gained ground simultaneously, and by three o'clock in the afternoon the Russians commenced a retreat which the Japanese vigorous fire converted into a total rout, although the nature of the ground was an obstacle to pursuit.

**Second
Battle of
Vafan-
gow.**

In an action on June 27, 1904, the Japanese routed ten thousand Russians, after stubborn fighting at Fen-Shui Pass, twenty-five miles from Hai-tcheng. The Russian position was a very strong one and commanded the Shimu-tcheng road. In this conflict the Russian losses again were heavier than those of the Japanese. The Russians burned their warehouses at Shan-Tasu before retreating. Two days afterward the Japanese forced the passage of the Mo-Tien Pass, fifty miles south-east of Liao-Yang, their object being to cut the Russian communication northward of Liao-Yang, while General Kuropatkin was operating in the vicinity of Hai-tcheng at the head of practically the entire Russian forces at his command.

**Fighting
for the
Mountain
Passes.**

On June 26 and 27, 1904, a great battle was fought near Port Arthur on land. The Japanese were victorious, and on the morning of the 28th they occupied certain heights within ten miles of Port Arthur. The two Japanese divisions which attacked Port Arthur consisted of forty thousand men and an independent artillery corps. As a matter of precaution the Japanese landed a division of ten thousand men on one of the Elliot group of islands; and on June 28th they landed the Sixth Division, composed of twenty thousand men, at Kerr Bay. The Elliot Islands are about ten miles south-east of Pitsewu and about sixty-five miles north-east of Port Arthur, while Kerr Bay is about thirty-six miles from Port Arthur and six miles from Kinchou. On July 9, 1904, the Russians evacuated Kai-chow, after a conflict of two days. The Japanese advanced steadily and occupied the town.

**Battle
near Port
Arthur.**

**Russian
Evacua-
tion of
Kai-
chow.**

In the meantime the Russian Vladivostok squadron under Admiral Skrydloff had been raiding the Sea of Japan, thus forcing all the Japanese navy transports to be accompanied by cruisers. Meanwhile two Russian warships, the *Smolensk* and the *St. Petersburg*, were hold-

**Russian
Vladi-
vostok
Squad-
ron.**

Russian
Warships
on the
Red Sea.

ing up British and German ships in the Red Sea, searching them for contraband of war; and, as a result, grave international complications were feared. The *Smolensk* and the *St. Petersburg* were from the Russian Black Sea fleet and passed through the Dardanelles as merchant ships, afterward assuming their true character. The Treaty of Berlin, of 1878, forbids the passage of war vessels through the Dardanelles. It was reported that these Russian vessels seized a British merchant ship and placed a prize crew on board. Skillful diplomacy finally warded off the threatened international complications.

Dispersal
of the
Russian
Port
Arthur
Fleet.

On August 10, 1904, the Russian Port Arthur fleet made a desperate effort to break through the cordon of Japanese warships at the harbor entrance; six huge battleships, four cruisers, eight torpedo-boats comprising the Russian squadron which thus came out of the harbor; but they were encountered by forty-seven Japanese warships, consisting of battleships, cruisers and torpedo-boats, and after a fierce engagement the Russian squadron was defeated most disastrously and dispersed. The Russian torpedo-boat destroyer *Ryeshitelni* sought refuge in the Chinese port of Chefoo, where she was disarmed by the Chinese authorities, but was seized afterward as a prize by the Japanese torpedo-boat destroyers which had pursued her to Chefoo. Russia claimed that China should have prevented the Japanese seizure of the vessel, but the Japanese claimed that she was hiding in a neutral port as a fully-armed vessel. Five Russian warships—the battleship *Czarewitch*, the cruiser *Novik* and three torpedo-boat destroyers—fled to the German port of Kaio-Chau, in China. The *Czarewitch* lost over two hundred in killed and wounded; Admiral Wittsoeft, the commander of the fleet, being among the killed. This large battleship was damaged so seriously that she was unseaworthy, and she was disarmed by the German authorities at Kiao-Chau, as were the three Russian torpedo-boat destroyers that sought refuge in that port. The *Novik* left before the other Russian vessels arrived, after a very short stay, when she was supposed to have taken a supply of coal and was reported to have sailed to Vladivostok. Of the other Russian vessels in this hapless fight the cruiser *Askold* and another cruiser reached Shanghai, China, and the cruiser *Pallada* was lost, while the remaining five battleships and the cruiser *Diana* returned to Port Arthur, the battleship *Retzivan* being damaged very seriously. On August 14th the Japanese squadron of four cruisers under Admiral Kamimura, sailing from the Korean coast, sighted the three Russian cruisers *Rossia*, *Gromoboi* and *Rurik*, of the Russian Vladivostok fleet; and a running sea fight ensued, which ended in the sinking of the *Rurik* and the flight of the other two Russian cruisers to Vladivostok in a very much damaged condition. Six hundred of the *Rurik's* crew were rescued from watery graves by the crews of the Japanese vessels.

On July 20, 1904, the Russian Vladivostok squadron under Admiral Skrydloff sailed through the Tsugara Strait, between the largest two of the Japanese Islands, along the eastern coast of Japan and below Yokohama, and into the chief rout of Japanese commerce from the east, thus making a bold dash of a thousand miles from the fleet's base at Vladivostok and capturing many Japanese merchant vessels, and returning to Vladivostok nine days later. The most notable incident connected with this Russian sea raid was the sinking of the *Knight Commander*, a ship under the British flag, with a cargo from the American Pacific ports. The owners of the ship and the cargo protested against the sinking of the vessel; but the prize court at Vladivostok justified the act on the ground that the cargo consisted mainly of railway material destined to Chemulpo, Korea, and presumably for use on the military railway in course of construction from Seoul to the Yalu river. The *Arabia*, another Pacific ship, was seized by the Russians and taken to Vladivostok; but, after that part of the cargo, chiefly flour, intended for Japanese ports was removed, the vessel was permitted to proceed on its way to China. Both Great Britain and the United States protested to the Russian government against these seizures.

Raid of the Russian Vladivostok Squadron.

Sinking of the *Knight Commander*.

Seizure of the *Arabia*.

In the meantime the Japanese were drawing their lines very close to Port Arthur, the intervening distance being covered with mines and obstructions and being defended by the strongest forts of the harbor. Great battles occurred on July 27, 28 and 30, 1904, by which the Japanese advanced their lines still closer to the great fortress, though they lost heavily in killed and wounded. Later assaults by the Japanese advanced their lines still closer, to within two miles of the inner harbor. One hundred thousand Japanese troops under General Nogi by this time invested the fortress, while the Russian garrison defending the fortress numbered less than fifteen thousand. The Japanese called upon General Stoessel, the Russian commandant, to surrender the fortress with the Russian ships in the harbor, offering to allow him and his garrison to join the main Russian army under General Kuropatkin. The Russian commandant indignantly rejected the demand, as he also did an offer to allow the noncombatants to come out of the beleaguered city.

Fighting at Port Arthur.

In the meantime the main Russian army of almost two hundred thousand men under General Kuropatkin was forced back gradually to Liao-Yang by the three Japanese armies operating from the east, west and south and together numbering almost two hundred and fifty thousand men, all under the chief command of Field-Marshal Oyama, and Generals Kuroki, Nodzu and Oku as the respective commanders of the three Japanese armies. The Russians had fortified Liao-Yang very strongly. The Japanese sought to get in General Kuropatkin's rear

General Kuropatkin's Retreat to Liao-Yang

and between his army and Moukden, the capital of Manchuria. The Japanese occupied Hai-tcheng on August 5, 1904, and afterward took possession of Simou-tcheng, the site of one of the many battles which were fought between the two armies in the race for Liao-Yang. The Russian line was sixty miles in extent. General Kuropatkin saved his army by his northward retreat, but he lost prestige thereby. The Japanese army had more than three hundred heavy pieces of artillery. Lieutenant-General Count Keeler, a Russian division commander, was killed in battle on August 2, 1904, being the first Russian general officer to lose his life in this war.

Battle of
Liao-
Yang.

Finally, during the last week of August and the first week of September, 1904, the great and long-expected battle of Liao-Yang was fought—one of the greatest battles of the world's history. Thus was added another to the list of the world's great battles of modern times, ranking with the great modern European battles of Leipsic, Solferino, Sadowa, Sedan and Gravelotte as to the numbers engaged. At Leipsic Napoleon had one hundred and fifty thousand and the allies two hundred and fifty thousand. At Solferino the Franco-Italian army and the Austrian army each had about two hundred thousand. At Sadowa the Austrians and the Prussians each also had about two hundred thousand. At Sedan the French had about one hundred and forty thousand and the Germans about two hundred and fifty thousand. At Gravelotte the French had almost two hundred thousand and the Germans over that number. As to duration Liao-Yang exceeded any battle of history, lasting about ten days. We have seen that after their defeat at Hai-tcheng, August 2, 1904, the Russian army under General Kuropatkin retreated northward to the fortifications of Liao-Yang, where they resolved to make a stand against the three Japanese armies under Generals Kuroki, Nodzu and Oku, all three under the supreme command of Field-Marshal Oyama. After a few weeks' rest during the rainy season the Japanese resumed operations on August 23, 1904, and the next day they began a general advance against the Russian lines covering all points, General Kuroki advancing from the east, General Nodzu from the south-east and General Oku from the south. There was continuous fighting on August 25th and 26th. General Kuroki, whose first operations were directed at Liao-Dian-Shan, about twenty miles south-east of Liao-Yang, flanked the Russians and drove them from Anping with heavy loss. General Oku compelled the Russians to evacuate An-Shan-Shan, their strongest position on the south. Though General Nodzu had not succeeded in maintaining his position, the result of the two days' fighting was to compel the Russians to fall back behind the main defenses of Liao-Yang. As soon as possible the Japanese followed up their successes; and on August 30th, from dawn till nightfall, they bom-

barded and cannonaded the Russian position, the Russians replying with their artillery, so that the thunders of thirteen hundred cannon on both sides shook the earth with their reverberations. There also was the fiercest hand-to-hand fighting with small arms, the Russians repelling all assaults and both sides suffering heavy losses. In the midst of the engagement General Kuroki, by a skillful flank movement, threw his army across the Taitse river at Sakankankwantun, about twenty miles east of Liao-Yang, thus forcing General Kuropatkin to take a portion of his army across the Taitse river to the north side of that stream to cut off General Kuroki from the other Japanese forces, but the Russian commander's plans failed. After fierce fighting near the Yentai mines on September 1st and 2d the Japanese were victorious over the Russians under General Orloff, who was wounded, some of the Russian regiments losing over half of their men. These Japanese successes and the menace to his communications obliged General Kuropatkin's army to evacuate Liao-Yang, which was occupied by the Japanese on the evening of September 4th. Twenty-five thousand Russians under General Stakelberg still were on the south bank of the Taitse river and to the east of Liao-Yang, in danger of being cut off from the Russian main army; but General Stakelberg extricated his force from its dangerous situation and held back General Kuroki in a severe action at Yentai. On the east side of the railroad the Japanese frequently assailed the Russian rear-guard, threatening their communications with Moukden; but by September 7th General Kuropatkin's whole army had arrived safely at Moukden, without losing any cannon or supplies. Thus the great battle of Liao-Yang ended in a Japanese victory. The losses on both sides from August 26th to September 7th were estimated as high as sixty thousand. The Japanese officially reported their own losses as seventeen thousand five hundred and thirty-nine, and the Russian official figures gave Kuropatkin's losses as twenty-two thousand and fifty-six men, thirteen cannon and thirty million dollars' worth of material, including fortifications. After so much continuous fighting, both armies were ready for a short rest.

For five days, August 27-31, 1904, the Japanese assailed Port Arthur, losing eight thousand men in these assaults, while the Russians lost three thousand. Some forts were taken by the Japanese and retaken by the Russians. The Japanese intrenched at points commanding the city and tunneled under the fortifications. The Japanese ships gradually approached nearer to the city and dropped shells into it. The Russian garrison still numbered about twelve thousand men. General Stoessel rejected all Japanese demands for the surrender of the fortress and threatened to shoot any other envoys bringing such demands. Both sides were very determined at Port Arthur.

**Fighting
at Port
Arthur.**

**Another
Russian
Army for
Man-
churia.**

In consequence of the great Russian reverse at Liao-Yang, an imperial ukase was issued on September 25, 1904, for the dispatch of another Russian army under General Grippenbergr to Manchuria. In this ukase the Czar Nicholas II. said: "The intense energy with which Japan is conducting the war, and the stubbornness and high warlike qualities displayed by the Japanese, impel me considerably to strengthen the forces at the front in order to attain decisive success in the shortest possible time." The Czar's ukase notified the world that Russia was resolved to continue the war more vigorously than ever and that she would refuse all foreign mediation or intervention. Russian troops were being transported to Manchuria as rapidly as the railroads could carry them, which was at the rate of only twenty-five thousand per month.

**Japanese
Move-
ments.**

After their great victory at Liao-Yang the Japanese spent three days in burning and burying their dead, after which they resumed operations, leaving a strong garrison in the fortifications of Liao-Yang and throwing up intrenchments at the Yentai mines, while also taking a strong position at Bentsiputze, twenty miles south-east of Moukden. During the last half of September the Japanese were executing a general encircling movement, extending their western flank across to the west bank of the Hun river. On the last day of that month they made a simultaneous movement towards Moukden and Sinmintu. In the meantime there had been many slight encounters, and the Cossacks had kept in touch with the Japanese outposts and had interfered with the Japanese plans.

**Russian
Advance.**

On Sunday, October 2, 1904, General Kuropatkin announced an advance of his army, reading an address to this effect personally from the steps of his train at Moukden, after a solemn religious service, and distributing printed copies of this address to his troops, thus arousing excitement and enthusiasm among them. General Kuropatkin had received reinforcements, thus making his army numerically stronger than the Japanese forces; the Russian troops about Moukden now numbering two hundred and seventy thousand men and the Japanese troops about two hundred and sixty thousand, of whom only one hundred and fifty thousand were north of the Taitse river, the remainder being at or near Liao-Yang.

**Battle of
Sahke.**

On October 4, 1904, General Kuropatkin began his advance southward, in two great armies, one on each side of the railroad, which was available for supplies. As the Russians approached the Japanese outposts the latter retired. The Russians occupied Sahke, on the railroad, ten miles south of Moukden, on October 6th; while the Japanese lines extended fifty-two miles, from Bentsiputze on the east, through Yentai and across the railway, to the banks of the Hun river on the west.

The Japanese were fortified at Bentsiputze, but the Russians captured an important unfortified position there, and the Japanese were obliged to fall back. The Japanese continued their falling-back policy, concentrating their lines and bringing forward a large force from Liao-Yang. The great battle of Sahke really commenced on October 10th, when the Japanese halted the retreating movement and the two armies encountered each other north of the Yentai railroad station and also at Penshiu. There was severe fighting at different points on the long lines, without any decisive results; but on October 12th the Japanese drove the Russians back. Severe conflicts occurred on October 12th and 14th, and the fighting lasted twelve days, October 9-21, 1904, ending in another Japanese victory. The Russian losses during this long-continued battle were stated officially as forty-five thousand eight hundred in killed, wounded and missing; while the Japanese claimed to have found thirteen thousand three hundred and thirty-three dead Russians in various portions of the field. The Japanese took seven hundred and nine prisoners and a large quantity of arms and munitions of war as their trophies of victory.

For five days, September 19-23, 1904, there was desperate fighting at Port Arthur, along the whole line, during which time various positions were taken and retaken. After repeatedly attacking Fort High Mountain, a very important Russian position, day and night, the Japanese finally occupied it on the night of September 22d; but the Russians reoccupied it the next day, after General Stoessel had called for volunteers to retake it, there being ample responses to his call. Russian officers and private so'diers carried hand grenades, and one lieutenant and his detachment threw such missiles into the Japanese intrenchments, causing terrible slaughter and creating a panic among the Japanese. The total Japanese losses were very heavy during this fighting. The Japanese dug a tunnel under the Russian intrenchments. On October 22, 1904, the Japanese made a general assault on Port Arthur, which continued until the 30th, when a general battle followed, the Japanese assailing the eastern side and gaining the moats of the principal forts which had been attacked, but finally they were driven back from the hills by the Russians. Nevertheless, the Japanese were drawing nearer to the center of the Russian position and were drawing nearer still by means of mines. The Japanese incessantly bombarded the fortress, and their shells destroyed a ship in the harbor and fired an arsenal. The inner defenses were still intact and out of the reach of the most persistent assaults. Occasional refugees stated that food was scarce and disease rampant in the beleaguered city. General Stoessel refused all demands for surrender and said that he could maintain his position until relief could come to him from the Russian Baltic fleet.

Assaults
on Port
Arthur.

As the Japanese blockade was very rigid Russian ships seldom succeeded in running it.

Russia's
Baltic
Fleet.

The Russian Baltic fleet under Admiral Rojestvensky finally started on its long journey to the Far East, sailing from Libau on October 16, 1904. This fleet consisted of seven battleships, six large cruisers, eight torpedo-boat destroyers and several transports, the whole fleet numbering more than thirty ships. While in the North Sea this Russian fleet attacked a number of British fishing boats, under the pretense that they were supposed to be Japanese torpedo-boats—an incident which threatened complications between Russia and Great Britain, as the latter demanded reparation for the outrage. After much diplomacy Russia made a due apology to Great Britain, and the question of damages was submitted to the arbitration of an international commission, in accordance with the provisions of The Hague Peace Conference. The Russian Baltic fleet left Vigo, Spain, on November 1, 1904, on its journey to the Orient, part of the fleet going by way of the Suez Canal and the remainder around the Cape of Good Hope. On November 16th the second division of this fleet, consisting of four cruisers, two auxiliary cruisers and five torpedo-boat destroyers, left Libau, on its way to the Far East. These Russian ships stopped only at French ports to coal.

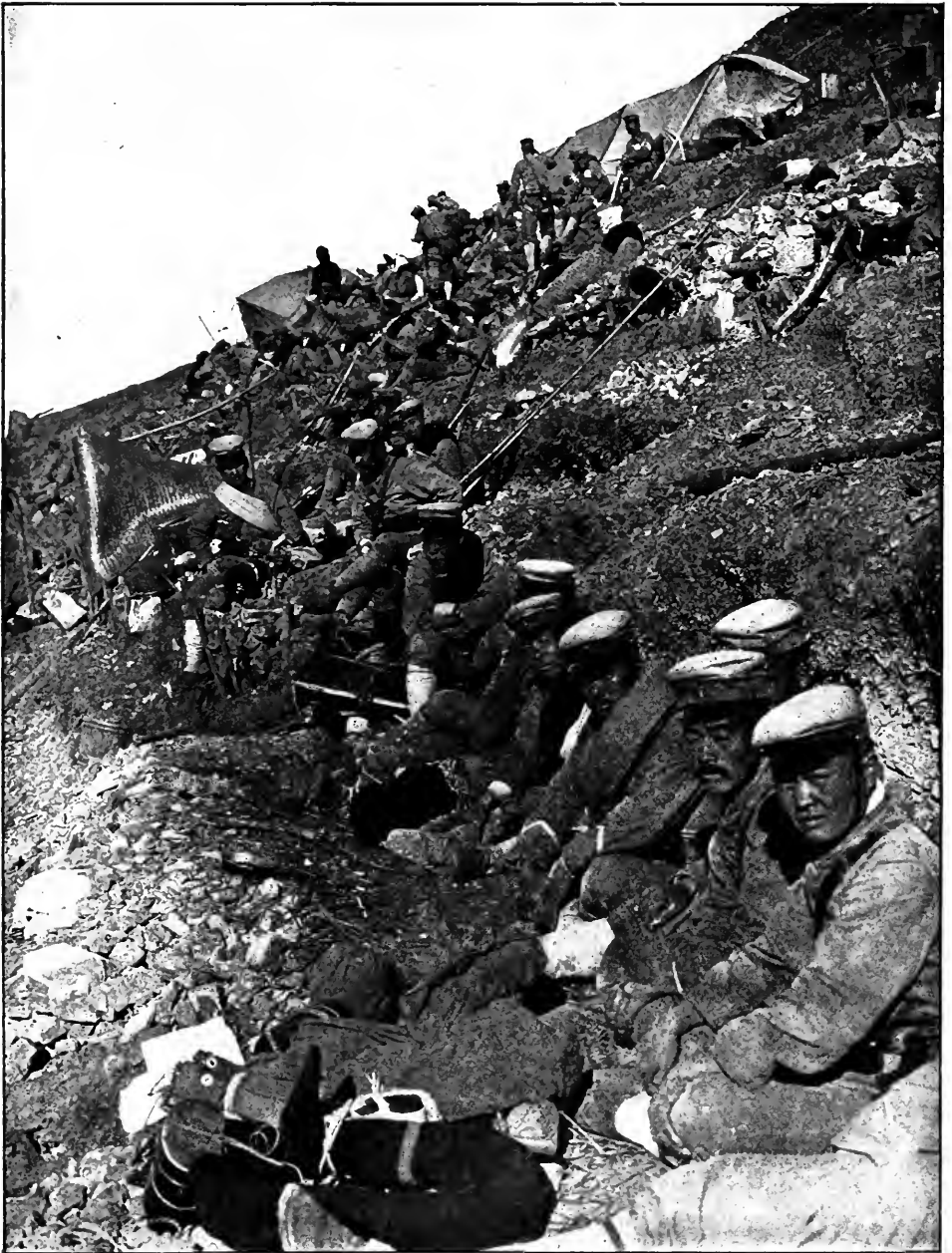
North
Sea
Incident.

Costly
Russian
Dispatch.

The Russian torpedo-boat destroyer *Ratstoropony* entered the Chinese port of Chefoo on November 16, 1904. As a message from General Stoessel at Port Arthur was sent to the Chinese Emperor, it was believed that the message was brought by the vessel and was considered sufficiently important to risk the safety of the vessel in the effort to get it into the Chinese Emperor's possession. To prevent the capture of the vessel by the Japanese it was blown up.

Opera-
tions
about
Moukden.

After the great battle of Sahke, October 9–21, 1904, both armies strengthened their positions and reinforced their ranks, the Japanese having over sixty thousand reinforcements. The Japanese threw up some intrenchments, in some cases preparing two lines of these. In some parts of their respective lines the two armies were so near each other that both occupied the same villages and obtained water from the same springs. There were some heavy artillery duels and some spirited actions among advanced outposts, but there was no regular battle for some weeks, the weather being unfavorable for active military operations, both sides closely watching each other. Lone Tree Hill, often occupied by both armies, finally remained with the Russians. On November 10th the Japanese assumed the offensive on the left bank of the Hun river, but were driven back to their original lines. The next day they made a vigorous artillery assault, but made no advance. The Russian line extended eighty miles. On October 25th an imperial ukase



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JAPANESE INFANTRY READY TO MOVE INTO THE FIRING LINE

was issued at St. Petersburg making General Kuropatkin commander-in-chief of all the Russian armies in the Far East. Alexieff remained Viceroy, but was ordered to St. Petersburg immediately. In the last week of November Field-Marshal Oyama moved on the Russian center in an effort to move around the left flank of Kuropatkin's army. For a week there was much desultory fighting without any result. On December 12th the Japanese made some attacks, but the two armies were recuperating for the most part and preparing for winter quarters, the weather conditions being unfavorable for military operations. A high Russian officer expressed the following opinion concerning the Japanese:

"The Japanese army is unique in military history and probably the strongest in the world of its size, combining the strength of barbarism with civilization, drawing from the former fanatical bravery and scorn of death and from the latter the latest knowledge of the science of war. We have been fighting them under heavy handicaps, but have at last definitely stopped them. They have missed the psychological moment. They should now be at Harbin with Vladivostok and the East literally cut off and de facto theirs instead of wintering where they are. The cold is Russia's ally now as it was against Napoleon. The Japanese cannot endure extreme cold like the Russians. They are not strong enough to attempt to take Moukden now and will not be even if Port Arthur falls and seventy thousand reinforcements are sent up to join Field-Marshal Oyama. In the meantime Russian troops are piling up behind Moukden. In February, before the port of Niu-Chwang is ice-free, General Kuropatkin will have close upon half a million men disposed in three armies amply sufficient to turn Oyama's position at the Sahke river and force the Japanese back into Korea and the Liao-tung peninsula."

**A
Russian
Opinion
of the
Japanese.**

On November 21 and 26, 1904, the Japanese army under General Nogi again assailed Port Arthur, but was repulsed each time. On November 27th the Japanese gained a great advantage by the capture of 203-Meter Hill, one of the high points from which the heavy cannon can reach the town and the harbor. Both sides fought desperately for the possession of this hill. After heavy and concentrated bombardments, the Japanese made four charges between three and four o'clock, succeeding in the last charge in dislodging the Russians; but during the night the Russians made three counter attacks and drove out the Japanese forces. At dawn the next morning the Japanese renewed the attack; and at eight o'clock in the evening, November 28, 1904, after a series of rushes and counter rushes, advances and repulses, the Japanese again occupied the fort. Finally, at noon, on December 1, 1904, the Russians gave up their attacks on this hill and retired to inner

**Japanese
Capture
an Im-
portant
Fort at
Port
Arthur.**

positions. The losses were heavy on both sides; and on December 2d an armistice was agreed upon by both sides for the burial of the dead and the removal of the wounded, the armistice lasting six hours, from ten in the morning until four in the afternoon.

Russian
Fleet
again De-
stroyed.

The Japanese mounted heavy naval guns on 203-Meter Hill, and on December 9th they kept up a heavy bombardment on the Russian warships in Port Arthur harbor. Previously the Russian ships had found shelter from the Japanese fire behind Pei-Ya Mountain, but now they were able to do so no longer, and by December 12th the Japanese commander reported that the bombardment of the harbor was necessary no longer, as all the Russian warships there were disabled completely. The Russian battleship *Sevastopol* was moved into the outer harbor and was often attacked by the Japanese torpedo-boats outside, being rendered practically useless.

Siege
and Fall
of Port
Arthur.

Finally, after a siege of about eleven months and many desperate assaults, Port Arthur fell into the possession of the Japanese at the opening of the year 1905. This siege was one of the most famous in the world's history. The fortress was invested by the Japanese from the day of their capture of Nan-Shan Hill on May 26, 1904. The engineering operations began on August 3, 1904, four days after the capture of Wolf Hills by the Japanese. A British military expert had written during the siege: "On one hand is Japanese energy, on the other there is Russian stubbornness. We shall see which will prevail." The Japanese operations against Port Arthur began with the first day of the war, when the Japanese seriously damaged three Russian war vessels there. The various assaults and naval engagements during the siege have been alluded to. The final operations, which resulted in the reduction of the beleaguered port, were the capture of the forts on Kee-Wan Mountain and finally the capture of the great Ehr-Lung Fort by the Japanese by the heavy cannon which they mounted in commanding positions by December 30, 1904. The Russians still had twenty-five forts, comprising most of the permanent interior defenses; but the later positions captured by the Japanese rendered further resistance useless. Accordingly, on Sunday afternoon, New Year's day, 1905, General Stoessel, the Russian commandant, sent a communication to General Nogi, the Japanese commander, proposing negotiations for a capitulation of the fortress. Commissioners were appointed by the two generals, and by 4:30 in the morning of January 2d the terms were agreed upon. In the meantime General Nogi had received a dispatch from the Mikado saying that General Stoessel had rendered "commendable service to his country in the midst of difficulties," and ordering that "full honors be paid him." The Mikado's magnanimous action in this instance facilitated negotiations, and all the terms offered by the Japanese were

accepted without question by the Russian general. The Russian officers were permitted to retain their swords, and upon signing parole not to take up arms during the war they were allowed to return to Russia. The Japanese army entered the city on January 4th, and the next day the two commanders met each other at a miserable hovel, the only undamaged house remaining in the village of Shuishi, each recognizing the other as a brave man and a good soldier, and the exchange of courtesies was very cordial but solemn. On January 13th General Nogi and his army made an imposing triumphal entry into the city, the line being five miles long. The mass of the Russian garrison were against surrender and were surprised and chagrined at the result. The closing words of General Stoessel's dispatch to the Czar announcing surrender were "Great sovereign, pardon us. We have done all that is within human power. Judge us with clemency." After the battle of Nan-Shan Hill, on May 26, 1904, the Japanese lost fifty-five thousand men, of whom eleven thousand were killed. At the beginning of the siege the Russians had seventy-five thousand soldiers, sailors and civilians at Port Arthur, of whom ten thousand were killed or died. The number taken prisoners by the Japanese was almost thirty thousand. Five thousand Russian laborers were sent to Chefoo, China. Two hundred Russian officers were killed or wounded during the siege. Besides the city and the great works there, General Nogi's spoils of victory were four Russian battleships, two cruisers, fourteen gunboats and torpedo-boat destroyers, ten steamers, thirty-five small steamers which can be repaired, five hundred and sixty-four cannon, almost eighty-three thousand shells, thirty thousand kilos of powder and over two million rounds of ammunition. The loss of Port Arthur was a terrible blow to the Russians, as they had spent many millions of money upon the harbor and the fortifications as well as upon those of the neighboring port of Dalny.

On January 25, 1905, General Kuropatkin attempted to break through the Japanese lines and turn their right flank in the direction of Liao-Yang. Five days' fighting followed all along the line and is known as the battle of the Hun river. It was stated that more artillery was used in this fighting than in any previous engagement of the war and therefore more than in any other battle in the world's history. The Russian general's effort failed, the Russians losing over ten thousand men and the Japanese about seven thousand. The troops on both sides suffered intensely from the cold. Many of the engagements were fought in bitter cold winds, while the thermometer registered twenty degrees below zero. The earthworks erected by the Japanese at Sandepu were frozen so solid that the bombardment from the Russian field artillery was ineffective. General Grippenberg resigned the com-

**Battle of
the Hun
River.**

mand of the second Russian army in Manchuria and was succeeded by General Kaulbars.

**Battle of
Moukden.**

Finally the great battle of Moukden—the greatest of all the battles of the Russo-Japanese War, and the greatest of history so far as numbers engaged and length of duration is concerned—lasted twenty days, thus doubly eclipsing the battles of Liao-Yang, the Sahke river and the Hun river. The Japanese forces numbered five hundred thousand and the Russians four hundred thousand. The great battles of this war exceeded in duration those of any other war—the battle of Liao-Yang lasting ten days, that of the Sahke river eight days, that of the Hun river five days and that of Moukden twenty days. In numbers engaged as well as in duration the battle of Moukden exceeded all battles of the world's history as well as all previous battles of the Russo-Japanese War, as nearly a million men were engaged in it on both sides. At the time of the battle of Moukden the Japanese line extended from Sing-King-Ting on the east to Sin-Min-Tin on the west, a distance of more than a hundred miles, and this by telegraph and telephone was under the control of one central head. The real advance of the Japanese army commenced on February 19, 1905, when General Kuroki crossed the Taitse river on the ice and assailed the Russian left, or eastern wing. For two weeks before the Japanese pressed hard against the center of the Russian position at Pulitoff, or Lone Tree Hill, during which they bombarded the Russian lines very heavily, large siege guns from Port Arthur being used for the purpose. On February 25th the Russians evacuated their strongly-intrenched position of Tsin-Ketchen after two days' severe fighting, after which the Japanese captured Ta Pass and other important positions on the east. In consequence of these Japanese successes, General Kuropatkin greatly increased his forces about Fushan and moved his own headquarters from Moukden to that point. Fushan was very important to the Russians on account of its coal mines, as it was the sole source of Russian supply for railroad and other uses and because it defended Moukden on the east. While General Oku continued his assaults on the Russian center in the vicinity of Pulitoff Hill, General Nogi, with an army composed of forces from Port Arthur, made a forced march from Sandepu to Sin-Min-Tin and gained an advanced position a few miles west of Moukden. For six days and nights these Port Arthur Japanese veterans marched and fought to reach their positions, exhibiting the most fanatical bravery in their charges on the Russian intrenchments, with the warcry: "Out of the way! We are from Port Arthur!" These Japanese successes on the west made General Kuropatkin's position critical, and he found himself obliged to send a large force to the west and north to defend Moukden from those directions and to protect the railroad and highway

to Tie Pass and Harbin. At the same time General Oku pressed upon the Russian center and finally made a break in the southern line of the Russian defense, crossing the Hun river on the ice between Moukden and Fushan, in the face of a blinding dust storm which concealed his movements, thus cutting off the Russian force under General Linevitch at Fushan from the other Russian forces. Thus General Kuropatkin's army was broken in the center, attacked on both flanks and almost surrounded on the north, and its capture seemed imminent; but the Russian commander-in-chief saved his army from capture or annihilation by another masterly retreat, evacuating Moukden on March 9th, the Japanese occupying that city the next day, thus making another step in their northward advance. Field-Marshal Oyama made a triumphal entry into Moukden and was received with great ceremony by the Chinese governor, who gave Oyama a banquet. Thus the Japanese won another great victory in the battle of Moukden. The Russian losses were twenty-six thousand five hundred killed, ninety thousand wounded, forty thousand made prisoners, two ensigns, sixty cannon, sixty thousand rifles, one hundred and thirty thousand ammunition wagons, one thousand army wagons, two hundred thousand shells, twenty-five million rifle shots, seventy-four thousand bushels of grain, material for forty-six miles of light railway, three hundred light railroad wagons, two thousand horses, twenty-three Chinese carts full of maps, over one thousand carts full of clothing, one million loaves of bread, one hundred and fifty million pounds of fuel, two hundred and twenty-three thousand bushels allowance, one hundred and twenty-five thousand pounds of hay. These materials were the immense trophies of the Japanese.

After the battle of Moukden the Russians retreated to Tie Pass and the city of Tieling, forty miles north of Moukden, in a strongly-in-trenched position, closely pursued by the Japanese, who occasionally assailed the Russian flanks in a continual rear-guard action, adding constantly to their spoils. The Russians lost a large amount of stores, and many detached bands of fugitives surrendered to escape starvation. The Russians made a stand at Tie Pass, but by direct attack and flank movement the Japanese drove them from that position and forced them to retreat northward toward Harbin, three hundred miles away. The losses at Tie Pass and Tieling added to those of the battle of Moukden made the total Russian losses in killed, wounded and prisoners about two hundred thousand men and the Japanese losses about forty thousand. Notwithstanding the great Russian defeat in the battle of Moukden, a Council of War at St. Petersburg resolved to continue the war and to send another large army into Manchuria. There was a strong peace party in Russia, and this party violently opposed the

**Russian
Retreat
and
Further
Defeat.**

mobilization of another army. General Kuropatkin assumed full responsibility for his great defeat at Moukden and asked to be relieved of his command. His request was granted without comment, and General Linevitch was appointed his successor.

Continued
Operations in
Man-
churia.

Under General Linevitch the Russian army in Manchuria retreated northward toward Harbin, pursued by the Japanese, who hung upon the Russian flanks. The Russians retreated along the railroad, which they destroyed in their retreat. The Japanese army kept at a distance of ten or twenty miles on the east and west sides of the railroad. Another Japanese army under General Kawamura moved still farther east toward Kirin. General Kuropatkin generously offered to remain with the army and was assigned to the command of the first Russian army, formerly commanded by General Linevitch, so that the two leading Russian generals merely changed positions. It was estimated that the Russians destroyed about one million seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars' worth of stores. There were occasional skirmishes afterward between outposts and detachments seeking new positions.

The
Russian
Baltic
Fleet
in the
Far East.

The Russian Baltic fleet under Admiral Rojestvensky finally reached Far Eastern waters, and by May, 1905, it was in the China Sea. This fleet consisted of seven battleships, nine cruisers, eight torpedo-boat destroyers, three volunteer fleet vessels, sixteen colliers, one salvage ship, one hospital ship and three former Hamburg-American liners. The fleet passed through the Straits of Malacca on April 8th and was seen off Singapore, sailing in a north-easterly direction. The Russian consul approached the fleet in a launch and informed the officers of the fall of Moukden. The soft coal burned by the fleet produced dense clouds of smoke that could be seen for miles. On April 13th a hospital ship from the fleet entered Saigon, the capital and chief port of French Indo-China, remaining there thirty-six hours and leaving a number of sick and taking on coal and supplies. From Saigon the fleet sailed to Kamranh Bay, a port of French Indo-China north of Saigon, where the fleet coaled and refitted. Japan complained of violation of neutrality by the French in permitting this hospitality. Japan declared Formosa harbors to be in the war zone and subject to usual conditions in such cases. On May 5th the Russian squadron under Admiral Nebogatoff passed Singapore into the China Sea to join the main Russian fleet under Admiral Rojestvensky. To divert the attention of the Japanese Admiral Togo from the union of the two Russian fleets, the Russian Vladivostok squadron raided the Japanese coast, burned the Japanese warship *Yawata Maru* and fired on several sailing vessels. French violation of neutrality in allowing the use of the French Indo-Chinese port at Kamranh Bay to the use of the Russian fleet for the purpose of reprovisioning had attracted very general attention. In

French
Neu-
trality
Violated.

spite of France's denial that the Russian fleet was outside of her territorial waters, eye witnesses claimed that the fleet was inside the three-mile limit and remained there ten days. The stores were forwarded from Saigon, the capital of French Indo-China, about two hundred miles from Kamranh Bay. Despite Japan's protest, the Russian fleet remained there until its work was completed and until the transports which brought the supplies from Saigon had been emptied. While in the French Indo-Chinese ports the Russians had full use of the telegraphic facilities of the French company.

Finally the long-expected battle between the Russian and Japanese fleets occurred on May 27 and 28, 1905, at the entrance of the Straits of Korea into the Sea of Japan, this great sea-fight being known as the battle of the Sea of Japan. The whereabouts of the Japanese fleet under Admiral Togo was not known generally until the collision between the two fleets. The Russian fleet consisted of seven battleships, two armored cruisers, six protected cruisers, five unprotected cruisers and eleven torpedo-boat destroyers. The Japanese fleet was composed of four battleships, eight armored cruisers, fifteen protected cruisers, seven unprotected cruisers, four coast-defense vessels and nineteen torpedo-boat destroyers. The Russian fleet excelled in battleships and big guns, while the Japanese fleet excelled in cruisers and 8-inch and 6-inch guns and in torpedo-boats. The battle began at ten o'clock in the morning of May 27, 1905, and lasted until night. The three divisions of the Japanese fleet practically surrounded the Russian ships, the Japanese torpedo craft aiding vastly in demoralizing the Russian fleet and preventing its escape from the Japanese cordon. Opening shots were fired at a distance of seven and a half miles. Within two hours the Russian fleet was disorganized completely, and the Japanese were able to close in and concentrate their fire on the individual Russian ships in turn. The Russian battleships *Sissoi Veliky*, *Borodino*, *Alexander III.*, *Oslayba* and *Navarin* were sunk in succession. The *Borodino* was Admiral Rojestvensky's flagship after the *Kniaz Suwaroff* had been disabled. He remained on the *Borodino* until he was wounded severely, when he was taken on board a torpedo-boat destroyer which afterwards was overtaken near the coast of Korea, where the admiral was captured. During the night of May 27th the Japanese used their torpedo-boats with deadly effect, sinking many of the Russian ships, while others escaped in the darkness of the night. On Sunday, May 28th, the fighting resulted in a pursuit of the Russian ships by the Japanese vessels. Admiral Nebogatoff, with five Russian vessels, escaped toward Vladivostok, but was surrounded near Liancourt Island; and the Russian battleships *Nokolai I.* and *Orel*, with two smaller Russian ships, were surrendered by him. The Russian battleship *Izumrud*

Great
Japanese
Naval
Victory.

escaped and almost reached Vladivostok, when it struck a reef and was lost. The Russian cruiser *Almaz* and three Russian torpedo-boat destroyers reached Vladivostok. On June 3d Admiral Enquest, with the Russian cruisers *Oleg*, *Aurora* and *Jeimtchug*, arrived at Manila Bay, where they were interned by the American authorities until the end of the war. The Russian cruiser *Smolensk* escaped to Wu-Sung, China. Several of the disabled Russian ships drifted to the coast of Japan, where they either sank or were captured. All the Russian battleships were either destroyed or captured; and, with the exception of a few scattered remnants, the Russian fleet was annihilated. Admiral Voelkersham, who commanded the Russian battleship squadron, was killed in the tower of his flagship early in the fight. The Russian loss was estimated at almost ten thousand killed and wounded and five thousand prisoners, besides a money loss of seventy-three million dollars. The Japanese lost three torpedo-boats and about five hundred killed and wounded. This Japanese naval victory was almost without a parallel in history, and it made Japan mistress of the Eastern seas, Russia's naval power in the Pacific being annihilated completely.

Opera-
tions in
Man-
churia.

In the meantime the Japanese forces in Manchuria, under Field-Marshal Oyama, were pushing the Russian forces under General Linevitch very hard; advancing from the center and westward and driving in the thin Russian lines south of Palitum, while farther west the Japanese turned the Russian extreme right at Liaoyangchongpeng, flanking the Russians out of their position after a conflict continuing through the night. The Japanese force consisted of an infantry division, four batteries of artillery and thirty squadrons of cavalry.

Japanese
Conquest
of
Sakhalin.

On July 12, 1905, a small Japanese force invaded the island of Sakhalin, north of the Japan Islands, and conquered it from the Russians, this being the first Russian territory occupied by the Japanese during the war. The Japanese began with a naval demonstration against the island; and, as they encountered little resistance, they landed and seized such ports as they desired. The island of Sakhalin formerly belonged to Japan, but was divided between Russia and Japan in 1856, Russia taking the northern part of the island and Japan the southern part. In 1875 Russia forced Japan to cede to her the southern part of the island also.

Other
Japanese
Move-
ments.

The Japanese also sent a land force through Korea toward Vladivostok. In Manchuria the Japanese undertook several flanking movements to keep the Russians under General Linevitch busy before Harbin, while the second Japanese army pushed through Korea to threaten the railroad between Harbin and Vladivostok.

Move-
ments
towards
Peace.

In the meantime the destruction of the Russian fleet in the Sea of Japan led to movements in the direction of peace, President Roosevelt

acting as mediator. On July 2, 1905, the names of the Russian and Japanese plenipotentiaries were announced. The two Russian plenipotentiaries were N. V. Muravieff, the Russian Ambassador to Italy, and Baron Rosen, the new Russian Ambassador to the United States. On July 12th the announcement came from St. Petersburg that Muravieff had been replaced by M. Witte, the Russian ex-Minister of Foreign Affairs and the principal Russian liberal statesman. Witte was opposed to the war, and his position on the Far Eastern question had led to his retirement from the Czar's Cabinet. The Japanese plenipotentiaries were Baron Komura, then Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Minister Takahira. The plenipotentiaries of both nations were entrusted with full power to negotiate and conclude a treaty of peace, subject to ratification by the two governments. Some delay was caused in the selection of the plenipotentiaries because of Japan's insistence that the envoys of both powers should be clothed with full power to conclude peace and to negotiate a permanent treaty. Japan declared firmly that she would not enter upon a tentative conference in which Japan was to define her terms and then let Russia decide whether the conference should proceed with its deliberations. She insisted that the plenipotentiaries should have full treaty-making powers and that negotiations should be entered upon in a spirit of perfect sincerity. President Roosevelt assumed the same attitude. Portsmouth, New Hampshire, was selected as the place for the peace conference.

After three weeks of negotiation at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, the Russian and Japanese plenipotentiaries finally agreed upon a treaty of peace between the warring nations, on September 5, 1905. Of the twelve conditions laid down by Baron Komura at the beginning, M. Witte accepted six; namely, the recognition of the Japanese control over Korea; the Russian and Japanese evacuation of Manchuria; the transfer of the Liao-tung leasehold; the restoration of Chinese civil administration in Manchuria; the transfer of public property at Port Arthur and Dalny without compensation; the concession of Japanese fishing rights on the coast of Siberia. M. Witte rejected absolutely three Japanese demands—the war indemnity, the transfer of interned warships and the limitation of Russia's naval power in the Pacific. There was a compromise upon the remaining three demands. One of these demands was the transfer by Russia to Japan of the railroad from Port Arthur to Harbin, Russia conceding four hundred miles of the road north of Port Arthur, retaining for herself one hundred and twenty-five miles at the northern end. Of course, M. Witte accepted the condition that Russia should retain the main Manchurian railway. Concerning the Japanese demand for the cession of the island of Sak-

Peace of
Portsmouth.

halin by Russia to Japan, a partition of the island between the two nations was agreed upon, the northern half of the island remaining with Russia and the southern half going to Japan. Russia also agreed to defray Japan's expenses in maintaining her prisoners of war. Japan finally withdrew her demand for a war indemnity. The Czar and the Mikado signed the treaty at their respective capitals on October 14, 1905.

**The
Result.**

The result of the war, in consequence of Japan's uninterrupted victories on land and sea, was to raise Japan's prestige as one of the great powers of the world, while Russia's reverses were a severe blow to her prestige. The peace terms aroused dissatisfaction in both countries. many Russians thinking that their nation had been humiliated unnecessarily, while many Japanese considered that their country did not obtain the terms which the uninterrupted Japanese successes entitled her to. The dissatisfaction in Japan led to serious riots in Tokio, where the Marquis Ito was stoned by a mob. An armistice was signed between the commanders of both armies in Manchuria on September 14, 1905, the armistice to take effect two days later.

**Japan
Gains by
Treaties.**

It had been agreed that Japan and Russia should evacuate Manchuria, but by a subsequent treaty with China, signed December 22, 1905, Japan leased the entire Liaotung peninsula, gained control of the railways as far as Changchun, and also obtained permission to construct a railway from Antung to Mukden and to open 16 ports and cities of Manchuria to foreign trade. On September 27, 1905, a treaty with Great Britain was signed by which Japan obtained, among other things, a protective alliance and an agreement to preserve the integrity of China. Thus Japan's position became still more secure in Far Eastern affairs.

**Protectorate
over
Korea
Estab-
lished.**

Korea, however, soon began to cause alarm; the Emperor was obstinate and revolutionary ideas became rampant among the people. The treaty of Portsmouth recognized Japan's control over Korea, but the natives did not and Marquis Ito was twice sent there to adjust matters, his efforts finally resulting in the Japan-Korea treaty of November 17, 1905, which declared a Japanese protectorate over the peninsula. Subsequently Ito was appointed resident-general in Korea and from that time practically administered the Government. On July 17, 1907, the Japanese Government forced the Korean emperor to abdicate in favor of the crown prince, ostensibly because the emperor had sent a delegation to the Hague Peace Conference contrary to an existing agreement with Japan. Whatever the causes for the abdication may have been, Japan gained full control, and now the resident-general holds the reins of government, so that no political or international affairs can be entered upon without his full consent. Serious riots followed the abdication, but they were speedily and severely crushed by the Japanese military.

**Korean
Emperor
Abdicates.**

Meanwhile, several demonstrations against the Japanese had taken place, in San Francisco, Cal. (October, 1906), concerning the rights of Japanese subjects in the public schools, and in Vancouver, Canada (September, 1907), concerning coolie immigration. At the time of their occurrence these events caused much apprehension, but the differences were later easily and satisfactorily settled.

Foreign
Demon-
strations
Against
Japanese.

At home Japan was undergoing much hardship. Late in 1905 the rice crop in the North failed, causing a disastrous famine, but generous contributions greatly alleviated the condition of the sufferers. The industrial depression following the war gradually disappeared and large enterprises and vast commercial schemes of expansion of all kinds were launched until the drain on the productive resources caused a collapse. This only served, however, to place business on a more sane and sound basis.

Financial
and
Industrial
Depres-
sion.

In political affairs there was much turmoil; governmental policies were attacked by the opposition party, who attributed much of the financial burdens of the people to mismanagement by the party in power. The financial budget presented to the Diet on January 16, 1908, showed a deficit of forty million yen (about twenty million dollars) for 1908 and 1909, to overcome which it was proposed to increase taxation, and to reduce army and navy and also railroad appropriations. This plan met with strenuous objections from the interests affected, and finally compelled the resignations of the Minister of Finance, Sakatani, and the Minister of Communications, Yamagata. Premier Saionji also resigned, but the emperor refused to allow his resignation. In February came the dispute with China concerning the seizure of the *Tatsu Maru* by Chinese officials, who claimed that the vessel was smuggling arms to revolutionists in China. The terms upon which this dispute was settled created much dissatisfaction in Japan over the manner in which the government had handled the situation. In May followed a Chinese boycott against Japanese merchandise and a dispute concerning railways in Manchuria, both of which badly affected Japan's commercial and financial enterprises. Therefore at the elections on May 15 the government was only sustained by a very narrow margin and though the Liberal Party continued in power, the Saionji cabinet remained in office but two months longer. On July 14, 1908, the emperor appointed Marquis Katsura premier and minister of finance, and a new cabinet was formed favoring retrenchment. During 1908 an arbitration treaty, an agreement restricting Japanese coolie immigration into the United States, and two conventions to protect copyrights and inventions in China and Korea were signed by representatives of Japan and the United States.

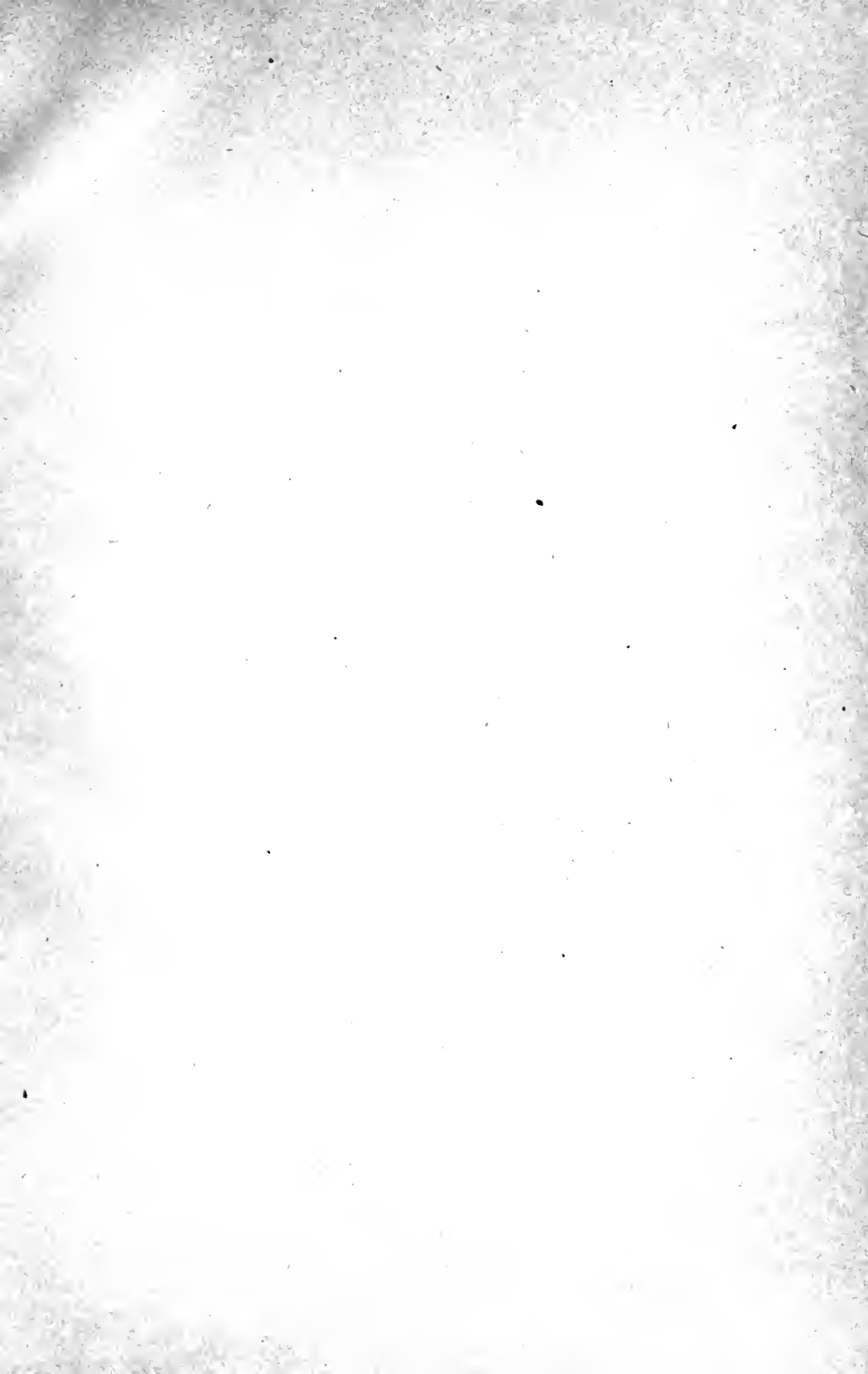
Political
Turmoil.

Cabinet
Changes.

Appoint-
ment of
New
Cabinet.

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