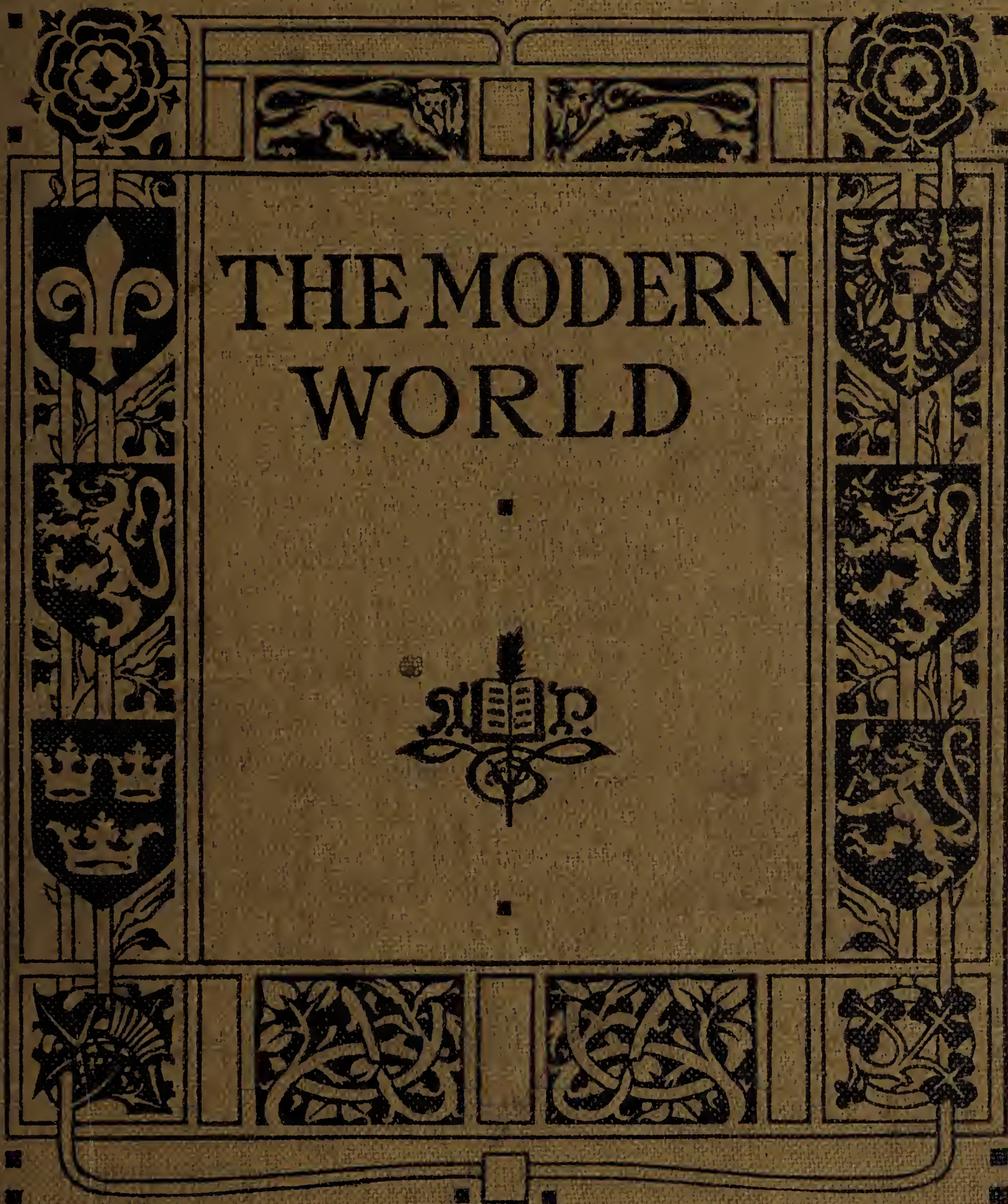


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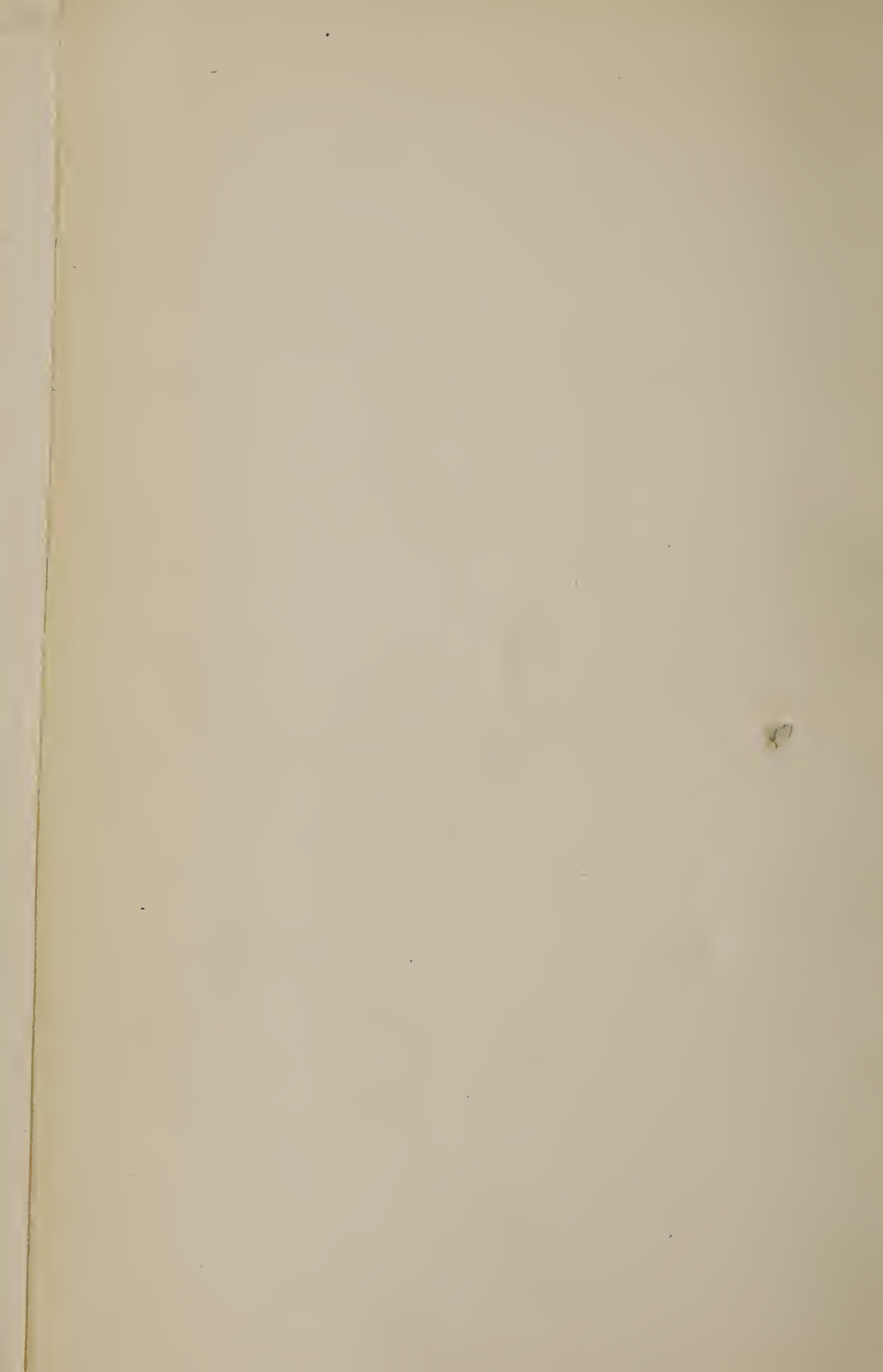


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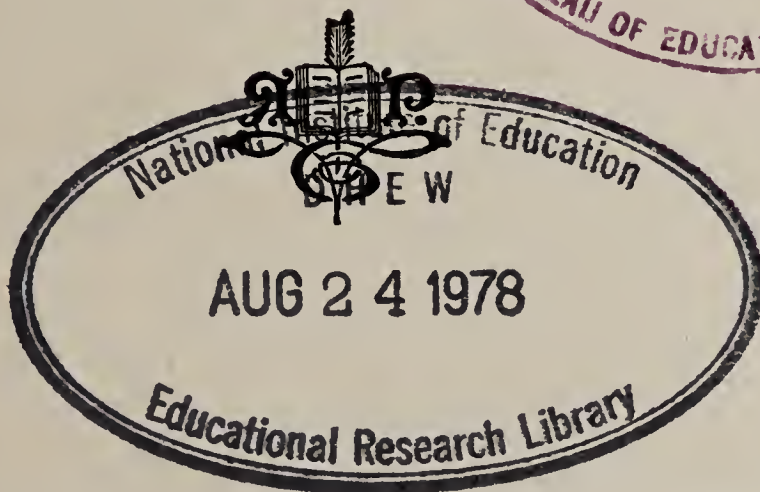
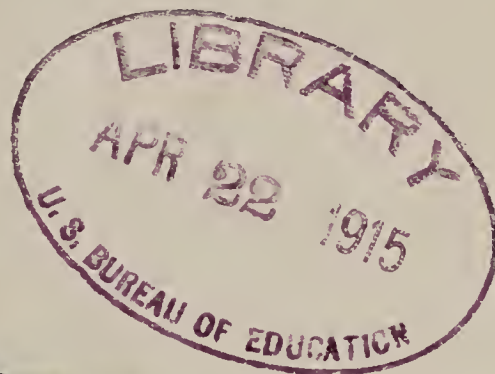
From the painting by Robert Gibb, R.S.A.



HISTORY STORIES OF OTHER LANDS

THE MODERN WORLD

EDITED BY
ARTHUR GUY TERRY
PROFESSOR OF HISTORY,
NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY



CHICAGO

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PREFACE

The aim of this series is to provide some facts of British history not usually given in elementary schoolbooks, together with some broad outlines of the European history of which British history and our own to an extent form a part. When this larger background is sketched in, the great events of American history are seen in their true relation and assume a new significance. The historic sense is enriched when such movements as the Crusades or the Renaissance are exhibited in their wider aspects — as reaching our shores, even though remotely, like the tides from afar.

The first two books of the series consist of simple stories of all time drawn from ancient history. The later volumes deal each with a definite period. British history receives a large share of space, because of its close relationship to our own, but the narrative pauses from time to time to tell of what was happening elsewhere, especially where the course of events across the Channel influenced or was influenced by what was happening in Britain.

In addition to a great number of drawings of historical objects, etc., and pictures of persons and places of note, the colored illustrations provide

PREFACE

reproductions of famous historical paintings in the galleries of Great Britain and the Continent, heretofore not available for school use in this country.

Maps and pictorial time charts, designed to help the pupils to fix the time- and place-relations, by appealing to the visual memory, have been placed for convenience of reference in the appendix by themselves.

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COLORED PLATES

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1. SAVING THE COLORS: THE GUARDS AT THE BATTLE OF INKERMAN (see p. 166)

Painted by Robert Gibb, R.S.A. *Frontispiece* ✓

Reproduced by permission of the owners of the picture

On one of the spurs of Inkerman, the British troops, acting without orders, charged downhill after the retreating Russians, leaving the Duke of Cambridge with only a remnant of the Grenadier Guards *and the regimental colors*. Finding that the Russians were closing in upon him, the duke was proceeding to draw off his men, when they became separated, and only a handful of men were left to guard the colors. These were manfully fighting their way through, with the cry "Carry high the colors!" when two Russian battalions were descried through the mist bearing down upon their rear. Seeing the new danger, Captain Burnaby, with eighteen or twenty men, flung himself full in the face of the advancing battalions. The Russian advance was checked for a minute, and in the breathing space the men with the colors were able to win their way to a place of safety.

2. LOUIS XIV AND HIS FAMILY Painted by N. de Largillière 23 ✓

*Reproduced from the picture in the Wallace Collection,
London*

This picture is taken a few years before the end of the long reign. Louis XIV, seated on the chair, is accompanied by his son and grandson (who both died in 1711) and by his great-grandson, a child in leading strings. In 1715 this boy, aged five, succeeded the grand monarch as Louis XV, and ruled France disastrously till 1774. The lady is Madame de Maintenon, who was privately married to Louis XIV in 1685, and influenced him to revoke the Edict of Nantes. The bust on the left is that of Henry IV, on the right that of Louis XIII, so that in this picture are represented six generations of the royal house of France.

Facing page

3. THE SOUTH SEA BUBBLE: A SCENE IN CHANGE ALLEY, 1720
Painted by E. M. Ward, R.A. 57✓

Reproduced from the picture in the Tate Gallery, London

The boom is at its height in Change Alley. At the entrance is a placard announcing "South Sea Stock at 1000 per cent.," and the eager hands outstretched where the handbills are being given out show that the crowd is still hot in pursuit. High and low, rich and poor, parson and peasant—all are drawn together by the gambling fever. In the foreground are "people of quality" richly dressed, one of them wearing the blue ribbon of the garter, while humbler folk are seen at the pawnbroker's shop borrowing money for some new venture. The clerks at the table are doing a brisk business. But on the right the closed door, with its ominous notice, gives a hint that sooner or later the bubble must burst.

4. PETER THE GREAT AT DEPTFORD DOCKYARD
Painted by Daniel Maclise, R.A. 71✓

Reproduced by permission of the Trustees of the Royal Holloway College

Peter the Great, his huge frame set off by coarse woolen hose and a sailor's coat, pauses in his work to receive his courtly visitor, William III. Some of Peter's companions, quite unconcerned, ply their trade with saw, plane and the various tools of their craft, while others—the negro, the dwarf, and the pet monkey—gaze idly at the intruder. On the ground and on every side is spread a litter of odds and ends, giving an index of Peter's tastes—flagons and fruit, books and musical instruments, a spaniel, a tame raven, models of ships, tools, instruments of navigation, etc.

5. CLIVE AT THE SIEGE OF ARCOT Painted by E. Wallcousins 104✓

The ditch not being fordable, the assailants brought forward a raft, which was large enough to carry seventy men. These embarked upon it, and, though fired upon by two field pieces, were nearly across, when Clive, observing the bad aim of the gunners, took the management of one of the pieces, and in two or three discharges caused such confusion that the craft was upset.

6. FREDERICK THE GREAT ON A JOURNEY
Painted by Adolf Menzel 123✓

Reproduced from the picture in Ravené Gallery, Berlin

The picture shows Frederick on one of his periodic journeys of inspection. He was greatly beloved by the common people, who are seen crowding round "Father Fritz" (as they

Facing page

called him) in affectionate homage, amongst them one of his old crippled soldiers and a woman who presents a petition. A local magnate is ready to read a loyal address, while at the door of the carriage a young lady stands with some dainty refreshment for the king. - The building operations in the background give evidence of the useful work that is being accomplished in repairing the havoc of war.

7. ROUGET DE LISLE SINGING THE "MARSEILLAISE"
Painted by Isidore Pils 154 ✓

Reproduced from the picture in the Louvre, Paris

The mayor of Strasburg had invited to his house a number of volunteers who were about to join the army of the Republic. While sitting at the table he spoke of the need for some rousing song to fire the ardor of the new recruits. "Come, Rouget," he said to a young officer who was present, "you are a poet and a musician; give us something worth singing." Next day Rouget de Lisle called at the mayor's with a song which he had written and set to music overnight, and, accompanied on the piano by the mayor's niece (as shown in the picture), he sang the song that was to make him famous. Its success was instant. The song passed from mouth to mouth, and from town to town, till it was heard in the streets of Paris sung by a company of volunteers arriving from Marseilles. From that time its title was fixed, and it became the French national anthem.

8. THE EVENING OF THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO
Painted by Ernest Crofts, R.A. 178 ✓

Reproduced by permission of the Corporation of Liverpool
The French are in full retreat after the battle, when a halt is called to allow Napoleon to alight from his carriage and mount a horse which is held in readiness by an officer. The guards have lined up meanwhile to check the press of the retreat, but the artillery rattle past unheeding, driving furiously and with little care for the safety of the wounded.

9. THE MEETING OF STANLEY AND LIVINGSTONE
Painted by Wal Paget 228 ✓

"When my spirits were at their lowest ebb," writes Livingstone in his journal, "the good Samaritan was close at hand, for one morning Susi came running at the top of his speed and gasped out, 'An Englishman! I see him!' and off he darted to meet him. The American flag at the head of the caravan told of the nationality of the stranger."

Stanley advanced and they grasped hands. "Dr. Livingstone, I presume?" These were the first words Livingstone had heard from a white man for five years.

Facing page

10. THE DEPARTURE OF THE KING OF PRUSSIA FOR THE SEAT OF War, 31ST JULY, 1870 - Painted by Adolf Menzel 243 ✓

Reproduced from the picture in the National Gallery, Berlin

“Through a dense crowd of enthusiastic subjects,” writes an eyewitness, “through a continuous line of shouting, bowing, and saluting well-wishers, William I drove yesterday afternoon from the Palace to the Potsdam Station. With him went the Queen, graciously responding to the cheers of the public, and unable to repress her tears at the thought of the journey her husband was about to take. At the terminus, which was decorated with flowers and occupied by an immense multitude, the King was received by Moltke and Bismarck.” The picture shows the royal carriage passing down the spacious *Unter Den Linden*, Berlin’s most famous promenade, which is gay with flags.

In significant contrast, the French Emperor made his departure from Paris — privately and *incognito*.

11. CAPTAIN COOK AT BOTANY BAY - Painted by Alec Ball 284 ✓

On 28th April, 1770, Captain Cook anchored in Botany Bay. The natives, who were naked and armed with spears and boomerangs, were not friendly, but the richness and beauty of the vegetation delighted the explorers, and suggested the name by which the bay is still known. The branches over their heads abounded with birds of exquisite beauty. Five miles north of Botany Bay, Cook discovered the magnificent natural harbor which he named Port Jackson, and which is now occupied by the great city of Sydney.

12. CECIL RHODES IN COUNCIL WITH THE MATABELE CHIEFS

Painted by William Rainey, R.I. 296 ✓

In 1896 a rebellion broke out in Rhodesia among the warlike Matabele, and after fruitless military operations Rhodes decided to go in person and unarmed to meet with the rebellious chiefs. In the heart of the granite hills a council was held, as shown in the picture. Rhodes sits with folded arms while his interpreter addresses the Matabeles, who are sitting on the ground in a circle, one of them holding a white flag. The chiefs each wear the ring in their hair, the mark of full manhood, showing that each has killed an enemy in fight. At one point the young warriors got out of hand, and were only quelled by Rhodes springing to his feet and shouting: “Go back, I tell you!” The Matabele were reconciled, and as Rhodes rode back in silence from his perilous mission he remarked: “It is these things that make life worth while.”

THE MODERN WORLD

THE AGE OF LOUIS XIV

The Divine Right of Kings

The stories of England and of France are more or less intertwined all through the centuries, but nowhere do they touch at so many points as during the long reign of Louis XIV. This king ruled over France for seventy-two years, from 1643 to 1715. The same period saw six sovereigns and a lord protector ruling over Britain, and great and violent changes passing over the land. The Civil Wars, the execution of the king and the rise of the Commonwealth, the Restoration, the Revolution, and the accession of a new dynasty with George I, all occurred within the single reign of the great French king.

But the reign of Louis XIV is famous not merely by reason of its length, although that is the greatest in the annals of history, but rather by its deeds. During this period France attained a position of unexampled power and glory. It met and conquered on many battlefields the combined armies of

Europe. It largely extended the bounds of its territories, and in Canada, India, and Africa laid the foundations of what was, for a time, a great colonial empire. It produced sufficient great men to adorn half a dozen reigns. A mere list of these would take up considerable space, and we can but mention one or two of the more famous, such as the dramatists Corneille, Racine, and Molière; La Fontaine, the writer of witty and charming fables; Pascal, the great philosopher; and Fénelon, who wrote for his pupil, the young dauphin, the well-known story of *Télémaque*.

With the declining years of the great king the glory and splendor of France also steadily set, closing at last with his death amid disaster and gloom.

Louis XIII and his famous minister, Cardinal Richelieu, died within a few months of each other in 1643. The throne then passed to Louis XIV, a child of five years, while the place of minister fell to Cardinal Mazarin, the friend and helper of Richelieu. Mazarin's rule lasted from 1643-61. For the greater part of that time the war with Spain dragged on with varying fortune. However, in 1657 Mazarin made an al-



Louis XIV, King of France

liance with Cromwell, although Louis XIV was the nephew of Henrietta Maria, wife of the luckless Charles I. With the help of Blake's sea dogs and 10,000 of Cromwell's Ironsides, Spain was utterly defeated by land and sea. Peace was soon afterwards concluded by the Treaty of the Pyrenees.

By this treaty France gained territory on the north and south, but the most important clause was one arranging a marriage between Louis XIV and Maria Theresa, daughter of Philip IV, the King of Spain. This marriage was desired by Mazarin in the hope that some day it would lead to a union of the two kingdoms of France and Spain. But this was precisely what the Spaniards did not want, and they insisted on a clause being inserted whereby Louis, on behalf of Maria Theresa and her heirs, renounced all claim to the Spanish throne. We shall see later how false Louis was to his promise, and how dearly France and its people had to pay for his shameful breach of faith.

In 1661 Mazarin died, and Louis at once took the government into his own hands. He was now twenty-three years of age, frank, handsome, imperious, and ambitious. As a youth he had given little promise of the strength of character he was now to display. As a boy he had been silent, solemn, and somewhat stupid-looking, but the old Cardinal judged him aright when he said of him: "He will set off late but will go far, for there is in

him the stuff to make four kings and one honest man.”

When the ministers, who had hitherto taken their orders from Mazarin, asked the young king to whom they should now apply for instructions, he replied: “To me. I intend to be my own Prime Minister. And so, for the remaining fifty-four years of his reign, he kept in his own hands all the strings of empire, and gave personal attention to even the most trifling details of government. To carry out



Court Lady of Time of Louis
XIV

this policy no wearer of the crown ever worked harder than Louis XIV. He slaved at his desk for eight hours every day, and proved himself a thoroughly capable man of business. He selected his ministers wisely, but always treated them as servants to execute his commands without question.

The young king had a very high idea of the royal power, and was a firm believer in the doctrine of the Divine Right of Kings. According to this theory, the nation is

regarded as a great family, with the king as its divinely appointed head. The king stands to his people in the relation of a father to his children. The duty of the king is to govern and of his subjects to obey, even as children obey their parents without question or demur. If the king does wrong there is no redress, for under no circumstances is it right to rise in rebellion against him. For any wrongs he may do he is answerable to God alone, who will call him to a strict account for his misdeeds.

This doctrine had also been held by the Stuart kings in England and Scotland; with what dire results to themselves we have already seen. But in France there was no parliament, and no Magna Charta to set a limit to the king's authority, and throughout the whole reign not a single voice was raised against this monstrous claim which made slaves of a free people. The court chaplain of Louis put the seal of the Church on this doctrine when he said in one of his sermons: "Kings are Gods; they bear on



Courtier of Time of Louis XIV

their foreheads a divine character; to speak evil of kings is almost blasphemy.”

No man ever loved pomp and magnificence more than Louis. Yet he loved them not so much because of personal vanity as for reasons of State. “*I am the State,*” he is reported to have said; and so, by the splendors of his Court and the magnificence of his palaces, he wished to show to all the world the greatness of the nation represented in his person.

Early in his reign he planned the erection of a royal palace on a scale of grandeur hitherto unknown. He chose for the site a place a short distance from Paris, where he sometimes went to hunt. He spared neither money nor labor upon the work, and soon the magnificent palace of Versailles rose as if by enchantment in a place where a short time before there had been only forests and marshes.

This vast palace, with its endless halls and apartments, and its huge gardens and beautiful fountains, is said to have cost altogether \$200,000,000. This place Louis made his home and the seat of the government, and here gathered round him all the great and noble and ambitious in France. For Louis loved to be surrounded by crowds of courtiers, and gave his favors and honors to those only whom he saw frequently about him. In this spacious palace the Grand Monarch, as his subjects loved to call him, reigned like Jupiter upon Mount

Olympus, with his courtiers as lesser deities doing homage before him. "Poets, preachers, orators vied with the nobles and with each other in praising his glory and his power as something almost divine."

Perhaps nothing shows better the exalted idea the king had of his own importance than the mean services he required of his nobles, who, strange to say, were only too eager to render them. Great lords undressed him when he went to bed, and others dressed him in the morning. One handed him his shirt, another put on his doublet and hose, a third brought him his embroidered vest, while a fourth fastened on his sword. When he sat down, nobles stood behind his chair; when he took a drive, they surrounded his carriage; and when he drank his wine, they waited at table on him. In the same way, the great ladies in attendance on the queen and the young princesses were required to perform the most trivial and tiresome duties.

The royal household is said to have numbered over 15,000 titled persons, all living in luxury and splendor at the cost of the people. No wonder the magnificence of the Court dazzled Europe, and French fashions and French manners became the models in every civilized country.

The money required to support this more than royal state involved a crushing burden of taxation upon the people. But Louis, with the help of the famous Colbert, his Minister of Finance or Chan-

cellor of the Exchequer, set to work to relieve these burdens by finding new sources of revenue, and by reforming many of the old abuses. Encouraged by the king, Colbert did a great deal to encourage trade and revive commerce. He was the first to protect native manufacturers by placing a duty on foreign goods, and so was the author of the system of Protection and tariffs of which we hear so much to-day. He founded great trading companies on the model of the East India Company of Great Britain, and established colonies in India, America, and Africa. He constructed roads and built bridges all over the country, and by the formation of a great waterway, the Languedoc Canal, between the Mediterranean and the Bay of Biscay, he gave an enormous impetus to trade in the southern part of the country.

In this way the material resources of the country were largely increased, its wealth became more widely distributed, and the people were able for a time to meet all the demands created by the extravagance of the king and his Court.

France at Bay

When Louis XIV took the government into his own hands in 1661, he found himself at the head of a strong and united nation. The rival nations of Europe were for various reasons weak or helpless.



LOUIS XIV AND HIS FAMILY

From the painting by N. de Largillière in the Wallace Collection, London

Austria and Spain were exhausted by the terrible Thirty Years' War. England, Holland, and Sweden had their own home troubles, which would make them slow to embark on foreign quarrels, while Germany was still broken up into a number of small states that never acted in unison.

Louis XIV, conscious of his own power and of the weakness of his probable enemies, took advantage of the death of Philip IV of Spain, his father-in-law, to claim the Spanish Netherlands, the country now called Belgium, as his wife's portion.

Now it will be remembered that Louis had entered into a solemn engagement in the Treaty of the Pyrenees not to make any claim upon the Spanish possessions. But Louis contended that this promise was conditional on his receiving 500,000 crowns as his wife's dowry. As this had never been paid, he laid claim to the Spanish Netherlands in its stead.

Here, as always, Louis acted with energy and promptness. He wasted no time in parleying, but at once crossed the northern frontier with a great army, and in a few weeks had seized all the important towns.

But the easy victory of the French king aroused the fear of the Hollanders, who felt that the independence of their country would be more secure by their having as neighbors in Belgium the weakened Spaniards rather than the powerful King of France

with his invincible armies. Accordingly they formed, along with England and Sweden, a triple alliance to check the progress of France. Louis did not feel himself strong enough at this time to defy his enemies, and made peace on condition of receiving certain territory on his northern frontier.

Naturally enough Louis bore a deep grudge to the Hollanders, who had snatched from him the fruits of his victory, and who, besides, were his rivals in trade and commerce, and heretics to boot. So in 1672 he advanced against Holland with a great army.

The Dutch, taken unawares, offered but a feeble resistance, and soon sued for peace. This was, however, so displeasing to a section of the nation that they rose against the Government, massacred the leaders, and put at the head of the State the young Prince of Orange, afterwards William III of Britain. This prince, young as he was, had all the love of country of his great ancestor, William the Silent, and in his resistance to his enemies he showed an equal determination and resource.

Once again at William's command the Dutch cut the dikes which kept out the sea, and flooded the low-lying ground with the waters of the ocean. The victorious French troops were helpless against this new and unexpected enemy, and withdrew from the country baffled.

Meanwhile Spain, Austria, Denmark, and several

German states came to the aid of Holland. France, unable to sweep back the waters of the sea in Holland, turned fiercely upon its new foes, and in a series of brilliant battles defeated all the allied forces. This war was brought to a close in 1678 by a treaty which gave France additional territory on its eastern borders.

France emerged from the last struggle with greatly increased prestige. She had withstood successfully the combined strength of Europe. It is true she had failed in Holland, but she had been foiled by the forces of nature, and not by force of arms. Everywhere else her generals and her armies had proved themselves invincible, and it was generally believed that the great king in making peace was only preparing for a greater spring.

Notwithstanding all this, it is from this time that the decline of Louis and of France is usually dated. They had still to gain many brilliant victories and to capture more territory, but the handwriting was on the wall.

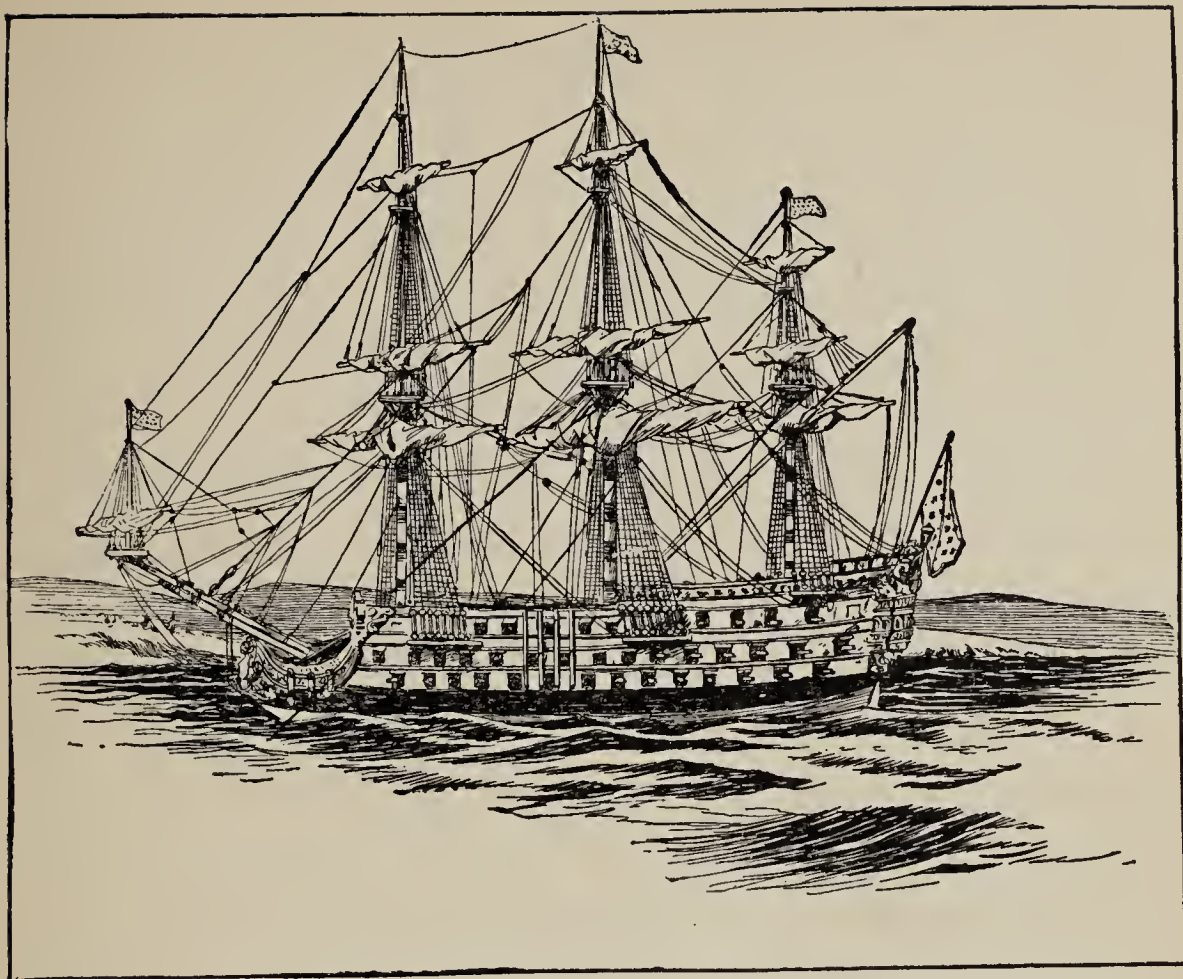
What were the signs then which, in almost the noontide of its glory, showed that the sun of France was surely setting? One of these was the ever-growing burden of taxation which was paralyzing the trade and commerce of the country. Another was the increasing suspicion and indignation with which all Europe regarded the policy of France.

But the signs of decline and decay were evident most of all in the new policy of the king towards his Protestant subjects. Louis had never been a friend to the Huguenots, although Colbert, his great minister, and Turenne, his famous general, belonged to that faith. But about the year 1680 he declared openly against them, and in 1685 he revoked the Edict of Nantes, which had gained to all Protestants full civil and religious rights.

No excuse can be offered for this shameful action. The Huguenots were the most loyal, the most contented, and the most industrious portion of the nation. But all this availed nothing with the imperious king. He had now become a great churchman, and probably hoped to atone for his early sins, which were many and grievous, by a burning zeal for the old faith.

Thousands perished on the scaffold, in the prisons, or in the galleys, but quite 400,000 contrived to escape to other and more favored lands such as England, Prussia, Switzerland, and America. The flight of these clever workmen and their families drained the country of some of its best blood, and correspondingly enriched the countries in which they settled.

William of Orange, taking advantage of the feeling roused against Louis by his betrayal of the Huguenots, united almost all Europe against him



French Warship of Time of Louis XIV

in the Grand Alliance of 1689. Louis put forth mighty efforts to meet the new crisis, and soon he had in the field an army of 200,000 men.

William of Orange was by this time King of England, but he was too busy with troubles there to take an active part in the war against Louis. But that king, engaged though he was with foes on every side, did not forget his old enemy, William. He sent over a small army to Ireland to help James, and we should remember that at the battle of the Boyne one-fourth of the army

that gave battle to William III were Frenchmen, and the commander-in-chief was a French general.

In 1692 Louis made another and more determined effort to strike a blow at his hated foe. He got together a powerful fleet under the great French admiral Tourville, and waited for a favorable chance to invade England. But a superior British fleet under Russell attacked it off Cape La Hogue, and after a ten-hours' fight Tourville retreated in good order. Being unable to find a harbor wherein to shelter, they took refuge close to the land off La Hogue, under the guns of the French ports. This, however, did not save them, for the English sailors, rowing up to them in boats, burned thirteen of the French ships under the eyes of James II and his army of invasion.

This victory gave Britain command of the seas, and Louis never again attempted to invade England.

On land William and his allies did not fare so well. Louis and his captains gained many battles, but the resources of the country were exhausted, and he was compelled to sue for peace. This was concluded by the Treaty of Ryswick in 1697, wherein William of Orange was acknowledged as King of Great Britain and Ireland.

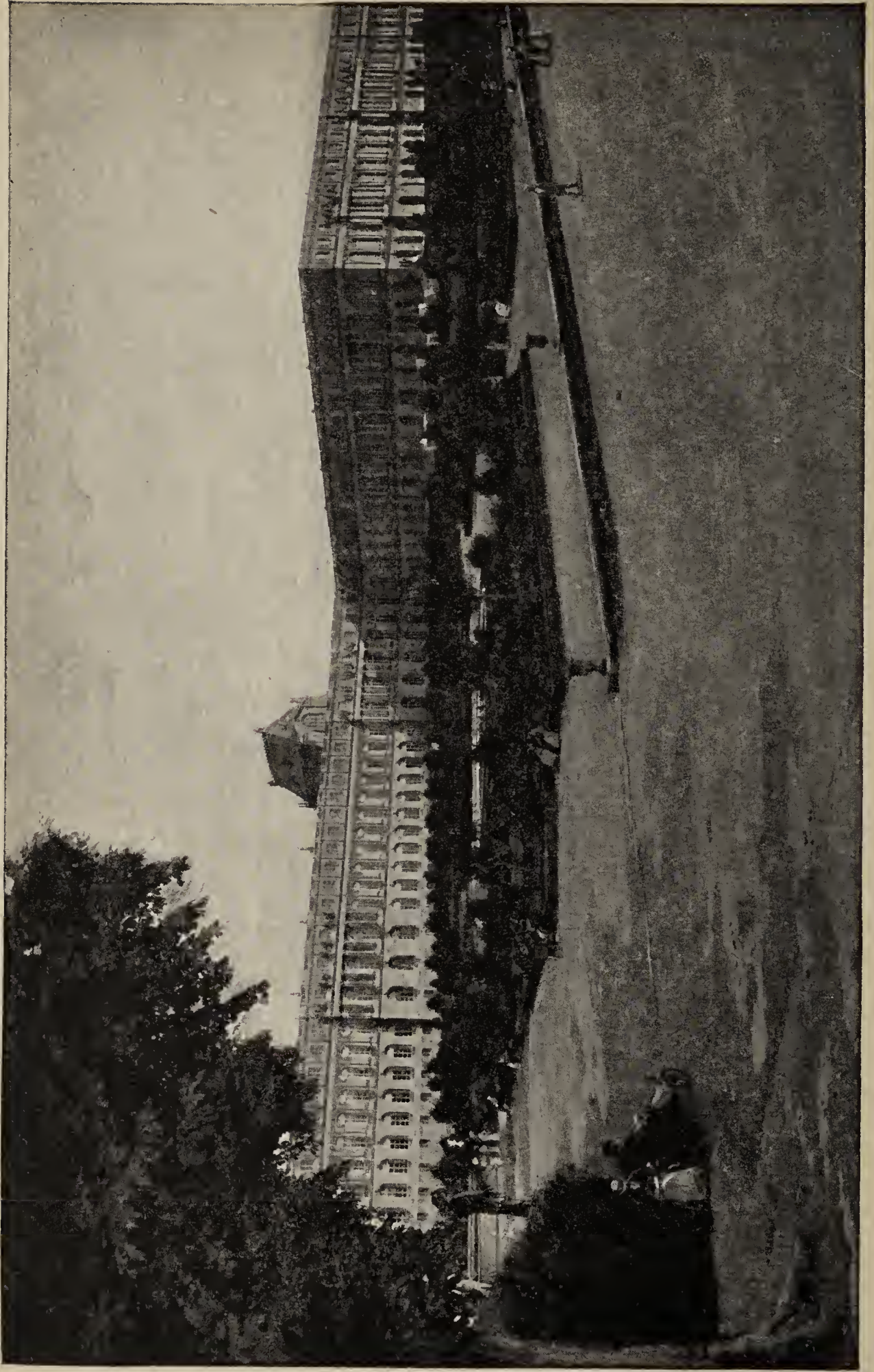
The Last Phase

Everyone recognized that the peace just concluded was only a breathing space, for the whole of Europe was waiting breathless for the death of the King of Spain. This king, weak alike in body and in mind, had succeeded to the throne in 1665 when his father, Philip IV, died. His death had long been looked for, but now it was known for certain that he was dying, and the nations were preparing for the struggle that was sure to take place for his great possessions.

The nearest relatives of the dying king were Louis XIV and Leopold, Emperor of Germany and King of Austria. Europe was determined that neither of these sovereigns would be allowed to add the huge territories of Spain to those either of France or Austria. The monarchs themselves recognized this, and sought to come to an agreement whereby they would keep the territories within their own families without arousing the jealousy of the rest of Europe.

Finally a secret treaty was arranged whereby the crown was to go to Charles, the *second* son of the Emperor Leopold, and the duchies of Naples and Milan were to pass to the Dauphin of France.

It is hardly to be wondered at that when news of this division of his possessions reached the King of Spain he flew into a violent passion, and the



THE PALACE OF VERSAILLES

queen, who really ruled for her husband, smashed some of the furniture in her room. The King of Spain seems to have looked upon the emperor as the chief spoiler of his kingdom, and on his death-bed left all his possessions to Philip of Anjou, the second grandson of Louis XIV.

Here was a situation that Louis had never foreseen, and the question before him was whether he should claim the whole of Spain in terms of the will, or whether he should stick to his bargain, and share half with the emperor.

Shamelessly and without hesitation, Louis resolved to play the bold game, and within a few days of the King of Spain's death Philip of Anjou was crowned in Madrid as Philip V. "There is no longer any Pyrenees," Louis is reported to have said when he heard the news. We need not wonder at the exultation of the king. By this step he seemed to have gained all that he had schemed and planned for throughout his whole reign. France and Spain were now virtually joined, and together he hoped they might bid defiance to combined Europe.

The Emperor of Austria was furious at this breach of faith and the loss of his expected possessions, and together with England, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and most of the German states he formed a second Grand Alliance against Louis.

For thirteen years the war went on, and raged now in this country, now in that.

William III was dead, but a greater general than he was now ready to lead the allied armies, and, as will be shown in other chapters, it was to the genius of Marlborough that the allies owed the series of splendid victories that laid the power of France in the dust.

The condition of France, so prosperous at the beginning and middle of this reign, was wretched beyond measure at its close. The state of the country is vividly brought before us by a writer of the period, the learned Fénelon: "The whole of France is one great hospital with no food in it. The people are dying every day of illness brought on by famine. The land goes uncultivated; the cities and provinces have lost the greater part of their inhabitants; trade and commerce have come to an end."

The haughty king himself was conscious that all his schemes had miscarried. His spirit was crushed by public disasters and by private bereavements. Within a short space of time he lost his son, his grandson, and the elder son of the latter, all struck down by a malignant fever. The heir to the throne was now his great grandson, a boy five years of age. Calling him to his bedside, the dying king said: "You are soon to be king of a great country — try to keep peace with your neighbors; I

have been too fond of war; do not imitate me in that or in my too great expenditure.”

Thus the passing of the Grand Monarch was almost as pathetic as that of the Great Napoleon a hundred years later. Both had brought their country to the verge of ruin by their unbounded and reckless ambition, yet both retained almost to the end the affection and confidence of the vast majority of their subjects.

WILLIAM OF ORANGE**The Landing of William and the Flight of James**

One of the fairest parts of the English coast is Torbay in South Devon. On the morning of November 5, 1688, the fisher-folk there were surprised to see a great fleet of some 600 ships sail into their bay; but they helped the soldiers to land in boats, and they cheered loudly when the leader stepped on English soil. He was thin, and rather tall, with a pale face lit up by a quiet, steady gaze. He did not often speak, but his words and his tone showed him to be a leader of men. This was William of Orange, who was to become one of the greatest of English kings.



William III

When he landed in Torbay he was only the chief man in the Dutch Republic. Why did he come to the shores of England with a great fleet and army? Why did the men of Devon welcome his coming? William had long been known as a wise ruler, a brave and skillful general, and a firm

Protestant. In those days the Protestants had to struggle hard for liberty to worship God as they thought right; for, as we have seen, Louis XIV, the powerful king of France, persecuted the Protestants in his own realm, and was making war on them in neighboring states.

In England also the Protestant faith was in danger, for King James II had been trying to make the Roman Catholic religion dominant. He had tried to punish some of the bishops who would not do all that he ordered them to do. He had ruled without a parliament, and on his own authority he had made harsh and persecuting laws, and had set other laws aside.

And when the English people began to struggle against these unlawful acts, James brought over thousands of Irish troops to oppress his own subjects. In despair of any peaceful remedy for this misrule, several of the chief men of England sent over a secret message to William of Orange to come and help them to save their liberties; for William had married the English Princess Mary, daughter of King James, and owing to his tried courage on the battlefield he was looked upon as the leader of the Protestants in all their struggles.

That is why William was cheered by the men of Devon when he landed in Torbay; for he and his Dutch troops came as friends, not as foes. Remember, then, that William's great fleet touched these

shores just one hundred years after the Spanish Armada had tried to conquer England, but had been defeated and shattered to pieces by the storms of the seas. It is curious, too, that William of Orange landed on November 5, the day of the "Gunpowder Plot."

As William and his troops marched towards London, he found the people more and more anxious to help him, while King James began to find out how many enemies he had made in his own army and Court. His officers and courtiers began to take William's side; and even his own daughter Anne fled to join her father's foes. When James heard of this he said, "God help me: my own children have forsaken me!"

When the despairing king found that only the Irish troops could be trusted to fight for him, he sent his queen and his infant son away secretly to France, and a little later he followed them into exile.

William and the Jacobites

The Londoners cheered loudly, and wore orange cockades to show their joy, when their deliverer, William of Orange, and his troops marched into Westminster. But they were soon disappointed with him. He was "wonderfully serious and silent," and his reserved or morose behavior displeased those who came to pay their court to him.

The conduct of his queen was a complete contrast. She “smiled upon and talked to everybody”; but this also gave offense, as it was thought to be heartless levity at the time when her father, King James, was leaving England as an exile.

After a short interval of suspense and unrest, an English Parliament offered the crown of the United Kingdom to William and to his wife Mary, for it was known that they would rule justly.

Thus, in a few weeks, James lost the crown because he would not rule according to the laws; and William won the crown because he had regained for the English people their old laws and liberties. This change is called the Revolution of 1688; and since then no English king has tried to rule without a parliament, or to break the laws of the land.

Most people were glad to be rid of James, for he had tried to make men worship in his way, although they did not agree with his religious belief. One of the first Acts of Parliament under William III gave to Non-conformists or Dissenters the right to worship as they thought fit.

Yet in spite of all this the English people did not much like William, because of his foreign ways and his cold manners, and William soon found that it was harder to keep his crown than it had been to win it. Indeed, there were many persons who wanted James to come back from over the sea and be king again. The friends of James were called

the Jacobites. When they drank the king's health they would wave their glasses over the water bottle, to show that they drank, not to William, but to the king "over the water."

England, Scotland, and Ireland had the same king. Most of the Scottish people were glad to have William as their ruler; but the wild Highlanders, who lived among the mountains of the north and west of Scotland, rose in arms for King James. Claverhouse, or Viscount Dundee as he was called, was their leader.

" So let each cavalier who loves honor and me,
Come follow the bonnets of bonnie Dundee."

William's soldiers marched against them through a rugged pass in Perthshire called Killiecrankie; but the movements of the regular troops were cumbrous, their guns fired slowly, and the nimble Highlanders, rushing down the steep with their broadswords, put them to flight. But Dundee fell dead as his men were winning the victory, and they did not gain any more successes.

This discouraged the clansmen; and when William's government began to give money to the chiefs, and to promise a pardon to all who would submit, they all did so except the Clan Macdonald, which lived in Glencoe. The chief of that clan was a few days too late in taking the oath to obey



Glencoe: the Scene of the Massacre

William. Now this clan was much hated by the Campbells, who lived not very far away. The worst possible interpretation was given to the conduct of the Macdonalds in the report which was sent to King William, so that, on reading it, he exclaimed, "It will be proper to root out that set of thieves!"

Soldiers were accordingly sent to Glencoe, and they stayed there as though they were friends. After they had been kindly entertained for more than a week, they suddenly rose, murdered about forty of the clan, and destroyed their village. Many more of the clansmen perished in the snows of

winter amidst the wild country which surrounds their glen.

This massacre of Glencoe, as it is called, has left a dark stain on William's reign.

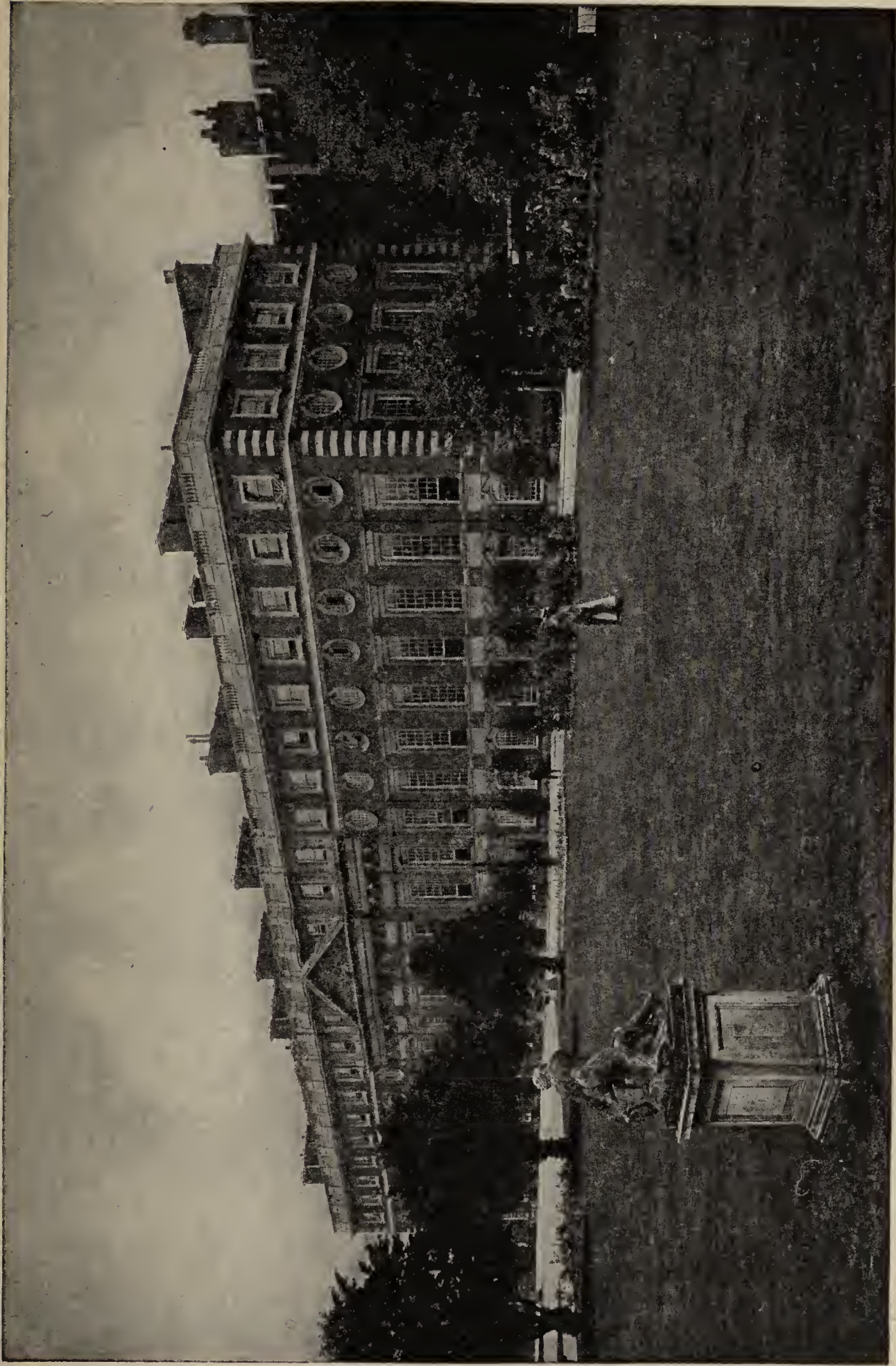
“ The hand that mingled in the meal
At midnight drew the felon steel,
And gave the host's kind breast to feel
Meed for his hospitality.

“ Then woman's shriek was heard in vain,
Nor infancy's unpitied plain
More than the warrior's groan could gain
Respite from ruthless butchery.”

The War in Ireland

In Ireland there was much harder fighting than in Scotland; for most of the Irish were Roman Catholics, as they are to-day. They did not like to see James II driven from the throne, and they hoped that with the help of Louis XIV and his French troops they would keep him as their king, and be free from the control of England and of the Protestants. James also saw that his best chance was to go from France to Ireland and rouse the Irish against William. He took ship and landed at Kinsale, and was soon at the head of a large army. Nearly all Ireland, except the Protestants of the north, owned James as king.

Even in the north the Irish Protestants were so



THE EAST FRONT OF HAMPTON COURT PALACE
Built for William III by Sir Christopher Wren. The main building was erected by Wolsey.

few that they could not meet James's troops in the open, but had to take refuge within the walls of Londonderry. James's army followed them there, and expected soon to storm the weak walls of that city. But there were thousands of brave men in Londonderry who would not give in. An old clergyman named Walker acted as governor, and kept up their spirits by his brave words and by his sermons. Several times the defenders drove James's troops away from their walls.

At last their foes closed them all round so as to

starve them out. Still the defenders held out, and they repaired by night the breaches which the Irish cannon had made in the day. But their hunger became worse and worse, until they had to hunt the rats and mice for food, and a dog's paw was sold for more than five shillings. At last, when all hope seemed to be gone, three English ships forced their way up the river, and brought food to the brave defenders. So James's troops, after trying for



Armor worn by James II at the
Battle of Boyne

over one hundred days to take Londonderry, had to abandon the attempt.

In the next year (1690) William landed in the north of Ireland and began to march towards Dublin. The Jacobite army was drawn up on the south bank of the River Boyne, to prevent William's troops crossing that river. The day before the battle William was wounded by a ball; but his brave spirit kept him on horseback for many hours in his determination to inspire his men.

On the next day was fought the battle of the Boyne. William sent some of his troops to cross the river higher up, so as to make the Jacobites fearful of being cut off from Dublin; and most of their best troops were thus drawn away from the bank of the river. Then William's men rushed into the river, crossed it by a ford, and though they suffered much from the Irish bullets, yet they drove their foes from the bank and scattered them in flight. The Irish horsemen charged bravely, but they could not win the day for James. On William's side the brave old General Schomberg, and Walker, the hero of Londonderry, were the chief men killed.

James rode away as fast as he could to Dublin and thence to Kinsale, where he took ship for France. The Irish were enraged at his cowardice; and one of their officers said to one of William's men, "Change kings, and we will fight you again."

After a few more fruitless struggles the whole of Ireland submitted to King William; but unhappily the Protestants after their victory oppressed the Roman Catholic Irish very cruelly. So the old enmity lived on in that land.

The Close of William III's Reign

One of the worst of William's trials was the death of his queen. In those days towns were not kept so clean as they are now, and the practice of vaccination had not yet been introduced. For these reasons small-pox was a terrible and generally a fatal scourge. It attacked Queen Mary II, and she soon died of it.

William was generally cool and stern, but he really had a tender heart; and he showed it now. He said to one of the bishops, "I was the happiest man on earth, and now I am the most miserable." Still he held up bravely; and in the last eight years of his lonely life he stoutly faced the French, and his secret foes in England.

Many English people did not like to be ruled by a king who was a Dutchman and could not speak English properly. Indeed William found that very few of his Ministers and generals could be trusted. Some were secret friends of James, and some stole the public money. But when William raised to power some of his trusty Dutchmen, there was more grumbling than ever.

Forty Jacobites made a plot to murder him as he was on his way back from hunting to his favorite palace, Hampton Court; but one of them secretly told about the plot. So it ended only in several of them being executed.

Even after this the English Parliament was very jealous of William, and would hardly grant him the supplies which were needed to make Louis XIV keep the peace. But when James II died in France, Louis at once showed that he would try to make James's son King of England. This enraged the English people, who were determined not to let Louis meddle in English affairs. For this and other reasons there was another war with France; and William's last parliament raised the British army to 40,000 men.

In the midst of these difficulties William had an accident which led to his death. He was riding in the park at Hampton Court, when his horse stumbled over a molehill, threw the king, and broke his collar bone. William had always been weakly; and after long years of hard work and anxiety he had no strength to recover from the shock, and he died in 1702.

Few men have had so hard a life of struggle as William of Orange. His father died before he was born; and his foes kept the young lad out of his rights in Holland.

Nevertheless, at twenty-two years of age, his

energy brought him to the first place in the Dutch Republic; and, using his powers with steadfast courage, he not only freed his land from the French, but became the champion of the Protestants of Europe. At thirty-eight years of age he became King of England. He restored liberty to England, he kept France from conquering the Netherlands, and but for him the Protestants would have been in sore straits all over Europe.

The wonderful career of William of Orange is therefore a signal example of the influence for good which one able and determined man can exert on his own and on other peoples. Beginning

life as an orphan and almost as a prisoner, he yet rose superior to these difficulties which beset his youth; he became successively the liberator of Holland and of England, and ended his life of toil and struggle as the victorious champion of the Protestant cause in Europe.



Obverse of Great Seal of William and
Mary

MARLBOROUGH

The Battle of Blenheim

William III died in 1702, and the Princess Anne, second daughter of James II, now became Queen of England. The great event of the reign was the Union of the Parliaments of England and Scotland in 1707 and the War of the Spanish Succession.

By the Union of the Parliaments the danger of having separate kings for England and Scotland was averted, and the prosperity of both nations advanced by leaps and bounds. Scotland perhaps benefited more from the Union. It found her a poor country and made her a rich one, and it opened up to her people all the gateways of English trade and commerce.

We have already seen that the War of the Spanish Succession was a war to preserve the balance of power; that is, to prevent France from becoming so powerful as to have all the other countries of Europe at its mercy.

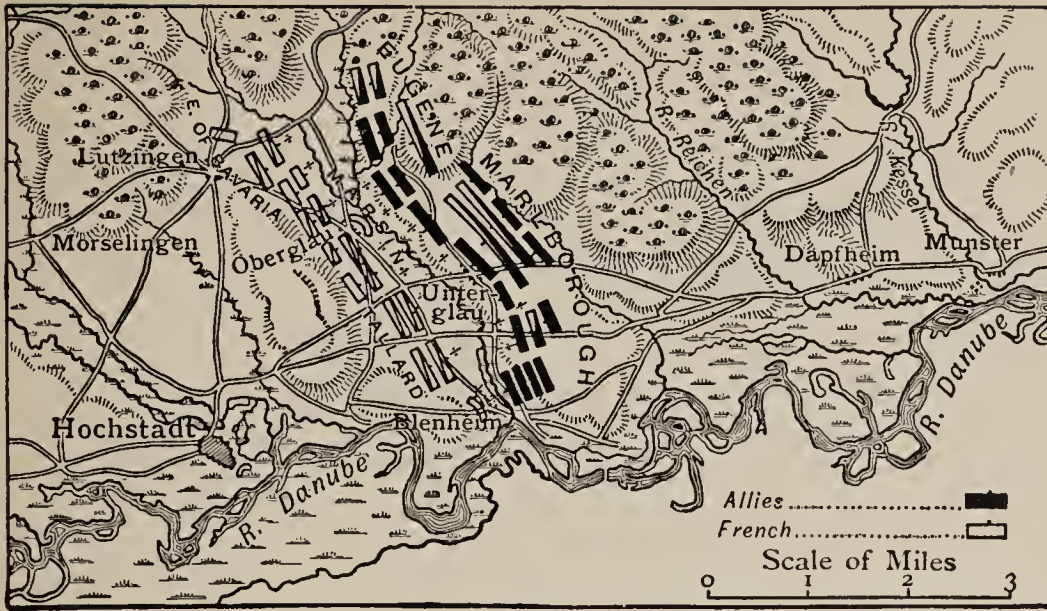
Britain in this war was supported by Austria, Denmark, Holland, and Sweden. The forces of the allies were commanded by the Duke of Marlborough, who had already distinguished himself in the wars of William III.

John Churchill, afterwards Duke of Marlborough,

was born at Ashe, in Devonshire, in 1650. Even in his youth he showed himself to be a brave and skillful officer, and when he served with the Royal Guards in France he was publicly thanked for his energy and ability.

The French knew him as "the handsome Englishman." His figure was tall and well formed, his manners attractive, and his whole bearing full of dignity and grace. He was, however, selfish and miserly, and often stooped to mean and underhand actions to further his interests. Thus, though he was advanced to favor by James II, he was one of the first to desert to William of Orange. For this William gave him the title of Earl of Marlborough, and the command of his troops in the Netherlands. But Marlborough, tempted by great bribes from Louis XIV, began working to restore James II to the throne. For this treachery he was brought back to England, and was imprisoned in the Tower for a time. He was at length pardoned, and was sent again to the Continent in command of the troops, for there was no other general to compare with him as a leader.

Marlborough had command of the British and Dutch troops in the Netherlands, but the Dutch officers and advisers were timid, and often wanted to put off doing anything until it was too late to do it. As Marlborough always wanted to strike quick and hard at the French, he was often almost in



Plan of Battle of Blenheim

despair. It was like putting a racehorse and a mule to draw the same carriage. But, fortunately, Marlborough had a very good temper. His favorite motto was "Patience will overcome all things," and by his winning speech he generally got his way in the end.

In the first two campaigns he showed his skill and energy by taking five fortresses from the French and Spaniards, and thereby saved Holland from being conquered. The Dutch now showed how thankful they were to their deliverer. Once he and his staff were very near being captured by some plunderers, and the news got about that he had been made prisoner. When he arrived in safety at The Hague the Dutch people wept for joy to see him.

But Marlborough was to do far more than save

Holland. In his next campaigns he crushed the power of France, which then seemed so threatening to Europe. The French, with the help of the Bavarians, hoped to conquer a great part of Germany and to invade Austria. Marlborough made his plans secretly and skillfully to prevent this. He quickly led his troops along the bank of the river Rhine, and then, turning up the valley of the Neckar, he took the Bavarians by surprise, and defeated them on the bank of the Danube. The French sent a large army to help the Bavarians; while Marlborough was joined by the Imperial troops, commanded by Prince Eugène, who was also a great general.

The French and Bavarians now took their stand on a line of hills, in front of which was a stream that flowed into the Danube. The strongest part of their position was the village of Blenheim, which rises high above this stream and above the swiftly flowing Danube. The French Marshal Tallard fortified the village, and kept many of his best troops there, leaving other parts of his long line not so well guarded. Soon the battle raged all along the line, and the French at first beat back the attack on Blenheim. Then Marlborough ordered his soldiers merely to keep up a pretence of attacking this strong position, while he made his chief attack across the marshy ground against the weak-

est part of the enemy's line — the center. It was a difficult and dangerous task to cross the marshy valley and the stream under the fire of the French and the Bavarians, but at last it was done; and late in the afternoon Marlborough led 8000 of his horsemen up the opposite slope, to charge an even larger force of French cavalry.

His foes were dismayed at his determined onsets, and at the second charge they fled in confusion. Hard pressed by the victorious allies, they made for the Danube, hoping to cross it by a ford; but the water was too deep and the current too strong. Hundreds were swept away by the waters, and the rest, among them Marshal Tallard, their commander, surrendered to Marlborough's troopers. But this was not all. The 11,000 French foot soldiers, who had been so bravely defending Blenheim, were now, by the flight of the French center, quite cut off from their comrades, and had to lay down their arms.

Altogether the French and Bavarians lost nearly 40,000 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners, as well as most of their cannon, and all their tents and baggage. The survivors, only some 20,000 in number, retreated with all haste towards France.

Ramillies and Malplaquet

Such was the great victory of Blenheim, which was won mainly by the skill and daring of Marlborough. An English officer who was in the battle thus describes his conduct there. "No general ever did behave with more composure of temper and presence of mind than did the duke. He was in all places wherever his presence was required, without fear of danger or in the least hurry, giving his orders with all the calmness imaginable."

And yet we know that Marlborough worked very hard indeed. For seventeen hours he rode about on that day, giving orders and seeing after the pursuit. Indeed, shortly afterwards, he wrote to his

duchess that he had become distressingly thin, and that if he did not soon return to be tended by her, he would be quite worn out. Thanks to Marlborough, Germany was saved from a French invasion, and he recovered nearly all the German strongholds which the enemy had seized earlier in the war.



John Churchill,
Duke of Marlborough

For these great services

Marlborough, on his return to England, was thanked by Parliament. The splendid estate of Woodstock, near Oxford, was also given to him and to his heirs.

In the next year little was done; but in the year after that, when the French made an effort to regain ground in the Netherlands, Marlborough met and defeated them in the great battle of Ramillies. The fighting was severe, and at one time Marlborough, when rallying his men, was nearly surrounded by the French. At last his foes fled with heavy losses, and they had to give up all the Netherlands which they had held.

There was now a chance of peace if the allies had not asked too much. But they were puffed up with pride, and probably Marlborough wanted the war to go on, so that he might win more glory and wealth. The French and Spaniards did far better in the next year; and not till 1708 did Marlborough win another great victory — that of Oudenarde. In the same year he also took the strong fortress of Lille, after a gallant defense by one of the ablest of French generals.

France was now in sore straits. She had lost terribly in men and money, and her peasants were crushed by the heavy taxes needed to keep up the war. Instead of France conquering Europe, it seemed as though the allies were likely to overwhelm France.

But when they asked far harder terms than

before from the French king, he appealed to his people for another effort, and they nobly responded. Though their troops were only half-clothed, half-armed, and half-fed, yet they fought more bravely than ever. After a long and desperate battle at Malplaquet, Marlborough drove the French out of their lines; but his troops lost more heavily than the French.

Marlborough's Downfall

The English people were now quite weary of the war, and, besides, Queen Anne was on very cool terms with Marlborough. She had had a violent quarrel with his wife, and had dismissed her from all her high offices. In vain did the duke, when he came back to England, throw himself on his knees begging the queen not to disgrace his wife. The man who had subdued the power of France could not bend the will of the resentful queen; and he himself was soon disgraced. It happened thus:

The Whig Ministry which had supported him had become more and more unpopular; and at last a Tory Ministry was formed by the queen. Some of the new Ministers, who desired to ruin Marlborough, brought up charges against him that he had been taking the public money, and the charges were proved to be true. Marlborough's excuses were that others had done the same, and that he had used



THE SOUTH SEA BUBBLE: A SCENE IN CHANGE ALLEY, 1720

From the painting by E. M. Ward, R.A., in the Tate Gallery, London

much of it for getting news about the enemy's plans. These were lame excuses; and as the new Ministers desired to ruin Marlborough, the queen soon dismissed him from all his offices. He bore his disgrace with dignity and manliness, and, with his duchess, retired to the Continent after peace was made.

The terms of peace secured England's foremost position as a maritime power. Marlborough's victories on land extended British power on the sea, for, in addition to Gibraltar and Minorca, which had been captured during the war and which gave her command of the Mediterranean, she received from France Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and the Territory of Hudson's Bay, and Spain ceded to her very valuable trading concessions in the Spanish American Colonies. Spain's possessions in the Netherlands and in Italy were ceded to Austria.

When George I became King of Great Britain and Ireland in 1714, he restored Marlborough to his honors; but the famous general never returned to active service, and after some years of retirement he died in 1722.

Marlborough was more than fifty years of age before he commanded a great army, and yet, when most men begin to think of retiring, he, by his great energy and genius, saved Europe from being overrun by French armies.

Had he always been straightforward in his con-

duct, he would have been able to accomplish far more by his brilliant victories. A great French writer has said of him that he never besieged a fortress which he did not take, or fought a battle which he did not win. This cannot be said of any other general in modern times, not even of Wellington.

THE REVOLT OF 1715

On Queen Anne's death in 1714 the crown of Great Britain and Ireland went to Prince George of Hanover, who was descended from King James I. He was a heavy, dull man, who never could speak English, and did not care for England. The English people put up with him because he was a Protestant. If the son of James II had not been a Roman Catholic, he would have been welcomed back from exile in France, and gladly accepted as king.

The Jacobites, that is, the supporters of the exiled prince, were far more numerous in Scotland than in England. The Act of Union with England had caused much discontent in the northern country; and when the Earl of Mar began to arouse the Highlanders against George I's rule, the Pretender set sail for Scotland.

Mar had 12,000 men under arms for the Stuart prince, and soon held all Scotland north of the Firth of Forth. Part of his men crossed the Forth and marched towards the border. They crossed into England near Carlisle, although the wild Highlanders were very loath to leave Scotland. Marching carelessly southward, they were at last brought to bay at Preston in Lancashire, and after a short fight they had to surrender, some 1500 in number.

On that very same day the rebels were defeated

in Scotland. Mar had had to retreat before King George's troops, which were commanded by the Duke of Argyll, but finally the two armies met at Sheriffmuir, between Perth and Stirling. On one wing the Highlanders were successful, but on the other Argyll led his men across some frozen



Prince James Francis Edward Stuart
("The Old Pretender")

marshes, attacked the rebels on their flank, and put them to flight. On the whole, the royal troops had the better of it, and Mar retreated.

Then, when it was too late, the Pretender landed farther north and called himself king. But he showed little spirit; and when Argyll marched against him, both he and Mar fled to France. Many

of the chief insurgents were pardoned, and only a few were executed. One of the condemned English lords escaped from prison in woman's clothes, which his wife secretly brought to him.

Both England and Scotland began to settle down, because it was felt that the Pretender was foolish, selfish, and obstinate, but neither George I nor his son, George II, gained the affection of the people, as was proved by the startling successes won by the young Pretender in 1745.

SIR ROBERT WALPOLE

The South Sea Bubble

After the revolt of 1715 there was general peace, except for a short war with Spain. During the many previous years of war, merchants had feared that French men-of-war would capture their ships, but now they felt sure that their ships might proceed on their voyages in safety. The treaty of 1713 between Great Britain and Spain had also granted to English merchants the right of sending a merchant ship every year to the South Seas, as the Pacific Ocean was then called. For these reasons commerce and wealth began to increase by leaps and bounds.

All this made people ready to speculate, that is, to venture their money in risky enterprises, and a number of merchants and bankers formed a great



Five-shilling Piece of the South Sea Company

Company for trading with the South Seas, and for gaining several privileges from the government. Their schemes caught the public fancy, and when this South Sea Company promised to make all rich who trusted their money to it, people rushed to do so and to take its shares. They paid absurdly high prices for very doubtful gains; and men and women, rich and poor, went almost crazy with excitement. As a song of that time ran:

“ The lucky rogues, like spaniel dogs,
Leap into South Sea Water,
And there they fish for golden frogs,
Not caring what comes after.”

When they regained their senses they saw that they had paid far too dear for profits which might never come. Then all at once with equal folly they rushed to sell their shares, but very few people would buy. The great South Sea Bubble burst, and many thousands of people were ruined.

The only man who came forward with any plan for healing some of the misery was Robert Walpole, who was known to be the best man at figures in the House of Commons. He had warned people against trusting these schemes; and now he showed his skill in repairing some of the ruin. This brought him back to power as one of the chief of the king's Ministers, and for the next twenty-one years he was the chief man in England next to the king.

He was a rough Norfolk squire, who had long been a strong supporter of the Whig party. He had a complete belief in his own abilities and in his knowledge of men. Indeed, it was said of him that "his face was bronzed over by a glare of confidence;" and he now showed great skill in managing men and in keeping his supporters contented. He was not a great orator; but in that corrupt age members of Parliament were more often led by secret bribes than by appeals to their reason or to the public interest. Still, Walpole really did feel that in crushing a Jacobite plot, and in keeping first George I, and then George II, on the throne, he was doing the best for his country, and though he often used bad means to gain his ends, yet he managed to secure rest and quiet for the land.

Thus, when the Irish were much enraged because they thought that a bad coinage was to be forced on them, Walpole showed his good sense by giving way. Indeed, whenever it was possible, he gave way rather than make a public disturbance. His favorite mottoes were "Let sleeping dogs lie," and "Leave well alone."

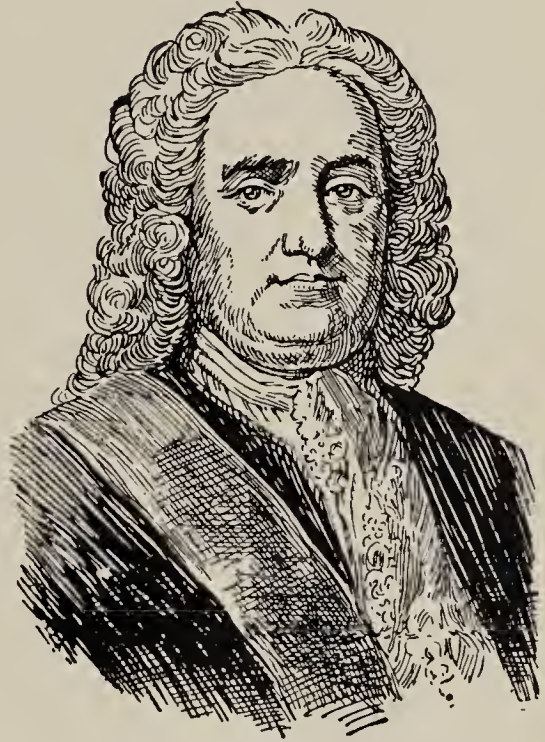
Gradually most men came to feel that Walpole was necessary to the peace and prosperity of England. If he resigned office, the Tories would have come back to power, and would perhaps have brought back the Pretender to be king. The merchants liked Walpole because he preserved peace;

Dissenters liked him because he and the Whig party had put a stop to recent attempts at religious persecution, and George I liked Walpole and the Whigs because they supported him and kept out the Stuarts.

The Origin of the “ Prime Minister ”

As George I could not speak English and detested English politics, he left off presiding at the meetings of his Ministers, at which affairs of public importance were discussed. Now, when men meet for business, there must always be someone to preside, else there can be no order. Who was to direct the meetings of the Ministers? Gradually, as Walpole became more and more important, he directed the meetings of the Ministers, and was called the First or Prime Minister.

Before Walpole's time the king's Ministers had all been equal, and had had to obey only the king or queen; but from that time onward the position of Prime Minister has become more and more important, until now he directs a good deal of the



Sir Robert Walpole

action of the other Ministers. In fact, the whole ministry now acts under the general guidance of the Prime Minister, and the chief Ministers form what is called a Cabinet. So that, because George I and later on George II trusted Walpole with the control of business for twenty-one years, there came this great change in English public life; and the Prime Minister has latterly had far more to do with public affairs than the reigning sovereign.

We must notice one other result of Walpole's long control of public affairs. Before his time the king or queen often used to forbid the passing of a law; but since then this has hardly ever been done. George I and then George II trusted Walpole to look after their interests. Therefore it came to be the custom for the king always to give his assent to Bills passed by Parliament. Thus the king's power became less, while that of Parliament and of the king's Ministers became greater and greater. Remember, then, that in Walpole's time we see the English system of government taking its present form.

The British owe much to Sir Robert Walpole in other ways. He was the first English Minister who encouraged commerce by letting raw material come into the country more freely, so that manufactured goods became better and cheaper than ever before. He also made it easier to export manufactures; and before very long, the value of exports rose from

\$30,000,000 a year to more than \$60,000,000. The colonies also had some privileges granted to them for their trade, and altogether the British Empire grew greatly in wealth and power during the long ministry of Walpole.

But his very success raised up many enemies, who were jealous of him, and tried to poison the public mind against him. This was the case when he proposed a very useful reform in the collection of part of the taxes, so as to check smuggling. At that time money had to be paid to government officers on many articles before they might legally be landed. The sums which then had to be paid on silks, brandy, rum, tea, tobacco, were so large, that those articles were often smuggled in secretly so as to evade the law. As this caused a great loss of revenue, Walpole proposed to tax these articles when they were in the country, and not at the ports. But many people had a violent dislike to any such change, and as a great clamor was raised, he thought it best to drop his measure.

Troubles in Scotland, and disputes between George II and his son the Prince of Wales, also added to his difficulties; and after a long fight against his foes, he had to resign (1742). King George II was deeply grieved at losing his trusty adviser, and, falling on his neck, he kissed him and begged to see him frequently.

Men soon found out how unable his foes were

to take his place; and matters went from bad to worse for the next few years. After three years of retirement, death overtook the statesman who had done so much for the peace and prosperity of his country. Englishmen regretted his downfall, until a greater statesman came to power, William Pitt, Earl of Chatham.



House of Commons

House of Lords

Houses of Parliament as they were before the Fire of 1834



PETER THE GREAT AT DEPTFORD DOCKYARD

From the painting by Daniel Maclise, R.A., in the Royal Holloway College

THE RISE OF RUSSIA

Peter the Great

Even in the seventeenth century Russia was in numbers and extent the greatest of European powers. Yet its existence was almost unknown and its influence never felt in the councils of Europe. In a single reign, by the efforts of one man, Russia passed at once into a dominant place among the great nations of the west. Nothing like it has been seen in modern times, unless indeed it be the advance to the front rank of the Empire of Japan in our own days. But no single name is associated with the rise of Japan as that of Peter the Great is with the rise of Russia. By sheer force of will he drove, pushed, and almost kicked his people into prominence in spite of themselves.

In order to understand what Peter did for Russia, it is necessary to know something of its previous history and of the condition of the country when he began to reign.

Of the early history of the country very little is known. The main body of the people are Slavs, but from time to time there have been invasions of Northmen and Asiatics, whose descendants are still to be found in many parts of the kingdom.

Of these invasions the most terrible was that of the Tartars or Mongols in the thirteenth century.

These, under a leader descended from the great Genghis Khan, swept over eastern Europe like a devastating hurricane. Cities disappeared before their advance, and populous plains were changed to barren deserts. For three centuries the Russians groaned under the cruel yoke of these barbarians, and during that period the nation sank back toward savagery.

About the middle of the fifteenth century, shortly after the Turks had captured Constantinople and reduced the Greeks to the same degrading bondage, the Russians rose under Ivan the Great, and after a terrible struggle drove the main body of Tartars from their lands.

From this time till the appearance of Peter the Great the history of Russia belongs rather to Asia than to Europe. All their energy was devoted to pushing back the Tartar hordes from their European frontiers. So successful were they in this, that by the middle of the seventeenth century they possessed the whole of Siberia from the Urals to the Pacific.

On their western frontier they were unfortunately completely shut off from civilized Europe. The barren plains of Poland, which stretched almost from the Baltic to the Black Sea, isolated them on the landward side. On the north an unbroken line of Swedish provinces cut them off from the Baltic, while between them and the

Caspian Sea and the Black Sea came the lands of the Tartars and Turks.

As might be expected from these conditions, the Russia that meets our view when it finally comes out into the light of history is, in its government, customs, and manner of living, essentially Asiatic. The men wore the flowing robes and long beards of Orientals; they kept their women veiled and separated after the fashion of the East; they greeted one another by prostrating themselves on the ground; and in numerous other ways showed the influence of Asia. It is true that they remained Christians after the manner of the Greek Church. But it was a debased form of Christianity which they professed, and but little removed from the superstitions of paganism.

The task which fronted Peter the Great was to break down the barriers between his country and civilized Europe, and open a way for his people to the fuller, richer, nobler life of the west. To this task, from the very beginning of his reign, he set himself with almost superhuman energy and will. (See *map* in Appendix.)

It is worth while looking at the man who took upon his shoulders a burden so great. He was a giant in stature, being about 6 feet 6 inches in height. He had a wild, savage look, intensified by a nervous twitching, which gave a grim and terrifying appearance to his whole features. From time to

time he was seized with fits of wild rage, when he acted as a madman, and no one about him was safe. He was cruel, vengeful, and utterly regardless of human life; but over against these vices we can set many virtues. He had a strong sense of duty, and worked harder even than Louis XIV at the "trade of king". He had a passionate love for his country, and at all times put its interests before his own. He had also what is rare with kings in every age, a deep sense of the dignity of labor, and a perfect hunger after knowledge. Yet Peter the Great was no hero, and perhaps the best one can say of him is that he was a great king but a bad man.

The circumstances of his early years account for much of the lack of self-control he showed through life. As a boy he was allowed to do what he liked. He chose as his companions people much older than himself, men who were clever artisans, but ill-bred, vicious, and corrupt.



Peter the Great, Czar of
Russia

In this school Peter was an apt pupil. He cared nothing for books, but had a passion for practical work of every kind. The blacksmith's forge and the carpenter's shop had an abid-

ing interest for him, and there he spent his time toiling harder than any apprentice.

At seventeen years of age he took the government into his own hands. His first care was to remodel the army. For this purpose he sent for European officers to drill and lead his troops, placing at their head a Scot, Patrick Gordon, in whom he had the fullest trust. With this army he marched south to the Sea of Azov, and, soon captured the town of that name from the Turks.

No sooner did he find himself in possession of a seaport, than he set about building a navy. He called to his aid for this work shipwrights from all quarters, and in two years a small fleet of war vessels was sailing on the Sea of Azov.

In order to study shipbuilding under the best masters, he set out with a few companions on a visit to Holland and England, the centers of maritime enterprise. Peter, we see, was a believer in the saying, "If you want a thing well done, do it yourself." So, dressed as a common workman, he toiled for four months in the shipyards of Amsterdam, until he had mastered the details of shipbuilding.

At the same time he studied every sort of manufacture within reach. In this way he visited paper mills, flour mills, printing presses, and factories of all kinds, astonishing everyone with his quick grasp of the various processes of manufacture.

From Holland he crossed over to England, where William III placed at his disposal a house near London belonging to John Evelyn, of *Diary* fame. Here again he worked hard in the dockyards, refusing all princely state and entertainment.

The half-savage character of the king and his companions is shown by the condition in which they left the houses and palaces in which they resided during their travels. John Evelyn sent in to the English Government a claim for damages done to his house by its Russian tenants, declaring the place to be "in so bad condition I can scarcely describe it to your honors; locks broken, doors unhinged, and much of the furniture lost or destroyed." The Government granted him \$1750 to make good his loss.

On a later occasion, when Peter was visiting Frederick the Great of Prussia, he was lodged in the summer palace. Wilhelmina, the king's sister, gives in her *Memoirs* an amusing description of the conditions of things on his departure. "What desolation was there visible! I never beheld anything like it. Indeed, I think Jerusalem after its siege and capture could not have presented such another scene. This elegant palace was left by him in such a ruinous state that the whole of it had to be rebuilt."

On his departure from England Peter induced several hundred English artisans — engineers,



STATUE OF PETER THE GREAT AT ST. PETERSBURG

miners, iron-founders, and workmen of all kinds — to accompany him for the roads and bridges, the ships and canals, the schools and hospitals that he meant to construct.

Peter the Great and Charles XII

While Peter was in England, a revolt broke out in Russia among those who hated the new manners and new fashions of the West. Gordon marched against the rebels and defeated them. Some he put to death, others he kept in prison till the arrival of the Czar.

On his return Peter revealed his savage nature by the cruelty with which he tortured and killed the prisoners. In several instances he himself, with a two-handed sword, acted as executioner, compelling his principal nobles to follow his example.

He next set himself to reorganize the army from top to bottom on the German model — with German arms, German uniforms, and German officers. He himself served in the ranks as a private, working his way up grade by grade to the top, an example which he made all the young nobles follow.

After some years of preparation, incessant drilling, and training, Peter thought the time had come to realize the great ambition of his life, namely, to obtain a seaport on the Baltic, “a window into Europe,” as he called it. The Baltic provinces,

as we have seen, all belonged to Sweden, and Peter knew well that they would not be given up without a long and costly struggle; but he was prepared to pay the price.

The King of Sweden at this time (1700) was a man, or rather a youth, as remarkable as Peter himself. Charles XII was only fifteen years of age when he ascended the throne in 1697. He was fond of open-air life, simple in his habits, strong and resolute, and brave to rashness.

The accession of a boy king to the throne of Sweden seemed to the other northern powers — Denmark, Russia Poland — a good opportunity to seize some of its possessions on the southern shores of the Baltic. They formed an alliance for this purpose, and early in 1700 these three armies advanced on the Swedish provinces.

In this crisis the boy king, now eighteen years of age, proved himself a military genius of the



Charles XII of Sweden

first rank. As the Baltic was frozen over at this season of the year, the allies thought they were safe from attack till the early summer at least. But Charles took the daring and unheard-of course of leading his army — horse, foot, and artillery — across the Baltic Straits on the ice. Denmark was then at his mercy, and its king was glad to make peace on any terms.

Charles next turned his forces against the Russians, who had seized some territory on the Gulf of Finland. Though outnumbered by three to one, Charles gained a signal victory, capturing 10,000 men and 160 artillery.

The King of Sweden now made the fatal mistake of turning aside to Poland instead of following up his victory and falling upon Peter before he could raise a new army.

In Poland he gained many brilliant victories, and forced the Poles to depose their king and elect a new one in his stead. But all this while Peter the Great was seizing province after province in the north.

Charles, realizing at last the growing power of Russia, resolved to strike at the center of the empire. With a large army he advanced on Moscow, following almost the very route taken by the great Napoleon a hundred years later. The march was a disastrous one in each case. At Pultowa, in 1709, the Swedish troops — hungry,

footsore, and weary — were met by a Russian army four times their number. The Swedes performed miracles of valor, but all to no purpose, against the force of numbers. They were not only defeated but annihilated.

Charles XII fled southwards into Turkey, where he remained for five years engaged in a vain endeavor to induce the Turks to declare war on Russia. At last he made his way across Europe with a single companion to his own country. Four years later, in 1718, he was killed while besieging a fortress in Norway. Charles XII was more like a knight-errant of the Middle Ages than a modern king, but he was so brave, so generous, and so noble, that he stands out as one of the greatest figures of the century.

Peter the Great, after Pultowa, steadily pursued the policy of seizing the Baltic provinces, and soon the whole seaboard from Poland to the Gulf of Finland was in his hands.

Peter had all along recognized that Moscow was not an ideal capital for his kingdom. It was in the heart of the country, and difficult of access from other capitals. Besides, its whole atmosphere, its traditions, its buildings, and its streets were Eastern rather than Western, and that was precisely what Peter wanted to get away from.

He resolved, therefore, to build a new capital that had no traditions, and that would look to the

future rather than to the past for its ideals. For this purpose he chose a site on the River Neva, at its entrance into the Gulf of Finland. Although the ground was flat and marshy, and liable to be covered in times of flood with the waters of the Neva, Peter held to his purpose. He gathered together a hundred thousand workmen from all parts of his dominions, and dragged to the spot whole forests for the piles that were to support the buildings. Then, summer and winter for nine years, in rain and sunshine, without shelter, often without provisions, and without proper implements, at times scraping the ground with sticks and carrying the soil away in their cloaks for want of spades and shovels, the poor peasants toiled on, dying off like summer flies by hundreds every day.

To people the town when built, Peter transported 30,000 peasants from other parts of the country. He compelled every Russian noble to build a house of two stories in the new capital, while he himself built magnificent palaces, churches, public buildings, and arsenals. By slow degrees a noble city rose as if by magic from the marshes, and stands to-day as an enduring monument to the iron will of the Great Czar.

Peter the Great died in 1725, at the age of fifty-three, worn out by his vast labors and his careless living. He is rightly regarded as the founder of the Russian nation as a European power. He added

many provinces to the empire, constructed canals, created industries, founded schools, libraries, museums, and galleries of painting and sculpture. With all his faults, it is impossible to withhold from him the title, Peter the Great.



The Cathedral of St. Basil, Moscow, built in 1554

“ BONNIE PRINCE CHARLIE ”

The Outbreak in the North

As we saw in a previous chapter, there was a good deal of discontent and trouble in England at and after the death of Walpole, and there was even more in Scotland. The Scots were still sore at their Parliament's being united with that of England. In 1715 there had been a revolt of the Highlanders on behalf of the son of James II, which, however, came to nothing. But now, in 1745 when England was again at war with France, it seemed a favorable time for the Jacobites to rise again in revolt and try to win back the crown of Great Britain for the son of James II, or the Old Pretender as he was called.

His son, the Young Pretender, was a tall, handsome, and spirited youth, with far more dash and energy than his father had shown in 1715; and though the French Government did not help him much, yet he determined to sail to Scotland, even if he landed there with only one follower. On the voyage he was nearly captured by an English man-of-war; but at last he set foot on Scottish soil. Even the bold clansmen were aghast at his rashness in attempting with but seven followers to overthrow a powerful king like George II; but the young prince, soon called Bonnie Prince Charlie,

charmed all hearts by his winning ways. As a friend said of him: "If this prince once sets his eyes upon you, he will make you do whatever he pleases."

The Macdonalds and the brave chieftain Cameron of Lochiel joined his cause, and a successful skirmish with King George's troops raised the spirits of the Highlanders. They were delighted by the tall athletic form of the young prince, and by his sharing all their perils and hardships. At night he often lay down among them to sleep, sheltered only by his plaid.

When the royal troops were timidly withdrawn northwards, the road towards the south was left open, and the prince marched in triumph to Perth and thence to Edinburgh. At the old cross of the Scottish capital he caused his father to be proclaimed king; and when the young prince rode into Edinburgh, the streets rang with the cheering of the rejoicing Jacobites, many of them pressing round to kiss the



Prince Charles in Costume worn at Holyrood

boots of the handsome young cavalier. He took up his abode for a time at the ancient palace of Holyrood, where so many of his ancestors had dwelt.

Meanwhile King George's troops had been brought by sea from Aberdeen, and were now at Prestonpans; but the wild rush of the Highlanders broke the regulars, and in ten minutes the field of battle was dotted with flying redcoats. The spoils of victory were great; but many of the Highlanders knew nothing of their value. One of them sold a watch for a trifle, saying that he was " glad to be rid of the creature: for she lived no time after he caught her." On the prince's return to Edinburgh, volunteers flocked to his standard, and soon he had nearly 6000 men.

In England people cared little for King George II, but they were alarmed at the news of the prince's victory. There was only one strong fortress in the north of England, viz. Newcastle; and Wesley, who was there at the time, thus describes the panic. " The walls are mounted with cannon, and everything prepared for an attack; but our poor neighbors are busy in removing their goods, and most of the best houses are left without furniture or inhabitants."

Charles, however, led his troops suddenly towards Carlisle, which tamely surrendered. On they marched towards Preston and Manchester. At the latter place, then quite a small town, he hoped to

have an enthusiastic reception and to gain reinforcements. His entry must have been a strange sight. An eyewitness describes it thus: "He marched in on foot, clad in a Highland dress: no music but a pair of bagpipes." He was not very much cheered, and a still worse disappointment was that he gained only 200 recruits. The men of Cheshire showed still less liking for him and his "wild petticoat men."

Victory and Defeat

By quick marches Charles reached Derby; but 30,000 royal troops were not far off, and were ready to attack his band, now thinned by fatigue and desertion. His advisers counselled a retreat so as to gain reinforcements; and with grief and disappointment, he and his Highlanders set out on their northward march. Many people thought that had he pushed on to London he might have taken it, so great was the scare among the royal troops.

Wearied by rapid marching, Charles's men reached Glasgow, where small favor was shown to his cause. A fanatic snapped a pistol at the prince as he rode along the Saltmarket. As a punishment for this, Charles compelled the citizens to refit the Highlanders, whom they then heartily disliked.

Turning to meet the royal troops, he led his men to a last victory at Falkirk. But after the battle

his army was much reduced by the desertion of many of the Highlanders, who made off to the mountains with their plunder. The Duke of Cumberland, now marching north in hot haste, soon



Graves of the Clans: Culloden Moor

compelled the prince to retreat towards Inverness. On Culloden Moor, nor far from that town, was fought the last serious battle on British soil. The Highlanders were hungry and dispirited; and the Macdonalds, angry at not having the post of honor on the right wing of the rebel army, stood moody and motionless. Yet the other clansmen, by their wild rush, burst through the first line of the royal troops, only to be driven back by steady volleys

from the second line. In their rage some of them stood hurling stones at the redcoats until a general charge of the royal troops swept them from the moor. No quarter was given to the rebels; and the severity of the Duke of Cumberland gained him the title of the Butcher.

Charles fled for his life. When his foes were closing all around him, a brave young lady, Flora Macdonald, helped him to escape, disguised in woman's clothes, to Skye. There and in other parts he was in the utmost danger, for the soldiers were searching for him everywhere. Yet, though a sum of \$150,000 was promised to anyone who would capture him, not one of the poor clansmen betrayed him. The strangest experience of all was that the prince was befriended for three weeks by a band of robbers, who hid him from his pursuers and fed him with the best of their food.

At last two French vessels came to rescue him from his perils, and he left the shores of Scotland at the same spot where, fourteen months before, he had landed, flushed with the hope of regaining Great Britain for the Stuarts.

King George's government strove to crush out the Jacobite spirit in the Highlands by putting down the power of the chieftains, and by forbidding the clansmen to wear their kilt and tartan. Later on, many Highland regiments were raised to fight for George III; and now they form some of the best

and most devoted troops of the nation, for all soreness has now passed away.

Yet long after the rebellion of 1745 the clansmen yearned for the return of Bonnie Prince Charlie, and in this verse of an old Scottish song there breathes the devotion felt for the romantic young adventurer, so frank in speech and handsome in person, so gallant in fight and generous even to his foes —

“ I once had sons, but now ha’e nane,
I bred them toiling sairly;
And I wad bear them a’ again,
And lose them a’ for Charlie.”

TWO GREAT PREACHERS

We are now to learn about two men who did a great deal to awaken the religious life of the people at a time when it seemed almost dead. Englishmen had been growing more and more wealthy; but they were also becoming more absorbed in business life, and what pleasures they had were mostly coarse and bad.

There is a great deal of drunkenness in England still, but in the middle of the eighteenth century hard drinking was much more the custom than it is to-day. The nobles, the middle classes, and the poorer classes all drank to excess. A famous writer of those days, Dr. Johnson, said that when he was a boy nearly all the well-to-do citizens of his native town, Lichfield, used to get drunk every night.

There were few healthy and sensible means of recreation and enjoyment. Cricket and football were hardly ever played; and most of the sports of those days were either quite childish or were cruel and debasing, such as cock-fighting.

People went to church on Sundays; but for the most part they went only because it was thought to be the proper thing to do. The Dissenters had lost a good deal of the piety and fervor of their Puritan forefathers. So, if you looked in either at a church or a chapel, you would probably see only

a thin congregation, and that those who were there did not behave as though they were intent on worshipping God.

Outside in the streets on a Sunday you would see numbers of tipsy men and women, while the children strayed about without anyone teaching them the truths of religion. It was not till 1781 that a Sunday school was started. Then Robert Raikes of Gloucester opened in that city a Sunday school for teaching children; and since then Sunday schools have done a splendid work.

The sight of the bad habits of the people had long made thinking men sad; but it was not till the time of Wesley that much was done to improve them. About the year 1730 a young man named John Wesley, who was a student at the University



John Wesley

of Oxford, began to think seriously about religion and about the bad lives of the people of that city. He gathered about him a small band of earnest young men to study the Bible and to talk and pray together. They were to give up all forms of amusement which they felt to be harmful, and

were to use their spare time in visiting sick persons and prisoners.

John Wesley himself lived very strictly. He got up every morning at four o'clock; he refused to have his hair dressed and powdered, as was then the fashion, so that he might give to the poor the money which he thus saved. He and his followers used every possible method of making the most of their time and their opportunities. Hence they were jeeringly called Methodists by their fellow students. Later on, they became better known as Wesleyans, that is, followers of Wesley.

Among the little band of Methodists at Oxford there was also Charles Wesley, a young man of a gentler and more amiable character than his stern and strict elder brother. Charles Wesley, at a later time, wrote a great number of beautiful hymns. At Oxford, too, was George Whitefield, a wild, impulsive lad, who was to become the greatest preacher of that age. Under John Wesley's influence Whitefield became a strict Methodist. He fasted frequently, and often remained in prayer kneeling or lying on the cold ground all through the night.

In 1735 the Wesleys and their comrades left Oxford, and John Wesley went to North America. There he carried out all his strict methods until he became very unpopular and had to return to England. Soon he felt more religious peace than

he had known before, and began to preach out of a full heart to congregations of the Church of England. He everywhere desired the more earnest people to form a "society" in the church, and to hold frequent meetings for prayer and confessions of sins.

Wesley and others who joined him went about preaching most earnestly, and people wondered at the power of their words. Nearly all clergymen and ministers then read out their sermons in a very cold and lifeless way; but Wesley and Whitefield boldly spoke forth the words which came fresh to their lips. To help the movement, chapels were built as an aid to the life of the churches, for at first the Methodists or Wesleyans still formed part of the Church of England.

Whitefield took a far bolder step. He was prevented from preaching in the churches of Bristol because of the novelty of his views and the fervor of his style. So he turned his attention to the vast masses of people who never entered a church or a chapel. Noticing with sorrow the degraded state of the colliers near Bristol, he resolved to go and preach to them in the open air near their own cottages.

Standing on a hillside he preached to the colliers from the text, "Blessed are the poor in spirit, for theirs is the kingdom of heaven." He spoke to these poor ignorant men as a brother to brothers;

and the earnestness and power of his words brought tears to the cheeks of many. These visits of his were repeated; his messages of mercy and love, and his calls to repentance often drew sobs and groans from hearts which before had been hard as stone.

When Whitefield went to London the same results followed. On Kensington Common and on Moorfield he preached to vast numbers of the lowest class of Londoners. Sometimes he would go to a fair, and in the places which were usually given up to prize-fighting and drunkenness he would mount on a platform, or even on a barrel, and hold a large crowd spellbound by his preaching. His voice was so powerful that it could be heard by a crowd of 30,000 persons.

His activity was wonderful. He often preached for forty hours every week. Many times he visited the chief towns of England and Scotland, and he crossed the Atlantic thirteen times to preach in America. Strange stories are told of the way in which he moved his hearers. Some would groan in despair, others would shout for joy, others again were so excited as to fall down in fits.

On one occasion in America a well-known man of determined character decided, before he went to hear Whitefield, that he would give nothing to the collection, which was for a cause of which he did not approve. After the first part of the sermon he



George Whitefield

felt that he must give the copper pieces in his pocket: as Whitefield's appeal went on, the man felt that he must give all his silver pieces too; and at the end he emptied into the plate all the money in his purse—coppers, silver, and gold.

Fortunately, the results of this wonderful preaching often lasted long after the first craze of excitement was over. Many of his hearers became changed men and women, and led better lives. At first Wesley did not approve of open-air preaching, for he was still a strict churchman. But when the pulpits of churches were more and more closed against him, Wesley also took to preaching in the open air. He was not so great an orator as Whitefield, but he was far better at making the work endure; for he had the power of guiding and controlling men.

So the Wesleyan movement went on, arousing enthusiasm, but also exciting vehement opposition. Wesley, Whitefield, and their followers were often attacked by ignorant and half-savage rustics.

Wesleyans were often ducked, stoned, and pelted with filth; but they believed in their work, and nothing would make them give it up. At first they were only a body of people *in* the Church of England, but later on they separated from it entirely, and for the last hundred years they have worshipped in churches of their own.

Both John and Charles Wesley lived to a great age, and were revered and loved by all who knew them well. They and Whitefield started a great religious movement which has had great power over the people, especially in Wales and Cornwall. The Methodists are also very numerous in the United States and Canada. Even men who did not become Wesleyans were led to think more about religion. Thus these preachers made a great change for the better in the life of all English-speaking people.



Clive Street, Calcutta, so called because Clive once lived in it in a house which is now the Calcutta Mercantile Exchange

ROBERT CLIVE

Clive goes to India — The Siege of Arcot

In 1745 it seemed as though the power of Britain was in danger from a few thousand of untrained Highlanders. Yet within fifteen years of that revolt England acquired a mighty Empire across the seas, owing to the exploits of Clive and Wolfe and the organizing genius of the great statesman, the elder Pitt. The lives of these three men will enable us

to glance at the events which laid the foundations of British rule in India and Canada.

Before the time of Clive Englishmen in India held only a few factories and trading stations on or near the coasts. These were Surat, Bombay, Fort St. George (now known as Madras), and Fort William (now known as Calcutta). These stations were not colonies. They belonged to an important trading company, the English East India Company, which paid rent to the native rulers. It was the daring and genius of Clive which soon made this struggling little trading company the possessor of large and wealthy provinces.

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

In those days the voyage to India often took a year, and Clive's journey to Madras took more than a year. The intense heat tried his health, the life at the desk chafed his active spirit, and he soon grew homesick. Twice he carefully loaded a pistol and tried to take his life. Each time the pistol

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

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



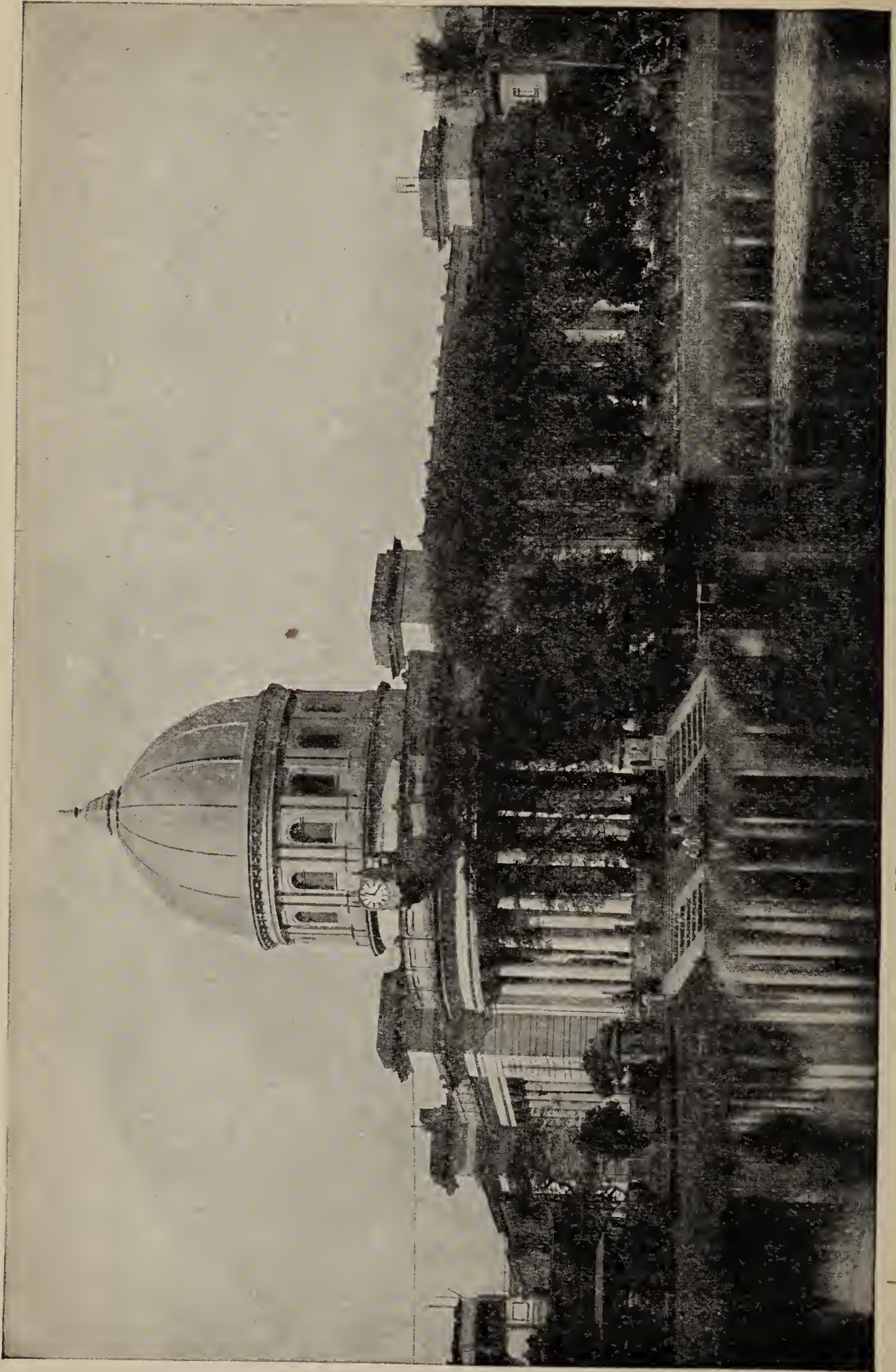
Robert, Lord Clive

Before long, peace was made between England and France, and Madras was restored to the English Company; but the ambition of Dupleix, the French governor of Pondicherry, again brought the English and French to war in the south of India. This ambitious man had formed the plan

of playing off the rival native rulers one against the other, and by this means he meant to make his countrymen supreme in India. The bravery of the French soldiers scattered in flight ten times their number of native troops, and the rule of Dupleix in the south of India seemed in 1750 to be firmly established.

But the genius of Clive soon changed the whole aspect of affairs. He persuaded the English East India Company to send help instantly to one of the native princes against the French, and to seize the important town of Arcot. He led his little force of 500 men quickly towards its walls. Undaunted by a terrific storm of thunder and rain which burst over them, Clive and his men struggled on, and the defenders were so astonished at foes coming against them in such a tempest that they fled, and left Arcot as the prize to Clive's valor.

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



THE POST OFFICE, CALCUTTA
Built on the site of the Black Hole

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

The Black Hole — Plassey

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

The Company's settlement at Fort William, now

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

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



CLIVE AT THE SIEGE OF ARCOT

From an original painting by E. Wallcousins

to a grove to think, and at the end of an hour's musing he made up his mind to fight at once.

The few British guns poured in a destructive fire against the fifty cumbrous cannon and the crowded ranks opposite them. Then Clive, at the right

moment, ordered a general charge. It swept away the dense and confused masses of their foes, and in a few minutes the plain was covered with torrents of fugi-



Silver Coin (rupee) of East India Company, 1675

tives — horse, foot, and elephants flying before the thin lines of redcoats. The camp, the baggage, cannon, and treasure of their foes were the spoils of the victors; and the great province of Bengal was conquered by this one blow (1757).

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

Other successes were gained over the Dutch and the French; and the capture of Pondicherry in 1761 made the English supreme in the south as they were in Bengal.

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

In the later part of his life in India, Clive did much to improve the government of the Company's provinces, and to prevent the greed and the frauds of officials. Thus, in place of the terrible tyranny of Surajah-Dowlah and other native despots, many millions of Hindoos gained something like good and just government.

GENERAL WOLFE AND THE TAKING OF QUEBEC

When we studied the life of Clive we saw that for some time the French appeared certain of becoming masters of India. At almost the same period they were making great and successful efforts to gain nearly the whole of North America. The French had long had possession of Canada, that is, all the land along the course of the River St. Lawrence and to the north of the Great Lakes. The French also held, or claimed to hold, the lands along the course of the rivers Ohio and Mississippi. But this did not satisfy the ambition of the French governors of Canada, who formed great plans of building forts along the course of the rivers Ohio and Mississippi. Then hoped by these means to shut in the English settlers, who then, it must be remembered, only had the colonies on the coast of the Atlantic.

The French also gained over many of the fierce tribes of the Red Indians to help them to subdue the English settlers; and perhaps they would have succeeded in America like Dupleix in India, if in both cases an English hero had not appeared to baffle French designs. Clive worsted Dupleix in India; Wolfe overcame Montcalm in North America.

James Wolfe was born in Kent in 1726. He

grew up to be a shy, modest young man, of a rather weak and delicate frame, and he ever showed great kindness and modesty of spirit, never desiring to force his way to the front by unworthy means. Indeed, his was a brave and generous nature which gained him devoted friends. He early entered the army, and distinguished himself by his bravery in the wars against France. He afterwards commanded a regiment which was quartered in the Highlands for the purpose of maintaining peace and order. Later on he showed his bravery in the war in North America (1758); but the generals who commanded the forces there were incapable, and the English troops were often defeated.

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

The city of Quebec stands on a lofty cliff which overhands that stately river. Some miles below Quebec, Wolfe landed his men; but in trying to advance toward the city his men were driven back by the French.

Other attempts failed, and the French were so strongly posted in and around Quebec that it

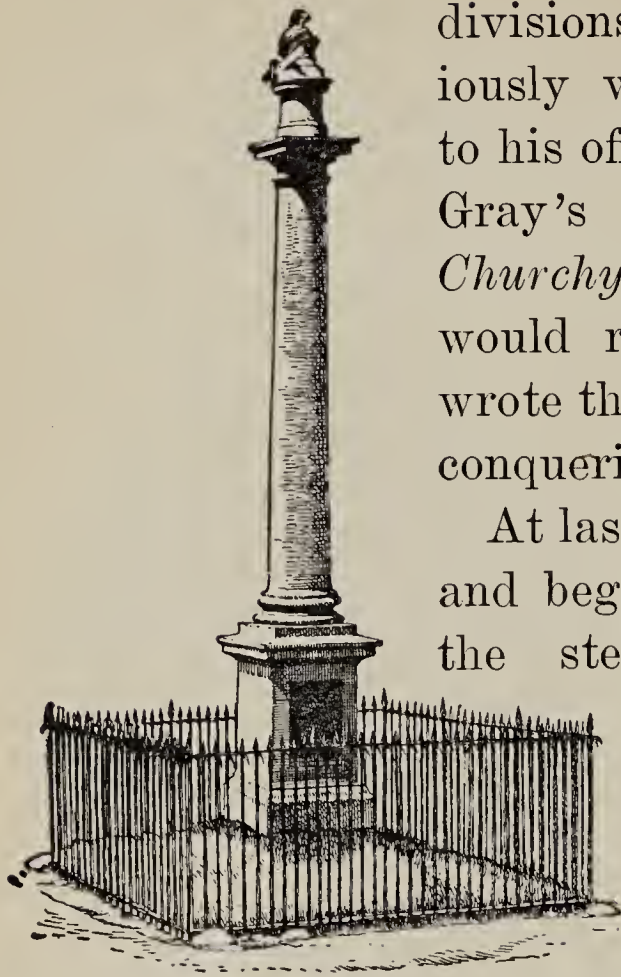
seemed impossible to dislodge them. Wolfe fell ill, and his forces were sadly wasted away by defeat and sickness. Still, he and his officers did not give up the attempt. He knew that higher up the St. Lawrence above Quebec there were steep cliffs, which at one point were indented by a small watercourse. Wolfe thought that if his men could quietly made their way up at this point by a steep winding path, they would take the enemy by surprise.



General Wolfe
(after portrait by Gainsborough)

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

One night in September, 1759, all was ready. The oars were muffled so as to make no noise which would alarm the French; but there were so few boats that Wolfe's small force had to cross in two



The Monument to Wolfe and Montcalm on the Plains of Abraham, Quebec

divisions. While he was anxiously waiting, Wolfe repeated to his officers nearly the whole of Gray's *Elegy in a Country Churchyard*, and said that he would rather be the poet who wrote that, than have the fame of conquering the French next day.

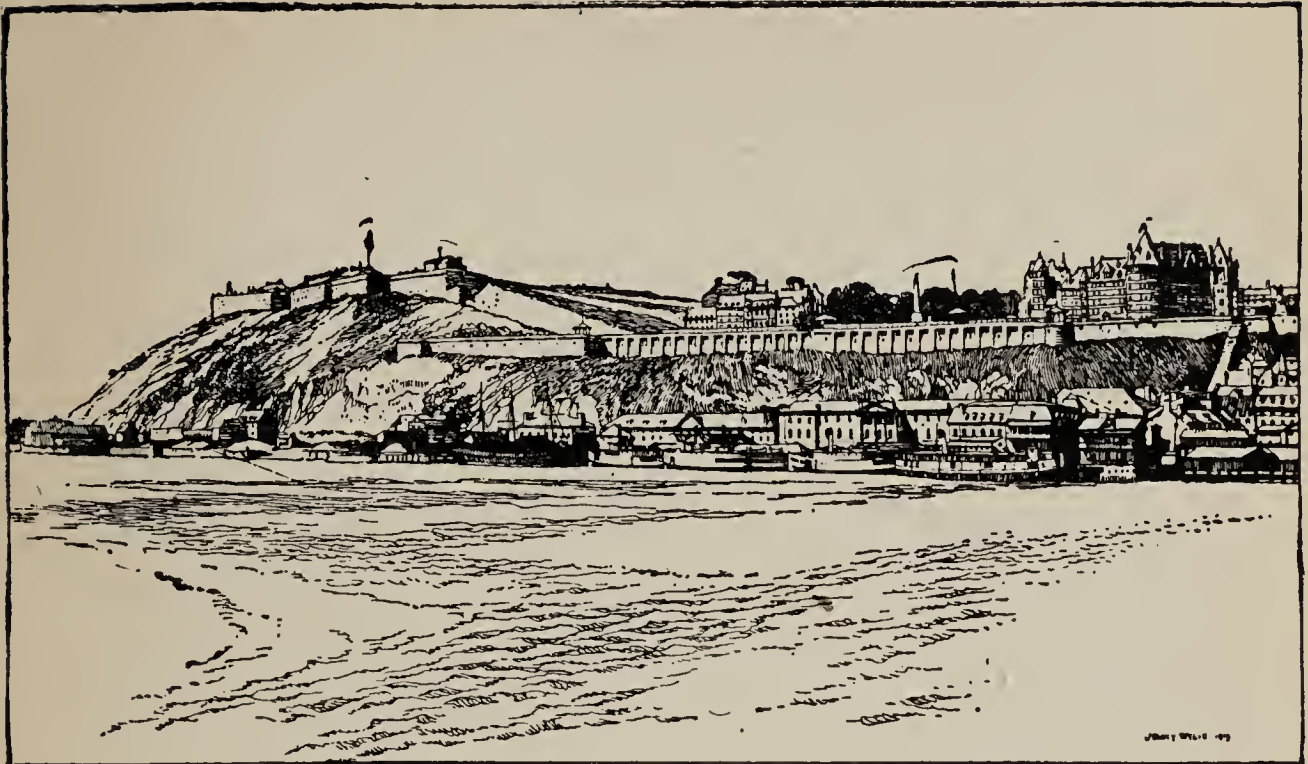
At last all his men were landed, and began to climb the cliffs by the steep and narrow path.

They reached the top without the French taking alarm; and they even dragged one small cannon up.

When dawn broke, the French found nearly 4000 British troops on the Heights

of Abraham just outside Quebec.

Montcalm, the French general, hastily brought his men up for battle, and they fought as bravely as ever; but Wolfe's men were all trained soldiers, and now that they were on even terms with their foes they soon gained ground from them. As Wolfe was cheering on his troops, he was severely wounded in two places. The dying hero was carried to the rear; and when he heard the shout



Chateau Frontenac and Citadel, Quebec

“ They run,” he raised himself on his elbow and eagerly asked “ Who run? ” On hearing the answer “ The French run,” he uttered his last words: “ I die contented.” The French commander also perished in this battle, which at once overthrew all his great designs.

Quebec soon surrendered, and a little later the rest of Canada submitted to the English. That great country has ever since been one of England’s most splendid colonies, and the French and English there now live peacefully side by side. On the promenade at Quebec there is a statue in honor of Wolfe and Montcalm, inscribed as follows:

“ Their valor gave them a united death,
History has given them a united fame,
Posterity, a united monument.”

WILLIAM PITT, EARL OF CHATHAM

The great orator and statesman, called the elder Pitt, to distinguish him from his famous son, was born in Cornwall in 1708. In his youth he entered the army, but his talents fitted him more for Parliament than for the battlefield. He entered Parliament as member for Old Sarum, a deserted town close to Salisbury.

He soon showed that he was a splendid speaker. His noble figure, his powerful yet musical voice, and his rapid vehement style of speaking carried his audience along with him. Moreover, men felt that he meant what he said. As he once whispered to a member of Parliament, "When once I am up on my feet everything that is in my mind comes out." His attacks against Walpole partly led to the fall of that great minister in 1742; and the Duchess of Marlborough, who had hated Walpole, left \$50,000 to Pitt for his defense of the laws of England.

After Walpole's death there followed a time of confusion in public affairs; and though George II disliked Pitt, yet when the difficulties of the country seemed overwhelming, he became the most important of the king's ministers (1757).

Times were indeed very serious for the nation. Scotland was still discontented; and many people, even in England, still longed for the return of the

Stuarts. In 1756 war had broken out with France, and at first the English were beaten in several encounters. Englishmen had begun to feel that their day was past, and one of the chief statesmen exclaimed in despair: "We are no longer a nation!"

As soon as Pitt became chief minister, he aroused the people out of their despair. "Be one people!" he cried; "forget everything but the public welfare. I set you the example." His fiery speeches and the boldness of his acts soon made Britons feel more confident. An officer once said that none who went to talk with him could help feeling braver for it.

When a great man like Pitt begins to control public affairs, there is likely to be a change for the better. He determined to do his utmost to help the King of Prussia, Frederick the Great, who was bravely struggling against the French, Austrians, and Russians. Pitt could not send many men to help Frederick, but he helped him with money, for he saw that while



William Pitt, Earl of Chatham

France was thus kept busy in fighting Prussia, her colonies would the more easily fall to Britain.

Pitt did more than all the soldiers had done in keeping the Highlands quiet. They had vainly tried to crush the spirit of the Highlanders, but Pitt hit upon the happy thought of enlisting the Highlanders as soldiers, so that their courage might be used for their country; and they soon showed their bravery in India and Canada.

Pitt also chose young and energetic men to lead the new enterprises, and we have seen how wise he was in the choice of Wolfe for the conquest of Canada. This is one of the marks of a great ruler or statesman. He cannot do everything himself; but if he is a great man, he will pick out the right men and set them to whatever work they can do best.

Soon there came news, not of defeats, but of victories, from all parts. Bengal was conquered in 1757. Two years later came the capture of Quebec; and there were two victories over the French nearer home. In 1756 Britain was in such despair that George II had even thought of bringing Hanoverian troops over to help to protect Britain from the French. When the king died in 1760 he left Britain successful in all points, having conquered a great colonial empire from her rival. Very much of this was due to the energy of Pitt, and to the courage which he breathed into all who came near him.

The next king, George III, did not like Pitt, and the great statesman resigned his office. A little later he was called back to the ministry; but it was only for a short time.

Pitt did his best to prevent the foolish acts which turned the Colonists in North America against the mother country; and in his later years, when he was made Earl of Chatham, he still raised his powerful voice on behalf of friendship towards those colonists. "You cannot conquer America," he cried. "If I were an American, I would never lay down my arms, never, never, never!"



Highland Soldier of the
Period

The end of Pitt's life was very sad. He had always been a martyr to gout, and had made many of his finest speeches with his limbs swathed in flannels so as to ease the pain. Now it had grown much worse; but he wished to speak once more on the question of America. Though his end was drawing near, he was carried to the House of Lords, and uttered a few feeble words. It was too much for him, and he fell back in a swoon. He was carried home, and died five weeks later.

When he left office in 1761, England was everywhere victorious. When he died, British mistakes had banded nearly all the world against them. It can be seen, then, how much one great man can do for a nation, and how his vigor and wisdom may be missed when he no longer guides its affairs.

In one respect his example lived on. Before his time, some of the king's ministers had thought it quite a fit thing to take large sums or bounties from the nation's money. Pitt was the first to refuse to touch a penny which was not fairly and openly his by right. He was a patriot, and he saw that a land could never be strong where the governors were not quite straight-forward in money matters. Since his time there has been far more honor and honesty in public life than there had been before.

It is because he brought back victory to the flag and honor to public life that Pitt earned the honorable name of the Great Commoner.



Medal commemorating Successes of 1759

THE RISE OF PRUSSIA

The Great Elector and his Line

In the beginning of the eighteenth century, while Peter the Great was laying the foundations of his vast empire, a new power arose in Europe under the name of the Kingdom of Prussia. This country, now so great and powerful, had in the seventeenth century an area less than Scotland, and was known as the Electorate of Brandenburg, because its ruler, the Elector, had a voice in the election of the Emperor of Germany. By conquest, by treaty, and by alliance it grew slowly and steadily till, during the wars of Louis XIV, it played a prominent part in checking the designs of that ambitious king.

The ruler of Prussia at that time was a prince known as the "Great Elector." He received the title "Great" because of his wise government of his state and of his brilliant victories in wars. When he began to rule, the country had lost half its people through the ravages of the Thirty Years' War. By gifts of money and of land he attracted settlers from all parts of Europe, and when the Edict of Nantes was revoked he made great efforts to get the fugitive Huguenots to take up their homes in his state. He had agents posted on the borders of France to supply them with money and show them the way to his territory. In this manner

50,000 of these industrious workmen are said to have settled in Berlin or its neighborhood.

In 1700 the Great Elector's son, for services rendered or to be rendered to the emperor, was allowed to take the title of Frederick I, King of Prussia. Thus a new kingdom was born in Europe, and quickly pushed itself forward to the front rank.

The next king, Frederick William I, was one of the most extraordinary persons that ever occupied a throne, a strange mixture of madness and genius. Like Peter the Great, he was subject to fits of fierce passion, which kept his ministers and all near him in continual terror. When he took a walk his subjects fled from him as from a wild bear, for when the whim seized him he would beat and cudgel anyone he met.

His treatment of his own children, Frederick and Williamina, has never been equalled, unless indeed in Squeers's establishment in Dotheboys Hall. To them he showed himself a veritable fiend and savage. At table, for any reason or for none, he would hurl the dishes at their heads, and barely a day passed but they were kicked, beaten, or pulled about the room by the hair.

The grounds of the king's dislike of the young prince were that he believed he was weak and cowardly. He thought boys should have no tastes but for shooting, riding, and drilling. But Frederick liked none of these things, hating above all

1882

1883



FREDERICK THE GREAT ON A JOURNEY

From the painting by Adolf Menzel in the Ravené Gallery, Berlin

the parade ground, from which he stole off whenever he could to his flute and his books.

To get away from his father, Frederick, with one of his friends, resolved to flee to England. But the king got notice of their intention, seized them, and threw them into prison. They were tried by court martial and sentenced to death. At the intercession of the emperor the prince's life was spared, but he was compelled to look on while his friend was being executed.

From the outset of his reign Frederick William kept one object steadily before him: to make Prussia one of the first powers in Europe. For this purpose he knew two things were necessary: a full treasury and a large army.

To secure the first he lived like a miser all his life, grudging even the barest necessities of life for himself and for his family. He sold his horses and his carriages of state, and melted all articles of gold and of silver to make money pieces. In this way, and by careful management of the finances of his kingdom, he left a huge sum for the use of his successor.

Miser as he was, he poured out money like water in gathering a great standing army. When he came to the throne the army consisted of 20,000 men; when he handed it over to his successor it had increased to 80,000 men, fully trained and equipped. The most striking feature in this army was the

regiment of tall men known as the Potsdam Guards. The king had a mania for tall soldiers. In every corner of Europe he had agents on the outlook for Samsons and Goliaths, for whom he sometimes paid a general's ransom. To a seven-foot Irishman whom he heard of in London he gave a bounty of \$6500 to enter his service. Giants, indeed, in those days were as much sought after as professional baseball players in our own.

Frederick the Great

In 1740 Frederick William died, and his son ascended the throne as Frederick II. This king, who had incurred his father's hatred because of his effeminate manners and his love of books, was soon to prove himself the greatest general of the age.

He was hardly seated on the throne when the War of the Austrian Succession broke out. Charles VI, Emperor and King of Austria, had no male heirs, and was anxious that the crown should pass at his death to his daughter, Maria Theresa, in spite of the unwritten law of the country, which forbade succession to females. He secured the consent of all the powers of Europe to an agreement, called the Pragmatic Sanction, whereby her claim was allowed. Charles VI died in 1740, in the belief that this agreement would be kept, but he

forgot that he had not left the only sure means in those days of assuring it: a full treasury and a strong army.

No sooner had Charles died than France, Spain, Bavaria, and Saxony laid claim to parts of Austrian territory. But while these powers were talking of sharing Austria between them, Frederick II,



Medal commemorating the Battle of Dettingen

without any declaration of war, marched his army into the Austrian province of Silesia and seized Breslau, its capital. By this act of shameless robbery Frederick added 16,000 square miles of fertile land to his dominions.

Austria was in no condition to offer effective resistance. Its treasury was empty, and its army unprepared. But the beautiful young queen, Maria

Theresa, was gifted with a resolute courage that rose before difficulties and dangers. She roused the patriotic spirit of her people, so that recruits poured in for the army, and it was only with difficulty that Maria could be restrained from charging at their head into battle.

The only ally that came to the aid of the oppressed queen was Great Britain. The combined forces of Austrians and British won a great victory over the French and Bavarians at Dettingen, the last battle in which an English king, George II, was present in person. Two years later, in 1745, the allies under the Duke of Cumberland, afterwards the "Butcher" of Culloden, suffered an overwhelming defeat at Fontenoy.

The war dragged on till 1748, when a short-lived peace was patched up. Frederick retained Silesia, but Maria Theresa had no intention of giving up an inch of territory. For eight years both sides were busy making preparations for the certain outbreak of a new war.

Austria and France, hitherto the great European rivals, for once made alliance together, and Russia, Sweden, Saxony, and Poland threw in their lot with them against the growing power of Prussia. Both sides were eager for the help of Britain. That country would have preferred to abide by her former ally, Maria Theresa, but Austria's alliance

with France made that impossible. She ranged herself on the side of Frederick, who found himself opposed by six great kingdoms at once, and his only ally, Britain, far away.

The war that opened with these combatants in 1756 is known as the Seven Years' War. The interest of this war for us lies, not in Europe, but in America and India. Already the great struggle between France and Britain for the possession of the New World had begun, and in India also the battle was joined.

Fortunately for Britain, she had at this time as prime minister the Great Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham. He was as able, as ambitious, and as far-seeing as the Great Frederick himself. His policy was to keep France so fully occupied on the Continent that she would not be able to send help to her far-off colonies in Canada and India. "I will conquer America in Germany," he said, and for this purpose he gave great sums of money every year to Frederick to enable him to carry on the war, and maintained in Germany a small army of British and Hanoverian troops. How well this policy succeeded is shown in the chapters on Clive and Wolfe.

It would take too long to tell the story of Frederick's wars in detail. At first fortune favored his arms. In the celebrated battles of Rosbach, Leuthen, and Zorndorf he defeated in succession

the French, the Austrians, and the Russians, and made for himself the reputation of being one of the world's greatest commanders.

But at length the tide turned against him. Berlin, the capital of his kingdom, was more than once taken and plundered by the enemy, his territory was laid waste, and certain ruin seemed to be hanging over him. But just then the death of the Empress of Russia, who was his bitterest foe, brought him relief. The new sovereign, Peter III, was a great admirer of Frederick's, and at once transferred his forces to the Prussian side, declar-

ing, "Frederick and Peter, together will conquer the whole world."

By the year 1763 all parties were exhausted by the struggle, and peace was concluded by the Treaty of Paris, which left Frederick in possession of Silesia, and Britain the command of America and India. This was the close of what is known in the United States as the "French and Indian War."

Once the war was over, Frederick, now by common consent called "the Great," devoted



Frederick the Great

the remaining years of his life to repairing the ravages caused by the war. He dug canals, built bridges, founded trading companies, and drained marshes. During his reign he is said to have settled 300,000 colonists on land thus won back from the swamps. At the end of his reign he had doubled the territory of his kingdom and tripled its population. Best of all, he left to his people “an example unrivalled in history of what capacity and resolution can effect against the greatest superiority of power or the utmost spite of fortune.”

WARREN HASTINGS

Warren Hastings, who was to become one of the greatest of governors in India, was born at Daylesford in Worcestershire (1732). His ancestors had once been wealthy, and had owned the great house and estate at Daylesford; but they had gradually come down in the world, till the little Warren was sent to the village school. There he showed great talent and industry, and he loved to hear tales of the greatness of his ancestors and how they had fought for the king. At the age of ten, as he was lying by the stream on a bright summer day, it came into his mind that he would be a great man and would win back the old estate for his family.

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

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

Clive, hearing of the skill of the young clerk, made him agent at the court of the new Nabob, Meer Jaffeer.

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

In 1770 Bengal suffered from a frightful famine, such as happened, and sometimes still happens, whenever the monsoon fails, for then hardly any rice or corn can grow, and the people starve. This disaster happened in that year, when, for month after month, no rain fell to freshen the thirsty soil. The sun beat down on parched fields and empty ponds, and the peasants saw their tiny hoards of food vanish away.

Then they themselves rushed to the rivers to drink, or lay down to meet death from sheer hunger and exhaustion. The water of the Ganges was putrid with corpses, and its fish and waterfowl became uneatable. More than half of the



Warren Hastings

people died; for there were then no railways to bring food from other parts, and no canals from which water could be drawn to irrigate the fields. These have since been made by British engineers, and a famine in India is not so terrible now as it was then.

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

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

But in the years 1776-83 British difficulties were so very great in America, in Europe, and also in India, that Hastings could not be spared. He had to face the great and growing power of the Mahrattas. These were bands of fierce and warlike horsemen who swept over the plains carrying off plunder. They had founded some important states in India,

and now they were likely to be helped by the French. The position was critical, for if French and Mahrattas had been allowed to act together Britain would probably have lost its hold on India.

Danger acts as a spur to great and manly natures, and Hastings determined to strike at once and strike hard at the Mahrattas. He raised more troops, he made an alliance with a native prince, and sent an army to the west of India to attack the Mahrattas before the French could help them. At



Mahrattas

first his men were beaten, but finally they took the very strong castle of Gwalior, and for the time being brought the Mahrattas to accept terms of peace. News came from the south of India which led Warren Hastings to offer peace on easy terms to these valiant foes.

A powerful native ruler in southern India, seeing the British troops busy far away to the north, seized the opportunity to send an invading army of 90,000 men into Madras. A small British force was attacked by immense numbers of the enemy. Stoutly they beat off the native foot soldiers and clouds of horsemen; but at last they were overpowered and were almost all slain.

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

Warren Hastings did not despair. He sent away all possible troops to the south to meet this new and formidable foe, and with them large supplies of money for the expenses of the new war. The men were in time to meet the native troops before a French fleet arrived. Two victories were won over

To the Honble Francis Law de Lauriston

Governor General on the part of his most Christian
Majesty for the French Settlements
in India at

Pondicherry

The Friendship subsisting between
the French & the English Nation requires that we should
communicate to you the Changes which have lately taken
place in this Government.

The Legislature of Great Britain has
thought proper to appoint a Governor General of Four
Counsellors for the Management of the Affairs of the Honble
the East India Company in Bengal, Madras, & Orissa and
we have to notify to you our having assumed the Government
in Virtue of that Authority.

As we are also charged with the Political
Affairs of the Company all over India by the course of
their Administration may be honoured with your Corres-
pondence. We take this Occasion to assure you that we
shall ever receive it with becoming Attention and as
far as in us lies endeavour at all Times to preserve the
most entire Harmony & Intercourse of friendly Offices
between our respective Governments in India.

Yours William
26th October 1775

We have the Honor to be Sir
Your most Obedient Servants

Warren Hastings
J. Clavering
Geo. Monson
A. G. Barwell



Edmund Burke

the dense array of native soldiers, and British rule in the south was saved. In 1783 peace was made.

The vigor of Warren Hastings saved British rule in India, but his conduct was marred by some unjust acts. He had been in sore need of money for the expedition to save Madras, and not knowing how to get it by fair means, he forced the ruler of Benares to pay a very

large sum. He also compelled the Princesses of Oudh to give up state treasures which they had concealed. It was even said that he had their officers tortured to force them to give up the hidden treasure, though this latter charge is now known to have been untrue.

The East India Company had had claims in both these cases, but nothing can excuse the cruelty and wickedness of its Governor's action in wringing these large sums from almost helpless native governments.

In 1785 Warren Hastings returned to England. He left the British dominion in India far larger than he found it when he first became Governor-

General; and on his return home he received the thanks of King George III and the applause of the people.

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

Warren Hastings lived on to an old age at the estate at Daylesford, which he bought back for his family, thus at last realizing the dream of his boyhood. In his closing years he often occupied himself with trying to rear Indian plants and animals, and he died in 1818, having won the reputation of being the second founder of British rule in India.

ENGLAND AND AMERICAN WARS

The Beginning of the War

In the last chapter we saw how Warren Hastings extended British authority in India. In this chapter we shall learn about the loss of English colonies in North America.

One hundred fifty years before the time of which we are writing, Englishmen had settled on the Atlantic coast of North America in thirteen separate colonies. In course of time these colonies became powerful, and disputes arose between them and the British Government. The worst dispute was on the subject of taxation: it arose in the following manner. (Map in the Appendix.)

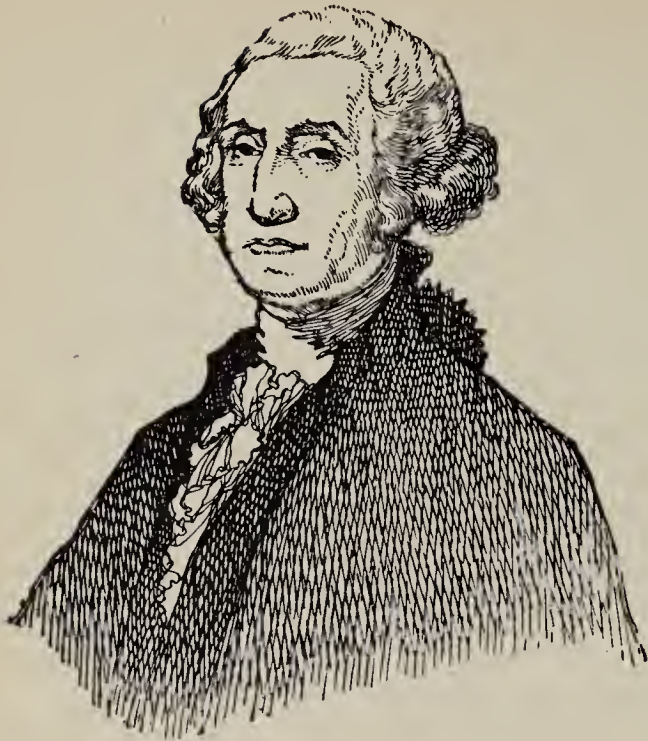
There had been, as we have seen, a long war between the British and the French in North America, which ended with the conquest of Canada by England. As this war had given safety to the American colonists, the British Government resolved to make them bear some of its cost; and perhaps the colonists would have done so, had they been wisely treated in other respects. But the British Government also interfered with their trade and their customs duties; and when the colonists resisted, it gave way on some points, but resolved to keep a small duty on tea imported into those colonies. The British ministers wanted

to show that Britain had the right to tax the colonists; while the colonists denied that Parliament had any right to tax those who did not send members to Westminster.

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

The first battle was at Lexington (1775), when a number of militiamen, under cover of hedges, poured a deadly fire on a body of British troops as they were marching along a road. The English were defeated, and the colonists, encouraged by this success and by the small numbers of British troops then in North America, persevered in the struggle.

The militia of the colonists now tried to blockade the British soldiers in Boston by occupying a hill outside the city, called Bunker Hill. The British marched out to drive them away, but the colonists were fine marksmen, and fired steadily from behind earthworks on the redcoats as they marched up the slope. Twice the British were beaten back by the storm of bullets, and it seemed that they would lose the battle; but yet a third time they mounted that fatal slope, and this time they drove before them



George Washington

the militia, whose bullets were nearly all gone. The British lost nearly half their number.

The American colonists now gave the command of their troops to a brave and determined soldier, George Washington. He came of an old family in Virginia, and had long shown

himself to be a man of honor, keen to see what ought to be done, and prompt in carrying out his plans. He was a man of few words, but they were always words of wisdom and prudence; and everyone felt sure that he would never use his position for selfish ends.

The Colonies Declare and Achieve Independence

The American colonists sadly needed a leader like Washington, for the different colonies were very jealous of each other, and many of their officers were at first openly disobedient to the commander, until they came to respect him for his virtues and his strength of character. His army was soon able to compel the British troops to leave

Boston. They then retired to New York, where they received reinforcements from Europe. Many of the new troops who fought on the British side were Germans hired by the Government to fight against British subjects. This and other acts further disgusted the colonists, until at last men representing the thirteen colonies met in a united congress, and declared that they would henceforth be entirely independent of the British Crown (1776). They then and there gave to their lands the name of *The United States of America*.

For a short time the fortune of war favored the British. Canada remained loyal; and an attack which the Americans made on Quebec was a complete failure. Though Washington held his own for a short time, yet his army was quite broken up by a British success at Brandywine Creek. It was a time of great trial for the American cause; and but for Washington's splendid courage and patience the American army would probably have gone to pieces. Even as it was, many of his militiamen deserted and went home after the defeat, and others did the same as soon as their time of service was up. Many of those who remained with the colors were shoeless, half starved, and mutinous. In fact, it needed all Washington's powers of persuasion and command to keep his troops together, through the winter months, in Valley Forge near Philadelphia.

If the British generals had acted vigorously and

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

This gave France the opportunity for which she had been waiting to side with the United States.

She sent help in men and money to them, and also made war on England in Europe and other parts; and when Spain and Holland took sides with the United States, England was overmatched.

Even so, however, the war in America went on with varying fortunes, until another disaster to the British brought it to a close. A British army of 5000 men was surrounded and besieged in Yorktown by 18,000 French and Americans, and by the French fleet, and after a brave resistance the British had to surrender (1781)



American Rifleman

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

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



Independence Bell, which first proclaimed the freedom of the United States. It is sometimes called "Liberty Bell."

this war against her many foes with something like honor (1783).

Great Britain also made peace with the United States and recognized their independence. In other parts of the world she held her own fairly well, and even gained ground in India. Hardly ever had any country fought so many enemies at once, and come out of the struggle so creditably. The loss of the United States was, of course, a hard blow; but it taught Britain this important lesson, that it is best not to interfere too much with the local affairs of her colonists, and to let them manage their own taxation.

The American Civil War

In 1789 the Americans chose as their first president George Washington, the leader who had done so much to win their independence. Under the wise rule of George Washington the new republic was firmly established, and it continued to prosper under later presidents. Settlers pushed farther and farther into the west, and as the country was opened up it grew in wealth and in population. New states were added to the Union from time to time. Each state governed itself, but all were under the sway of the central government at Washington, as the capital of the republic was named.

In most things each state was left free to make laws to suit its own needs. This was a wise plan

in a vast new land, where the laws that would suit one part would not suit another. In course of time factories sprang up in the northern states, while the warm southern states were mostly occupied by planters. In other ways, too, the states differed. In the south the planters complained of the high duties they had to pay on imported goods, while the manufacturers of the north wanted to keep out foreign goods and sell their own at a high price.

But underlying all these jealousies was a deeper quarrel. The cotton estates of the south were worked by black slaves, while in the north all labor was done by free white men. Many in the north wished to set the slaves free, and this raised the anger of the planters.

In the mountains of Virginia, one of the slave states, a brave, simple-minded man named John Brown formed a stronghold for runaway slaves. To get them arms, he went with only twenty-two men to seize the arsenal at Harper's Ferry. After a desperate struggle the gallant band was overwhelmed. John Brown was hanged as a criminal, but, in the words of the well-known song, "his soul goes marching on." The cause for which he gave his life found other champions, and one of these became president in 1861, Abraham Lincoln.

He was a notable man. Tall and ungainly, with his clothes hanging loosely upon him, there was yet something in the deeply-lined face and quiet eyes



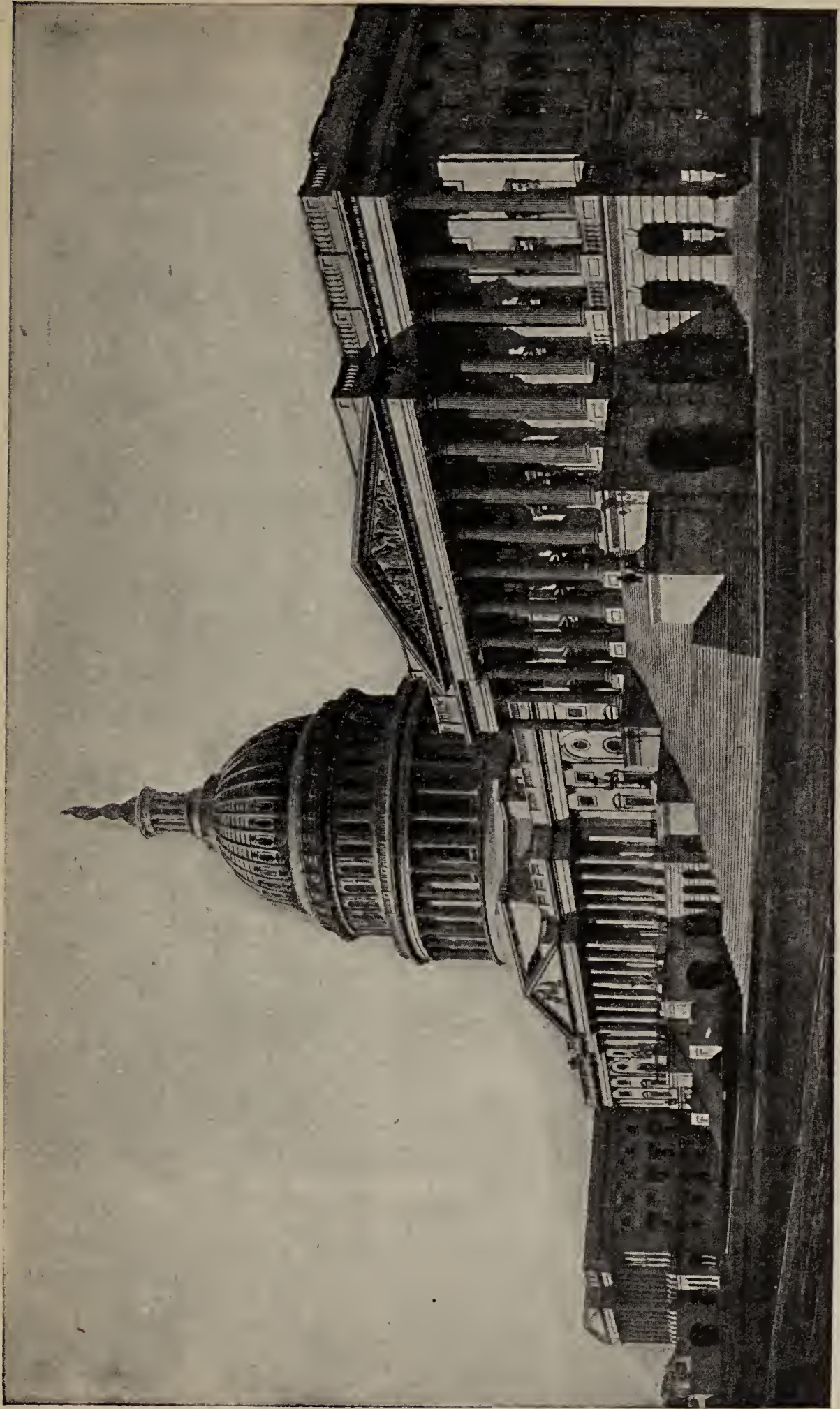
Abraham Lincoln

of Abraham Lincoln that marked him out as a leader. He was a man of the people, full of shrewd wisdom and with a gift of kindly humor that nothing could quench. Born in a log cabin in the backwoods, he had not had more than a year's schooling in his life. He read eagerly and often every book he could lay hands on, but he learned more from the hard school of life. The hand that learned its skill piloting a flatboat down the Mississippi was able in the hour of need to steer the ship of state.

The election of Lincoln, marking the triumph of the anti-slavery party, was the signal for civil war. The southern states broke away from the Union, called themselves the Confederate States of America, and elected a president of their own. They seized a port on the Atlantic, and the war had begun.

It proved to be one of the greatest wars in history, both in the number of men who fought and died and in the vast stretch of country over which it ranged.

The object of Lincoln's generals was to cut off the



THE CAPITOL, WASHINGTON
The seat of the United States Government

southern states from the rest of the world. To this end they sent gunboats down the River Mississippi and also blockaded the Atlantic ports.

The blockading of the ports led to great suffering in England, for it cut off the supplies of raw cotton that were needed for the mills of Lancashire. The English spinners and weavers were in danger of starving. Yet for the sake of the slaves they backed the north against the south, though it was the blockading ships of the north that had thrown them idle.

There were many who wished success to the south. The men of the south were better trained, and they had brilliant leaders. General Lee, the greatest of these, was held in honor by all for his noble character and his skill as a general. "Stone-wall" Jackson won his nickname for his steadfastness, and it was said of him when he fell that his name was worth an army to the southern cause.

Battles were won and lost by both sides. In 1863 Lee was able to carry the war into northern territory, but after a three-days' battle at Gettysburg he had to fall back.

Abraham Lincoln had at first been content to set bounds to the region where slaves might be held. But as the war went on he saw that he must take a bolder course. He issued a proclamation declaring that all slaves captured by the Union armies

were henceforth to be free, and later on he trained and armed them to fight for their own freedom.

General Grant now took command of the armies of the north, and carried the war into Virginia. Round about Richmond, the capital of the south, the two champions, Grant and Lee, fought battle after battle. The loss of life was awful, and while Lee could not find more men to fill



Types of Confederate Soldiers
1, Montgomery True Blue. 2, Field officer of infantry. 3, Washington artillery

up the gaps made by death, Grant was always bringing forward fresh forces from the populous northern states.

Meanwhile the blockade of the coasts made it harder and harder for the southern armies to get supplies. Coffee sold at fifty dollars a pound, and even the wealthy could scarcely afford to buy sugar, butter, and white bread. Northern Georgia, which was the storehouse and workshop of the

southern army, was overrun by Sherman, one of Lincoln's generals. In November, 1864, he made his famous march, so well known in song, "from Atlanta to the sea;" and from there he sent to Lincoln the guns he had captured "as a Christmas gift to the nation."

When, in 1865, Lincoln was inaugurated president for a second term, he felt that the war was nearly over, and the time at hand for binding up the nation's wounds. "With malice towards none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right — as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in."

Richmond was taken. The heroic Lee surrendered. But five days later Abraham Lincoln, the "father of his people," was shot dead by an assassin. He was not spared to "bind up the nation's wounds." But this much he had secured — that the United States were to remain one nation, and that slavery should be no more in the land.

WILLIAM PITT THE YOUNGER**Reduction of Taxation**

We have read of the wonderful way in which William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, restored Britain in 1757-60, after a time of failure and disgrace. His second son, also named William, was to render equally great services, after reverses far more terrible than those which the Earl of Chatham had repaired.

This famous son of a famous father was born in 1759 at Hayes, in Kent. He completed his education at the University of Cambridge, and entered Parliament at an unusually early age. At the time when he entered public life Britain was in a sad state. She was at war with her American colonists and with half the great states of Europe. Ireland was in almost open revolt: a little later England had to make peace with her many foes (1783), and her disasters wrung from the patriotic young Pitt the despairing cry, "The sun of England's glory is set."

Pitt had lately become Chancellor of the Exchequer, and had to do his best to meet the heavy expenses of the wars. His clear and convincing speeches and his straightforward conduct quickly gained him a great name; and in 1784 he took on his shoulders the heavy burden of being prime



William Pitt

minister of George III. Pitt was then a youth of twenty-four years of age, and could get no man of power and experience to work with him. "They are a set of children playing at ministers," said one of his opponents, "and ought to be sent back to school." The current of events at first seemed certain to sweep

him helplessly before it. The country was sullen after its defeats and losses, trade was bad and he had to face a hostile majority in Parliament itself.

Still the young prime minister struggled on, showing that he had faith in his country and confidence in his own powers. On one occasion he said: "I am sure that I can save this country, and that nobody else can." This was no empty boast, but the expression of an able man's confidence in himself; and everyone admired his pluck, his talents, his clear, telling speeches, and, above all, his keen sense of honor. The country had recently been ruled by men whose honesty had not been above suspicion. Now it felt that the spirit of Chatham was breathing again in the acts, speeches,

and patriotism of his son. "He is not a chip of the old block," said one of his admirers; "he is the old block itself." After many reverses in Parliament Pitt at last appealed to the people, and after the general election he had a majority of members to support him.

He had already begun to put the finances in order, and sadly they needed it. The recent wars had added more than \$500,000,000 to the national debt. The taxes were very heavy, and so were the duties on articles which came into the country, or which were exported. Pitt boldly determined to make these duties lighter so as to encourage trade with other countries. He also saw that it would lead to a falling off in smuggling; and it did, for now, when the duties paid at the ports were lighter, smugglers did not find it so profitable as before to run in their cargoes secretly. It was hardly worth the risk of seizure and imprisonment. So honest trade began to improve, and the habits of the coast population also took a turn for the better. To make up for the slight loss to the nation's revenue, he imposed an income tax, which was not to be paid by the poor.

By these wise and far-seeing measures Pitt soon restored England's business prosperity, and he began to reduce the national debt, so as to be able to lessen the taxes still more.

The French Revolution

The French Revolution is the greatest event of modern times, and its spirit is still working in our social and political life. In its progress it shook down thrones and raised up new ones. For twenty-five years it turned Europe into a battlefield, and cost millions of lives and thousands of millions of money.

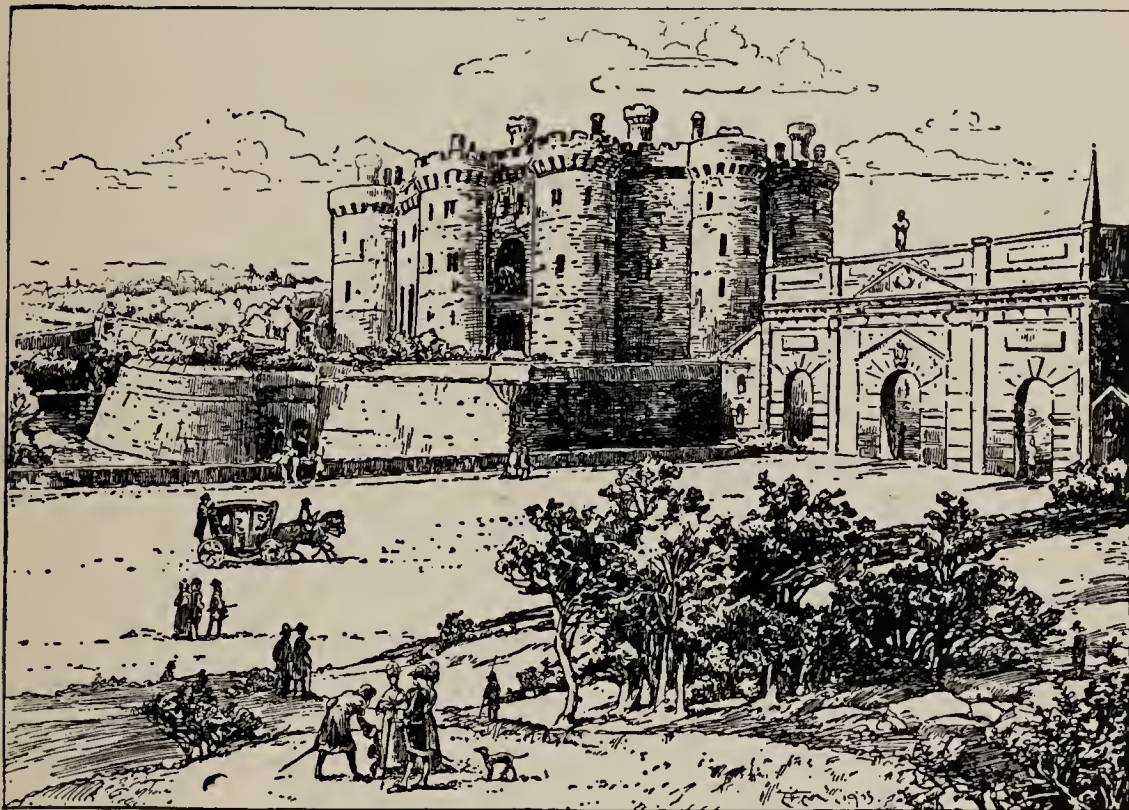
The seeds of this great uprising were sown by the wars of Louis XIV. They left the nation a crushing burden of debt. No breathing space was given to the country to recover, for Louis XV plunged into war with the same recklessness, but with none of the energy of the Grand Monarch. For all this France had to pay the penalty. Her navy was swept from the seas, her colonies were lost, her armies were beaten, and her treasury was empty. The ignoble King of France cared for none of these so long as his own selfish pleasures and vicious tastes were satisfied. But the nation felt deeply their humiliation, and looked on the king and his courtiers with anger and hatred.

All this helped to bring about the great upheaval, but the more direct cause must be looked for in the condition of the people. In France the nobles and the clergy were a privileged class. They owned between them the greater part of the land, and yet they paid practically no taxes to the State. We



ROUGET DE LISLE SINGING THE "MARSEILLAISE"

must remember, too, that in France not only the eldest son of a noble, as with the British, but all the sons retained the rank of their father. In this way the number of nobles, and consequently the



The Bastille, as in the time of Louis XIV

number of non-taxpayers, was yearly increasing. These nobles no longer lived on their land as in the old days. They were “absentee landlords”, who squandered in Paris the money wrung from their poor tenants.

We can hardly credit to-day the way in which these poor people were treated. They had to grind their corn in the mills of their landlord, and bake their bread in his ovens. For all this a heavy

charge was made, which left the tenants very little to themselves. The system of tolls which existed at this time practically stopped the transport of foodstuffs and other goods from place to place. Tolls had to be paid passing along roads, crossing bridges, and entering towns, with the result that goods were so dear when they came to market that nobody would buy them.

The game laws of the time caused in France, as in other countries, the deepest discontent. The claims of hunting were put before the needs of the people. Although wild boer, herds of deer, and other destructive animals abounded, the peasants were forbidden to fence their fields, in order that the huntsmen might have an open run. In many places special laws forbade the weeding of crops and the mowing of hay, lest the young partridges should be disturbed.

To bring all this discontent to a head, a series of bad harvests occurred, and the people in town and country were face to face with famine.

Poor Louis XVI was a kind and well-meaning king, and did his best to bring about a better state of things. But the greed and selfishness of the nobles baffled him at every turn. The storm that was now gathering would have taxed the skill of the strongest king, and Louis XVI was one of the weakest of his line and quite unfit to pilot the ship

of State through the rough water it was now in. No wonder that in the end he made shipwreck of himself, his family, and the State.

In 1789 the king's government, having become hopelessly bankrupt, called in the aid of the people to help it out of its financial difficulties. Representatives of all classes of the people met with the king at Versailles about the beginning of May of that year. No such body, like the English Parliament representing the whole nation, had been seen in France for one hundred and seventy-five years; and its assembling, in view of the general discontent, was the occasion of great excitement. It was soon discovered that the people's representatives were resolved not only on reforming the finances but on the removal of all the other grievances from which the country was suffering. Rumors that the king and nobles were planning to prevent the work of the National Assembly by force led to a great insurrection in Paris, during which the Bastille, an old royal fortress and prison, long regarded as a symbol of the tyranny of the kings, was captured and demolished by the mob. This revolt of Paris was followed by similar risings all over France. Mobs of frightened peasants destroyed the residences of noblemen, and in the towns the king's officers were driven away. The king's troops grew mutinous and refused to attack the people, who



Marie Antoinette

formed companies called "National Guards" for their own protection. In short, the old royal government in France had completely collapsed.

Louis XVI now had to submit to the will of the National Assembly which proceeded to frame a new constitution on the basis of the equality of all citizens before the law. The privileges of the clergy

and nobility were abolished and a form of government which left the king very weak and made the people's representatives all-powerful was established. It looked as if a glorious period of peace and liberty was dawning for the people of France.

But the French nation had so long been ruled by despotic kings that it was impossible for them to learn at once how to govern themselves. Class hatred existed and rival factions appeared which began to contest for control of the government, and soon everything was in confusion. Riots, murders, and other lawless acts occurred frequently and were permitted to go unpunished for fear of offending the "sovereign people." France was drifting into anarchy, that is, complete lawlessness. The king

found his position so intolerable that, with the members of his family, he tried to escape, and had almost reached the German frontier when he was discovered and brought back to Paris.

After this event all confidence in the king was lost and he remained practically a prisoner in the hands of the people of Paris. The Emperor Leopold, brother of the Queen Marie Antoinette, made a threat to come to the rescue of the French royal family, which threw the revolutionists into a panic. The most radical faction now seized control and declared war on the Emperor. They soon deposed the king and declared France a republic.

Between 1792 and 1794 France passed through a most terrible experience, which has been called the

“Reign of Terror.” Royalist factions rebelled against the republican government and nearly all the kings of Europe banded together for the rescue of Louis XVI and the destruction of the revolutionists. The desperate republicans, being in reality but a small minority of the nation, had to rule the country by a system of terror under which every-



Louis XVI

one who was suspected of being connected with the nobility or of being luke-warm in the cause of the revolution was hunted to death. The king and queen and thousands of other "suspects" were executed after sham trials. The country was turned into an armed camp. Food and supplies were forced from the wealthier citizens, fourteen armies were put into the field, all the rebellious were crushed and all the foreign invaders were hurled back across the frontiers. The Reign of Terror finally ended when the republican faction, seeing the danger passed and the nation grown weary of bloodshed, destroyed its own leaders and put a stop to the system of wholesale executions. They kept themselves in power, however, for some time longer by violent methods.

Out of this fearful life and death struggle the Republic developed a wonderful military energy and a group of talented generals, of whom one, Napoleon Bonaparte, soon made himself the dictator of France and of all Europe.

War with France — The Irish Act of Union

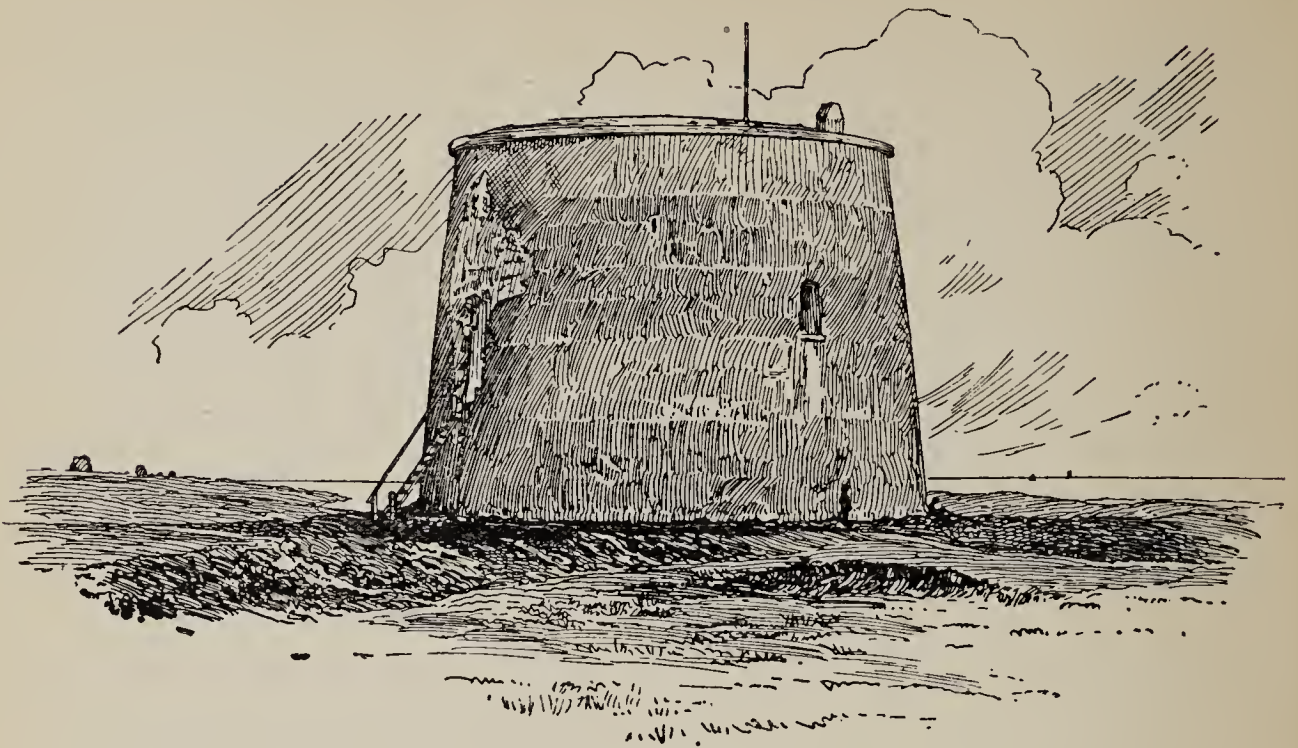
Napoleon Bonaparte was born in Corsica in 1769 and was educated in France. He so distinguished himself in some events of the French Revolution that he was named commander of the French army in Italy. There he defeated the Austrians in eigh-

teen great battles, drove them back to Vienna, and compelled them to make peace with France (1797).

Austria had been Britain's only ally, and now that she was defeated Britain was left alone to face the mighty power of France. It was a terrible time for England. Though her sailors had beaten the French and Dutch fleets, yet they themselves were discontented, and broke out into obstinate mutinies. At last, when the ringleaders were hanged, the men returned to their duty; and under Nelson they soon showed their former devotion and bravery. The rest of these events will be told in the chapters which describe the lives of Nelson and Wellington.

Pitt had to face all these difficulties, as well as troubles in Ireland, where the people were deeply excited by the events of the French Revolution, and desired to overthrow the form of government which then oppressed them. Ever since the conquest of Ireland by William III, the Protestants there had kept the Roman Catholics in a state of subjection. This led to bitter feelings, and in 1798 a fierce rebellion broke out, which was put down with terrible bloodshed by the governing classes.

Pitt saw that this state of things must be ended; and in 1800 he passed the Act of Union, whereby the Irish members of Parliament were to sit with the British Parliament at Westminster, and the same laws were to hold good for Ireland as for



A Martello Tower

Great Britain. He knew that while the Irish Protestants held power over there, the Roman Catholics would not have fair play. He also hoped to pass a measure for giving to all Roman Catholics the same rights as the Protestants had. But George III was very angry at this last proposal, and Pitt had to resign (1801). This was very unfortunate, as Pitt was needed just then more than ever; but he had pledged his word to get justice done to the Roman Catholics, and as the king would not let it be done, Pitt felt that he must resign office.¹

The next ministry was a very weak one. Peace was made with France on unfavorable terms, but even so it did not last. Napoleon had become almost

¹Not till 1829 did Roman Catholics get the right of sitting in Parliament and other political rights.

complete master of France, and he seemed bent on provoking Britain to war again. After war broke out, everyone felt that Pitt alone could manage affairs, and he became prime minister again (1804).

Napoleon now became Emperor of the French, and he seemed determined to invade and conquer England. He assembled a great army of 120,000 men on the cliffs at Boulogne, and prepared a fleet of some 1200 small vessels and flat-bottomed row-boats to take them over the Straits of Dover. The British were much alarmed, and Pitt organized a national defense. In every town and village men began to form bands of volunteers. Beacons were piled upon the hilltops of Kent so as to flash the news of any landing of the foe; and martello towers¹ were built on those parts of the coast between Suffolk and Sussex where a landing might be made.

Besides this, all sailors were on the alert; and they defeated every attempt of the French to get command of the English Channel.

Napoleon, finding his plan to be useless, suddenly broke up his camp at Boulogne, marched his troops against those of Austria, and by terrible defeats again compelled her to sign a disastrous peace. This news crushed Pitt's health and spirits. He had hoped that the great States of Europe would conquer Napoleon; but now he said to his attendants, "Roll up that map of Europe, it will not be

¹ Round towers, armed with guns and manned by a small garrison.

wanted these ten years." The prophecy was to come strangely true. The dying statesman saw that Europe would for a long time be subject to Napoleon. His keen foresight detected the greater disasters yet to come, and the truth crushed him. His sunken cheek and hollow eyes told that death was drawing nigh, and his release from the troubles of life was to him a merciful deliverance. Yet his last thoughts wandered off to the land which he had loved so well, and his last words were, " My country, how I leave my country! "

LINES OF SIR WALTER SCOTT ON THE DEATH
OF PITT

Hadst thou but lived, though stripped of power,
A watchman on the lonely tower,
Thy thrilling trump had roused the land
When fraud or danger was at hand.
By thee as by the beacon-light
Our pilots had kept course aright;
As some proud column, though alone,
Thy strength had propped the tottering throne.
Now is the stately column broke,
The beacon light is quenched in smoke,
The trumpet's silver sound is still,
The warder silent on the hill.

LORD NELSON

Pitt, Nelson, and Wellington — these were the men who served their country best during the great war with France. Pitt was the statesman who guided his country's councils, Nelson gained for her the mastery of the seas, and Wellington did more than any other man to overthrow Napoleon's power.

Horatio Nelson was the son of the rector of Burnham, in Norfolk, and was born there in 1758. He was weak and delicate in body, but in boyhood, as in the rest of his life, he seemed never to know what fear was. Once, at the end of holidays, his elder brother and he set out to return to school on their ponies. The snow was so deep that they turned back home; but their father bade them go through it to school, with the parting words, "Remember, boys, that I leave it to your honor". That was enough for the young Horatio. He urged his pony on through the deep snow, saying to his brother, "Remember, brother, it was left to our honor."

He showed the same spirit when he entered the navy. He hated its hard and cruel rules; but he began to like the life when he went on adventurous voyages. One of these was in the Arctic Ocean, and Nelson here also showed his courage. He and a comrade secretly left the ship to pursue a bear over the ice. His musket missed fire and he was in great danger, had not a cannon, fired from the

ship, frightened the bear away. When he was afterwards rebuked by the captain he merely said, "Sir, I wished to kill the bear that I might take the skin to my father."

In due course he became captain; and when the great war with France began, he commanded a warship in the Mediterranean. During the siege of a town in Corsica, where he commanded a British battery, a French cannon ball struck the ground near him and drove some sand up into one of his eyes, so that for ever after he lost sight in that eye.

The first great sea fight in which he took part was that of Cape St. Vincent (1797). Nelson's fleet numbered fifteen ships of the line and four frigates. That of the Spaniards was about twice as strong; but Nelson's men were brave, skilled, and fully confident. The English ships threw the Spanish fleet into confusion, and the men of Nelson's ship jumped on board an enemy's ship, which was closely locked with his, and captured it. Nelson was not content with this, but called to his men to take another large Spanish ship close by. Inspiring his men by the words, "Victory, or Westminster Abbey!" he leaped on it, and soon the Union Jack replaced the Spanish flag at the masthead of this second prize. For this exploit the British Admiral Jervis embraced Nelson, and said he could not thank him enough.

Nelson was not always successful. He failed in

attacks on Cadiz and on Teneriffe; and at the latter place his right arm was torn off by a cannon ball. A little later he was sent to blockade the French fleet in Toulon, but during a storm it managed to get out, and sailed for Malta and Egypt; for the plan of the ambitious young Bonaparte was to conquer Egypt, and then go on to drive the British from India.



Admiral Nelson

Nelson put a stop to these designs. After searching the east of the Mediterranean for the French fleet, he came up with it as it lay at anchor near a shoal, and not far from the mouth of the river Nile. It was near sunset, but Nelson determined to attack at once. He sent his ships in two lines, so as to sail along the enemy's line and conquer it bit by bit.

Darkness quickly drew on, but the whole scene was lit up by the flashes from the guns. The leading French ships quickly had their masts shot away, and soon their largest ship, *L'Orient*, caught fire. The flames spread with fearful rapidity,

throwing a lurid light on the desperate combat, and when the fire reached her powder magazine the gallant ship blew up. A British captain who was present thus described the scene: "An awful pause and deathlike silence ensued, until the wreck of the masts and yards, which had been carried to a vast height, fell down into the water and on board the neighboring ships". After this the firing went on for five hours, till out of the seventeen French ships only four escaped.

Napoleon's troops had conquered Egypt, but the destruction of their fleet now cut them off from France. After a time Napoleon succeeded in escaping to France, but his army had to surrender to the English troops two years later, and Egypt was given back to Turkey. Nelson also took Malta from the French. So, instead of the French driving the English from India, they became stronger than ever before in the Mediterranean.

In 1801 Nelson again delivered England from a great danger. Russia, Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark had formed a league against her. Britain was without any ally and was still at war with France, Spain, and Holland. But Admirals Parker and Nelson at once sailed with a great fleet to Copenhagen, so as to seize the mouth of the Baltic, and beat the Danes before the Russians and Prussians could help them. Off Copenhagen there was a long and obstinate battle between Nelson's ships

and the Danish batteries and armed hulks. At one time it seemed that Nelson must be beaten, and Parker gave the signal to recall him and his ships. But Nelson, in his determination to fight on, put his telescope to his blind eye, exclaiming, "I really do not see the signal. Keep mine for closer battle flying. That's the way I answer such signals. Nail mine to the mast."

The Danes, however, had had enough of it, and Nelson, seeing this, sent a flag of truce with a mes-

sage that the brave Danes were the brothers, and should never be enemies, of the British. A truce was made, and Parker and Nelson, after repairing their ships, sailed on towards St. Petersburg. But the Czar of Russia, who had been so hostile, had been murdered by his own officers; and the new Czar wanted peace, which was soon concluded (1801).

For a short time there was also peace with France; but Napoleon's acts made peace impossible,



English Sailor of the Period

and war began again in 1803. Nelson was sent to blockade a large French fleet in Toulon and prevent it from sailing away and helping their army to cross from Boulogne to Kent. He spent many weary months cruising off Toulon, and was quite worn out by the unceasing service. At last the French fleet put to sea while Nelson's ships were away. When at last Nelson found out the enemy's course, he chased them across the Atlantic and prevented their doing much harm in the West Indian Islands. He next discovered that they meant to sail back to the English Channel, and he sent fast-sailing ships to warn the British government of their intentions. So that plan of the French came to naught.

Finally he came up with the French and Spanish fleets off Cape Trafalgar. They had thirty-three ships of the line and eight frigates, while Nelson's fleet numbered only twenty-seven ships of the line and four frigates. But his men were well trained, and were devoted to their leader; and when Nelson hoisted as his signal, "England expects that every man will do his duty," all the crews received it with a ringing cheer.

The British ships, sailing in two columns, soon broke through and disordered the enemy's line. The French and Spaniards fought stubbornly, and Nelson's ship, the *Victory*, suffered terribly. A musket shot fired from the mast of a French ship pierced Nelson's back, and he fell. When taken

below he would not let the doctor attend to him, but bade him see to the wounded men whose lives could be saved. No human skill could save him, and his life slowly ebbed away. He lived just long enough to know that his fleet had gained a complete victory, and his last words were: "Thank God, I have done my duty."

Twenty of the French ships surrendered; and this great victory of Trafalgar (October, 1805) made Britain mistress of the seas more than ever she had been before. In return for Nelson's bravery and devotion to his country, Britain reared him a monument in St. Paul's Cathedral and the great column in Trafalgar Square in London. No admiral ever was more kindly to his men, or more daring or successful in battle; and Britain counts him as the greatest of her naval heroes.

WELLINGTON**Sir Arthur Wellesley in India**

Arthur Wellesley, who was afterwards made Duke of Wellington, was born in Ireland in 1769, the same year in which his great antagonist, Napoleon, was born. Wellesley came of a noble and talented family, his father being well known for his fondness of music. The family was poor, and only with difficulty was Arthur, the third son, sent to the great school at Eton.

There he showed himself a bright, spirited lad, fond of all manly games. Indeed, he afterwards said that Waterloo was won on the play-ground at Eton. He meant that Englishmen became strong by taking part in football and cricket, and so were able to hold out long and to beat their foes in warfare.

He spent a short time at a military school in France, and in due course he entered the army. He first saw active service in Flanders in 1794, when he was captain in a regiment. A small British army there was fighting the French; but the British were too few in number, they were also badly led, and received little assistance from their Prussian and Austrian allies. The British troops had to retreat before the victorious French in the midst of very severe wintry weather.

Thus the first experience of the young captain was very trying. Yet he did not lose heart, even when men were dropping beside him from hunger and the intense cold. He did his best to keep his men together, and to protect the rear of the army, till it was taken on board ship and was brought back to England.

Soon afterwards Wellesley was sent with his regiment to India. A friend there thus describes him: "He was a handsome and most soldier-like man, with an eye that looked you through and through. He was cheerful and free of speech among his friends, but rather reserved in general society. He would often sit silent for an hour together in a corner of the great hall at Calcutta, and then would pace up and down the room with quick, impatient steps. It was quite evident that he longed for something to do."

He soon had plenty to do. There was then an able and powerful ruler in the south of India called Tippoo, who was hoping, with the help of the French, to drive the British out of India. Tippoo had about 70,000 native troops, while the British army did not number more than 20,000 men.

It seemed very risky to attempt to capture his strong city of Seringapatam against these odds, yet it was done. A breach was battered in the wall by British cannon. Soldiers rushed up through the breach, and after a fearful struggle the place was



Sir Arthur Wellesley,
afterwards Duke of
Wellington

taken (1799). Wellesley distinguished himself by his bravery all through the fighting, and then kept order among his men when they began to plunder the conquered city. Tippoo was killed, and since that time there has been no trouble in Southern India.

Wellesley's next great exploits were against the warlike Mahrattas. When we read about Warren Hastings, we saw that the Mahrattas were bands of horsemen who had plundered a great part of India, had formed powerful states, and had then threatened British rule in that country. They were in 1800 quite as dangerous as they had been in the time of Warren Hastings.

Wellesley was now made a general, and he advanced against a force of Mahrattas which was nearly eight times as large as his own. Still, he remembered Plassey, and did not despair. He met his foes at Assaye. Their cannon dealt death among the thin British lines, until the British troops were

near enough to rush on with the bayonet and drive back their valiant foes. Then a charge of horsemen completed the victory, which scattered the Mahrattas and led to the capture of ninety of their cannon (1803).

Again, in the same year, Wellesley routed the Mahrattas, and they were glad to make peace. Thus he completed the work which Clive and Warren Hastings had begun. The British merchants at Bombay were so delighted with Wellesley's victories that they gave him an ornamented sword worth £1000; and Parliament thanked him for his brilliant services in India.

Wellesley Commands in the Peninsula and Becomes Duke of Wellington

But Wellesley was to win far greater fame in wars in Europe against the French.

While Wellesley was strengthening British rule in India, Napoleon Bonaparte had been making himself master of France, and in 1804 he was crowned Emperor of the French in the great cathedral at Paris. Again there was war between Britain and France, which soon involved all Europe. Though Nelson drove the French off the seas, yet Napoleon's armies were so splendidly led that they defeated the Austrians, the Russians, and the Prussians in several great battles. In 1807

Napoleon was almost completely master of the Continent. It seemed as though Britain was to be mistress of the seas, but Napoleon was to be master of the land. Indeed, he hoped that he would be able to ruin British trade, and so compel Britain to accept peace on any terms. Thus the war became a life-and-death struggle to the people.

The French Emperor had resolved to have Spain under his control. His troops occupied most of the strong places in that land, and by mean tricks he kidnapped the King of Spain and kept him a captive in France. The Spaniards are a very proud people, and were determined to drive out the French troops. Spain begged Britain to help her in this desperate struggle, and Wellesley was sent out with a small force.

Wellesley landed in Portugal and beat back an attack of the French; but then the command was taken from him by older officers, who had just landed, and easy terms were granted to the enemy. Still, the French had to leave Portugal; and it had been shown that when the British were well led they could beat the famous French troops (1808).

In the next year Wellesley for the first time met the brave French Marshal Soult, with whom he had so many battles. The French, after delay caused by Sir John Moore, whose brilliant retreat to Corunna drew them off to the north, had invaded the north of Portugal, and now occupied the important



THE EVENING OF THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO

From the painting by Ernest Crofts, R.A., in the Walker Art Gallery, Liverpool

city of Oporto.

Wellesley's army rapidly marched against them, quickly crossed the broad River Douro in boats, surprised Soult's army, put it to flight and captured all its baggage, stores, and cannon. He afterwards wrote that, if there had been but one more hour of daylight, his men would have captured all



Types of British Soldiers in the Peninsular War

Soult's forces in a difficult pass through the mountains. As it was, the French only just managed to escape into Spain.

Wellesley gained another victory in that year, 1809, namely, the battle of Talavera. It was a long and desperate battle, fought on hilly ground near the banks of the Tagus. The British were then helped by the Spaniards, but these could not be relied on to do any more than stand firm behind the walls and among the orchards of olive trees

where Wellesley placed them. The 50,000 French attacked 20,000 British men who stood in the open. At one time they nearly broke through their line, and only by a splendid charge of a British regiment was the French attacking column thrust back and the victory won. As a reward for his skill and valor Wellesley received the title of Viscount Wellington, and a few years later he was called Duke of Wellington. We shall now in the rest of this narrative call him by his title, Wellington.

The heat of the Spanish midsummer told fearfully on Wellington's men, and yet the Spaniards would spare them hardly any food. As other French forces were approaching, Wellington retreated down the Tagus, and left the Spaniards to gain wisdom by being beaten. He felt that he could no longer work with allies who always would have things done in their own way, whose promises were nearly always broken, and who sometimes plundered the British stores. By the end of 1809 the Spaniards were defeated by the French nearly everywhere. Still they would not give in, but tried to tire out the French by warfare among the mountains.

The French Driven from the Peninsula

In 1810 Napoleon had no enemies to fight except the British, Spanish, and Portuguese troops, and he hoped to be able quickly to end the Peninsular

War. He sent a great army of his best troops into Spain, led by one of his ablest generals. On it swept through Spain, and drove Wellington's smaller army before it through the north of Portugal. But Wellington fiercely turned to bay on the steep ridge of Busaco, and beat back two brave attempts of the French veterans to seize the summit.

But, by a movement of the French army against his unprotected flank, Wellington was obliged to fall back on a still stronger position, a few miles to the north of Lisbon. There he had ordered great lines of earthworks to be made, which were called the lines of Torres Vedras. They were made along the tops of the hills which stretch from the sea to the banks of the broad and deep river Tagus. Five hundred cannon defended them, and Wellington had made the Portuguese peasants bring all their cattle, sheep, and corn inside these lines. As he could also get supplies from ships which came to Lisbon, he hoped to be able to defend these lines, to have plenty of food for his troops, and to starve out the French from the desolate country north of the lines. His plan was completely successful.

When the French commander came within sight of the lines, he was dismayed at their strength. For several days he tried to find a weak place in them, but it was all in vain. His army soon began to be in want of food. The rains of autumn came

on in torrents. His men began to fall sick; and before very long he had to lead his army back out of Portugal, with a loss of 30,000 men. He had been ordered by Napoleon to drive the British into the sea; but his failure only showed the bravery of the soldiers and the skill of Wellington.

In 1812 the French Emperor collected a great army of more than half a million of men, and led them into Russia, so as to subdue that vast land. He reached Moscow, but the Russians burned their own city, and he had to retreat, and lost nearly all that great army in the winter snows. As Napoleon had recalled a good number of his troops from Spain to serve him in Russia, Wellington had not such odds to fight against in Spain during the campaign of 1812.

One of the younger French generals also gave Wellington an opportunity of striking quick and hard. The French had been making rapid marches to cut the British off from the fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo; but near Salamanca part of their army marched rather too far from the rest of it. Wellington saw their mistake, and joyfully exclaimed, "Now I have them." He at once ordered his men to seize strong positions which would cut the French forces asunder.

For a time there was fierce fighting on the hills near Salamanca. When the French commander was badly wounded, another of their generals took

his place, and skillfully drew up his shattered forces for another struggle. But the British troops, flushed with victory, rushed at them, drove them away in complete disorder, and took about 7000 prisoners.

This great victory at Salamanca made the French give up their hold on Madrid and retreat towards the river Ebro. Wellington led his army into the Spanish capital amidst the wild rejoicings of the people, who for four years had been oppressed by the French.

All the people of Madrid poured into the streets to welcome their British deliverers. Flags fluttered from the windows, tapestry was hung on the balconies, men and women dressed in their gayest attire waved their handkerchiefs and shouted, "Long live Wellington!" Green boughs, flowers, and shawls were strewn before his horse's feet, and people clung to his stirrups to show their devotion. When Wellington, later on, wanted to walk about quietly, he could hardly move for the crowds that thronged about him, and even when he and his officers went out at nightfall, dressed in plain overcoats, they were recognized, and men and women flocked up to greet and even to embrace the great general.

But soon the French were able to bring up more troops, and Wellington had to fall back, if he was to save his army. Next year he commanded a large



Medal commemorating Wellington's Entry into Madrid

force of Spaniards as well as British soldiers, and, moving rapidly forward, he drove back the French from one place to another. At Vittoria he completely defeated them, taking all their stores, money, and cannon. He then drove them over the Pyrenees,

and forced them to give up their hold on Spain.

The battles of the Pyrenees were fought and won high up on the slopes of those great mountains, where only the wild goat and the eagle are wont to be seen. The mountain mists of that autumn season chilled the soldiers as they lay at night with scant covering on the cheerless rocks; and it was with joy that they pursued Soult's soldiers down the northern slopes of the mountains and entered the sunny plains of France.

The End of the Great War

Wellington was careful to prevent his men from plundering the French peasants. He said: "I care not much whether I command a large or a small army, but it must obey me; and above all, it must not plunder." Soon the peasants found out

that they were better treated by British soldiers than by their own. Wellington gained two more successes over his adversary, Soult; but then the war came to a speedy end, for the following reason.

The other peoples of Europe, especially the Germans had risen against Napoleon's rule, had chased his armies from their land, and had just captured Paris. The French were weary of war. Napoleon gave up his crown, and the victorious allies determined that he should now rule only over the small island of Elba, just off the coast of Italy. So he had to go there, and Europe had peace for a few months.

But there was much discontent in France against the ruler who took Napoleon's place, and when the allies began to quarrel among themselves, Napoleon saw his chance. He secretly took ship, and with a few troops landed on the coast of France. His old soldiers soon flocked to his side, and he became Emperor of the French for a short time again. But other nations knew that there would be no peace while he was in power, and troops began to march from Prussia, Austria, and Russia to dethrone him.

Britain also sent an army to Belgium, under the command of Wellington, who now, for the first time, met the great Napoleon in battle. The French Emperor hoped to surprise Wellington's army and that



French Officer at Penin-
sular War

of the Prussians before they were ready. He nearly succeeded, and, flinging a great French force against the Prussian allies at Ligny, he defeated them and drove them back.

On that same day another desperate battle was going on at Quatre Bras, only a few miles away from Ligny. Wellington's men there had very hard work to keep their position from being seized by the French, who plied them with cannon shot, and tried in vain to cut them up by cavalry charges. At last, when they were reinforced, the French drew off, but Wellington had

to fall back on a position at Waterloo, nearer Brussels, so as to keep in touch with his Prussian allies.

Wellington, with 69,000 men, of whom only one-third were British, now stood face to face at Waterloo with Napoleon's army, which numbered at least 75,000 well-trained soldiers. Many of Wellington's men were raw and undisciplined, and he trusted to the help which Blücher's Prussians would bring in the coming battle. Napoleon

believed that a French force, which he had sent to pursue the Prussians, would prevent them from joining Wellington.

The battle of Waterloo opened with a heavy cannonade. Then the French columns marched down their slope to attack the middle of Wellington's long line, posted on the rising ground opposite. As the blue French columns pressed up, they were charged by English, Scotch, and Irish horsemen, and were hurled back in great disorder. The British troops, hotly pursuing them, rode up the French slope and sabred many of the enemy's gunners; but their zeal carried them too far, and they were cut up by a charge of heavy French cavalry.

Again the French pressed forward, but were beaten off by the steady fire of Wellington's best troops. Then Napoleon, seeing the Prussians begin to appear afar off, let his cavalry be used in order to gain the victory speedily before the Prussians came up. So 10,000 French horsemen, clad in their gay uniforms, or glittering in their steel cuirasses, began to charge at the red British squares. It seemed as though the weight of these famous cavalry regiments must break up the squares, but the British troops stood their ground, while charge after charge surged around; and after two hours the French cavalry fell back, beaten and exhausted.

But the British troops had suffered frightfully from the cannonade and from these many attacks,

and Wellington looked often and anxiously for the Prussians to help him. When they came up, Napoleon had to turn part of his army to face his new foe. As the shades of evening began to fall, the French made a last great effort to win the day. Their best troops, called the Old Guard, advanced in two great columns to pierce Wellington's line; but his men were ready for them, met them with terrible volleys, and drove them into the valley. Then Wellington gave to his impatient troops the long-expected order to advance; and his men, aided by the Prussians, drove the French away in headlong rout.

Napoleon fled for his life to Paris. There he again abdicated, and was soon taken on a British warship to the lonely island of St. Helena. Then, thanks to Wellington and Blücher, Europe had peace, which lasted for forty years. (Map in Appendix.)

Wellington lived to a good old age, respected and beloved by his people. He died in 1852.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

James Watt and the Steam Engine

At the beginning of the thirteenth century Britain was still chiefly an agricultural country. At its close it had become the workshop of the world. The explanation of this is to be found in the great developments that took place in the mining of coal and iron, and in the flood of inventions that marked the period.

The mining of iron and other minerals was much retarded by the lack of sufficient fuel, because men had not learned the use of coal for smelting, and the supply of charcoal from the forests was running short. At length ironmasters discovered that coal was an excellent substitute for charcoal for smithy work, and soon afterwards it was found that malleable iron could be made with coal by means of the puddling process. At once the iron industry went up with leaps and bounds.

The spinning jenny of Hargreaves, the water frame of Arkwright, the mule of Crompton, and the power loom of Cartwright brought about a revolution in the cotton trade, and made Lancashire the greatest hive of industry the world has ever seen.

At first water power was generally used to work the new spinning machines and power looms, but



James Watt

a still more powerful driving agent was about to be harnessed for the service of mankind. With its introduction is associated the great name of James Watt.

James Watt, who did so much to improve the steam engine, was born in 1736 at Greenock, a seaport at the mouth of the river Clyde. He was a

delicate child, but he soon showed that he had great powers of thought and of reasoning. He was also fond of tools, and of trying to improve all his playthings. His father wisely encouraged this.

It is said that the boy once amused himself with making experiments on the steam which came from the boiling kettle on the hob, and that, by using a cup and a spoon, he found out how the steam could be condensed and become water again. Whether that be true or not, it is certain that he early made many experiments, some of which were with chemicals; and, by helping his father with the ropes and sails and ship's tackle, he grew to be clever with his hands.

It was soon decided that he should be a maker of instruments, such as compasses, parallel rulers,

and the like. He went to Glasgow, and then to London, where he lived very sparingly on eight shillings a week. In the war time (1756) he was afraid of being forced by the press-gang to go into the royal navy. He therefore returned to Glasgow, where he was employed in making instruments for the University.

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

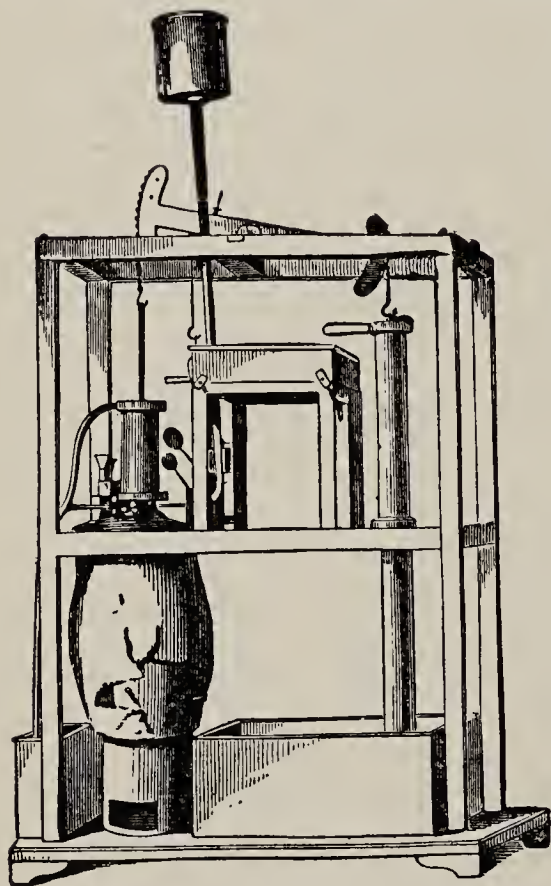
The old engines had mostly been used for pumping water out of mines; and Watt, in 1775, went to the tin mines of Cornwall to improve the engines there. It was slow and hard work, for the miners there did not at first like his new invention; but in a few years he altered nearly all the steam engines in Cornwall. Later on he made an engine to work a great hammer which would give three hundred blows a minute — a thing never dreamt of before. This and many other contrivances of his gained him a wide reputation; and when he went to Paris he was

received by the learned men of that gay city, and had many talks with them about scientific improvements and discoveries.

After 1800 his steam engine could be used by anyone, and many improvements were made on it; so that it began to be used more and more for working all kinds of machinery in the new large factories of the Midlands and the North. Watt now retired from active business life, but his advice was eagerly sought for all kinds of projects, and to the end of his long life he was glad to give it. He gave his mind to the subject of making a steam-

boat, and a steam engine which would draw a carriage; but the honor of these inventions was to fall to others.

His great stores of knowledge and his genial kindly ways made him a most interesting companion. A lady has thus described him in his later years: "He had a broad Scottish accent, and gentle, modest, and unassuming manners. Yet, when he entered a room, men of letters, men of science, military men, artists, la-



Model of Newcomen's Engine. A type of pumping engine used in Watt's early days.

dies, and even little children, thronged around him. Ladies would appeal to him on the best means of planning grates, curing smoky chimneys, warming their houses, and getting durable colors. I can speak from experience of his teaching me how to make a dulcimer and improve a jews' harp."

He received honors from the University of Glasgow, and from other learned bodies of our own and of other lands, and full of years and of honors he died in 1819, much respected by all who knew him, and by the far wider circle of those who valued his many important inventions.

George Stephenson and the Locomotive

About eight miles west of Newcastle-on-Tyne there is a mining village called Wylam. There, in a humble cottage, was born George Stephenson in the year 1781. He was the second son of a poor fireman, who earned only twelve shillings a week, and had a struggle to bring up his children. Little George had a hard time of it. He was ill-clad and poorly fed, and soon had to mind his four younger brothers and sisters.

One of his chief duties was to keep them from being run over by the wagons of coal which were drawn by horses on a railway just in front of their cottage. There was then no thought of getting the coal wagons drawn by a steam engine; for, as we

saw in last chapter, the steam engine of those days was a clumsy contrivance, which was only used for pumping water out of mines. For a long time George's father was the fireman who looked after the fires of the pumping engine at the Wylam coal mine.

The boy's first employment was to look after the cows of a widow who lived near his home, for which he was paid twopence a day. He had a fair amount of spare time, and he used it in making clay models of the steam engine. He and a friend of his even made a large model of the winding machine which drew loads up the pit; and great was their grief when some stupid persons smashed it.

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

When he was twenty-one years of age he married,

and settled at a village on the river Tyne, a little below Newcastle. Still he kept on trying to improve himself, and spent his evenings in his own home, reading and thinking about machinery and inventions. After a few years he moved to Killingworth colliery, not far off; but



George Stephenson

his life there was saddened by the death of his young wife.

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

In 1812 he was appointed engineer of the Killingworth coal mine, with a salary of £100 a year. He spent most of this money, and of what else he could earn, in giving a good education to his only

son, Robert; for he said that he felt the need of it in himself, and was determined that his son should not labor under the same defect.

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

Stephenson felt sure that he could make an engine which would do its work cheaply and well. The chief owner of the mine, Lord Ravensworth, believed in him, and helped him to begin making a "traveling engine," as it was called. He did his best; but his first engine (1814) was not a success. It dragged some trucks along at four miles an hour, but it cost quite as much as horses in doing the same amount of work.

George had always been very observant. He now saw what a waste of steam there was always hissing away from his engine; and he thought to

himself, "If I can make that steam do more work, my engine will be more powerful." He therefore let the steam escape up the smoke chimney. It drove out the smoke far more quickly, and thus gave a better draught to the furnace, which burnt more brightly and so made steam faster.

Next year (1815) Stephenson made an engine which had this great improvement and several others. His new engine drew a heavy train of coal trucks at six miles an hour, and was found to do the work more cheaply than horses could do it. Shortly afterwards he made a railway in Durham eight miles long, on which his engines dragged the coal trucks to the banks of the river Wear.

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

In 1821 a new chance turned up for Stephenson, and he made the most of it. Mr. Pease of Darlington was planning a railway to take coal from the coal mines near that town to the sea below Stockton-on-Tees. When Stephenson heard that the railway was about to be made, he and a friend went to call on Mr. Pease, and told him that the new engine at Killingworth colliery was worth fifty horses. His reasoning so convinced Mr. Pease that it was decided that Stephenson's engines should be used on the new railway.

At last came the day for opening the Stockton and Darlington railway. Crowds of people assembled, for many of them expected to see Stephenson's engine blow up. Stephenson was there to drive his new engine, and it drew a long train at the rate of about twelve miles an hour, which was thought most wonderful.

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

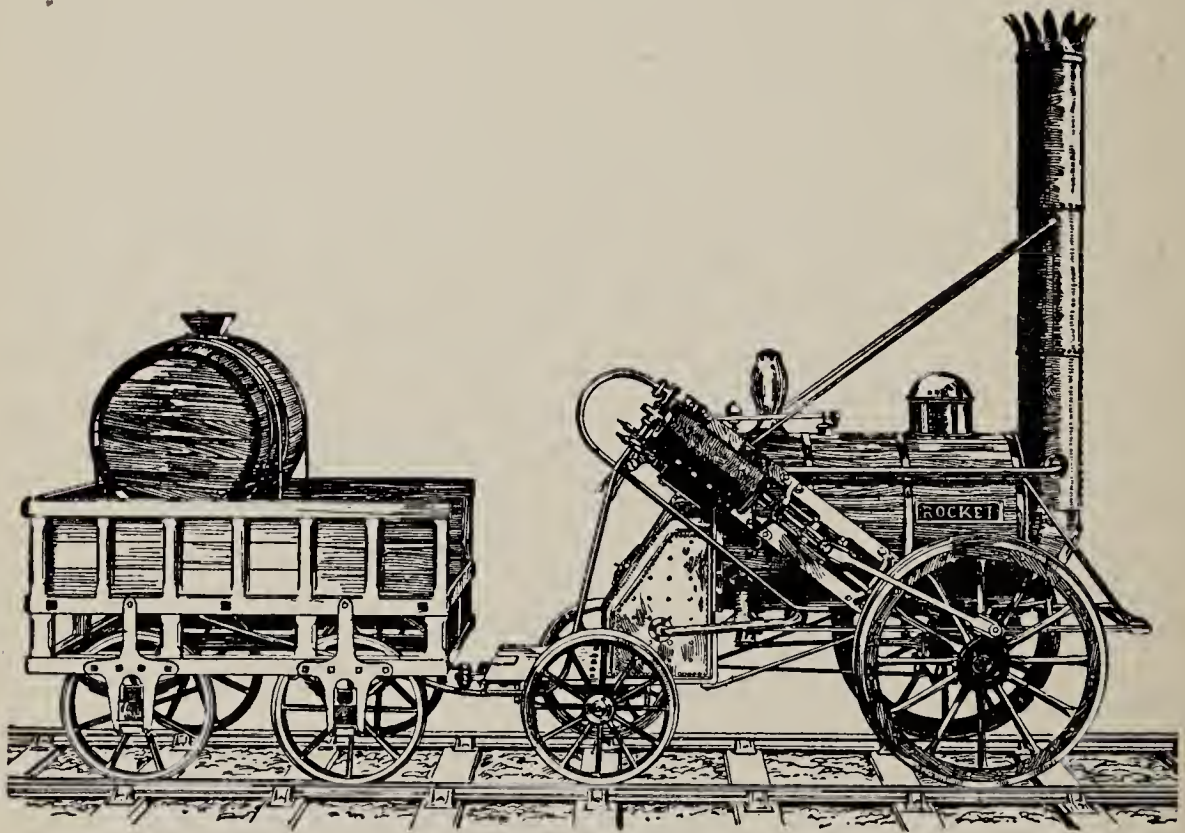
The business men of Manchester heard about the success of this railway, and wanted to have a line between Manchester and Liverpool, so as to

travel by it and get their goods more quickly. They appointed George Stephenson as engineer for their railway, and he had the help of his well-trained son, Robert. All sorts of people opposed the scheme. Farmers said that it would ruin their farms, that the noise of the engines would prevent cows' grazing and hens' laying eggs. Country gentlemen said that it would scare away all foxes and pheasants; and the ignorant rustics came out and attacked with pitchforks the men who measured the ground for the railway. The engineers had to hire prizefighters to protect themselves and their men; sometimes they had guns fired a long way off, so as to draw gamekeepers off the scent.

Then there was a tunnel to be made under part of Liverpool, and not far from Manchester a firm track had to be made across a great bog called Chat-Moss. But the courage and patience of the Stephensons conquered all these difficulties.

Next there was to be a race on the line, to see which of the different engines planned for the line was the best. Stephenson's engine, the Rocket, was far the best, for the others kept breaking down. The prize of \$2,500, offered by the directors to the maker of the best engine, was therefore given to Stephenson; and at the public opening of the line, in 1825, a passenger train was drawn at the speed of about thirty miles an hour. The world then knew that the patient Northumbrian was a really

great man, and that his iron horse was henceforth to be the king of the road. George Stephenson and his son had a share in making many other important railways. Among the great achievements of Robert Stephenson we may mention the high-level bridge across the Tyne at Newcastle, the tubular bridges across the Conway River and the Menai Straits, and the immensely long tubular bridge across the river St. Lawrence at Montreal.



The Rocket

THE GREAT REFORM BILL AND AFTER

The Need for Reform

Some of you have no doubt seen the change which has come over the life of a quiet old village when a great factory has been started there, or when a coal-mine has been sunk near by, or when a railway company has opened a station within easy reach of it. The steady-going village, with its humdrum, old-world ways, is rudely awakened. The whirr of machinery, or the rush of express trains, breaks the calm of rural life. The smoke of chimneys sullies the pure air, great heaps of slag begin to cover the meadows, and lines of new cottages branch out on all sides.

Now that will show you, on a small scale, the change which has been taking place on a very great scale in many parts of England and Scotland during the last hundred years. Before the time of Arkwright, Watt, and Stephenson there were no factories driven by steam power; but after their time it became more and more the custom to make great factories where coal was abundant. So people began to move away from the quiet towns and villages of the east and south of England to the new manufacturing towns which sprang up in the north and Midlands; for men have to move to the place where they can get work.



An Election Scene in the Eighteenth Century
After Hogarth

Thus there grew up rapidly, in the years 1790-1830, a new, smoky, grimy, manufacturing England side by side with the old pastoral and agricultural England. And yet the new towns of England and Scotland, though they were growing large and prosperous, had scarcely any voice in the government of the country; that is to say, hardly any of them could send members to Parliament to make laws, and to have their interests looked after. The old rural England still governed the new manufacturing England.

Many places which once had been prosperous, but had decayed, still had the right of electing

members of Parliament. One place, Old Sarum, near Salisbury, was only a deserted green mound, yet it returned two members to Parliament. In Cornwall there were thirteen villages, each of which sent two members to Parliament. On the other hand, great towns like Birmingham, Blackburn, Bradford, Brighton, Greenwich, Leeds, Manchester, Oldham, Sheffield, Sunderland, Wolverhampton, and others, returned no member. It was high time that this absurd system should be reformed.

In 1830 King George IV died. His brother William IV came to the throne, and a new Parliament had to be elected. Then for the first time it was seen how strong was the wish for a reform of Parliament. Lord John Russell soon brought into the House of Commons a Bill by which he proposed to take members of Parliament away from all places of less than 2000 inhabitants; and towns having more than 2000 but less than 4000 inhabitants were to have only one member. Large towns like those just named were now to return members to the House of Commons.

The Reform Bill is Passed

A great outcry was raised against this Reform Bill, and it was thrown out by the House of Commons. The king was at once advised to dissolve Parliament, so that there might be an appeal to

the country whether it would have reform or not. He did so; and the whole land rang with the cry, "The Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill." In the new House of Commons there was a large majority of members favorable to reform; and the Bill easily passed the House of Commons, only to be thrown out by the House of Lords. Then there was intense indignation through the country, and loud protests were made against the action of the Lords. Riots broke out in many towns. The worst was at Bristol, where the mob broke into the public buildings, burnt many important houses, and had control of the town for two days before they were dispersed by the soldiers.

Again the Bill was brought into Parliament, and again was rejected by the House of Lords. The reformers of Birmingham now threatened that they would march to London 200,000 strong and compel the Lords to pass the Bill. It was in vain that the Duke of Wellington tried to form a ministry and govern with a strong hand. He saw that it would lead to a civil war, and that it would be best to give way. He therefore advised the king to recall the Reform Ministry; and when the Bill, slightly altered, was again brought before Parliament, many of the Lords who had voted against it walked out without voting. Thus the Bill became law (1832) after the most exciting political struggle which the

country had passed through since the coming of William of Orange.

Those who had feared that the measure would lead to mob rule were soon found to be quite mistaken. The Reform Bill took power away from many small and decayed towns and gave it to the new and prosperous towns, which only wanted to have fair play from the Government. England now had rather fewer members of Parliament than before, while more members were to be returned by big towns or counties in Scotland, Ireland, and Wales. The Bill also gave votes to rather more people in the counties, while in towns those who rented a house at \$50 a year, or more, were to have the right of voting. This gave more political power to the middle classes and to the more prosperous of the laboring classes, but it did not bring mob rule; on the contrary, it did much for the cause of order.

A great reduction was made in the number of days that an election might last. In former times elections used to go on as long as one voter an hour came to give his vote. Sometimes the voting went on for weeks, and large sums were paid for votes. The famous election of 1784 in Westminster dragged on for forty days amidst scenes of wild excitement and brutal violence. After 1832 an election could not last more than two days for a county or one day for a town. So business was

not disturbed as it was before, and far less bribery and rioting took place.

The Chartists and Free Trade

The work of the reformed Parliament did something to improve the state of the country, but it was chiefly the middle class who gained, while the laborers and the very poor were still ignorant and often in great misery. A new Poor Law was passed which seemed very harsh. Wages were still very low, bread was very dear, while in the great towns people could afford neither good food nor decent dwellings. It was generally felt that something must be done. All over the kingdom, and especially in the north, huge meetings of the people were held, and here their leaders urged on them that nothing would come right till the laborer too had his vote for Parliament.

Gradually the claims of the people were put together in what is known as the "People's Charter," their chief points being that every man in the kingdom should have a vote, and have the right of being elected to sit in Parliament; that a new Parliament should be held every year; that members should be paid, so that even a poor man could afford to become a member; and that voting should be by secret ballot, so that no man need fear lest he suffer for voting as he thought right.

The supporters of this were known as the Chartists, and the movement continued for several years. In some places it caused serious difficulty, for the people resolved not to work till their charter was granted, and it was only by imprisoning the leaders that order was restored. Elsewhere riots broke out; at one time part of Birmingham was stormed by a mob of people, who talked of marching to London to enforce their claims, as, in the old days, Wat Tyler and the peasants had done.

In 1848 a great petition was prepared, and it was arranged that a huge meeting should be held on Kennington Common, near London, and that the Chartists should march thence to the houses of Parliament. The procession was forbidden. The monster petition was found to be largely a fraud. The meeting was a complete failure, and Chartism never recovered.

Still, this did not mean that the claims of the people were altogether set aside. As education spread, the working people were gradually admitted to a large share in the government;



A Manchester Operative. From the "Illustrated London News", 1842

and today most of the points in the Charter have been granted.

The Reform Bills of 1867 and 1884 have carried on the work begun in 1832, and now it may be said that the House of Commons really represents the people of Great Britain and Ireland. At the same time there are many who think that the vote should now be given to women.

What the Chartist workers really wanted was some way of bettering their position. They were living in hard times, for these years have come to be known as "the hungry forties." At the same time some men were beginning to propose another way out of the difficulty, very different from that of the Chartists. For some time men had been studying what it was that really made a nation rich, and they began to think that many of the old ideas were wrong. In order to protect the industries of our own country, Britain used to put taxes on what was imported from other countries, thus keeping up prices; but many people thought it would be much better not to put on taxes of this sort, but to have free imports instead. One of the first men to advise the adoption of free trade was Adam Smith, who wrote a book called *The Wealth of Nations*; and one of the first great ministers to think that he was right was the younger Pitt.

Now, chiefly under Sir Robert Peel's govern-

ment, the taxes had been lessened on a great many things, or indeed taken off altogether, but one important tax was still retained, though in some ways it was the hardest of all. This was the corn¹ tax, by which the price of corn was kept up. It used to be thought that Britain ought to grow enough corn to supply its own people,



Sir Robert Peel

or, if foreign corn were sold, it ought not to be cheaper than what the British farmers could supply. If it were cheaper, people argued, British farming would be ruined. The manufacturers argued, however, that the town people must be considered as well; that in many cases they were at present starving, and that what was wanted was plenty of cheap food. With this, labor would be cheap and Britain would become the work-shop of the world.

In 1838 an Anti-Corn-law League was founded in Manchester to carry out this policy. Among the leaders of this movement were Charles Villiers, a barrister who was member of Parliament for Wolverhampton; Richard Cobden, formerly a clerk and traveler for a calico merchant, and at that time

partner in a Lancashire calico factory; and John Bright, the son of a Rochdale miller.

Sir Robert Peel, who became prime minister in 1841, though he admitted it was a good thing to reduce the taxes on imports in many cases, still said it would ruin the British farmers if he allowed foreign corn to come cheaply into the country. But these years were a time of great distress for the people, the harvests were bad, and in 1845 the potato crop failed in Ireland. Amongst the poor Irish the potato forms a chief article of diet; when, therefore, the potato crop all over the country failed, there was nothing to be expected but starvation. Thousands of the people died, while numbers of others decided to emigrate to America. The British government felt bound to do what it could. The best thing would be to send corn to Ireland; but this was difficult with the Corn Laws blocking the way.

At last Peel made up his mind. In spite of the reproaches of his own party, he announced that he considered the repeal of the Corn Laws necessary, and in 1846 he carried it. Many men blamed him for changing his opinion, and many who had worked with him before now opposed him bitterly. Amongst the ablest of his defenders was Gladstone; amongst the bitterest of his assailants was Disraeli.

¹The word "corn" as used in England means all kinds of grain used as foodstuff, but more particularly wheat.

But Peel was convinced that what he was doing was for the good of Britain, and once convinced that the repeal was needed, he was bound in honor to carry it through.

The fears of the protectionists were not fulfilled, at least at the time. It was found that cheap food was a great blessing. Other taxes, of course, had to be put on instead, such as the income tax; but this did not press so hardly on the poor, or, at any rate, its pressure was less direct. For a time trade and manufactures both increased, and with them came increase of wealth and prosperity. It is now asserted, by a large party, that the improvement did not arise solely from the free imports system, and that Great Britain has in some ways suffered rather than benefited by that policy.

THE HEROES OF PEACE**John Howard**

We are now to read about some noble men and women who gave up a great part of their lives to serve their fellow creatures, and to improve their condition. They are as follows: John Howard, who reformed the prison system; William Wilberforce, who did so much for the slaves in the colonies; Lord Shaftesbury, who labored on behalf of those that work in factory and mine; and David Livingstone, who gave his life for the cause of missions in Africa. They are heroes as daring and as noble as any who ever faced death on a battlefield.

John Howard was the son of well-to-do parents, and spent his early years traveling abroad. On his voyage home from Lisbon he was captured by a French privateer and thrown into prison. There he experienced all the horrors of prison life in those days, and he determined to devote his life to improving the lot of those poor prisoners for whom no one cared. Beginning with the jail of his native county, Bedfordshire, he traveled all over the land, seeing for himself how the prisoners were lodged. Wherever he went the same conditions met him. The prisons were dirty and filthy beyond all possibility of description. In many cases they were

infested with rats so bold and ferocious that they would attack the prisoners even by daylight. In one of these Howard himself was severely bitten on the hand, and his dog was so injured that it had to be killed.

The jailers were, for the most part, brutal men who shamefully abused their office. They extorted money from their prisoners, giving comfortable cells to those who paid them well, and thrusting those who could not pay into dark, gloomy, foul dungeons. After traveling all over Europe to see for himself the conditions of prisons and to bring help to the wretched inmates, he published a book, *The State of Prisons*, which made a great sensation. Till then hardly anyone had thought about prisoners; or, if people had thought about their miseries, they had only shrugged their shoulders, and said that men and women ought to take the more care to keep out of prison. And yet it was not so easy then as it is now to keep out of prison. Very many small offenses were punished by long imprisonment. Men who set a rick on fire, or who stole a horse or goods to the value of ten shillings, were even hanged. Out of 678 persons hanged in London during the years between 1749 and 1771, as many as 606 were hanged for crimes which we do not now punish with death.

Howard's book set men thinking on the evils of our whole system of punishment. They saw that



The Statute of John
Howard at Bedford

the laws and the prisons, as they were then, only made men worse and more brutal; and since Howard's day our laws have become more humane and just. Howard was now known all over Europe for his labors on behalf of prisoners, and in England he was often called the prisoner's friend.

Howard, for a second time, went over all the chief prisons of Europe, from Sweden to Malta, from Portugal to Russia; and in his second visit to the land of the Czars he met his death. The Russians were then fighting the

Turks; and while the good Englishman was tending the sick at the scene of war, he caught the plague and died (1790). Princes and generals of the Russian army, as well as thousands of soldiers and peasants, followed his remains to the grave where he was buried many hundreds of miles away from his English home; and all over Europe it was felt that mankind had lost one of its best and noblest sons.

John Howard was not one of those who wander far afield and neglect the people of their own vil-

lage. He built model cottages for the villagers of Cardington, and opened a school for their children.

To commemorate his self-denying labors, a statue was afterwards raised to his memory in St. Paul's Cathedral, and another has lately been erected in the town of Bedford; but the best of his monuments are the clean and well-ordered prisons which have now everywhere replaced the foul dens where prisoners used to be herded together and debased.

William Wilberforce, the Freer of the Slaves

William Wilberforce came of an old Yorkshire family, and was born at Hull in 1759. His health was delicate, and early in life his body was so slight and puny that he afterwards used to say that if he had been born among the ancient Romans, he would have been left to die in infancy. His mind, however, was soon found to be keen and intelligent; and when he was sent to the Hull Grammar School, he could read so well that his master used to set him on a table to read aloud, to show the other boys how to read.

Not only was he quick at learning, but he was kind of heart; and when he was only fourteen years of age he declared his hatred of the slave trade and of all slavery. This noble hatred of all that was mean and base also kept him from the evil which he might have got from some bad companions at

the University of Cambridge, and later on in London. He shook off their evil influence, and began to show himself a power for good.

When he entered Parliament he soon became a very good speaker, and he enjoyed the close friendship of the great statesman William Pitt. He was pained by the wickedness which he saw all around him, and in 1786 he determined to give his life completely to the service of God and of his fellow men. He said, " God had set before me two great objects, the suppression of the slave trade and the improvement of manners ". For this last he did much; but his work for putting down the slave trade was even more important.

In time past negro slaves had actually been sold in a slave market at Bristol and at other English ports. That was no longer allowed, but the slave trade was then carried on mostly by British ships. Negroes from the west coast of Africa were captured by our sailors. Often their villages were burnt and much blood was shed, before a sufficient number of negroes was captured to make a ship's cargo. Then they were driven to the shore, were forced on board the boats, then on the ship, and had their arms and feet fastened by chains. They were packed as close as they could lie, and all the exercise they had was to get up and jump in their chains. This they were compelled to do, as it was thought to be a means of preserving their lives.

But, as the voyage often lasted more than two months, a very large number of the poor prisoners generally died on the voyage, and their bodies were thrown overboard. Then, when the ship reached America or the West Indian Islands, the miserable survivors were sold as slaves to the planters, and were sent to work in the sugar plantations.

This dreadful trade in human flesh brought in large gains to the shipowners, and also to the planters, who got more work done by these negro slaves than could be done by white men under the burning sun of those lands. So, when Wilberforce and another good man named Clarkson began to urge the people to put a stop to this trade, there was a great outcry raised by ship-owners and sugar merchants.

Time after time Wilberforce brought into Parliament a Bill for putting a stop to these evils; but the Bill was thrown out, sometimes by the House of Commons, sometimes by the House of Lords. The great war with France broke out, and William Pitt, who had begun to do something for the freeing of the slaves, was quite taken up by the war. But after Pitt's death another great statesman, Charles James Fox, came into power. In 1806 he proposed to Parliament a Bill for preventing British subjects' seizing and selling slaves, and it was carried by a very large majority. Since that time no British ships have been allowed to seize slaves, and every

slave who sets foot on a British ship is a free man.

Though slaves might not be seized and sold, yet they were still allowed to be kept in the colonies. For twenty-seven years Wilberforce and his friends struggled hard to get them freed. At last, just at the time when Wilberforce was lying on his death-bed, Parliament voted that \$100,000,000 should be given to the slave-owners in the colonies if they would free their slaves; and now there are no longer any slaves in any part of the British Empire.

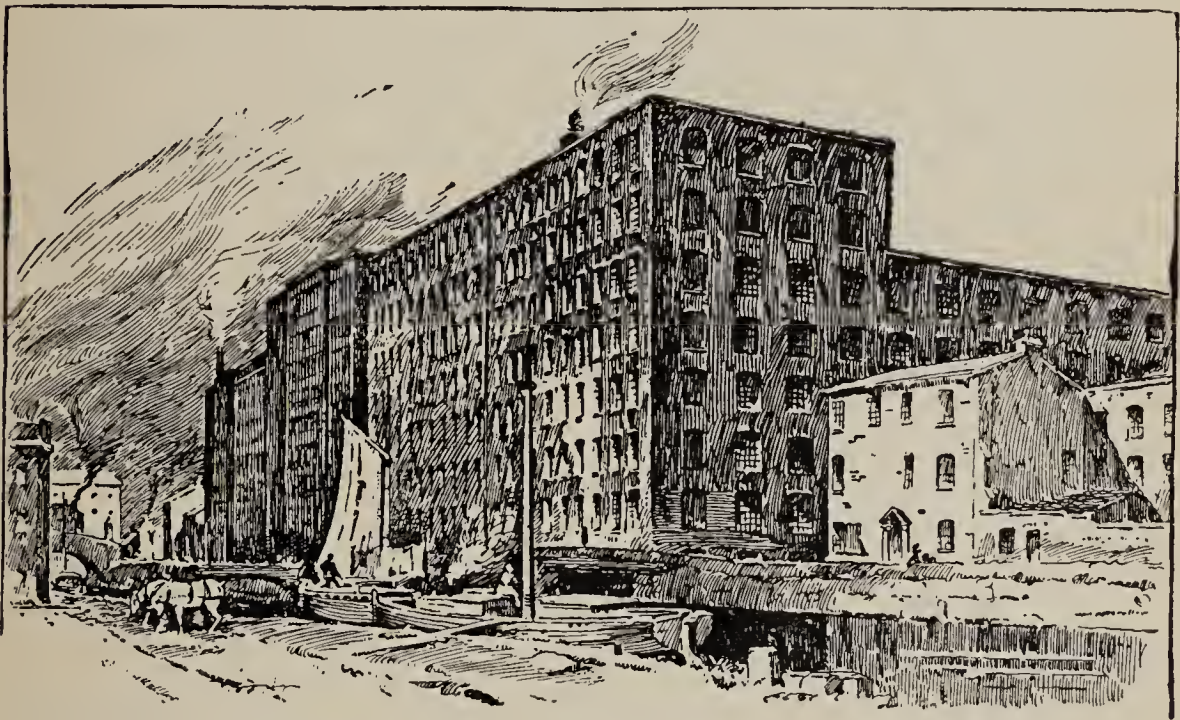
Lord Shaftesbury

As the life of a people changes, new needs arise; and unless men came forward to point out these wants, great misery would result. Perhaps no one man in the last century did more to meet the new needs and to succor the helpless than Lord Ashley, later on known as Lord Shaftesbury.

He was born in 1801, and was descended from an old family which for seven centuries had been settled near Wimborne, in Dorset. His father and mother were too busy with other matters to spare much time for their son, and it was from the house-keeper that he received most sympathy and religious teaching in his young days. His early school life was one long course of misery. Neglected and half-starved by his master, bullied by the other boys, he ever remembered with feelings of horror

his life at the private boarding-school at Chiswick to which he was sent.

The great public school at Harrow, to which he went next, opened up a new and brighter life. While he was there a strange incident decided him to dedicate his life to the cause of the poor and friendless. He was walking down Harrow Hill



Cotton Factories, Manchester. From an engraving published in 1835

when he saw four drunken men singing and yelling as they reeled along, carrying a coffin which contained the remains of one of their comrades. This painful sight deeply touched young Ashley, who then and there made up his mind to use all his power and influence on behalf of the outcast and the unfortunate.

Lord Ashley will best be remembered for his

labors on behalf of the workers in factories. The great changes in the systems of manufacture were fast putting a stop to the older methods when father, mother, and children used to work at the hand loom and the spinning wheel in their own cottage. Great machines driven by water power or steam power were ruining the cottage industries; and people began to flock to the factories as wage-earners. Some of the machines could be attended as well by women, or even by children, as by men; and in the hard times which were caused by the great war, the manufacturers used to hire numbers of children from the workhouses of the large towns to work for them at very cheap rates.

A kind of white slavery was thus fast springing up, which enriched the manufacturers at the cost of misery to the children. Packed off in wagons from the workhouse of their native town, they were carried to the 'prentice house of some manufacturer, there to lead a dismal and laborious life. While one shift looked after the machinery, the others sought sleep in huge dormitories. Thus they passed a toilsome, joyless life between the factory, the meal room, and the dormitory — uncared for, ignorant of everything save their dreary round of labor.

Acts of Parliament had already been passed to cure some of the worst of these evils; but they dealt only with cotton factories. It was now proposed to bring other factories under the same rules and to

limit the working day to ten hours. For this end Lord Ashley worked untiringly, visiting factories and mines, and addressing public meetings. The millowners and merchants had at last to give way. By the Factory Act of 1834 parents were forbidden to send their children to work in



Lord Shaftesbury

the factories till they were nine years old, and then the children were only allowed to work nine hours a day for the first two years.

Lord Ashley next took up the cause of the little sweeps. It was the custom to send small, thin boys, and sometimes even girls, to climb up inside the chimneys in order to sweep them thoroughly; and master sweeps had been known to steal or buy from their parents, or hire from workhouses, children of a size suitable for this task.

For the sake of the little sweeps, Lord Ashley worked hard in and out of Parliament, making many speeches, prosecuting master sweeps for cruelty, and visiting houses to see the little sweeps at work. At last an Act was passed laying down

rules for the building of chimneys, and forbidding the employment of children for this kind of work.

The next stronghold which Lord Ashley attacked was the dark fortress of the mines. In those days a large number of the workers in mines were women and young children. Some of these latter began to toil underground when only four or five years of age. At that tender age, when they ought to have given their time to healthful play, they were taken down the deep, dark shaft of the mine, and there in its gloomy passages were set to work as "trappers"; that is, they had to open the trapdoors in the galleries whenever a coal carriage came along, and close it as soon as the carriage had passed through.

When these things were known, there was a general demand for Parliament to step in and put an end to them. Lord Ashley held the House of Commons spellbound for two hours as he described the need for a measure of reform.

The Bill which he then introduced, after some changes had been made in it, became law, and was a great boon to the mining population. It forbade altogether the employment of women and girls in mines underground, and that of boys under ten years of age.

On these and many other generous causes the good Lord Shaftesbury, as he came to be called, spent his long and useful life. It must not be sup-

posed, however, that he labored single-handed. There were many other men of humbler rank working for the same ends, and in later days this work of reform has been carried much further.

The workers have banded themselves together in trade unions and friendly societies to better their own position. Factory Acts have done much to guard against the risks of dangerous trades. The law now makes the employer pay compensation to any workman who is injured in the course of his work. Instead of the "ragged schools" which Lord Shaftesbury and other generous men and women helped to found, there are now good schools provided by the State, and little children of school age may no longer be set to work in mills and mines. For the aged who have not enough to live on, the State now provides a pension; while by the National Insurance Act of 1911, a new plan is being tried for helping all wage-earners in time of sickness.

David Livingstone

David Livingstone came of a Highland family, one of whose members was slain at Culloden fighting for the Stuarts. Later on the family removed from their island home off the west coast of Scotland to the village of Blantyre, near Glasgow. David's father used to sell tea in the neighboring villages, and he also distributed tracts and useful

books. He was a good man, and he brought up his children strictly but kindly, so that they might do the best for themselves in the time to come.

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

Livingstone grew up to be a God-fearing and diligent young man; and in 1836 he determined to become a medical missionary, that is, he desired to heal the bodies of the heathen as well as teach the Christian religion. To gain the knowledge which would fit him for his work, he, in 1836, became a student at the University of Glasgow; but after each term was over he returned to work at the factory, so as to earn money which would meet some

of his expenses. At Glasgow he was much respected for his courage and strict sense of duty. In fact it was said of him that fire, water, and stone walls would not stop him from doing his duty to the uttermost.

After further preparation in London, Livingstone set sail in 1840 for South Africa. That land was not then the settled, flourishing colony which it now is. The white men were few and scattered, and the natives were despised and ill-treated by the Dutch settlers. He at once made up his mind to protect the natives against the injustice of the Dutch colonists in or near the Transvaal.

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

learned their language, and cured many of their sick by his medicines. Little by little he won their confidence, and some of them became Christians.

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

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

At last, sick and weary, he came to the Atlantic



THE MEETING OF STANLEY AND LIVINGSTONE

From an original painting by Wal Paget

coast; then, turning back, he made his way down the course of the Zambesi right to its mouth in the Indian Ocean. This journey had been accomplished once before, for a Portuguese officer with soldiers had traveled across Africa from ocean to ocean; but Livingstone made this great journey unprotected, save by some peaceful native attend-



David Livingstone

ants, and though he passed through fierce tribes, yet he never shed any blood. He always trusted to kindness to melt the hearts even of savage chiefs, and he kept up his peaceful attitude even when a club was whirled over his head. For this reason, and for his splendid work in an unknown land, he received a warm welcome when he returned home for a time of rest.

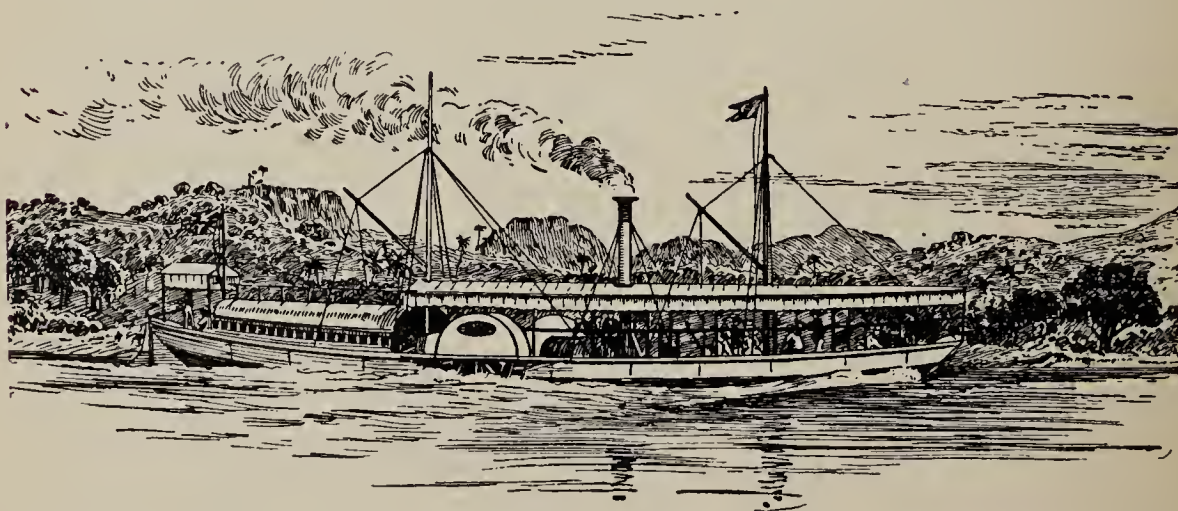
Before Livingstone's days the middle of Africa was thought to be a vast sandy desert where only camels and ostriches could exist. Our people were surprised to read in Livingstone's description of his travels that it was a beautiful land, teeming with countless tribes and watered by noble rivers. So he was honored by the universities and by

learned societies, as well as closely questioned by the merchants of Manchester about the prospects of trade.

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

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

After another short time of rest in the homeland, this energetic Scotsman again set to work to dis-



Livingstone's Steam Launch, built for exploring the Zambesi River

cover an easy means of reaching the heart of Africa, so as to beat the slave traders by peaceful means. On returning to Africa he landed at Zanzibar and made his way overland to Lake Nyasa. Everywhere he found tribes making slaves of men of other tribes, and he did his best to show them how wrong this was.

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

The old explorer was overjoyed at hearing the English tongue again after being alone in Africa for so many years; but he would not return home, because he felt that his work in Africa was not done even yet. He wanted to make sure that the rivers which he had found were the sources of the Nile, and not of the Congo. But this last journey, made in 1873, across marshes and other fever-stricken parts, was too much for his weary frame, and he became weaker and weaker. He had one

day's severe illness, and then early next morning his faithful native followers found him dead. He was kneeling as if in prayer. Thus he died, praying that Africa might be saved from the curse of the slave trade. For that cause he had made his many travels, and for Africa he laid down his life.

His native followers did what they could to preserve the body of their beloved master. They carried it reverently all the way to Zanzibar, from which place it was shipped to England. To-day the bones of Livingstone lie in Westminster Abbey, the last resting-place of Britain's heroes of peace and war.

THE CRIMEAN WAR

The only European war in which Great Britain has been engaged since Waterloo was the Crimean War, which arose chiefly from the following causes:

Centuries ago a fierce and warlike people called the Turks had crossed from Asia into the land which we call Turkey. They conquered the Christian peoples there, and were for a long time the terror of Europe. Gradually their power waned, and in the early years of last century they were twice conquered by the Russians. Russia hated the Turks because they were Mohammedans, and oppressed the Christian peoples of Turkey, who were of the same religion as the Russians. In 1853 the powerful Czar, or Emperor, of Russia, claimed the right to interfere between Turkey and her Christian subjects; and when Turkey refused to grant his claim, he sent troops into Moldavia and Wallachia, which were then parts of the Turkish Empire. (Map, p. 215.)

France and Britain began to take sides with Turkey, because they did not want Russia to become master of the Turkish lands. In 1854 they declared war against Russia, and sent out great fleets and armies to Varna, a Turkish port on the Black Sea. But the Turks had already beaten the Russians on the Danube; and as the Russians were

afraid that Austria would attack them from behind, they withdrew from Turkey.

Britain was not satisfied with this, but said that the time had come to prevent Russia's becoming mistress of the Black Sea. Orders were therefore sent from London, and also from Paris, that the allied fleet and armies should cross over to the Crimea, and destroy the great Russian port and fortress, Sebastopol. So the British and French forces were landed in the Crimea, and by a brave

rush the British drove the Russians away from the steep slopes of the Alma.

Then the allies marched towards Sebastopol, and perhaps they might have taken it if they had made a vigorous attack at once. But this was thought to be too risky; and they marched round Sebastopol so as to have the supplies from their ships in the little harbor of Balaklava. After



1 2 3
Types of British Soldiers in 1855
1, Foot Guards. 2, Rifles. 3, Line.

some delays they began to attack Sebastopol and its forts.

But by this time the Russians were strong enough to try to cut off the British army from its ships at Balaklava; and this led to the famous battle of Balaklava. It was a confused battle, and there were strange mistakes made on both sides. At first the Russians drove back the allies; and a great square of grey-coated Russian horsemen rode on towards the British Heavy Brigade. Strange to say, they stopped when they were near the British dragoons, who, charging by squadrons into the dense mass, threw it into complete disorder, and in five minutes drove it away in headlong retreat.

A strange blunder then led to the famous charge of the Light Brigade. The officer in command mistook the meaning of an order from the Commander-in-Chief, and ordered his gallant riders to charge the Russian army, numbering some 25,000 men. On swept the brave horsemen into the "valley of death". The smoke of the enemy's cannon and musketry fire closed around them, but now and again the scarlet lines could be seen sabring those who tried to stop their charge. On they rode right into a Russian battery, put the gunners to the sword, and routed some Russian squadrons of cavalry. But then the Light Brigade could do no more, and it had to ride back, breaking through the Russians who had formed in its rear. The

enemy's cannon again made many a brave horseman bite the dust, and out of 670 men of the Light Brigade only 195 rode back to our camp.

At Balaklava the British only just managed to hold their own; and as the Russians were always getting reinforcements, the position of the French and British armies outside Sebastopol became very serious. The fortress itself had been made very strong by the Russians, and they made another desperate attempt to drive away the British.

Hidden by the mists of a November morning, a large force of Russians crept up the ravine which led on to the heights of Inkermann. The British there were few in number; but they made a splendid defense, dealing death among the crowded columns of the enemy as they marched up the ravine. For four hours the thin red lines of the British soldiers kept at bay the dense grey columns of the Russians, till help was sent by the French; and when cannon were dragged up to fire on the Russian columns, these fell back towards Sebastopol with fearful losses.

But the Russian winter soon proved to be a far worse foe than the Russians themselves. A terrible storm dashed many of the British ships to pieces. The British troops were soon in want of supplies of proper food and clothing for the bitter wintry weather which now set in; and in the hard

service in the trenches hundreds of brave fellows perished from cold and want.

Gradually better arrangements were made. A short railway was constructed from Balaklava harbor to the camp; and the siege was pushed on with more vigor. But the Russians had made some very strong earthworks to defend Sebastopol; and they could get plenty of reinforcements from the north. So the siege dragged on through the spring and summer of 1855. The British cannonade was steadily kept up, and the Russians fell in heaps behind their walls and earthworks.

At last, in September, 1855, the French made a great effort and captured a strong Russian earthwork called the Malakoff; but the British were beaten back from the Redan, which was more difficult to hold against the Russian fire. All the same, the Russians felt that they could hold out no longer in Sebastopol. So they burnt the few remaining ships, blew up their powder magazines, and in September, 1855, they left the great fortress which for nearly a year had defied the attacks of two armies.

Peace was soon made, but most of the results of the war have entirely vanished. The Sultan did not take advantage of the opportunity then given of governing the Turkish Empire justly, and in 1876 many of his Christian subjects rose in revolt against the bad government. Russia recovered,



THE DEPARTURE OF THE KING OF PRUSSIA FOR THE SEAT OF WAR, 31ST JULY, 1870

From the painting by Adolf Menzel in the National Gallery, Berlin

THE MAKING OF GERMANY

“ The Man of Blood and Iron ”

The Germany of which we have heard so much in history hitherto was neither an empire nor a kingdom in the strict sense of the term. It was a loose confederation of states held together by no common bond. Up to the year 1806, the nominal head of the Confederation was known as the Emperor, a title which dated back to the year 800, when Charlemagne revived the Roman Empire in the West. The crown of this Holy Roman Empire, as it was called, latterly became hereditary in the house of Austria, till in 1806 Francis II resigned the ancient title, adopting instead that of Emperor of Austria. We have now to trace the events by which the title of Emperor was restored in Germany, and a great and powerful and united empire was created.

When Napoleon started on his career of conquest in 1796, the so-called German Empire was made up of more than three hundred separate states ranging in size from the powerful kingdoms of Austria and Prussia to principalities with less than a hundred inhabitants. After he had vanquished Austria and Prussia on the fields of Austerlitz and Jena, Napoleon reduced the number of states to about forty, and the old title of Emperor, or

German Emperor as it was sometimes called, disappeared.

The Congress of Vienna, which met after Waterloo to restore order to Europe, went on the principle of re-establishing everything as far as possible on the old footing. But in the case of the German States, it retained the arrangement made by Napoleon. It kept the number of states about forty, and did not revive the old title. The states, feeling the need of mutual protection and help, formed themselves into a league known as the German Confederation, of which Austria was acknowledged the head.

Prussia only accepted this arrangement because she was not strong enough to challenge the supremacy of Austria, but she still kept steadily before her the aim of Frederick the Great, namely, to drive Austria out of the Confederation and to make Prussia the leader in her place.

During the Napoleonic wars Prussia had suffered perhaps more than any other state. It was deprived of a third of its territory, its chief cities were garrisoned by foreign troops, and everything was done to kill national feeling and to humble national pride. Then arose a great German writer and thinker named Fichte. In a series of "Addresses to the German Nation" he called upon the people to avenge their disgrace, and to free their country. For this purpose he told them they must prepare

themselves by years of training, of education, and of noble living.

The words of Fichte took deep root in the hearts of Young Prussia. From that moment the people may be said to have gone into training like gladiators for a



Bismarck

great contest. They set up a system of compulsory military service for all able-bodied citizens. They re-organized the army and gave close attention to every detail of equipment. They founded universities and built schools and colleges. They made education compulsory on all the youth of the nation between six and fourteen years of age long before any other nation thought of so doing.

In this way they made themselves the most learned nation in Europe, and all the people are agreed in giving credit for the great success and development of the nation, not so much to the military system, as to the general spread of intelligence and knowledge by the national schools.

The building up of the German Empire was the work of three great men who worked in the most

perfect harmony with one another — the King, William I, who came to the throne in 1860, Bismarck, and Moltke. William I was a bluff, honest, upright, and hard-working sovereign. Moltke was the organizer of the army, and the greatest military genius since the days of Napoleon.

Bismarck, however, was the master mind of the three, and planned and carried through the policy which made Prussia the first nation in Europe. Bismarck has been called “the man of blood and iron”, because he said in one of his speeches that the foundations of a united Germany would be laid not by votes and speeches in Parliament, but by “blood and iron”. The name, however given, is most appropriate, for a more resolute, a more imperious, and a more ruthless man never guided the destinies of a nation. He kept ever before him the ideal of a united Germany with Prussia at its head, and to secure this end he allowed nothing to stand in his way. He beat down all opposition, and swept from his path all who would not bend to his will. In his personal dealings he was upright and honorable, but as a statesman he frequently secured his ends “by a policy of falsehood and fraud.”

It was upon Denmark that Bismarck's first stroke fell. In the south of Denmark were two states known as Schleswig and Holstein. Prussia had always coveted these, because they would give

her more seaboard both on the Baltic and on the North Sea. Their people were largely German, and from time to time they appealed to Prussia and the other German states to free them from the Danish rule.

Prussia was afraid that if she did so alone, she would bring down upon herself the wrath of the other European powers. Bismarck found he must have a partner for the undertaking, and fixed upon Austria as the most suitable. Now Austria was Prussia's greatest rival, and between them there was the keenest jealousy and the deepest distrust. Yet Bismarck was so clever a diplomatist that he actually persuaded Austria to join with him in attacking Denmark.

Denmark expected that some of the other powers would come to its aid — especially Britain, as the Prince of Wales had just married the daughter of the Danish king. Neither Britain nor any other power came to the rescue, and Denmark was speedily vanquished, and surrendered the two provinces.

The King of Prussia at Versailles

The question now was, what was to be done with the surrendered provinces? The two powers, as might be expected, began to quarrel about the division of the spoil, and at last war was declared between them in 1866. Prussia had the assistance

of Italy, which bore a grudge to Austria for retaining Venice. Austria was joined by Saxony, Bavaria, Baden, and almost all the South German States.

The chances seemed in favor of Austria. But it turned out that she was quite unprepared for a great war. Her finances were in disorder, her Hungarian subjects were in open rebellion, and there was a great lack of war stores. Prussia, on the other hand, was ready down to the smallest detail. Apart from these things, the Prussians had such an overwhelming advantage in their rifles and artillery, that Austria was bound to be defeated. While the Austrians were still armed with the old muzzle-loading guns, the Prussians possessed the famous "needle gun," a breech-loader that could fire four times as quick.

The war proved to be a triumphal march for Moltke and his troops, and in seven weeks all was over. They won battle after battle, and at Sadowa overwhelmed the Austrian army and forced Austria to sue for peace. By the Treaty of Prague, in 1866, Austria withdrew from the Confederation of German States, Venice was ceded to Italy, and Prussia retained Schleswig and Holstein. Thus Prussia had succeeded in her main purpose. Austria was driven out of the German union, and Prussia took her place as leader.

France had watched the struggle between Aus-

tria and Prussia with interest, hoping that the war would be long and costly to both parties. Then when peace came to be made, she hoped to pick up some of the plums.

But events had marched too fast for her. And now she saw, with fear and jealousy, a great military power settled on her borders. The French Emperor demanded in 1866 that the Rhine should be made the boundary between the two nations, and that some German lands on the west bank of the river should be handed over to him. "Do you ask this under threat of war?" said Bismarck

to the French Ambassador. "I do," was the reply. "Then war you shall have," said the man of blood and iron.

The French Emperor thereupon withdrew his demands, but the rivalry and jealousy between the two countries was so keen that war seemed inevitable. In 1870 the chance came. The Spanish throne was then vacant, and the Government offered the crown to a prince related to the King of Prussia. France declared that the acceptance



German Soldier of
1870

of this offer would be regarded as a declaration of war, and the prince wisely refused to accept it.

The bad feeling thus created was the real cause of the war, but Bismarck's bad faith had also a large share in it. He published a misleading account of an interview between the king and the French Ambassador, and so altered a telegram from the king to himself as to make it appear like a declaration of war. France accepted it as such and formally declared war. The streets of Paris resounded with the cries, "To Berlin!" "To Berlin!"

As a matter of fact the French, like the Austrians in the previous war, were totally unprepared for the struggle. Every regiment was short of men. The emperor expected to find himself in command of 350,000 men, but only 250,000 answered the rollcall at first. Even for that number ammunition, equipment, and stores were lacking. The German artillery was greatly superior to that of the French, and this advantage alone was enough to settle the issue of the fight.

The Germans, on the other hand, were even better prepared than they were against Austria. Every detail of the campaign had been worked out beforehand, and everything required had been foreseen and provided. It is said that of 450 trains loaded with 450,000 men dispatched to the French frontiers, not one was a minute late. The Germans



THE MONUMENT TO GARIBALDI AT ROME

invaded France in three separate divisions. Each was timed to arrive at certain places on certain days, and arrive without fail they did.

The rapidity and success of the German armies amazed all Europe. Nothing like it had been known since the days of Napoleon. The French were swept before them like chaff, and made no stand worthy of the name. At Sedan the Emperor of the French and his army of 80,000 men surrendered after a gallant fight, while soon after Bazaine, who had been shut up in Metz with 180,000 men, opened the gates to the enemy. The Germans had now more than 300,000 prisoners in their hands. Not even Napoleon had ever made such a big "bag."

The victorious armies now marched on Paris and closely besieged the city. The King of Prussia, Bismarck, and the headquarters staff took up their residence in Versailles, the palace where Louis XIV and the great Napoleon had planned the invasion and destruction of Germany. Paris redeemed the honor of France, which had suffered much from the shameful surrenders of her armies. For three months the people endured all the horrors of famine and cholera, and only surrendered when all hope of relief was over.

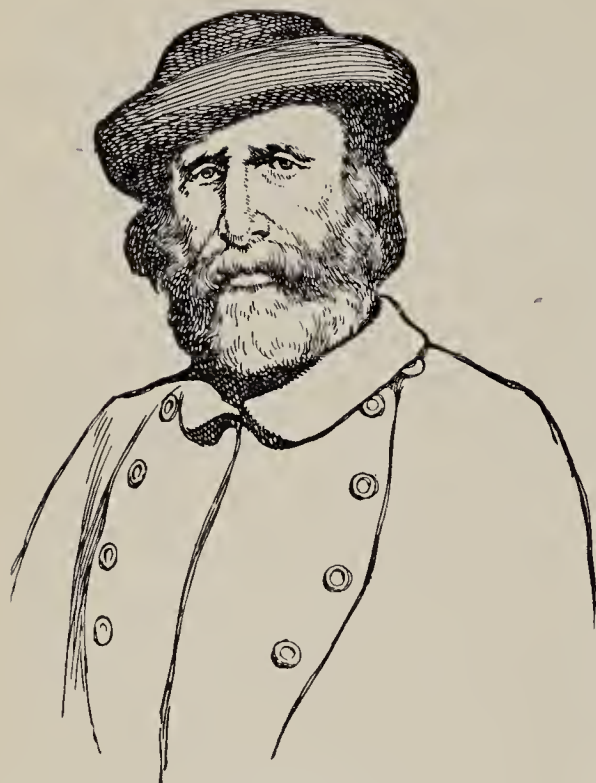
The terms of peace were humiliating. France had to give up two of its fairest provinces—Alsace

and Lorraine — and to pay an indemnity of one billion dollars.

At Versailles the representatives of all the kingdoms and states of Germany united in asking the King of Prussia to become the first emperor of a united Germany. (See map, p. 216.)

In this way was born again in a new form and on foreign soil the mighty German Empire, whose first beginnings went back to 800 A. D. and the times of heroic Charlemagne.

“ ITALY A NATION ”



Garibaldi

While the German states were, as we saw in the last chapter, gathering around Prussia to form a united Germany, the various states of Italy were gradually coming together under Sardinia to form a united Italy. The stories of the two movements have much in common. In each case the strongest opposing force was Austria, and it was by joining

forces, as we have seen, in 1866 and defeating that great power, that the way was paved in each case for the final union.

As three great names stand out in the building up of the German nation, so also three names are forever associated with the rise of Italy. These are Victor Emmanuel II, King of Sardinia; Count Cavour, his prime minister; and Garibaldi, the patriot and soldier.

Victor Emmanuel was a true patriot, who risked his kingdom and his life for the cause of Italian freedom and unity. Like the Prussian king, he was a plain-spoken, upright, and kindly sovereign, and

set the interests of his subjects always before his own.

Count Cavour was the Bismarck of Italy and the brain of the whole movement. Like the great Prussian minister, he prepared for war by developing the resources of the country, by looking well after its finances, and by training up a citizen army. Cavour was the first to recognize that Italian unity would never be secured without outside help. For this purpose he sought allies in every direction, but especially in France and Britain. Carrying out this policy of making as many friends as possible, Cavour sent a small, well-equipped army to join the British and French armies in the Crimea. Their discipline and their bravery won for them the admiration of both nations.

Garibaldi is the national hero, and no nation can show a nobler, truer, worthier one. If Cavour was the brain of the movement, Garibaldi was certainly its heart and soul. The life of this extraordinary man reads like a romance. It is a record of stirring adventures and hair-breadth escapes in many lands. A candlemaker in New York, a soldier in Brazil and other South American states, a teacher in Constantinople — these are but a few of the many parts he played before settling down as a patriot and leader at home.

In all stations and callings in life he showed the same greatness of soul. His life is unstained by a

single selfish act or by one ignoble motive. His simplicity of life, his scorn of dignities and wealth, and his matchless bravery caught hold of the imagination of Europe. To-day he belongs not to Italy alone, but to freemen the world over.

Still another name must be mentioned in connection with the founding of modern Italy, but rather as the inspirer and creator of the whole movement than as an active sharer in it. Mazzini has justly been called the Fichte of Italy. He was the thinker, poet, prophet of the cause, “ Italy a Nation.” His addresses to “ Young Italy ” roused his countrymen like a trumpet call, just as the “ Address to the German Nation ” had done for Prussia many years before. Like Fichte, he preached that the desire for a free and united Italy could only be attained by training and educating themselves for the struggle. He believed in bayonets, he said, “ but in bayonets pointed with ideas.”

The final stages in the fight for “ Italy a Nation ” opened in 1859, when Cavour persuaded the French Emperor, Napoleon III, to join in an attack upon Austria. In two fierce battles, Magenta and Solferino, Austria was overwhelmed, and would have been swept out of Italy had not Napoleon, for reasons of his own, concluded a truce. After this treaty Austria retained Venice and its neighborhood, but all the rest of Northern Italy, comprising a population of 9,000,000, passed to Victor

Emmanuel. France, as her share, obtained Savoy and Nice. (See map, p.)

The year 1860 saw the addition of Sicily and Naples to the Italian kingdom through the adventurous daring bravery of the hero Garibaldi. The kingdom of the “ Two Sicilies,” as it was called, included Naples and the south of Italy, and Sicily. It was ruled by a Bourbon king who was one of the worst of his race. He was known as King Bomba, because he bombarded his own capital, Naples, on the occasion of a riot in the streets.

Garibaldi, with 1000 red-shirted volunteers, set out from Genoa in two small vessels and landed in Sicily. By means of night attacks he seized several of the principal fortresses, and the whole population rose to support him. In a few weeks all the royal troops were driven out of the island, and Garibaldi took possession of it as Dictator in the name of Victor Emmanuel.

Crossing to the mainland with an army now grown to over 25,000 men, he carried all before him. The King of Naples fled, and Garibaldi entered the city in triumph.

Meanwhile Cavour had been watching with amazement the triumphal progress of Garibaldi. At first he had blamed Garibaldi for his rash step, but now that it seemed to be crowned with victory, he resolved to take over the conquests just made. Marching south with a large army, he took posses-



Garibaldi's Hut near Ravenna

sion of the papal states in the center of Italy, and then advanced to Naples. There Garibaldi met him, and handed over the conquered territory to Victor Emmanuel.

Only Rome and Venice were now needed to complete the unity of Italy.

In 1866, as we have already seen, Prussia and Italy made war on Austria and gained a great triumph. On the conclusion of peace, Venice passed at last into the hands of Italy, and only Rome was now outside of united Italy.

The city of the Pope was guarded by French troops, and was under the special protection of the French Emperor. Victor Emmanuel dared not therefore attack it, though all the people felt that Italy without Rome was no real Italy.

In 1870 the defeat of the French armies by the Prussians and the surrender at Sedan led to the overthrow of the Empire and the rise of the Republic. The new Government at once withdrew the French troops from Rome. Thereupon an Italian army entered the city, and the inhabitants

by an overwhelming vote chose Victor Emmanuel as their king.

Thus once again the Eternal City became the capital of a great and powerful nation. The Pope protested that he had been illegally despoiled of his possessions, and to this day regards the King of Italy as a usurper and himself as “ the prisoner of the Vatican.”

THE INDIAN MUTINY**The Outbreak — Relief of Lucknow**

We have read about the exploits of Clive, Warren Hastings, and Sir Arthur Wellesley, which so greatly extended Britain's Indian possessions. After Wellesley's time they continued to increase, and the addition of several states formed these Indian provinces into a vast Empire. (See map, p. 315.)

This was about the time when Britain was fighting Russia in the Crimea; and the discontented rulers and classes in India thought it a good time to try to throw off the British yoke. Several of the sepoys¹ were annoyed by some new rules, and a spark kindled the discontent into a fierce devouring flame which nearly destroyed British dominion in India.

It happened in this way. A new musket was about to be distributed to the British soldiers in India; and the cartridges were to be smeared with the fat of the ox or the pig. Now, nearly all the sepoys were either Hindoos or Mohammedans. The former worship the ox as a sacred animal: the latter loathe the hog as unclean. For these reasons they refused to touch the cartridges; and when the news got about that they would have to use them, they began to mutiny.

¹ Sepoy is the name given native soldiers in the British service.

The first serious outbreak of the sepoy was at Meerut (May, 1857), where they killed several of the British officers and even the women and children. Then they marched off to Delhi and seized that great city and fortress. They would have gained the large stores of gunpowder kept there for the troops, if nine brave fellows had not defended the magazine as long as they could, and then blown up the powder along with five of their own number and scores of the mutineers.

Fortunately all India did not rise against the British. The south and the extreme north-west remained faithful, but the revolt was general in the great region of the Ganges and its numerous tributaries. At Cawnpore a native prince ordered his men to butcher the British men, women, and children who fell into his hands, though he had promised to spare their lives. Elsewhere white officers and their wives suffered cruelties too horrible to be described; but this made the British soldiers burn with a desire for vengeance, and they often scattered in flight ten times their own number of the mutineers.

The chief interest of the struggle centered at Delhi and Lucknow. At the latter place a small British garrison of 900 men and 700 faithful native troops was cooped up in the walls of the Residency, a large building which had been made as strong as possible to resist attack. Soon the place was be-



Native Cavalry Officer
at the Time of the
Mutiny

sieged by crowds of mutineers, one of whose cannon shots killed the brave commander, Sir Henry Lawrence.

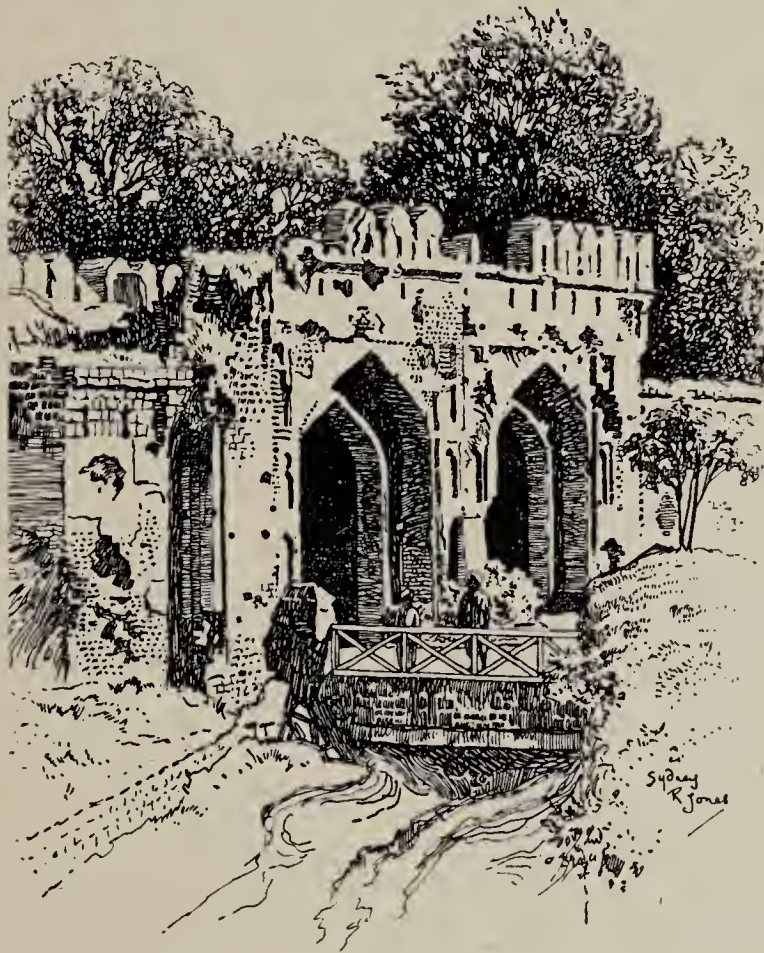
For eighty-seven days the defense was kept up with splendid courage by the little garrison. Cut off though they were from all news of the outside world, they held their own in spite of constant and fierce attacks of the mutineers, in spite of bad food, intense heat, cholera, and small-pox. At last, when all hope seemed to be gone, they heard the sound of distant firing.

It was Sir Henry Havelock and his brave troops, who had driven before them clouds of rebels, and amidst great difficulties were now forcing their way through the crowded streets of the city of Lucknow. Imagine the joy with which the weary and heroic garrison welcomed their deliverers!

Sir Colin Campbell Quells the Mutiny

Meanwhile at Delhi there had been events almost as exciting as those at Lucknow. Delhi is a vast fortified city, and its walls extend in a circuit of

more than 5½ miles. It was held by 40,000 rebel sepoys, and the British could, even at the end, muster only 9000 men to try to plant the Union Jack again on its walls. Their small force at first made no serious attack, but occupied a ridge a



The Cashmere Gate, Delhi

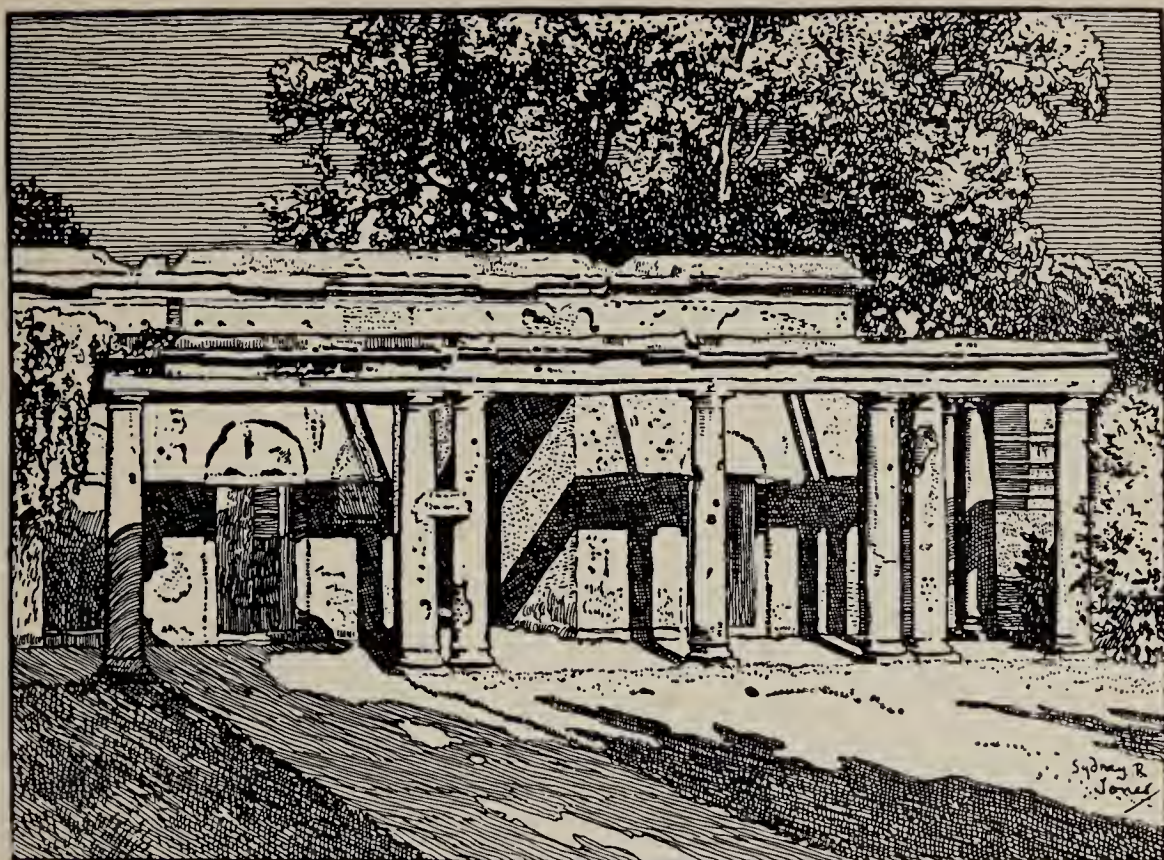
mile or two from the walls. There they were often attacked by the rebels, but they clung to that ridge through the fierce heats of the summer.

The arrival of reinforcements gave new energy to the British. Their siege guns began to batter breaches in the northern part of the wall; and at

last everything was ready for an assault on the great city. Shortly before dawn they moved towards the massive walls, and as the sun rose they rushed upon the points which were to be attacked. Under a terrible fire of musketry they managed to force their way up the walls, while others blew in one of the great gates. A few determined men rushed towards the gate and laid the bags of gunpowder. While doing this, most of them were shot down by the rebels on the walls, but two or three were left, and these fired the gunpowder and blew in the gate.

Then there was fierce fighting inside the walls for a long time. The rebels fought desperately from street to street and from house to house; but British pluck prevailed, even over terrible odds, and Delhi was at last won (September, 1857). For a brief space some of the British soldiers gave themselves over to acts of vengeance, for their blood boiled when they thought of the cruelties of the mutineers; but order was soon restored by the efforts of the officers.

At Lucknow there was sharp fighting before the garrison could be completely rescued. The aid brought by Havelock had not been sufficient, and a second time the Residency was besieged by the rebels. But more British troops were arriving from home, and they were led by the Gallant Sir Colin Campbell to the second relief of Lucknow. With



Ruins of the Residency, Lucknow

only 5000 men he drove aside large bodies of the rebels and stormed some great buildings at Lucknow. One of these was captured by Captain Garnet Wolseley, who was later to become famous.

After great difficulties the British garrison was rescued, and the men, women, and children were removed from the place which they had firmly held for six months (November, 1857). But the constant overwork in intense heat had been too much for the brave Havelock, and just after leaving Lucknow he died. No British officer has ever shown himself braver in fight or kinder and more generous to all men. He was the pattern of a

Christian soldier, and his death was mourned by all his countrymen.

The worst of the mutiny was now over, and by degrees the mutineers were beaten in Oude and also in Central India. Other nations had quite expected that England would lose India; but the struggle there showed the bravery of British soldiers, and proved that even under that burning sun, they never knew when they were beaten. That was one reason why they regained India, even when it seemed hopelessly lost. Another reason was that many of the peoples of India were contented with a rule which they had discovered to be far better than that of their native princes.

Parliament now determined to make the government in India better than ever before, and decided that the dominions in India were too large to be ruled by the East India Company. The governing powers of that famous company were therefore transferred to the Crown, and the queen issued her touching proclamation to the chiefs and princes of India declaring: "We hold ourselves bound to the Natives of our Indian territories by the same obligations of duty which bind us to all our other subjects, and those obligations by the blessing of God we shall faithfully and conscientiously fulfill." The actual government was entrusted to a viceroy, assisted by a Legislative Council in

India, and controlled by the Secretary of State for India, who is responsible to the Imperial Parliament.

In 1876 the Prince of Wales, afterwards King Edward VII, paid a visit to India, and was received with great enthusiasm by the native princes. In the following year, at a great assembly or durbar in Delhi, the queen was proclaimed Empress of India amid the approving shouts of the native princes and people. Towards the close of 1911 King George and Queen Mary visited India for the purpose of holding a coronation durbar. This was held at Delhi, amid scenes of unexampled magnificence and enthusiasm. To mark the occasion, and in accordance with the desires of the great mass of the population, the King-Emperor announced the removal of the capital from Calcutta to Delhi, the ancient seat of Empire.

Since the Mutiny the whole energies of the Government have been directed to promoting the welfare of the 300,000,000 people under their control. They have built railways and canals, and greatly extended the irrigation system. They have done much to lessen the horrors of the twin scourges of India, plague and famine, and have provided a thoroughly efficient medical service. The most notable event in recent years has been the passing of an Act by the Imperial Parliament

granting to the people of India a greater share in the government of their own country. This measure will, it is hoped, put an end to the unrest, some of it seditious, that has sprung up in India as in all eastern lands.

EGYPT

Egypt is not a British possession, but it has been for many years under British protection, garrisoned by British troops, and administered by British officials. It was hoped that in time the Egyptian Government would be able to take over the full control of the country, but the possibility of that seems every year to grow fainter. The British occupation has thus every appearance of being permanent.

The story of Britain connection with Egypt may be said to begin with Lord Beaconsfield's purchase of nearly half the total shares in the Suez Canal. These shares were originally in the possession of Ismail Pasha, the Khedive or ruler of Egypt. Ismail was a worthless creature, who put his own pleasures before the interests of his country. He is said to have been in debt to half the money-lenders in Europe. In order to raise more money, he offered for sale his shares in the Suez Canal, and Lord Beaconsfield at once bought them on behalf of Great Britain for \$20,000,000.

Never was there a more fortunate purchase. The shares have paid themselves over and over again. More important still, Britain has now a controlling voice in the management of the Canal which forms the highway to India. There is thus no longer any danger of this great waterway being closed to her

ships in time of war. As the Canal is constructed through Egyptian territory, it will be seen that the good government and welfare of Egypt is a matter of vital importance to Britain.

The money got from the Canal shares led Ismail into fresh excesses, and his extravagance and folly knew no bounds. At length his funds were exhausted. The national treasury was bankrupt, and the creditors were calling out for their money. As most of these were French or British, the Governments of these two countries intervened on their behalf and in the interests of law and order. They deposed the spendthrift Khedive and appointed his son Tewfik as his successor. The financial affairs of the country were placed in the hands of British and French officials until such time as the national debts should be duly paid.

The interference of foreigners in the government of the country was hateful to a great body of the people. Taking advantage of this feeling, Arabi Pasha, the foremost general of the Khedive, raised the cry of "Egypt for the Egyptians." The army rallied to his support, and Arabi obtained control of the Government. He was unable to restrain his lawless followers, and a riot broke out at Alexandria, in which fifty Europeans were massacred.

Great Britain now proposed to France that the two countries should again take joint action to restore order. France refused to do so, and Britain

sent a fleet to bombard Alexandria. In a few hours the batteries of the city were silenced, and the rebels fled inland.

An army of 30,000 men were dispatched from Britain, under the leadership of Sir Garnet Wolseley, in order to disperse Arabi's followers and to restore order in the country. Arabi entrenched himself at Tel-el-Kebir, about 200 miles from Cairo. There, in 1882, Sir Garnet Wolseley, after a night march of twelve miles through the desert, surprised the rebel forces and totally defeated them. By this victory the power of the Khedive was once more restored, and a British force was left in the country to assist in maintaining order. France, which had refused to join with Britain in putting down the revolt, now wished to have a say in the control of Egypt, but Britain would not agree. Having singlehandedly undertaken all the risks of war, she was not disposed to share with another the fruits of peace.

No sooner was Arabi's revolt quelled than a new



Egyptian Soldier

danger threatened Egypt from another quarter. The Khedive not only ruled Egypt, but also a great extent of country to the south known as the Sudan. There a fanatic prophet, calling himself the Mahdi, or Messiah, began to preach a Holy War against the Egyptians for allowing foreigners to share in the government. The wild, freedom-loving Arab tribes of the desert flocked to his standard, and he was soon in command of a great army.

The Khedive sent a force of 10,000 men against him under Hicks Pasha, an Englishman. The Egyptian forces, badly armed and badly trained, were no match for the hardy sons of the desert. They were utterly routed, and hardly a man escaped to tell the tale. By this defeat the Egyptian garrisons in the Sudan, amounting to about 50,000 men, were cut off from Egypt, and were in grave danger of being overwhelmed.

The British Government now thought it time to interfere. They sent out General Gordon, who had already made a great name for himself in the Sudan, to withdraw the garrisons and to make what arrangements he could for the future government of the country. Gordon was the Bayard of our day, a noble soldier hero of modern times. The Government hoped the magic of his name and personality would win for him the support of the Arab tribes.

Gordon reached Khartoum, the capital of the

Sudan, only to find that he could not get out again, as the city was closely beset on all sides. The home Government was urged to send a force to relieve him, but months were wasted talking about the matter. Then an army was dispatched under Lord Wolseley to rescue the heroic Gordon. Wolseley's ad-



General Gordon

vance was slow, as he was opposed at every step, and two big battles had to be fought on the way. All this took time, and when the advance guard reached Khartoum it was found that the city had fallen, and that Gordon and all the garrison had been massacred.

The whole of the Sudan now passed into the possession of the Mahdi, and darkness once more settled down on the land where the light of civilization had just been dawning.

The Dervishes, as the Mahdi's followers were called, made bold by their past successes, soon advanced to the invasion of Egypt. Egypt by itself was in no condition to stand up successfully against

the savage hordes of the desert, and Britain once more came to the rescue. The army was reorganized. Although composed mainly of Egyptians, it was steadied by the inclusion of several regiments of British troops. It was drilled by British sergeants and officered by British officers.

After years of preparation, of constant drilling and training, the general in command, Sir Herbert Kitchener, thought, in 1898, that the time was ripe for the reconquest of the Sudan. Constructing a



A Dervish

railway along every inch of his march, and accompanied by a flotilla of gunboats on the Nile, he steadily pushed his way southwards. The Dervishes, now under the leadership of the Khalifa, the successor of the Mahdi, offered a heroic resistance. They took their last stand at Omdurman, near Khartoum. They fought with matchless bravery, but against the quick-firing guns of the Anglo-Egyptian army bravery was of no avail. They charged right up to the

mouth of the guns, but were mown down before they could get within striking distance of their hated foe. By the end of the day the great army of 50,000 men was cut to pieces, and the Sudan once more passed into British and Egyptian possession.

While Sir Herbert Kitchener, created Lord Kitchener of Khartoum after the victory of Omdurman, had been organizing and drilling his army in preparation for an advance on the Sudan, Lord Cromer had been busied with the administration of the country. He set up a new system of finance, reformed many of the abuses, and began to build up an education system on the model of that of western nations. The construction of the great dams on the Nile was undertaken on his advice. In this way much of the water that formerly flowed down to the sea is stored in the reservoirs that have been built in different parts. The irrigation system has in consequence been much extended and improved, great tracts of desert have been brought under cultivation, and the harvests of the old lands have been doubled and trebled. No wonder, then, that the great minister is now generally known as "the creator of modern Egypt."



THE HOUSE OF PARLIAMENT, OTTAWA



Old and New Homesteads in Western Canada

BRITISH COLONIES IN THE WEST.

The Dominion of Canada

We must now turn our attention to the growth of the chief groups of British colonies. We shall not have time to learn about the smaller groups, such as those in the West Indies and elsewhere. It will perhaps be enough if we learn about the North American, Australasian,¹ and South African colonies.

The Indian Empire cannot be called a colony. Its peoples have submitted to British rule; but that great land has not been colonized or peopled by men of British race, and it never can be, because the heat is so intense that white men cannot live there all their lives.

A colony is a land which has been peopled, wholly or in part, by men of our own flesh and

¹ The name Australasia includes all the islands off or near the coast of Australia. It also includes New Zealand, which lies 1200 miles east of Australia.



An Old Street in the French Quarter of
Quebec

blood; and this has happened in the colonies in North America, Australia, and South Africa.

In two previous lessons we learned about the revolt of the chief American colonies, which in 1776 called themselves the United States of America. Many of their people did not want to be separated from the mother country, and they soon removed across the

border, and settled in parts of Canada and of Nova Scotia, so as still to remain loyal to the British Crown. About 20,000 of them settled in a part of Nova Scotia, which was soon declared to be a separate British colony, and was called New Brunswick.

Others settled in Upper Canada, i. e., the parts above Montreal, on the great River St. Lawrence; and their coming made the British people far stronger in Canada than ever they had been before.

The French, who form nearly all the population of Lower Canada, had remained loyal to the British rule, even when the troops of the United States invaded their land and tempted them to revolt.

And yet the Government in London long afterwards feared that Canada would revolt as the United States had done. To prevent any chance of that, Canada was divided into two provinces, which were kept as much apart as possible. But this plan worked very badly. The British government continued to interfere too much in their affairs as it had done with the older colonies which formed the United States, and both provinces were discontented with their government.

In the first year of Queen Victoria's reign there were revolts near Toronto and Montreal, and then the Government decided to unite the two provinces and let Canada manage its own affairs much more than before. From that time (1841) the British part of Canada has gone on increasing in population and prosperity far more than the French part. The French cling to their old manner of life and of farming, while the English and Scots of Upper Canada have done far more by their efforts to develop their part of the country.

For instance, a great railway, called the Grand Trunk Railway, was opened; and in order to connect Montreal with the United States, a very expensive bridge was made over the great River St.

Lawrence. It is a lofty bridge, more than three thousand yards long, and rests on twenty-four huge stone buttresses, built so as to resist the pressure of the blocks of ice in spring. When the first warm weather breaks up the ice of the great river, the ice floes come down with terrific force. Sometimes they are piled one on the other until they topple over on the top of the embankment which leads to the bridge.

In 1868 the first telegraphic cable under the sea was laid between the west of Ireland and Newfoundland, and since then several cables have been laid between the old world and the new.

From Ocean to Ocean

Canada and the other British colonies in North America continued to thrive, but little was done to unite them till 1864. Then plans for uniting them were discussed, and thanks to Sir John Macdonald, all those colonies (except Newfoundland) agreed to form the Dominion of Canada, which includes all the North American colonies from Nova Scotia on the Atlantic to Vancouver Island on the far-off Pacific. Since then the Dominion of Canada has become more and more prosperous. (See map, p. ...)

One great drawback to Canada is the long and severe winter. Great rivers like the St. Lawrence

are frozen over, and the ice is so thick that powerful steamers cannot force their way through. So, for five months of every year, there is scarcely any river traffic even between Montreal and Quebec. In some of the distant parts of the great northwest the winter is very dreary, and the settlers on their lonely farms often hear nothing but the moaning of the icy wind and the still more dismal howling of wolves. The ground is frozen to a depth of five feet or more.

But when the spring comes the ice breaks up on the rivers, and grinds its way down on the swollen streams. The frost and snow have fertilized the soil, and nature soon puts on her robe of freshest green. The spring corn begins to shoot luxuriantly, for the heat of the sun draws up the frost and moisture from the subsoil, forming a kind of natural hotbed. The corn grows so rapidly that the harvest-time is earlier than in England, and the yield of wheat is generally quite as large as it is on our best cornlands.

In British Columbia, which is on the side of the Rocky Mountains sloping towards the Pacific Ocean, the climate is much milder and more like our own. It is a land of wild mountains, and large swiftly-running rivers in which are swarms of salmon and other large fish. It has some fine harbors on the Pacific Ocean, and steamers ply from them to Japan and China.

The Canadian Pacific Railway has been made so as to connect the ports of British Columbia with the ports on the River St. Lawrence and the Atlantic. For many years the quickest way from England to China was by steamer to Montreal, then by the Canadian Pacific Line to Vancouver,



Scene on the Canadian Pacific Railway

and thence across the Pacific. But the formation of the Trans-Siberian Railway has opened up a much speedier route which brings Peking within twelve days of England.

The Canadian Pacific Railway crosses thousands of miles of prairies, which used to be desolate, but are now gradually being settled by farmers. It

then climbs up the spurs of the Rocky Mountains, crosses them through a very picturesque pass, and by means of several tunnels. From this point it descends towards the Pacific through scenes of wild grandeur, piercing through dark forests and crossing wide torrents, till it comes to the more level ground and ends at Vancouver.

When we consider the magnitude of this and other public works, we may well be proud of the enterprise of our Canadian kinsmen, which has opened up the fertile plains of the west to be the happy homes of future generations.

THE ISLAND CONTINENT**Exploration and Growth of Australia**

There are great differences between the Dominion of Canada and Australia. Canada is merely the northern part of a great continent. Australia is a vast island in the southern sea. Canada is a land of great lakes and of navigable rivers. The Australian lakes are merely useless swamps; the rivers are often mere marshy pools connected by a feeble trickle of water, but after heavy rains they rapidly swell into raging torrents. In Canada the winter is long and intensely cold, while Australia, except in its most southerly parts, has no winter. It has been wittily said that in Australia you may ladle your butter out in a spoon, while in Canada it often has to be chopped with a hatchet. (See map, p.)

Yet in these very different lands British colonists have prospered equally, and the population of Australia and New Zealand, like that of the Dominion of Canada, is increasing at a rapid rate. In 1835 it was about 80,000, while at the last census in 1911 it was nearly 4,500,00.

Although Captain Cook discovered the Pacific coast of Australia in 1770 and proclaimed it to be British land, it was not till 1787 that any point of it was settled. In that year 757 convicts were sent



CAPTAIN COOK AT BOTANY BAY

From an original painting by Alec Ball

out to form a settlement at Botany Bay, on the coast of New South Wales. In the next year they were removed to Sydney, a little farther north, on the lovely harbor, Port Jackson. Even at that more favorable position the difficulties were great, and the infant colony at first nearly perished of starvation.

Later on free settlers came out, and by degrees roads were made over the mountains, and sheep and cattle began to increase enormously. An adventurous young explorer named Bass sailed through the straits called after him, and when it was thus proved that Van Diemen's Land (now called Tasmania) was an island, convicts were sent there, and formed the second Australian colony (1804). A party of convicts was also sent to Western Australia (1826), thus founding the third of those colonies.

A little later Captain Sturt started in a large boat, on the upper part of a great river which the native Australians called Murrumbidgee. He wanted to find out whether it flowed into a lake or into the sea. Floating down the stream, often through dense woods of gum trees, he and his comrades at length came to a fine broad river, which is now called the Murray.

Several times they were in danger from the natives, who hurled spears and stones at them. The river seemed to dwindle away as it flowed



Captain James Cook

through sandy and almost rainless wastes; and when they neared the sea they found no harbor and no ship waiting for them, but only a great shallow lagoon. Sorely discouraged and wearied, they had to row all the way back again against the stream. The toil under the fierce sun was so exhausting that Captain Sturt lost his

eyesight, and one of his men went mad. It is by hardships such as these that new lands are opened up for settlement. In 1834 a colony was founded in South Australia, part of which Sturt and his men had discovered.

The youngest of those colonies are Victoria and Queensland, which after 1850 became independent of the mother colony, New South Wales. Just about the time when Victoria became a colony, gold was discovered there in large quantities, and a wild rush for gold was made from all parts. Farmers left their land, tradesmen shut up their shops, and sailors deserted their ships, in the hope of making their fortune at the goldfields. Soon most of them went back, sadder and wiser, and not much richer than before. In two or three years the craze was over, and matters settled down.

Though gold mining has been and is profitable, yet the chief wealth of Australia is in the rearing of sheep and the growth of corn. Australian wheat and wool are about the best in the world. The vine and nearly all fruit trees flourish in the fertile parts; and if the rainfall were more regular, Australia would be one of the richest lands in the world. But the long droughts often ruin the hopes of the farmer, and cause the death of thousands of sheep and cattle.

In recent years, by the construction of reservoirs and dams, and by greater attention to the irrigation system, the ravages of drought have been materially lessened.

In 1901 the five Australian colonies and Tasmania, following the example of Canada in 1867, united under one parliament, and now form "The Commonwealth of Australia." Since that date the prosperity of Australia has advanced by leaps and bounds, and to-day the tide of emigration is setting towards it with a volume which recalls the mad rush for the goldfields in 1850.

Australia and New Zealand

Many explorers have risked their lives, and some have lost their lives, in trying to find out whether there was any good land in the interior of Australia. Now there are millions of sheep feeding on the salt bush and scanty grass of the vast inland plains,

and mining goes on briskly in some of the most desolate parts of Queensland, South Australia, and Western Australia.

The great bulk of the population, however, lives on the coast region between Brisbane and Melbourne. These two towns, together with Sydney and Port Adelaide, are the chief ports; and huge steamers there take on board passengers for Europe, as well as wool, corn, wine, and frozen meat.

Tasmania has the best climate of any of the Australian colonies, and there all the English fruits can be grown to a size and perfection rarely reached in England.

New Zealand is perhaps still more like England.



A Maori Chief

It is often called the Great Britain of the South. The climate is much moister than that of Australia, and the rainfall is also like that of England. A well-known writer has said: "In New Zealand everything is British. The scenery, the color and general appearance of the waters and the shape of the hills are

very like those of the West of Ireland and the Highlands of Scotland. The mountains are brown and sharp; the rivers are bright and rapid, and the lakes are deep and blue and are bosomed among the mountains. If a long-sleeping Briton could be set down among the Otago Hills, and told on awaking that he was traveling in Galway or in the West of Scotland, he might easily be deceived.”

Captain Cook discovered New Zealand in 1769, but not for sixty-six years was any successful attempt made to found a colony there. In 1839 a company was formed to buy land and form a settlement. A treaty was made with the powerful and warlike natives called Maoris. But in course of time there were disputes, and a war broke out, in which the English troops were three or four times beaten by the brave natives before they were finally successful.

Now the natives are gradually dying out, as are the natives of Australia and the Red Indians in North America. The Maoris often sadly say: “As the white man’s rat has killed our rat, so the European fly is driving our fly away. As foreign clover is killing our ferns, so the Maori himself will disappear before the white man.”

These sad sentences will show that all European creatures and plants thrive in New Zealand. The North Island is hot enough to grow tropical plants and produce; while the southern end of South

Island has a climate like that of Scotland, and sheep and oxen thrive there. In the vast Canterbury Plains millions of sheep are bred, and their flesh is often sent frozen in very cold chambers on board ship to the opposite end of the world. The other chief exports are wool, corn, and gold. New Zealand has such varied products that it may be described as a little world in itself.

Like the other Australasian colonies, New Zealand is almost entirely self-governing. The authority of the Crown is represented by a Governor-General, but the conduct of affairs is left to a ministry appointed by the majority in the colonial Parliament. For many years the colonies took no share in the burdens of Empire. The whole cost of imperial defense by land and sea was borne by the motherland. But a new spirit has been awakened throughout the Empire. The colonies have taken over the responsibility for their own military forces, and have made considerable, though still inadequate, contributions to the upkeep of the royal navy.

THE DARK CONTINENT

The Scramble for Africa

Within the last thirty years Great Britain has brought under her rule land equal to one-third of the whole of Europe. Some of these additions have been in the East, but the greater part of the new territories is situated in Africa. The opening up of the "Dark Continent" was in the first place the work of the explorers, of whom Livingstone, Stanley, Burton, and Thomson are perhaps the best known. The history of their travels showed that the great continent was not a pathless and barren desert as had long been supposed, but a land well watered with mighty rivers and great lakes, occupied by teeming millions of a black population, and abounding in all products of a tropical and sub-tropical climate. The vast plateaux that formed the greater part of the interior were found to be free from the deadly fevers that haunt the marshes along the coast, and so were well fitted for the settlement of white men.

Just at this time the nations of Europe awakened to the importance of colonies as an outlet for their surplus population and as a sure means of expanding their commerce and trade. All the rest of the world was already parcelled out, and the No-man's Land of the interior of Africa alone offered

them a field for expansion. In this way began among the leading nations a keen rivalry for possession of the most favored tracts, with the result that in a few years there was hardly an unclaimed square mile in the whole continent.

In the general scramble for land Britain fared well. Through the enterprise of Cecil Rhodes, one of the greatest of empire builders, a vast extent of territory, rich in minerals, well watered, and admirably suited for all kinds of agricultural products, was added to the British empire under the name of Rhodesia.

On the west coast, through the efforts of Sir George Goldie, the rich lands surrounding the lower and middle reaches of the Niger River have come under British control. The new territory has received the name of Nigeria. The coast region is low-lying and unhealthy, but farther inland the elevation is greater and the land is better suited for occupation by white settlers. The whole country is densely populated with an industrious and enterprising race of negroes. The most valuable products are palm oil, rubber, cotton, and timber. Rich mines of tin have been discovered in the northern part of the territory.

On the east coast a vast extent of territory, stretching from Rhodesia in the south to the Sudan in the north, has in recent years come under the British flag. The new possessions are known as



Matabele Warriors

British Central Africa and British East Africa. British Central Africa is an unfortunate, because misleading, name, for no part of it approaches the real center of Africa. A more fitting name would be Nyasaland, for Lake Nyasa is in the very heart of the district. It borders Rhodesia on the south and stretches north to Lake Tanganyika. The land is singularly well adapted for the cultivation of coffee, which is now grown on a great scale.

British East Africa comprises the regions formerly known as Zanzibar, Uganda, and the East

African Protectorate. It is over a million square miles in area, and has a population of about three millions. These are made up of various races, of whom the warlike Masai are the best known. Joseph Thomson's story of his travels among this wild race forms one of the most interesting pages in the history of exploration. Uganda, the name of the country round the northern half of Lake Victoria Nyanza, is the most prosperous of the East African possessions. It is covered with magnificent forests in which rubber trees abound. The leading products are ivory, rubber, ebony, sugar-cane, and shellac. Zanzibar, which comprises the island of that name and a small strip of coast, was formerly an independent state ruled by its own sultan. It is now under British protection, and its sultan occupies a position like that of the rulers of native states in India. In former times it was the chief seat of the slave trade and the center of a great commerce. With the passing of the slaves its trade and commerce have declined, and it is now of little importance.

The other nations of Europe, although not faring so well as Britain in the "grab" for new lands, succeeded in adding great tracts of country to their existing possessions. France in this way obtained an enormous empire in North-west Africa, extending from Algeria to the River Congo. This region is said to be twenty times the size of France, but



CECIL RHODES IN COUNCIL WITH THE MATABELE CHIEFS

From an original painting by William Rainey, R.I.

much of it consists of barren deserts. Germany added to her colonial empire a million square miles on the east and west coasts of Africa. The rich and fertile valley of the Congo, with its teeming millions, passed into the possession of Leopold, King of Belgium. He made over the government of this territory to a trading company, which cared more for big dividends than for the welfare of the people. All the nations of Europe cried out against the barbarity and cruelty of the administration, and a few years ago the government of the country was taken over by the Belgian nation.

Italy obtained a strip of land along the Red Sea, but it has been singularly unfortunate in its venture. It has spent much treasure and wasted thousands of lives in an endeavor to extend inland, but its army of conquest was almost annihilated by the Abyssinians. In 1912 Tripoli was taken by Italy from the Turks.

The Old Colonies

By far the most important British colony in Africa is Cape Colony. It is so called from the Cape of Good Hope at the south-western tip of that great continent. The Portuguese gave that name to the cape soon after they discovered it (1486), because, if they reached that cape, there was a good hope that they would reach India.



Old Dutch House near Cape Town, bequeathed by Cecil Rhodes to be the residence of the Premier of a United South Africa

In those days men came to use the Cape route to India more and more; and the Cape was the chief place at which ships called between Europe and India. After some time the Dutch East India Company took possession of it, and jealously kept out all other settlers and traders. Indeed, many of their own settlers found the rules so irksome that they moved right away inland and formed other settlements.

At last the rule of the Dutch ceased. In 1795 a British fleet captured the settlement; and it has ever since belonged to Great Britain, except for a short interval. Though it was a British colony, the settlers were nearly all Dutch, until, in 1820, the government helped a large number of British



A Kafir Warrior

settlers to go out there, most of whom settled at or near Port Elizabeth.

There were many troubles with the natives, especially with the agile and warlike Kafirs. At one time it seemed as though their hosts, armed with spears, would destroy all the colonists, but at last they were beaten. Later on the bounds of the colony were extended, owing to a very strange event.

One of the native tribes believed that if their people killed themselves, all their warriors of the present and the past would come back again to life. So they

began to commit suicide and it is said that 50,000 perished by their own hands. In the land thus left desolate, the British government settled a large number of Europeans.

There were many troubles between the Government and the Dutch settlers, who did not like having their slaves set free by order of the British law of 1833. In the following years nearly 10,000 of the Dutch farmers, called Boers, packed up their goods in wagons, and went away to the north of the Orange River, so as to be beyond British con-

trol. There they founded two independent states — the Transvaal and the Orange Free State.

Natal was so called by the Portuguese discoverers who first sighted its coast in 1497 on Christmas Day, the *natal* day of Christ. It was not claimed by any Europeans till 1823, when a small band of Englishmen bought land from the Zulus and settled there. The little colony was often in danger from the attacks of the powerful and warlike Zulus, who also killed a great number of Dutchmen or Boers. Then, when these had conquered the Zulus, they attacked the British settlers, but were at last driven back, and Natal became a British colony in 1843.

The Transvaal and Orange Free State

None of Britain's colonies has been more troubled by its neighbors than Natal. In 1878 there was war with the powerful Zulu king, Cetewayo, who two or three times defeated the British troops before they succeeded in breaking the power of the king and taking him prisoner.

Then there was an even more unfortunate war with the Boers in the Transvaal. To save these people from the Zulus, Britain made the Transvaal part of her empire; but many of the Boers were angry at losing their independence, and rebelled. The British Government thought it right at that time to restore their independence to them, and this led to great trouble in later years.

The discovery of gold and other valuable minerals in the Transvaal led to a great rush of people from other parts, most of them being British subjects. Mines were sold and let to the newcomers, who built a large town called Johannesburg. Before long the British subjects in the Transvaal were more numerous than the Boers. They had to pay very heavy taxes to the Boer Government, without receiving in return the fair treatment which the Boer president had promised to them. Even their children were not allowed to learn English in the schools.

Such a state of things was very galling to free-born Britons, and many attempts were made to get better treatment. But the Boer Government was unwilling to allow the Outlanders, as the foreigners were called, to enjoy any real political liberty. After years of quarreling and discussion, the Outlanders at last appealed to Queen Victoria's Government to help them. Lord Milner, the British High Commissioner in South Africa, had an interview with President Kruger, and his friend Mr. Steyn, the President of the Orange Free State, and tried to obtain a promise of fair treatment for British subjects. But the meeting was a failure.

At length the British Government insisted on something being done. The answer was a declaration of war. In October, 1899, before Britain could send a sufficient army to South Africa, the Boers

of the Transvaal, aided by the Boers of the Orange Free State, invaded Natal and Cape Colony. At first the British suffered reverses. Their troops were besieged in Ladysmith, Kimberley, and Mafeking, but they held out bravely, in spite of illness and want of good food. Several generals were beaten in trying to relieve them. But they were at last relieved, and Lord Roberts captured Bloemfontein, Johannesburg, and Pretoria, the chief towns of the Boer states, and proclaimed these states to be part of the British Empire.

By this time an army of 250,000 men was engaged in South Africa, made up of men from all parts of the Empire. Australia in the far east, Canada in the far west, sent brave young men to help the Mother Country.

Even after their chief places were in the hands of the British, the Boers bravely kept up the struggle, not fighting pitched battles, but falling on convoys and bodies of troops on the march. After the war had gone on for nearly three years, causing the loss of thousands of lives and the wasting of millions of pounds, in April, 1902, the Boer leaders met Lord Kitchener, the British commander-in-chief, and discussed terms of peace. Repeated meetings ended in a general surrender of the Boers on May 31 of the same year.

No power could have acted with greater generosity than Great Britain did after the war. The

sum of fifteen millions was paid over to the Boers to enable them to restore their homesteads and to restock their farms, while a sum of forty millions was advanced to them on loan. This generous treatment did much to heal the wounds left by the war. The granting of a measure of representative government in 1904, followed by the establishment of full self-government in 1906, only four and a half years after the war, completed the reconciliation thus begun, and converted recent foes into loyal citizens of the Empire. In 1909 the Transvaal and Orange Colony took their place with Cape Colony and Natal in a federation known as the Union of South Africa.



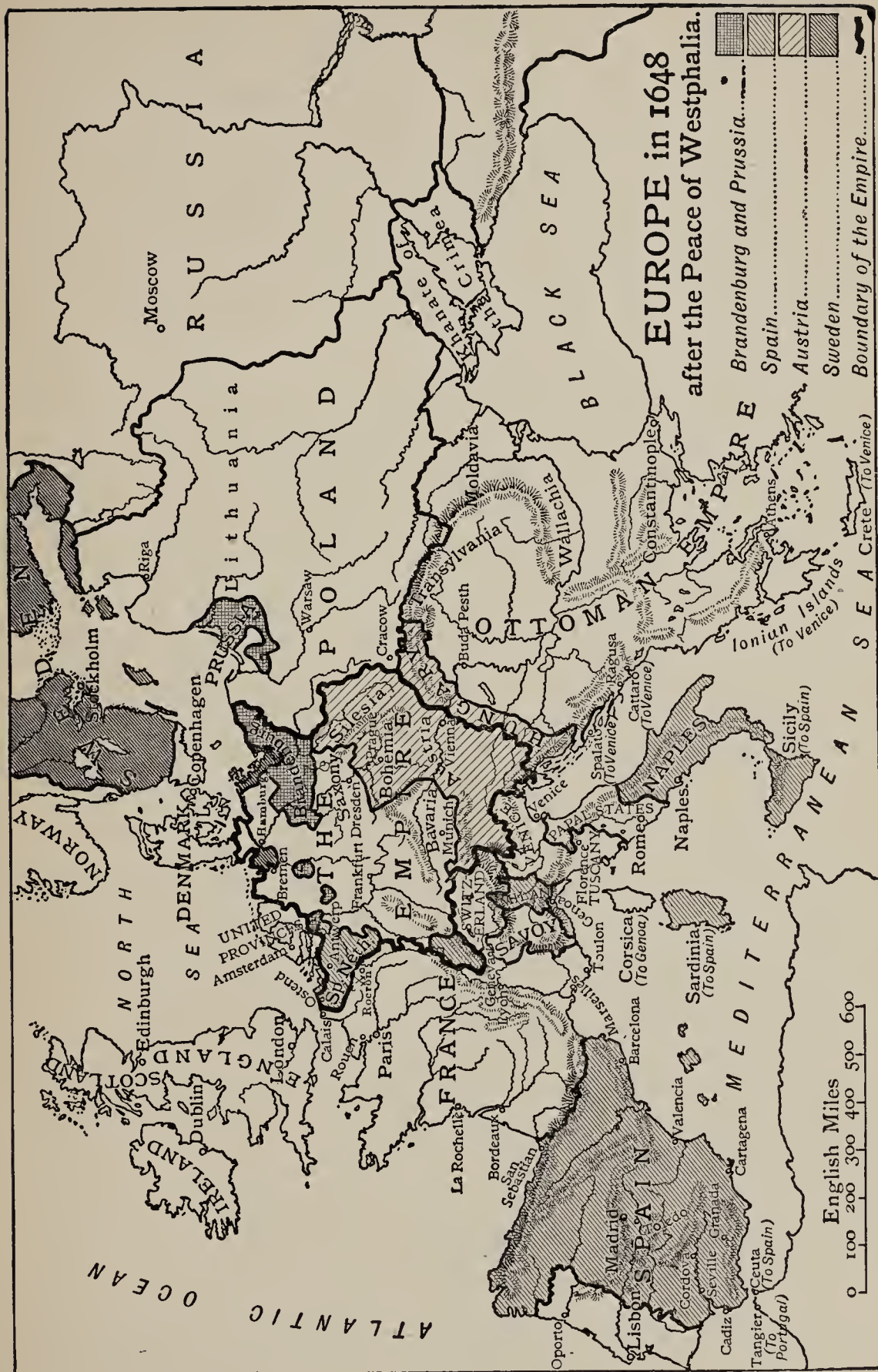
Boers on the Veldt

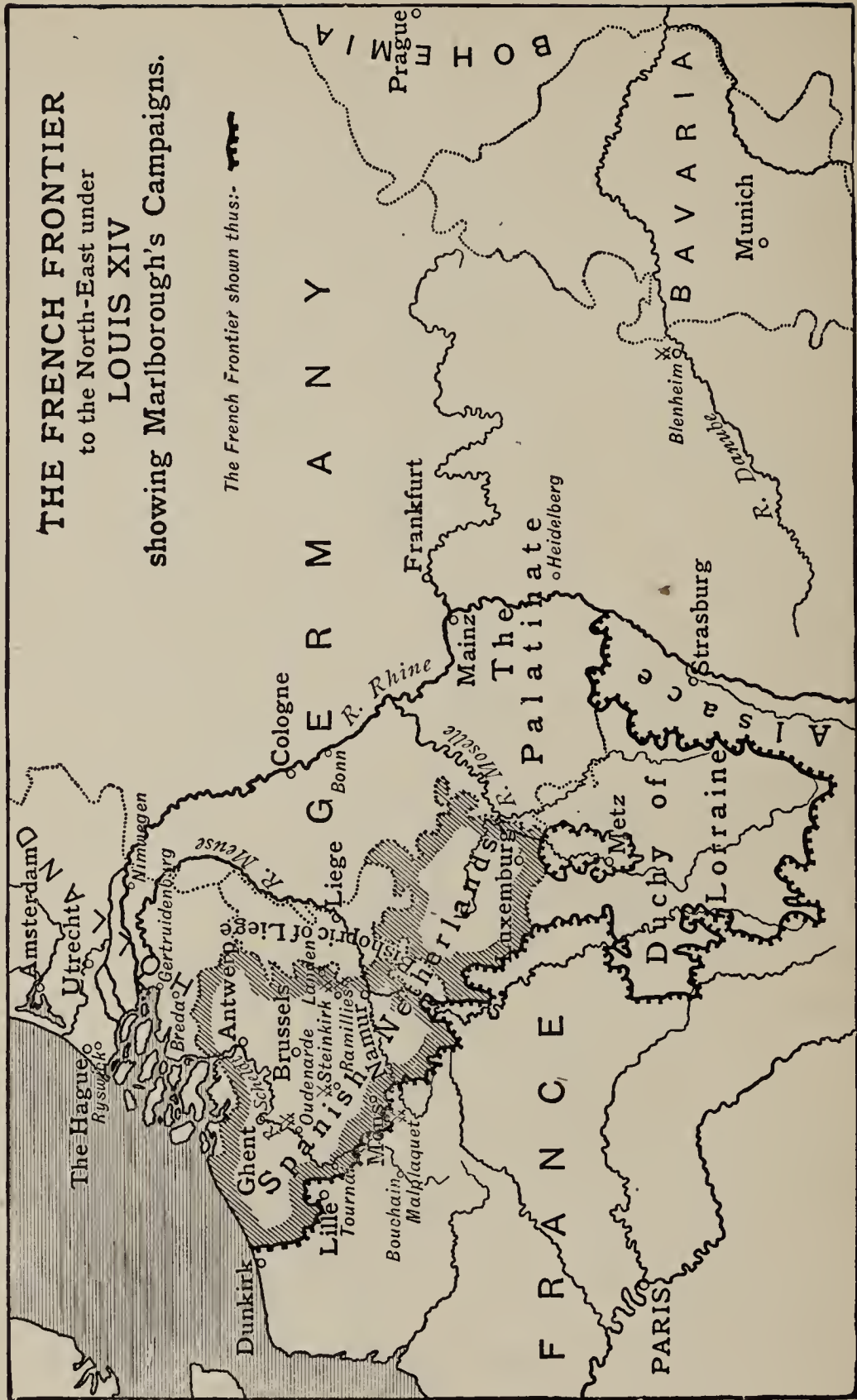
We have now learned about the men who, both in peace and war, have helped to make Britain great and prosperous; and, among all the stories of the British nation, none is more wonderful than that of its spread over vast continents far removed from the British Isles. Nearly all of this Empire has been won since 1757, when Clive conquered Bengal at Plassey. In 150 years Britains have won complete supremacy in India, Canada, Australasia, and South Africa; and though they lost that splendid land, the United States, yet they have made Canada a great Dominion, stretching from ocean to ocean. In speaking of their Empire across the seas, they may well say, in the prophetic words of one of their poets:—

“Regions Cæsar never knew
Thy posterity shall sway,
Where his eagles never flew,
None invincible as they.”

Americans also can take pride in this splendid expansion, for, although under separate governments, Americans and British are one great family.

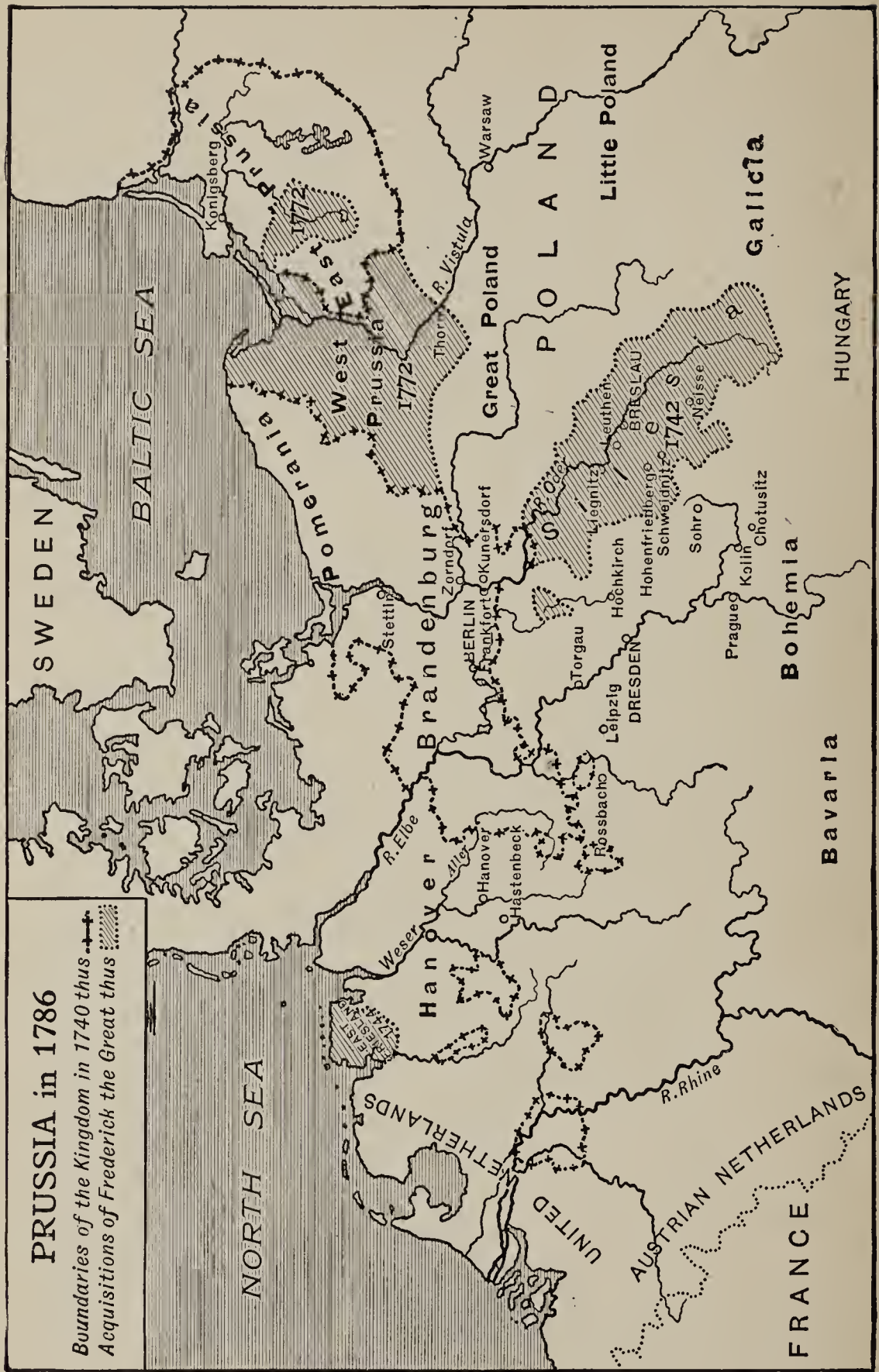
APPENDIX I—MAPS

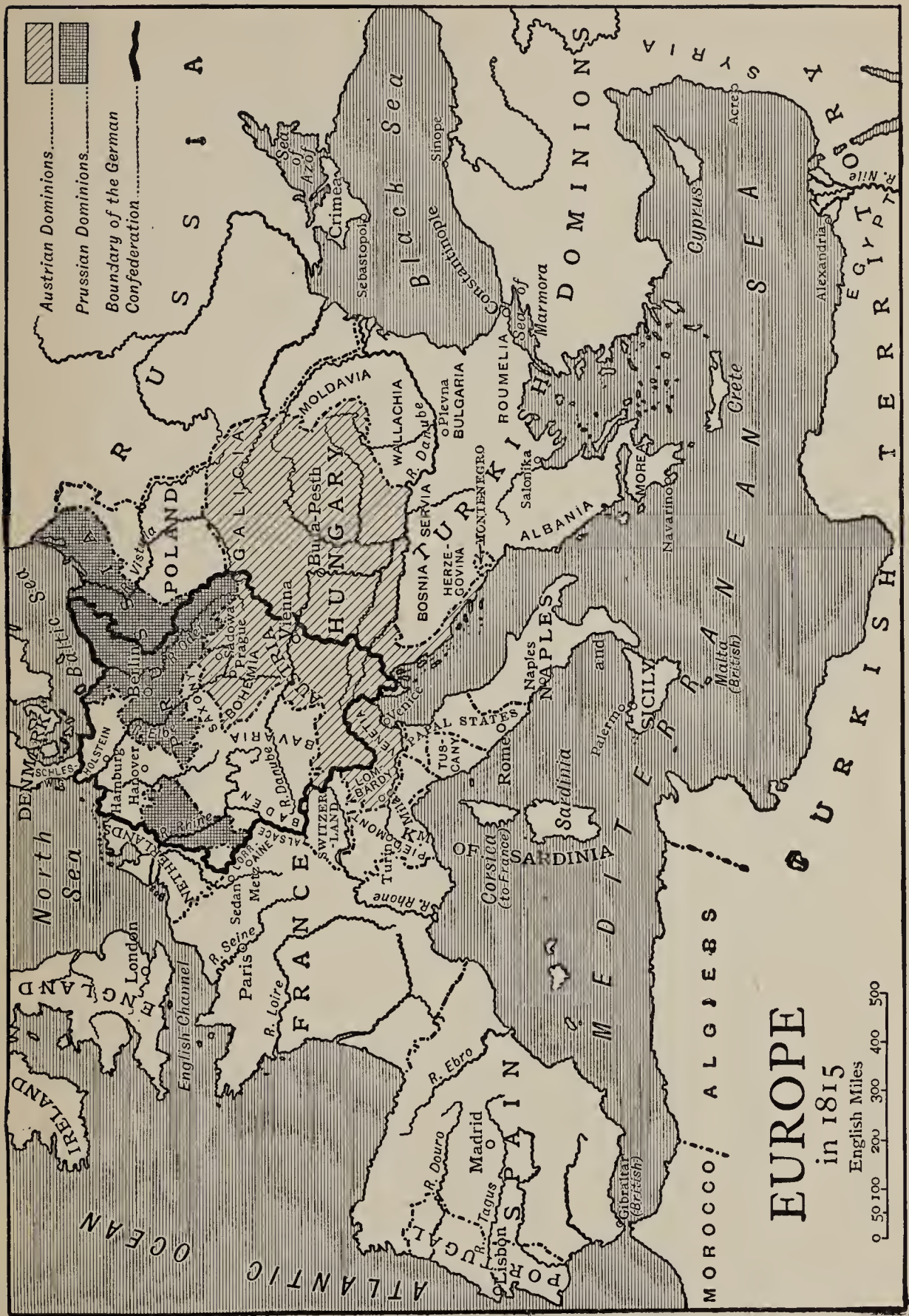


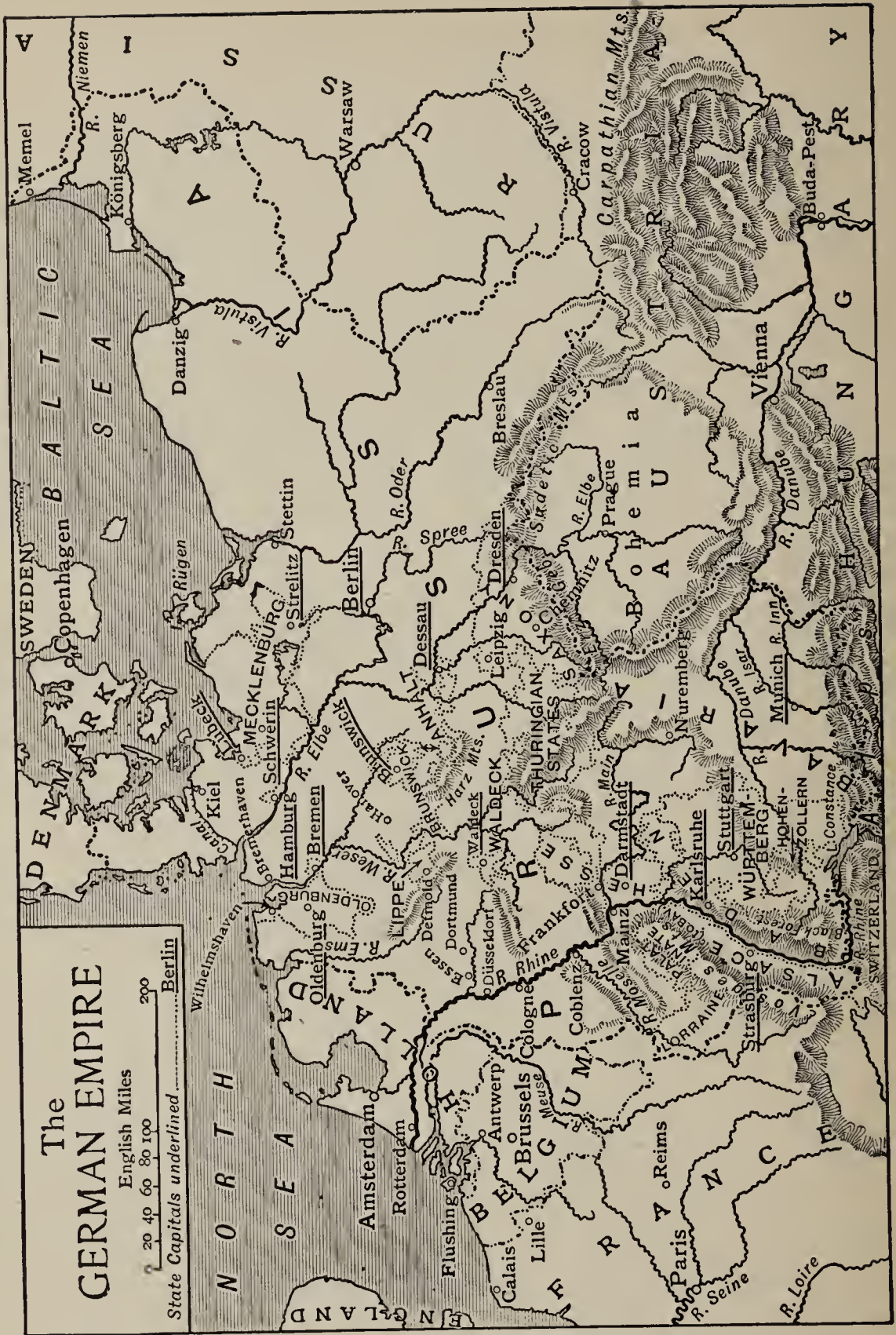


Note the position of Blenheim on the Danube. Marlborough's victory saved Vienna and prevented a French occupation of Germany.









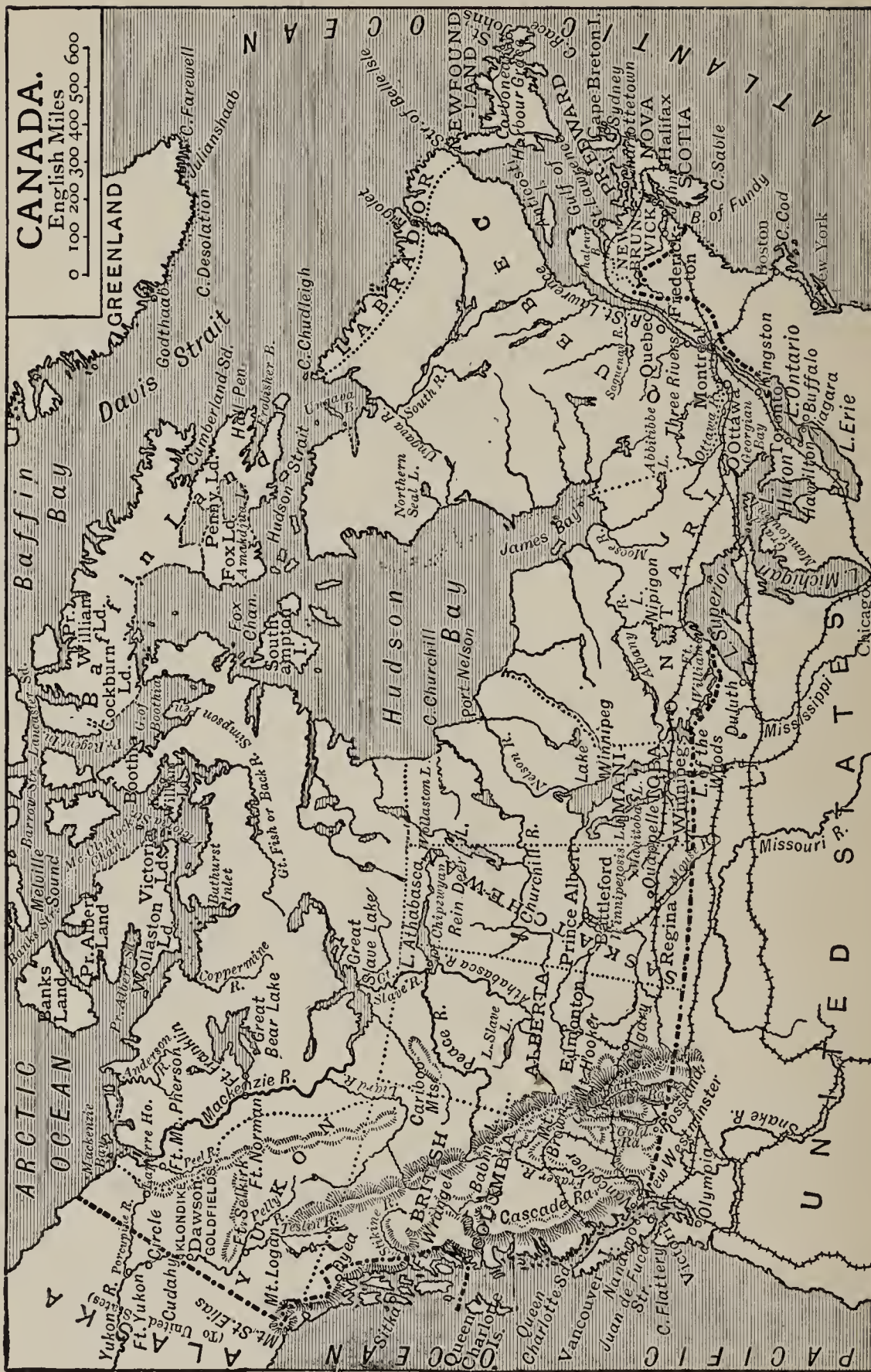
The German Empire comprises 4 kingdoms (*Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Württemberg*), 6 Grand-Duchies, 5 Duchies, 7 Principalities, 3 Free Towns (*Lübeck, Bremen, Hamburg*), and the Imperial Territory of *Alsace-Lorraine*.



A number of causes combined to retard the union of Italy. First its shape, four times longer than it is broad, tended to isolate the several regions, and the presence of the Apennine range splitting the country in two has further divided the population. Again, the existence of the Papal States in mid Italy prevented the fusion of north and south, the Vatican always looking with jealousy upon any combination among neighboring States. In the Middle Ages the claim of the Emperor over north Italy was another disturbing influence, while in later times the plain of Lombardy was the natural battleground of France and Austria.



In the days of colonial rivalry France tried to hem in the sea-board colonies by occupying the line of the Mississippi and Ohio. This strategy was repeated in the American Civil War.





New South Wales granted responsible self-government, 1855; Victoria, 1855; Queensland, 1859; South Australia, 1856; West Australia, 1890; Tasmania, 1856.

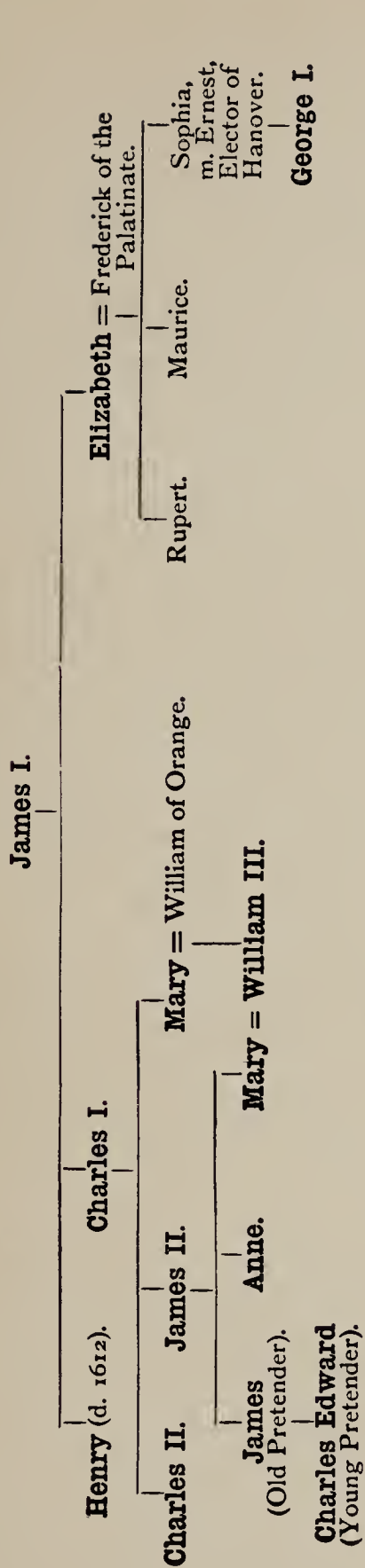
Commonwealth of Australia, 1901. Capital, Canberra.

Dominion of New Zealand, self-government, 1852.

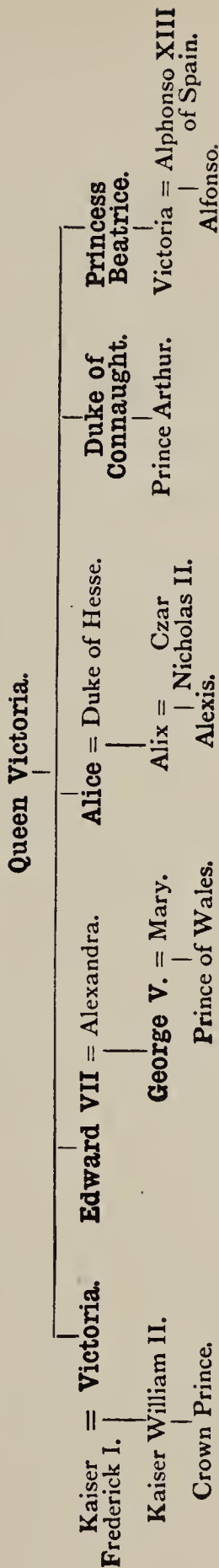


APPENDIX II—TABLES

GENEALOGY OF THE STEWARTS



DESCENDANTS OF QUEEN VICTORIA



APPENDIX III—GREAT POWERS

FRANCE.—A republic since 1870. President elected for seven years by the Senate and Chamber of Deputies. Cabinet responsible to Senate and Chamber of Deputies, which are elected by the people. *Colonies*—Algeria, Tunis, French Congo, Madagascar, Indo-China, &c.

GERMANY.—A federal empire since 1871. The Emperor (Kaiser) is also King of Prussia, and the other states have each their hereditary ruler and their separate constitution. The Imperial Chancellor is responsible to the Emperor only, and has no cabinet. There are two chambers, the upper or Bundesrat and the lower or Reichstag. *Colonies*—Kameruns, German East Africa, German South-west Africa.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.—A dual monarchy; the Emperor of Austria is King of Hungary. Austria and Hungary have each a cabinet and two houses of Parliament, and there is in addition a joint Assembly of Delegates for Austria-Hungary, with a cabinet responsible to the Emperor only. No colonies.

ITALY.—A constitutional monarchy, with seat of government since 1870 at Rome. Cabinet, Senate, and Chamber of Deputies. *Colonies*—Tripoli, Somaliland, Erythrea.

RUSSIA.—The Czar is autocratic monarch, and is advised by a council, which he appoints and dismisses. The national assembly or Duma has very limited powers. The Czar is Emperor of all the Russias and Grand Duke of Finland. The Asiatic province of Siberia is larger than Europe.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.—A federal republic made up of forty-eight States, each having its own governor and two elective chambers. The federal government is vested in a President, elected for four years, with a Cabinet, Senate, and House of Representatives. *Dependencies*—Alaska, Philippine Islands, Hawaii, Porto Rico, &c.



JAPAN.—A constitutional monarchy since 1889. [Dynasty claims to have ruled since 660 B. C.] The Emperor (Mikado) acts on the advice of his ministers, and legislates through the House of Peers and House of Representatives.. *Colonies*—Korea, Formosa, &c.

PICTORIAL
TIME CHARTS

CHART

- I. 1400 TO 1500.
- II. 1500 TO 1600.
- III. 1600 TO 1700.

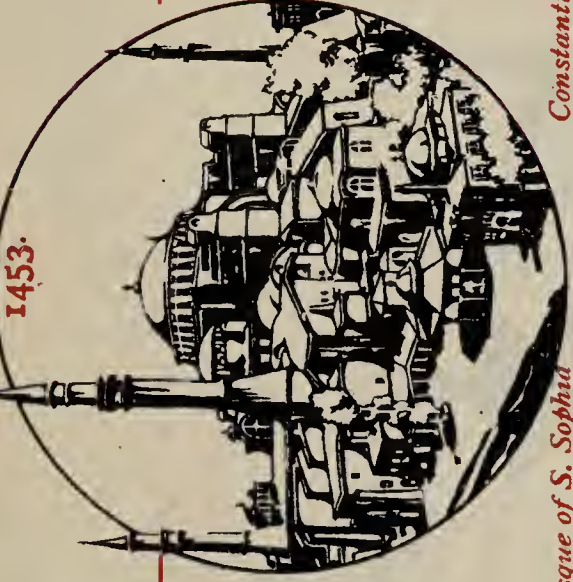
BRITAIN AND HER NEIGHBOURS, 1400-1500

1400	<p>CHAUCER DIED, 1400.</p> <p>BATTLE OF AGINCOURT, 1415.</p>  <p><i>English Army at Agincourt</i></p>	FRANCE DIVIDED AGAINST ITSELF.	1400
1420	<p>HUNDRED YEARS' WAR, LAST STAGE.</p> <p>ENGLISH DISASTERS IN FRANCE, 1435-53.</p>	 <p><i>Statue of Joan of Arc</i></p> <p>1429. JOAN OF ARC SAVES ORLEANS.</p>	1420
1440		GROWING POWER OF THE FRENCH KING.	1440

HUNDRED YEARS' WAR
ENDED, 1453.

WARS OF THE ROSES,
1455-85.

CONSTANTINOPLE
taken by the Turks,



Mosque of S. Sophia

Constantinople

1469-92. LORENZO DE MEDICI
RULES FLORENCE.

GUTENBERG'S PRINTING PRESS,
1450.

1460

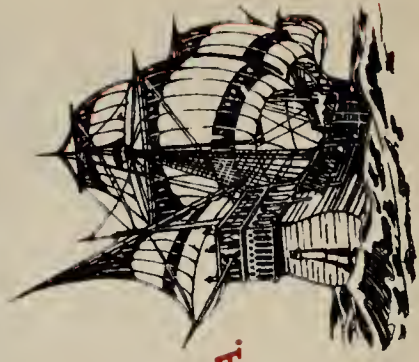
1460

CAXTON'S PRINTING PRESS, 1477.

HENRY VII, KING OF ENGLAND,
1485-1509.

1492. MOORS DRIVEN FROM SPAIN.

1492.
**COLUMBUS
DISCOVERS AMERICA.**



One of Columbus's Ships

CABOT DISCOVERS NEWFOUNDLAND, 1498.

1498. VASCO DA GAMA
ROUNDS THE CAPE.

1480

1480

1500

1500

BRITAIN AND HER NEIGHBOURS, 1500-1600

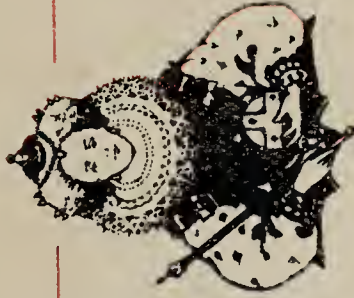
<p>1500</p> <p>HENRY VIII, 1509-37. BATTLE OF FLODDEN, 1513.</p>  <p><i>Henry VIII and Wolsey</i></p> <p>1520</p> <p>WOLSEY'S FALL, 1529. KATHARINE OF ARAGON DIVORCED, 1534.</p>  <p><i>Fountains Abbey</i></p>	<p>1500</p> <p>MICHAEL ANGELO WORKS IN ROME.</p> <p>1515-47. FRANCIS I OF FRANCE.</p> <p>1519-55. CHARLES V, EMPEROR.</p> <p>1519-21. CORTEZ CONQUERS MEXICO.</p> <p>1520</p> <p>1521. LUTHER BEFORE THE DIET OF WORMS.</p>  <p><i>Martin Luther</i> <i>Ignatius Loyola</i></p> <p>1531-2. PIZARRO CONQUERS PERU.</p>	<p>1540</p> <p>MICHAEL ANGELO (D. 1564). ARCHITECT OF ST. PETER'S. 1542.</p>  <p><i>St. Peter's, Rome</i></p> <p>COUNCIL OF TRENT. 1545-63.</p>
<p>1500</p> <p>EDWARD VI (PROTESTANT), 1547-53.</p>	<p>MONASTERIES SUPPRESSED, 1536-39.</p>	<p>1540</p>

1560

MARY I (CATHOLIC), 1553-58.

LADY JANE GREY BEHEADED, 1554.

ELIZABETH,
1558-1603.



Queen Elizabeth

DRAKE SAILS ROUND THE WORLD, 1577-80.



Catharine de Medici

1571. TURKISH FLEET BEATEN AT LEPANTO.

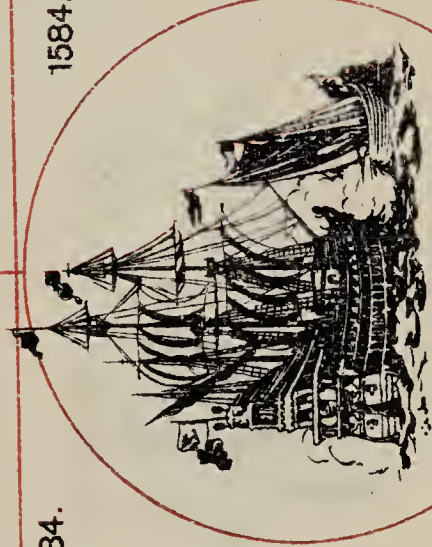
1572. MASSACRE OF ST. BARTHOLOMEW.

1580

VIRGINIA FOUNDED BY RALEIGH, 1584.

MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS
EXECUTED, 1587.

**SPANISH
ARMADA**



*Spanish and English
Ships*

**DEFEATED,
1588.**



Henry IV of France

1584. WILLIAM THE SILENT MURDERED.

1598. EDICT OF NANTES
ISSUED BY HENRY IV.

1600

MARRIED PHILIP II OF SPAIN (1555-98).

CATHARINE DE MEDICI
RULES FRANCE,

1560

1580

1600

BRITAIN AND HER NEIGHBOURS, 1600-1700

<p>1600</p>	<p>JAMES I.—UNION OF CROWNS, 1603-25.</p> <p>SHAKESPEARE'S LATER PLAYS.</p>  <p><i>Shakespeare</i></p>	<p>1600</p> <p>1610. MURDER OF HENRY IV.</p>  <p><i>Henry IV of France</i></p>
<p>1620</p>	<p>PILGRIM FATHERS, 1620.</p> <p>CHARLES I, 1625-49. PETITION OF RIGHT, 1628.</p>  <p><i>Charles I</i></p> <p>STRAFFORD AND LAUD IN POWER.</p>	<p>1620</p> <p>1618-48. THIRTY YEARS' WAR.</p> <p>1624 42. RICHELIEU SUPREME IN FRANCE.</p>  <p><i>Richelieu</i></p> <p>1628. SIEGE OF LA ROCHELLE. 1632. BATTLE OF LUTZEN.</p> <p>DEATH OF GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.</p>
<p>1640</p>	<p>CIVIL WAR, 1642-9.</p> <p>CHARLES I EXECUTED, 1649.</p>	<p>1640</p> <p>1643-1715. LOUIS XIV,</p>  <p><i>Louis XIV</i></p> <p>1648. PEACE OF WESTPHALIA.</p>

COMMONWEALTH, 1649-60.

FIRST DUTCH WAR, 1652.

RESTORATION.—

CHARLES II, 1660-85.

SECOND DUTCH WAR, 1665.

PLAGUE AND FIRE OF LONDON, 1665-6.



General Monk

DEATH OF MONK, 1670.

JOHN MILTON DIED, 1674.

JAMES II, 1685-88.

THE REVOLUTION OF 1688.

WILLIAM AND MARY, 1688-1702.

BATTLE OF THE BOYNE, 1690.

1660

1680

1700

1655. CROMWELL TAKES JAMAICA.



OLIVER CROMWELL
Lord Protector,
1653-58.

1660

1660. LOUIS XIV BECOMES
HIS OWN MINISTER.

1672. WILLIAM OF ORANGE AT WAR WITH LOUIS.

1680

**1685. EDICT OF NANTES
REVOKED BY LOUIS XIV.**



William and Mary

1689-97. GRAND ALLIANCE
AGAINST LOUIS.

1698. QUESTION OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.

1700

NOTABLE DATES.

1450. GUTENBERG'S PRINTING PRESS.
1453. FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE.
1485. HENRY VII. END OF WARS OF THE ROSES.
1492. DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.
1521. LUTHER BEFORE THE DIET OF WORMS.
1536. HENRY VIII SUPPRESSES THE MONASTERIES.
1545. COUNCIL OF TRENT. CATHOLIC REVIVAL.
- 1558-1603. QUEEN ELIZABETH.
1572. MASSACRE OF ST. BARTHOLOMEW.
1584. WILLIAM THE SILENT MURDERED.
1588. SPANISH ARMADA.
1598. EDICT OF NANTES ISSUED BY HENRY IV OF FRANCE.
1603. JAMES I. UNION OF THE CROWNS.
- 1618-48. THIRTY YEARS' WAR (GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS, WALLENSTEIN, RICHELIEU).
1620. PILGRIM FATHERS.
1649. CHARLES I EXECUTED.
- 1649-60. COMMONWEALTH IN ENGLAND.
1660. RESTORATION OF CHARLES II.
1688. REVOLUTION. WILLIAM AND MARY.

