TRADING COMPANIES

COLLINS'
EXPLORER SERIES
Edited by
Sir Harry Johnston,
G.C.M.G. etc.

TRADING COMPANIES

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TRADING COMPANIES

From the painting by Lord Leighton, P.R.A., in the Royal Exchange, London, by permission of Mrs. Augusta N. Matthews.

T.C. Ancient Britons and Phœnicians.

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Trading Companies

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COLLINS
CLEAR-TYPE
PRESS

PREFACE

THE works to which these remarks are prefatory were first issued by the Publishers a good many years ago; and although the lapse of time which has occurred since their first publication might not seem much if it were credited to the eighteenth century, it is a long period in the extension of twentieth century knowledge and in the broadening of the modern outlook. The volumes therefore have received a very considerable overhauling. Most of the biographical essays have been completely re-written, and some that would be altogether new to the readers have been inserted.

The work has been carried out under my editorship, and in the main I am responsible for the opinions that have been expressed; or if in all cases I do not implicitly concur, I respect the other authors' opinions. But in most cases I hold opinions as herein expressed, hold them even emphatically, and consider them to be in accord with the latest extent of our knowledge on the subject.

The little books which are preceded by this Preface do not go back very far—scarcely more than a minute of time—in human history—not even very far in the history which has been reckoned by the writing down of records, though the term "history" nowadays is scarcely limited to this method of dating and divining the progress of the human race. Within the last twenty-five years, our knowledge as to the history of our species on the earth has extended enormously. Where it passes beyond Man's own record of himself

it is achieved indirectly by the story we can put together from his remains, his implements and artefacts, his pottery and his buildings, as well as his bony vestiges.

From a survey of the world we realise that the last of the great invasions of Europe by races of mankind coming from Africa and Asia, and differing much or little from the previous European types by racial characteristics, skin colour, civilisation and religion, ceased with the invasion of eastern Europe by the Turks and Tartars in the middle of the fifteenth century. And simultaneously, or quite a few years afterwards, the emigration in research and discovery of the Europeans to Asia, Africa, and America began. It is at this time that the outlook of these books commences. It opens with the remarkable work of Prince Henry of Portugal in 1420, soon followed by the really amazing invasion of West Africa by Cá da Mosto, the Venetian captain-adventurer. It narrates the voyages of other Italian explorers, Genoese or Venetians in nationality. It ranges forward through the time of Shakespeare to the age of Captain Cook, to the great journeys of the middle and of the close of the nineteenth century, to the period, in fact, of my own lifetime; for although not a very old man, I have met and have known personally, been trained and influenced by some of the giants of nineteenth century exploration.

It makes me feel curiously ancient to recall the eagerness with which, in the opening years of the eighth decade of the last century, I encountered men like Stanley, Burton, Grant, Thomson, Schweinfurth, and Kirk, and discussed with them the mysteries of Africa, the geographical discoveries to be made, the

natural history problems to be solved; and to remember that these discussions, more often than not, took place *in* Africa, prior to plunges into the unknown to solve these secrets so obstinately withheld from solution.

At the close of the nineteenth century most of the puzzles had been solved, and the explanatory facts had been made known. The whole world, barring a patch here and there among the Arctic and Antarctic snows and icy mountains, in the South American and middle African forests, or on the Central Asiatic tablelands, had been mapped and examined; all the details of the fauna and flora of the tropics had been displayed to our investigation. And the means of travel had been enormously increased. Motors and aeroplanes, ice-breaking steamers, railways and electric launches, had permitted scientifically-trained observers to penetrate almost anywhere on the earth's surface. Now, then, has the time arrived to turn round and reflect on the story of the great European discoverers of the past five hundred years.

H. H. JOHNSTON.

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English Trade Prior to the Norman Conquest

THE London Royal Exchange contains several pictures of important events in English History. The one which takes us farthest back—more than two thousand years—shows some traders who sailed all the way from a city called Tyre, in Phœnicia, just north of Palestine, to exchange their beautifully dyed cloths, and their gold and silver ornaments, for the tin of Cornwall, and the furs which the Ancient Britons had obtained by means of arrows and stone spear-heads.

These Phœnicians, as the traders were called, must have been bold men, for their ships were far smaller than the merchant vessels of the present day, and they did not possess the splendid instruments which now enable sailors to find out exactly where they are. With no mariner's compass, and with nothing but the sea-coast and the stars to guide them, they found their way across the Mediterranean Sea, through the Pillars of Hercules, as the Strait of Gibraltar was formerly called, northwards and eastwards across the Atlantic to Britain.

The Phœnicians were the first to found colonies in lands distant from their own, and one of the most famous, Carthage, a city standing on the north coast of Africa, was the strongest rival to the afterwards mighty Rome in its struggle for the Empire of the World.

The Phœnicians had become powerful by reason of their skill and energy, and because their city was conveniently situated as a seaport to which the silks, carpets, and jewels of India were brought. They came through the Persian Gulf from Basra to Bagdad, by the mighty river Tigris, and on by the caravan route through Palmyra to Tyre, whence they were distributed to the countries on the Mediterranean Sea, and also to Cornwall.

In after years the Romans found the furs, the hunting-dogs, and the oysters of Britain so much to their liking that a brisk trade was maintained between our country and Rome.

When Rome fell, the hardy, sea-roving Saxons, Angles, and Jutes conquered Britain, renaming it Angle-Land, or England. They were mostly content to grow their own food, and wear clothes of their own making, so that little trade was done with other countries, though King Alfred and King Athelstan encouraged foreign trade, the latter making any merchant a *thane*, or nobleman, if he undertook three voyages in his own ship.

Probably the fierce Norsemen, or Vikings, made many Saxon ships their booty, and had much to do with keeping the Saxon content with the produce of his own country.

Yet even for their simple occupations on their manors they were compelled to obtain certain articles from abroad. Salt, essential to the preservation of their fish and flesh, they obtained from the seaports on the south-east coast, from Cheshire, and from France; tar, used as a simple remedy for a disease called scab, which afflicted their sheep, they obtained from Norway; iron for their ploughs came from Sussex and Spain; the millstones for their corn-mills were brought from France.

When the Danes had thoroughly established themselves on the east coast of England, the close connection of the country with Norway and Denmark encouraged the trade between them, and our eastern ports began to flourish.

Effects of the Norman Conquest

Trade with the Continent

THE coming of the Normans increased the trade between England and Normandy, as the Normans were continually passing from the one country to the other, and naturally took advantage of their voyages to bring to England the coins and metal goods they needed, and the silks they loved; while the merchants of Flanders, already celebrated for their cleverness in weaving and dyeing cloths, could find no wool so excellent for their purpose as that of England. The southern ports naturally felt the benefits of the trade, and the Cinque Ports and Southampton became the centres of a brisk exchange of goods.

The Norman and Plantagenet kings, ever needing money to carry on their wars with France, found the trade very much to their advantage; as they compelled the foreigners to pay a tax on every tun of wine they brought in, and on every pound of wool they took out. These duties were called tonnage and poundage respectively, and, but for them, the victories of Crécy, Poitiers, and Agincourt would hardly

have been possible, because the kings would not have had money to pay their soldiers.

The value of the trade with Flanders was also the chief reason why the Flemings and the English generally fought on the same side, and helped each other as far as possible. They were firm allies. In our own House of Lords the President (Lord Chancellor) sits on a seat called the Woolsack, reminding us of the former importance of the wool trade.

In order to make sure that every pound of wool, and every wool-fell, or skin, paid its just tax, the wool was bought and sold only at certain towns, which, because of this, were called 'Towns of the Staple'—wool being the staple or chief article of trade.

In 1300 A.D., Westminster, Canterbury, Chichester, Winchester, Exeter, Bristol, Norwich, Lincoln, York, and Newcastle were Towns of the Staple, while at some periods the wool was allowed to be exported to one seaport abroad, at first Bruges and then Calais.

To carry out this trade a number of merchants united for their own advantage, calling themselves the Merchants of the Staple. They are important because they were the first body of merchants in England to form a trading company, working under common rules, and for the common advantage.

Until this company of merchants was formed,

nearly all the trade between England and other countries had been carried on by foreign merchants, from Germany and Flanders especially, and our early Norman kings passed special laws for their conduct and protection. Long after the Merchants of the Staple began their trade, by far the largest amount of our commerce with other countries was in the hands of foreigners, and it was not until the reign of Queen Elizabeth that English merchants acquired the principal share in English commerce.

It soon became plain that if it paid Flemish merchants to take wool from England to manufacture it into cloth, and then bring it back to England to sell, there must be much profit in the manufacture.

The kings, therefore, tried to get the English people to manufacture it, and Edward III. brought some Flemish weavers over to Norwich to teach his English subjects how to weave and dye the better kinds of cloth and worsted. Laws were passed which compelled the people to wear garments manufactured from English cloth.

At a later date, religious disorders in Flanders and in France drove many cloth and silk weavers into England, and the English themselves learned to manufacture the finest cloths and silks.

As an example of our trade in the reign of

Edward III., the following list of articles exported from and imported into England in 1354 A.D. is interesting.

EXPORTS	IMPORTS
3165 1/2 sacks of wool at £6 per sack.	1831 pieces fine cloth at £6 per piece.
3136 cwt. of wool at 40s. per cwt.	397 3/4 cwt. wax at 40s. per cwt.
65 wool-fells—total value, 21s. 8d.	1829 1/2 tuns wine at 40s. per tun.
Hides, £89 5s.	
4774 1/2 pieces cloth at 40s. per piece.	
8061 1/2 pieces worsted at 16s. 8d. per piece.	

The total value of the exports for the year was £212,000, and that of the imports £38,000. Even allowing for the fact that money was worth very much more than now, the difference between these figures and those of the present day is enormous. Our annual exports now reach a total of about £886,000,000, and our imports £1,098,000,000; while Britain now imports quantities of wool instead of that article being its staple export.

Effects of the Norman Conquest

Trade with the East

RELIGIOUS zeal and love of adventure induced many of the Norman barons to join in the various crusades designed to free the Holy Land from the power of the Saracens. Duke Robert of Normandy, Richard of the Lion-Heart, and Edward I. all took an active part in these enterprises, and all were accompanied by barons and their relatives from England and Scotland.

Their journeys thither and back made them acquainted with the productions of other lands, and their stay in Palestine brought to their notice the splendid silks, carpets, embroidery, jewellery, metal-work, and the spices and perfumes of the East. On their return to England, they were eager to increase the comfort and luxury of their lives and homes by adding these Eastern products to their possessions; and thus another incentive to trade with foreign countries arose.

This Eastern trade lay entirely in the hands of the merchants of Venice. At first a small seaport, engaged in selling the salt obtained by evaporating the water of its lagoons, it gradually increased its prosperity until it had acquired the whole commerce of the Mediterranean Sea.

The crusades themselves helped to increase the importance and the power of Venice, as it was from that city that the kings and nobles of all countries set sail for the Holy Land.

Later, a powerful rival arose in Genoa, a seaport on the north-western coast of Italy. A keen struggle for mastery was carried on between the two, until the victories of the Turks at Constantinople, the discovery of America, and of a sea passage to India crippled the influence of both.

So extensive was the trade of Venice that its rulers organised fleets to protect the argosies which sailed to the Black Sea, where they exchanged the merchandise collected from other ports of the world for the hides and furs of Russia. Another fleet went regularly to Tripoli, in Asia Minor, to receive the treasures brought from India by way of the Persian Gulf and the river Tigris, and westwards by caravan to the sea. A third traded with Alexandria in Egypt, whither the Indian produce had been brought by way of the Red Sea, while a fourth fleet, known as the Flanders fleet, sailed annually through the Strait of Gibraltar to traffic with Southampton and London, and with Flanders.

These could not properly be called trading companies, since they consisted only of groups

of merchants, acting together simply to receive the protection of the Venetian fleet. They shared little beyond this in common; but the advantages of such a union for the purpose of protection naturally led to the closer union of the trading companies.

Not only did they undertake these sea voyages, but by land also the Venetians traded with Northern Europe, and a regular line of traffic was maintained by way of the Brenner Pass, north of Venice, where the Alps were crossed, and the valley of the Danube reached. Keeping to the river-valleys as far as possible, the route lay through Augsburg, and then either along the Danube to Vienna and the Black Sea, or north-west through Mainz and Coblenz along the Rhine to Bruges.

The barons of Germany, quick to make the journeys of the merchants profitable to themselves, either compelled them to pay heavy duties for the privilege of crossing through their territories, or robbed them of their goods. To prevent this, the towns round Augsburg maintained a body of soldiers to protect themselves and the merchants to and from their markets. This formed the Suabian Confederacy, while a similar union of the towns upon the Rhine was known as the Rhine Confederacy.

When the merchandise arrived at the northern

coasts of Europe, it came into the hands of that most famous of the old trading companies, 'The Hanseatic League.'

Thus, then, Venice collected the spices, silks, and ivories of India, the gold-dust, ivory, and slaves of Africa, the hides and furs of Russia, and exchanged them for the wool of England, the metals of Spain and Germany, the oil and wine of the Mediterranean, the fine cloths of Flanders, the salt and silk, the brass and armour of her own manufacture.

The rise of Venice to power as a trading centre had an immense influence upon the history of the world. At a later period other nations began to struggle for a share of the commerce which had enriched the Mediterranean town. As much of the trade was with the east, endeavours were made to find fresh routes thither, and from these attempts two outstanding events resulted. These were the development of Africa together with Da Gama's discovery of the sea route to India, and the still more famous discovery of America by Columbus.

How Trading Companies Arose

THE Venetian fleets mentioned in the previous chapter were convoyed by the war vessels of the State of Venice, and all merchants thus protected were compelled to agree to the conditions laid down by the State. The rules of the towns with which they traded had also to be observed.

Beyond this, however, the merchants were free to do as they pleased, and each generally worked independently of his associates, though doubtless some occasionally agreed to act together.

The formation of companies of merchants with rules of their own, by which all were bound, was left to the traders of Northern Europe.

The conditions under which their towns were governed probably paved the way for the introduction of those trading companies. In England, for example, even in Anglo-Saxon times, the inhabitants of any locality were accustomed to form associations for keeping the peace amongst themselves, and for acting against those who wished to attack their members. These associations they called *frith-gilds*.

Later, in the times of the Plantagenets, when

manufacturers had become numerous in the larger towns, commerce was regulated by the chief merchants, who drew up rules under which the trade within their walls was conducted. They also settled disputes between the various tradesmen, and decided the conditions under which foreign traders should conduct their business.

These *merchant-gilds* looked principally, if not wholly, to the benefit of their own town, and were careful to prevent merchants from other English towns, as well as traders from foreign countries, from interfering with the local trade. Indeed, they classed them all in the rules as foreigners.

Thus the burgesses were pleased to buy the goods which the foreigners brought and to sell their own goods, but they prevented the merchants from dealing with any one but themselves, and would allow them to buy or sell with none but members of their merchant-gild. Their trade was always to be wholesale and not retail, and was to be carried on only in the market, and on the market-days.

The merchants were not allowed to travel inland with their goods, nor to stay more than forty days in the country. They were compelled to lodge with members of the merchant-gild, so that their *hostman*, as he was called, might the better be able to see that the foreigner kept the gild rules.

Our kings, however, welcomed these foreign

merchants owing to the duties they were willing to pay. King Edward I. was the first to give them greater freedom ; and many restrictions were abolished, though not without a long struggle with the burgesses.

Besides these merchant-gilds, which overlooked the whole trade of the town, each kind of business had a separate gild, called a *craft-gild*, for the management of its own affairs. Naturally, the chief of these at first was the gild of wool merchants ; but the butchers, the leather-sellers, the grocers, bakers, and many others formed gilds of their own. These craft-gilds, of which the great city companies in London are the descendants, at last became more powerful than the merchant-gilds, and gradually took over the management of affairs.

Nowadays, the craft-gilds themselves have lost all power both over their own crafts and over local affairs. With the exception of the rich London City Companies, like those of the Drapers and the Grocers, which still maintain many of the ancient customs, and generously spend much of their property in charity, the craft-gilds have nearly disappeared.

The example shown by these merchant-gilds and craft-gilds was not lost upon the foreign merchants.

Those from Flanders and North Germany who

traded here formed a league, or *Hansa*. They obtained special privileges shortly after the signing of Magna Carta in 1215 A.D., and called themselves the Hanse of London.

But, though special privileges were granted to the members of this body at that date, the gild had a settlement in London in the twelfth century. Indeed this association is the earliest example we have of a gild of German merchants established in a foreign country.

The influence of Cologne was felt in London in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, just as, during the early years of the Hanseatic League, that of Lübeck was all-powerful at Wisby on the island of Bornholm in the Baltic.

The Hanse of London concerned itself chiefly with obtaining the excellent wool of England in exchange for the fine cloths of their own weaving; but after a time it was replaced by the more famous Hanseatic League of North Germany.

The Hanseatic League

THE pirates of the North Sea and the Baltic Sea, from the days of King Alfred onward, had terrorised every kingdom bordering upon the waters over which they roamed. Not content with obtaining possession of Ireland, England, and Normandy, these Vikings swept the seas and seized every merchant vessel which came within their reach.

The example of Venice, which protected her fleets with ships of war, no doubt encouraged the trading cities of North Germany to do the same, and Lübeck and Hamburg, two seaports on the Baltic and North Seas respectively, led the way in the formation of the Hanseatic League, probably somewhere about the year 1200 A.D. The name was derived from the old German word *Hansa*, a confederacy.

Other towns soon joined Lübeck and Hamburg, both seaports and inland manufacturing centres. About 1300 A.D., no less than seventy cities had united, of which Cologne was the most important.

Lübeck acted as the central city of the League, and there a congress was held every three years

to draw up the rules under which the Hanse merchants were bound to work.

After establishing themselves strongly in their own country, the members of the League desired to have all the trade of Northern Europe in their hands, and, to obtain this monopoly, they established factories at places so far apart as Nijni-Novgorod in Russia, Bergen in Norway, Bruges in Belgium, and London, Boston, and Lynn in England.

These factories differed from modern warehouses in that the merchants of the Hanse lived in them, and protected them as if they were fortresses.

At Nijni-Novgorod they obtained the hides and furs of Russia and Siberia, these being brought thither in large quantities at the annual fair. From Bergen were brought timber, resin, hides, and fish. Bruges was the centre of the manufacture of fine woollen cloths, and the meeting-place of the Venetian and the Hanse merchants.

The fort or factory of the Hanse in London, known as the Steelyard, was situated on the river Thames, near where Cannon Street Station now stands. Here they exchanged the wool, leather, hides, and tin of England for manufactured cloths, metal wares, and such goods as wax, and herrings.

In addition, the Hanse merchants travelled

all over England, under the restrictions mentioned in the previous chapter as being fixed by the merchant-gilds. This privilege of trading was necessary for the welfare of the country, because English merchants had not the boldness to engage in foreign trade and, but for these foreign merchants, English people would have had no opportunity of obtaining the fine cloths, fruits, wines, and spices of other countries.

Travelling in those days was neither so rapid nor so pleasant as at the present time, and people very seldom went from one town to another at any distance from it. Once a week the farmers near a town would meet there on the market-day to sell their produce and buy the necessaries for their farms.

To some places, however, a much greater privilege had been granted, and at these an annual fair was held. This generally took place on some religious festival, and was under the protection, not of the merchant-gilds, but of some person, generally a lord or a bishop, for whose benefit the holding of the fair had been granted.

A day or two before the fair tolls were levied at all the approaches to the town, and the weighing-machine was removed from the town hall in order that no weighing should be done elsewhere than under the lord's sight.

In the fair itself different trades had their own fixed places, so that they could be kept well under view, and nothing could be bought or sold elsewhere in the town.

Of course disputes sometimes arose between buyers and sellers at these fairs, and, to settle such quarrels, a special court, called the *Court of Pie-Powder*, was held. *Pie-Powder* is really made up of two French words meaning *dusty feet* (*pieds poudrés*), and the courts were so named because those appearing before them came straight from the fair without waiting to freshen themselves up.

The principal of these annual fairs in England were at Stourbridge, near Cambridge, at St Ives, in Huntingdonshire, and at Winchester. With better and quicker ways of travelling and sending goods, the need for the fair has now disappeared, and, with the need, the fairs themselves have fallen out of use. Some, like Barnet Fair, linger on, and others, like Smithfield Fair, have been put to other uses; but in many places a round of amusements takes place once a year, as a reminder of the days when the annual fair was so very important.

Thus, daily at their factories, weekly at the market-towns, and yearly at the annual fairs, the Hanse merchants carried on their trade, and at last succeeded in getting nearly all the

commerce of Northern Europe into their own hands.

So powerful did they become that at one time they governed the kingdom of Denmark, and were able to buy privileges from the kings of many countries with their enormous wealth.

About the year 1500, when the League was at the height of its influence, events were taking place which gradually had the effect of rousing in other nations the desire for a share in this commerce.

First of all, the countries surrounding the Baltic and North Seas had become much quieter as their rulers forced the barons more and more under control, so that the Hanseatic League did not enjoy its former frequent opportunities of helping one side in a quarrel for the promise of further privileges in trading. Also, as the people in the various countries were less harassed by continual wars, they were able to devote themselves more actively to commerce and manufactures, and gradually learned that the wealth acquired by these foreign merchants could be earned also by themselves.

Thus, about 1500, the Emperor of Russia took possession of Nijni-Novgorod, and one of the most important of the Hanse factories was lost to them for ever. Also, just before this year, the long encouragement which Prince Henry of

Portugal, the Navigator, had given to Portuguese seamen was rewarded by Vasco da Gama's discovery that it was possible to get to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope.

This discovery, by pointing out an easier passage for Indian produce than the long river and caravan routes formerly used, cut off a large amount of the trade of Venice with the East, a trade which had already suffered much by the conquests of the Turks in Turkey and Egypt.

Thus all the traffic which had moved from Venice by way of the Rhine to the Hanse factory at Bruges now found a readier road to Lisbon, which, accordingly, rose in importance, while the Hanse towns declined. In 1492 and 1497 Columbus and Cabot made their famous voyages to America, and their achievements helped to increase the value of Lisbon, London, and Antwerp.

Encouraged by the results of these voyages, English and Dutch merchants began to send ships to Lisbon to buy the silks, jewels, and spices, brought by the Portuguese from the East Indies, and gradually extended their trade to the ports where only the Hanseatic merchants had called, and even to the Hanse towns themselves.

Thus the power of the Hanseatic League slowly but surely decayed. The English merchants, as they gained in strength and importance,

became louder and louder in their complaints against the special privileges allowed to foreign merchants in England, and at last, in 1579, succeeded in having them expelled from the country.

The Thirty Years' War in Germany (1618-48) prevented the Hanse towns from making any effort to retain even a share of commerce, and the trade of Northern Europe fell into the hands of the English and the Dutch.

Among the numerous benefits which the Hanseatic League conferred on the nations of the North, not the least valuable was the care taken to give true and full weight in the coins paid for the goods received. Several of the English kings had mixed or alloyed the metal, from which their silver coins were struck, with other metals of less value, so that they were debased, that is, not worth the money they were supposed to represent. The Hanse merchants, or Easterlings as they were called, because they came from the East to England, kept their coins pure and of true weight, so that to be paid in pounds Easterling, or pounds sterling as we now call it, was to obtain in money exactly the value expected.

English Trading Companies

Their Origin

THOUGH the power and influence of Venice and the Hanse towns were gradually being lost, the advantages they had gained by uniting in their trade was a splendid lesson to their successors.

In England especially the merchants were not slow to imitate the teaching thus given. Mention has already been made of the Merchants of the Staple; but, besides these, companies of merchants trading together to different parts of the world began to be formed, especially during the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

The Queen granted special privileges to these companies, and sometimes even shared in their work and profits, so that they were able, as the Hanseatic League formerly had been, to obtain and keep the sole right of trade at their different foreign seaports.

Sometimes merchants who had not joined the company endeavoured to get a share of the trade; but these interlopers, as they were called, were generally either quickly driven away or compelled to join the Trading Company and obey its rules.

These rules were very strict. The Trading Company settled exactly how much and what kind of merchandise should be sent to each foreign port, and what share of the amount each merchant should be allowed to take. They also fixed the terms upon which the goods could be sold, and the hours and days for business.

Their factories afforded convenient board and lodging when they were engaged in foreign trade, but both themselves and those living with them always had to obey somewhat strict regulations, similar to those in force at a university college. Here is one of the rules of the Eastland Company:—

'It is ordained that if any brother that is an apprentice, or any other unruly person or persons of our brethren, or any of the King's Majesty's subjects shall misbehave themselves, keep dishonest and unlawful company, or rioting, or wastefully misspending his or their master's or friend's goods, or is missing out of his host's house all night, or after eleven o'clock in summer and ten in winter (without he can prove that he has been in honest company, and urged to keep their company so late), or use cards, dice, or any other unlawful games or gaming for money, he or they so offending shall be punished at the discretion of the Deputy and Assistants.'

The Trading Companies then formed were not

all alike, for some shared the profits of their ventures in proportion to the number of shares each merchant took in the company, while in others a certain entrance fee was paid by all, and each merchant had to swear to obey the rules of the company. The former were called Joint-Stock Companies, and the latter Regulated Companies.

The most important of these at first was the Merchant Adventurers Company. This obtained its charter from King Henry VII. in 1505 A.D., and traded principally with Flanders and Hamburg. At the beginning its chief factory abroad was at Bruges, but, after one or two changes, this was removed to Hamburg. Its principal trade consisted in exchanging English cloth and wool for fine linens, cambrics, and tapestries, hops, soaps, and Rhine wine.

Apart from commerce, however, the Merchant Adventurers deserve credit for displaying to the full the new spirit which developed in England during the Tudor period. This was shown, not only in the wish for trade, but in the desire to advance England among the nations, and enable her to take a foremost part in the adventurous voyages of the time.

The two main causes of war in those days were commercial rivalry and religious quarrels. In commercial matters England had as rivals at

first the Hanse and Venetian merchants and, after their decay, the Portuguese, Flemings, and Dutch.

The great power of Charles V. of Spain enabled him to overcome the Portuguese and the Flemings, and to attempt the subjugation of the Protestants amongst the latter. The result of this was that many Flemings left their country for Holland and England, thus adding their skill in manufactures to the already rapidly growing knowledge of the Dutch and the English. The siege of Antwerp and the sack of Bruges by the Spaniards drove away all the trade from these two cities, and increased that of London and Amsterdam.

Philip of Spain, the son of Charles V. and husband of Mary Tudor, also forbade the Dutch and English vessels to enter Lisbon, expecting thus to deprive them of all opportunity of sharing in the commerce with India and the East Indies.

Naturally, therefore, the English merchants desired to find a fresh route to India, both from the trade advantages such a route would give, and also because, by getting there, they hoped to strike a blow at the Spaniards. In the attempts to find another route to India the Merchant Adventurers took a prominent part.

A glance at the map of the world as it was

known at the beginning of Elizabeth's reign is necessary before the difficulties of their task can be understood. The explorers who followed Columbus and Cabot had long attempted to reach India across the American continent which barred the way.

Magellan had sailed through Magellan's Straits in the far south, and it was guessed that there was no passage across the two great continents, between Tierra del Fuego and the river St. Lawrence. The latter was regarded as a way to the Pacific until Cartier, a Frenchman, sailed up as far as the Amerindian village of Hochelago, now called Montreal.

With the Magellan's Straits and Cape of Good Hope routes in the possession of the Spaniards, any sea road to India must be either north-west from England along the northern and unknown shores of the newly-discovered continent of North America, or north-east from England along the equally unknown northern shores of Europe and Asia. These two possible routes are called the North-west and North-east Passages respectively.

A third plan was, of course, to revive the old caravan route across Asia Minor and Persia to India, and this also the Merchant Adventurers tried, but without success.

Voyages of Discovery

BESIDES the unknown dangers attendant on these particular sea voyages, there were the difficulties arising from the want of knowledge among our seamen, and the lack of good instruments for fixing the position of their vessels at any time.

Nowadays, owing to the perfect sextants and chronometers our makers produce, and the excellent Nautical Almanac published from the Greenwich Observatory, the captain of a vessel can fix his position with certainty, but in those days chronometers were so imperfect that frequent mistakes resulted from their use.

As the chronometer is relied upon for obtaining longitude, which is calculated by reckoning the difference between the time where a vessel is as shown by the sun, and Greenwich time as shown by the chronometer, these errors were mostly in longitude. Different sailors, visiting the same place, marked it differently upon the map, and two and sometimes three areas of land were drawn when only one really existed. Thus at one period Greenland appeared under

no fewer than three different names, and in three different positions.

Another fault was the lack of any system in taking daily records, so that each captain put down only what he considered important, and no one could obtain full advantage of the records, many of them being incomplete.

As a remedy Sebastian Cabot, who had returned to England after leaving it in disgust at the scanty recompense for his discoveries, introduced a regular form of ship's log, which made possible the collection of more accurate facts, as well as the drawing of really useful charts.

One of the first voyages undertaken at the expense of the Merchant Adventurers was an attempt to reach India by the North-East Passage. This expedition, consisting of three ships under the command of Sir Hugh Willoughby, left England in 1553, the first year of the reign of Queen Mary. It was a 'voyage intended for the discovery of Cathay (China) and divers other regions, dominions, islands, and places unknown, set forth by the Right Worshipful Master Sebastian Cabot, Esquire, and Governor of the mystery and company of the Merchant Adventurers of the city of London.'

At the Lofoden Islands the ships were dispersed by a storm, and Sir Hugh Willoughby and

most of his companions were frozen to death in Lapland. One ship commanded by Richard Chancellor escaped the storm and, after waiting in vain for the others, sailed for the White Sea. Chancellor landed at Archangel, and gradually made his way to Moscow, where he was well received by the Czar.

This visit of Chancellor to Moscow was the beginning of English trade with Russia, and shortly afterwards each nation sent ambassadors to the other country. It seems strange at first that such a roundabout method of getting to Russia should have been adopted, but it must be remembered that the Hanseatic League was still powerful in the Baltic Sea, and kept all commerce in its own lands.

The trade with Russia, by which England obtained hides, furs, and timber in exchange for her own cloths, became so extensive that a special trading company was formed to manage it. This company (called the Muscovy Company, because Muscovy (Moscow) is an old name for Russia), was founded about 1560.

Later, the Merchant Adventurers despatched very many expeditions in the hope of finding both the North-East and the North-West Passages, and, though these were not discovered until long after the Merchant Adventurers themselves had ceased to be active, such bold enterprises helped

to increase our knowledge of the Arctic regions, and to add North America to our possessions.

Thus Davis, Baffin, and Martin Frobisher made voyages to the North American coasts, where several bays and straits still record their names and those of important Merchant Adventurers like Sir Thomas Smith and Sir Dudley Digges.

Perhaps the most noted of these sailors was Henry Hudson, who commanded two expeditions to Spitsbergen and Nova Zembla, in an attempt on the North-East Passage for the Muscovy Company, and who, in 1610, when on a voyage at the expense of some of the Merchant Adventurers for the purpose of finding a North-West Passage, discovered Hudson Bay. As the result of a mutiny, Hudson was sent adrift with eight companions upon that sea on the 21st June 1611, and was never heard of again.

Occasionally these voyageurs returned with stories of wonderful discoveries. In one instance they found quantities of a white glistening substance which they believed to be silver, but which was in reality mica. At another time they mistook the valueless yellow iron pyrites for gold-ore.

But, in addition to their discoveries, and in spite of their mistakes, the trade of England gained in some measure by their work. For

example, the country began to take an interest in fishing, and fleets from England sailed to Spitsbergen for the whale-fishing, and to the Grand Bank of Newfoundland for cod.

To the latter England had a perfect right because of its past discovery by Sebastian Cabot; but the Muscovy Company claimed the sole right to manage the whale fishery of Spitsbergen on the strength of Hudson's voyage in 1608, although both English and Dutch sailors had been there before that date. The Dutch were permitted to fish there, but had to obey the English rule and pay toll to the Muscovy Company.

Curiously enough, although the English assumed command of the fishing, they were almost entirely ignorant of the way to harpoon whales, and were obliged to get sailors from the Bay of Biscay to do this for them.

About the year 1600, therefore, the current of English trade was entirely changed. Instead of importing cloth and fish from abroad and exporting wool, the English merchants began to export less wool and more cloth. Instead of relying upon Germany for fish, English fishermen opened up those fisheries which ever since have proved so valuable and important.

Besides the Merchant Adventurers, the Merchants of the Staple, and the Muscovy Company,

many other trading companies were formed during the reign of Queen Elizabeth, and to each was allotted its own particular region. Thus the Eastland Company traded with the Baltic ports, bringing cotton, timber, fish, tallow, pitch, and tar. The Guinea Company traded in the Gulf of Guinea in gold-dust, ivory, and pepper and the Levant Company despatched its vessels to the eastern ports of the Mediterranean for cotton, currants, and—ultimately—for coffee.

More important than all these was the Company of Merchants of London trading with the East Indies, which received its charter from Queen Elizabeth in 1600, just nine years after England had been shut out from any share in Indian commerce by the closing of Lisbon to its vessels. This company is better known in history as the East India Company, and more familiarly as the 'John Company.'

The East India Company

Its Beginning

It must not be supposed that, even in the seventeenth century, when they were for the most part enjoying their greatest prosperity, these companies did not meet with opposition both at home and abroad.

Just as the English merchants had been jealous of the German Hanse, so the merchants of foreign countries found cause for jealousy against the English companies, and frequently tried to expel them from their towns. It was on this account that the chief factory of the Merchant Adventurers had so many changes in its position.

Yet the existence of the companies made the regulation of trade and the collection of tolls so easy and certain that the various governments were generally glad to recognise and help them, especially since they sold goods not produced in the country, and bought the surplus not needed by the country.

The greatest opposition came from England. The interlopers claimed that the monopoly

which the companies gained tended to restrict trade, and that, in consequence, the shipping trade of England was discouraged. They complained also, and in this had the English woollen manufacturers with them, that the merchants frequently restricted the sale of cloth abroad, in order to keep up prices, and thus injured the workers of England.

Other complaints came from the larger towns that the merchants of London claimed too large a share of the profits, and did not do full justice to the merchants elsewhere.

Various attempts were made to remedy these grievances, generally by lowering the fee to be paid for membership so that, the fee being small, nobody could complain that he was kept out, or that the companies' trade was a true monopoly.

The ease with which membership of the regulated companies could be obtained at last proved to be their undoing, for, where every one could and did obtain the same advantage by payment of a small fee, the trade was practically open to all, and soon became so in reality. By the middle of the eighteenth century all trace of the monopoly of regulated companies, like the Levant Company and the Merchant Adventurers, had vanished.

The East India Company owed its origin to

a sudden rise in the price of pepper from three shillings to eight shillings a pound, for which the Dutch merchants were blamed. Though it began as a regulated company, its early voyages were carried out on a joint-stock basis, that is, the risks and profits were paid and received in proportion, and in 1657 it became a joint-stock company. Thus only a certain number of shares was created, and to obtain membership it was necessary to buy these shares from some one already holding them. This naturally strengthened the power of its monopoly, and enabled it to flourish when the regulated companies were being swamped by new members entering at cheap rates.

India before 1600 A.D.

The earliest actual knowledge in Europe of India and its people was gained by Alexander the Great and his ambassadors. At that time India was already the land of the Hindus, who had driven the more barbaric races to the Deccan and the Hills. They had seized for themselves the fertile plains of two rivers, the Indus and the Ganges, and their Aryan languages, Hindi (Hindustani), Gujarati, Panjabi, Gurmukhi, Sindhi, Bengali, Marathi, etc., now prevail over the northern half of India.

In the Deccan, to which the older tribes were driven, a different race and different type of language (Dravidian) are found, the language being similar to that of South-east India and North-east Ceylon, called Tamil, which contains many dialects, totally unlike the Aryan tongues of Northern India and Western Ceylon.

Among these hill-tribes numerous customs resembling those of the ancient Britons still survive, and the mode of life is far removed from that of the highly civilised Hindu.

The Hindus themselves came into India from the north-west, and are a branch of the same race, the Aryan, to which Europeans belong. The language of their sacred writings, called Sanskrit, is one of the old Aryan tongues

like Celtic, Greek, Latin, Lithuanian and Teutonic, in each of which exist many words similar in form.

Alexander found and left the Hindus in possession of India, but they were not to remain undisturbed, for the prize was too rich not to tempt the warlike tribes of the West.

First came the invasions of the Muhammadans of Afghanistan. In the seventh century of the Christian era, there had arisen in Western Arabia a dreamy camel driver who married a rich widow when he was twenty-five and settled down as a shop-keeper at his birth-place, Mecca, which possessed a sacred stone, the Ka'aba, probably an aerolite. Muhammad excogitated a religious faith, largely a development of Judaism.

'There is but one God, and Muhammad is his prophet,' was the thesis on which it was based; and it had become a conquering religion in Western Asia before Muhammad died at the age of sixty-three.

The Muhammadan peoples became in time fierce warriors, and the astounding bravery displayed by them, and their conquest of the Eastern Roman Empire, made them dreaded.

A rich prize like India, guarded only by the Hindu race, which by long and peaceful possession of fertile land had lost the power of properly defending it, was one which soon attracted them.

About the year 1000 A.D. their first attempt

was made, when Mahmūd with his conquering Afghans seized the Panjab, and spread the Muhammadan power over South India also.

Four hundred years later Timur the Tartar led a great invasion of Mongols into the country, and, after sacking the rich capital, Delhi, retired with his booty into Central Asia.

In 1526 one of his descendants, Babar the Magnificent, swooped down upon India and, after conquering it, remained as its ruler, thus founding the Mogul Empire, which ruled over the whole peninsula, at least in name, until it was gradually displaced in the nineteenth century by the power of England. Of the great Moguls who followed Babar the most famous were Akbar the Great, Shah Jehan, and Aurangzeb.

Akbar, who lived in the time of Queen Elizabeth, did more than any of those who preceded him to establish the Mogul power in India. By his toleration of the religion of the Hindus, and by his justice in administering his laws, he won the various races to obedience, so that when the East India Company sent their first fleet to trade with India, they found a country under a wise and peaceful rule.

Although the Moguls had secured a firm hold upon the whole of the native population, they had experienced trouble at different times for more than a century with the Portuguese.

Immediately after the landing of Vasco da Gama at Calicut, on the Malabar coast, in 1498, the Portuguese endeavoured to lay the foundation of a monopoly of the Indian trade.

In the following year they were allowed to establish a factory in Calicut, but, owing to a quarrel with the natives, the factor was murdered and the station burnt.

In spite of this disaster they persevered, and at last, after a Portuguese fleet had bombarded Calicut, they forced it to surrender and, firmly establishing their factory, began a regular trade with India.

At the beginning of the reign of our Henry VIII., the Mogul power, aided by Venice, which had become jealous of this interference with its trade, tried to expel the foreigners, but the Portuguese proved too strong and, instead of being driven out, added to their possessions Goa, a seaport on the Malabar coast lying almost midway between Calicut and Bombay Island. They established Goa as the centre of their Indian trade.

The Maldive Islands, in the Arabian Sea, and Ceylon also came into their possession, and they captured the seaport of Ormuz, in the Persian Gulf, and Malacca, a city on the Malay Peninsula.

Thus, during the reign of Henry VIII., the Portuguese obtained the sole trade with Southern Asia from the Persian Gulf to Japan, and no

other European nation was permitted to trade in these regions.

The English and Dutch ships which desired to obtain goods from the eastern hemisphere were obliged to visit Lisbon and await the return of the Portuguese fleets. These latter fleets set sail annually about the end of February, and returned in about eighteen months. Their usual course was to keep along the coast of Africa as far as Natal, and then to visit Moçambique on the east coast of Africa, to refit, if time allowed, or to take advantage of the south-west monsoon, and sail direct from Natal to Goa. On their return journey, of course, the north-east monsoon would be in their favour.

The conquest of Portugal by Spain, and the closing of the port of Lisbon to the English and Dutch by Philip II. three years after the defeat of the Spanish Armada, not only led directly to the neglect of the Portuguese possessions in the East, but also compelled the English and Dutch to trade directly with India itself.

Even before the closing of the port of Lisbon in 1590, the English had been led not only by trade rivalry, but also by religion, to break down the Portuguese monopoly in the Indian trade.

The pioneer English ship was that of Captain Thomas Stevens, who reached India about the year 1580, and was soon followed by Captain

Cavendish, who, in the year of the Spanish Armada, visited not only India, but most of the East Indian Islands.

The story told by Captain Stevens gives such a good description of the perils of these early expeditions that it forms most interesting reading.

'You shall understand,' wrote the Captain, 'that, the Cape passed, there be two ways to India—one within the Isle of St Lawrence (Madagascar), which they take willingly, because they refresh themselves at Mozambique a fortnight or a month, not without great need, and thence in a month more land in Goa.

'The other is without the Isle of St Lawrence, which they take when they set forth late, and come so late to the point, that they have no time to take the foresaid Mozambique, and then they go heavily laden, because in this way they take no port.

'And by reason of the long navigation, and want of food and water, they fall into sundry diseases, their gums wax great and swell, and they are fain to cut them away, their legs swell, and all the body becometh sore, and so benumbed, that they cannot stir hand or foot, and so they die for weakness. Others fall into fevers and agues and die thereby.

'And this way it was our chance to make, yet though we had more than one hundred and fifty

sick, there died not past seven and twenty; which loss they esteemed not much in respect of other times.

'This way is full of hidden rocks and quicksands, so that sometimes we durst not sail by night, but by the providence of God we saw nothing, nor even found bottom until we came to the coast of India.

'And we that thought we had been near India were in the same latitude near Socotra, an isle in the mouth of the Red Sea. But there God sent us great winds from north-east and north-north-east, whereupon unwillingly they bore up towards the east, and thus we went ten days without seeing sight of land, whereby they perceived the error; for they had directed their course before, always north-east, coveting to multiply degrees of latitude, but partly the difference of the Needle, and most of all the running seas, which at that time ran north-west, had drawn us to this other danger, had not God sent us this wind, which at length grew stronger, and restored us to our right course.

'These running seas lie so perilous that they deceive the most part of the captains, and some be so little careful, contenting themselves with ordinary experience, that they care not to seek out any means to know when they swerve, neither by the compass nor any other trial.'

From this story it is evident that the disease called scurvy (which results from the absence of fresh meat and vegetables), the lack of accurate instruments for fixing the position of the ship, and the violent typhoons, or tornadoes, of the Indian Ocean made the voyage to India a most dangerous one, and caused the loss of many ships.

Captain Cavendish also wrote a long account of his voyage, one passage stating that 'the people of Java told our general that there were certain Portugals in the island which lay there as factors continually to traffic with them, to buy Negroes, cloves, pepper, sugar, and many other commodities.'

India

Its Peoples and Religions

Of course the Portuguese, who first went to India, had no proper idea as to what the country was like, and a true map of India was unknown.

On the South of Asia, stretching from a few degrees north of the Tropic of Cancer to about 8° north of the Equator, India appears on the map as a triangle, with its apex at Cape Comorin on the south, and having Ceylon close to it on the south-east.

The Indian Ocean, dangerous at times on account of the fierce hurricanes called tornadoes, lies to the south, and the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal wash its western and eastern shores.

Right across the northern boundary stretch the mighty Himalayas, 'the abode of snow,' with Mount Everest, the highest mountain in the world.

On the north side two mighty rivers have their sources almost together, one, the Indus, sweeping towards the west, and then round the edge of the Himalayas southwards across India to the Arabian Sea; the other, called first

the Tsan-pu and then the Brahmaputra, balancing it by an eastward and southern course into the Bay of Bengal.

The Satlej, a large tributary of the Indus, also rises on the northern side of the Himalayas and breaks through the mountains to join it, receiving itself three streams from the southern slope, and with the Indus bounding the Panjab—the land of the five rivers.

The most important river of India, however, is the Ganges, which, with its tributary the Jamna, rises on the southern slopes of the Himalayas and flows eastwards to join the Brahmaputra in forming a huge delta of ever-shifting streams and banks covered with jungle, called the Sandarbans. The chief of these numerous streams, and the one on which Calcutta the capital of India stands, is called the Hugli.

On the west, the high ranges of mountains called the Hindu-Kush and Suleiman Mountains separate India from Afghanistan. Passes across these mountains are very few, the best known being the Khaiber Pass, which forms the gateway to India.

In the south of India two lines of hills guard its coasts, those on the west, called the Western Ghats, being slightly higher than the Eastern Ghats. Between the two Ghats, and bounded

by the Vindhya Hills on the north, and the Nilghiri Hills on the south, is a large plateau called the Deccan.

The fertile valleys of the Ganges and the Indus occupy all the space between the Deccan and the Himalayas, except for the desert of Thar which lies between them.

Special names have been given to the southern parts of the eastern and western coasts, that in the east being known as the Coromandel coast, and that in the west as the Malabar coast. To the north of the Coromandel coast, stretching from the mouth of the river Kistna to the mouth of the Mahanadi, is the Golconda coast, famous of old for its richness in jewels and gold.

India is thus divided into three well-marked regions, the southern slopes of the Himalayas, the valleys of the Indus and Ganges, and the Deccan plateau.

Lying as it does across the Tropic of Cancer, and stretching almost to the Equator, its climate is naturally hot, and in summer, when the sun is overhead at the Tropic of Cancer, the river-valleys have an extremely warm climate, which Europeans are glad to escape by going to the cooler resorts in the hills, such as Simla, which is perched on the Himalayan slopes between the Jumna and the Satlej.

Hotter in summer than even the valleys of the

Indus and the Ganges is the great plateau of Tibet, to the north of the Himalayas. When the sun has reached the highest point in its northern climb and shines vertically over the Tropic of Cancer, the plateau becomes one of the hottest parts of the world. So warm is it that the snows on the northern slopes of the Himalayas are melted at a height of 24,000 feet above the sea-level, which is 4000 feet more than the snow-line in the south, although the southern slope is nearer the equator, and directly faces the sun.

The consequence of this excessive heat is that in summer the air over the plateau of Tibet is extremely warm and very dry, as it is so far distant from the sea. The warmer and drier the air becomes, the lighter it gets, and, as a result, it is pushed upwards by the air which rushes in from all sides.

Thus, in summer, the wind always blows from the Arabian Sea and Indian Ocean across India towards the plateau, and therefore the summer is the wet season of India. This south-west monsoon, as it is called, is due to the northern position of the sun and the presence of the immense plateau of Tibet, and blows instead of the north-east trade wind, to which its direction is exactly contrary.

In winter, when the sun is over the Tropic of

Capricorn at its winter solstice, exactly the opposite occurs. The plateau of Tibet becomes extremely cold, and the air over it extremely heavy. Consequently it pushes its way outwards, and passes over India as a north-east monsoon and a dry wind—except that part of it which blows across the Bay of Bengal, bringing moisture to the Coromandel coast.

Unlike England, then, India has two distinct seasons, a warm wet summer season, and a cold dry winter one, with a south-west wind bringing rain during the former, and a steady dry north-east wind during the latter.

In April and October, when the wind is changing from one direction to the other, the violent typhoons, or tornadoes, of the Indian Ocean occur.

A glance at the map will show that the south-west monsoon, as it endeavours to pass northward with its moisture, will be stopped to a great extent by the barrier of the Himalayas, and will be driven eastwards along them. Near to where the mountains of Burma hem in the Brahmaputra, and stretching right across the path of the escaping south-west monsoon, lie the Khasi Hills, upon which falls the greatest part of the moisture brought from the ocean. So tremendous is the rainfall on these hills that they receive in the wet season more than twenty times as much

rain as London does during the whole year. They are the wettest part of the whole world.

The Western Ghats keep off the warm and wet south-west monsoon to some extent, so that the rainfall of the Deccan is not heavy, and is sometimes so slight as to cause severe drought. To guard against this, water is stored in tanks and reservoirs to be used when needed.

Most of the coal mines of India are in the north-east of the Deccan, while copper is found near Delhi on the Jumna, the ancient capital of India, and from the Panjab comes most of the salt.

Possessing every range of climate, India is able to grow the products of both the temperate and torrid zones. On the Himalayan slopes wheat, barley, millet, and the vine flourish; rice, cotton, tobacco, sugar, jute, and indigo are grown in the river-valleys, and cotton and spices on the Deccan plateau. Tea is cultivated in Assam in the north-west, and the opium poppy in the Ganges valley. The principal food of the natives is millet. Wide areas are covered with forest and jungle, teak being the most important timber.

In 1600, as we have seen, India was enjoying the benefits of a wise and peaceful reign, ably governed by the Great Mogul, who was a follower of Muhammad, and whose race was naturally of the same religion.

This conquering race was not by any means the most numerous, the Hindus exceeding them many times in number. These Hindus were not followers of Muhammad, but had a religion of their own called Brahmanism which recognised three principal gods—Siva, the Destroyer, Vishnu, the Preserver, and Brahma, the Creator. Other gods besides these were recognised in the forces of the earth, the air, and water, such as Indra, the god of moisture, Agni, of fire, and Usha, of the dawn.

Of the three principal deities, Siva, the Destroyer, is the most dreaded, and temples to his worship are the most common. His worshippers mark themselves upon the forehead by three horizontal lines, which are renewed every morning from sacred ashes. Siva is always represented as a giant, riding on a bull. His eyes are blood-shot, and serpents hang from his ears. He has five faces, and two, four, eight, or ten hands. A third eye is placed in the middle of his forehead, and he carries a trident. His followers always carry a little black stone, called a phallus, which is either placed in a silver box hung round the neck, or is fastened to the arm. The image of a bull is always before his temples.

Vishnu, the Preserver, has also many pagodas, or temples, in his honour. He is said to have

altogether ten different lives, nine of which have been already passed. The monkey is his sacred animal, so that the Hindu never kills a monkey, and swarms of these animals live near his temples. where they are preserved and fed. Worshippers of Vishnu carry a little fossil stone, and are marked on the forehead by the Naman. This is produced by drawing two white lines vertically from the hair to the beginning of each eyebrow, and joining them by a horizontal line across the top of the nose. Between the two vertical white lines another vertical line is drawn in red. The whole forms a trident. The image of Vishnu has four arms, and is a human figure riding on the image of a man with a bird's head and wings.

Brahma, the Creator, has few special worshippers in India. He is represented as a red or golden-coloured figure with four heads and arms. The animal sacred to him is the goose.

The Muhammadans worship Allah, reverence Muhammad in their mosques, and faithfully turn towards the prophet's tent at Mecca, in Arabia. The Grand Mosque of Delhi is one of the most beautiful buildings in the world.

The Sikhs of the Panjab, although a Hindu people, do not embrace the Hindu religion, but worship one god only.

So deep was the Hindu belief in the influence of the gods, that worship of them became the

most important part of life, and nothing could be accomplished until their sanction had been obtained, or until the necessary sacrifice had been made to them.

The proper administration of the ceremonies connected with the worship of each deity was so difficult that, to become proficient, a life-long training was required; so that the priests, or Brahmans, gradually became the most important people among the Hindus.

Next to them in influence came the soldiers, or Rajputs, and these two classes formed the ruling powers, naming themselves the twice-born, and wearing always the sacred thread to show their dignity. This sacred thread, which consists of three thick twists of cotton, hangs from the left shoulder across to the right side.

Below these came the Vaisyas, or husbandmen, and the Sudras, or slaves, the latter probably being descendants of a preceding race.

This division into groups, or castes, was exceedingly strict, and each caste kept itself distinct from the others. Any one eating with members of an inferior caste, or marrying out of his own caste, was at once hated and despised, and not permitted to mix with his fellows.

All united, however, in a fervent devotion to their religion, in which the cow was a sacred animal.

Their languages, one of which is styled Hindustani, are derived from a parent tongue like Sanskrit, connected with the great Indo-European family of languages. This relationship is shown in the name of the god of fire, Agni, which is very similar to the Latin word *ignis*, fire, a word we use in the verb to 'ignite.' So the name Panjab, which means 'five rivers,' is not unlike the German *Funf*, five, and the Celtic *Av*, river, which we use in our river-name 'Avon.'

In addition to the Muhammadan and Hindu tribes are the older races of the Deccan and the Eastern Himalaya, the former speaking various dialects resembling the Tamil of Ceylon, and the latter languages not unlike Chinese or Malay. The Parsis, or sun-worshippers of Bombay, are wealthy merchants of Persian descent, and their language is old Persian.

In the sixth century B.C., the Buddha made a determined and victorious effort to abolish the errors and superstitions which, in course of time, had gathered around Brahmanism. His religion, called Buddhism, which extolled the great value of self-denial and self-restraint, had at one time swept all over India, and still retains some hold on the people of the Deccan, as also of the tribes of Ceylon and Burma.

Originally, as explained by its founder Siddhattha Gotama, of the Sakiya clan, it was one of

the purest religions ever taught, but to-day, though numbering more adherents in China, Nipal, Burma, and Ceylon, than all the other religions of the world put together, it has added on to it the coarse superstition of other heathen beliefs, and in India itself, where it was once almost universal, it has given place to the Hinduism of the Brahmans.

Gotama lived between about 568 and 488 B.C. and was a Brahman. Determined to become a true follower, he tried the starvation which many of the more pious Brahmans practise, but found it of no avail. Sitting under a tree—the Bo Tree, or Tree of Wisdom—he decided to abandon Brahmanism, and to teach a truer doctrine. Man, he taught, was ever changing, a mixture of good and evil. His duty was to strip himself of the evil and to become wholly good. To enable him to do this, he was to follow the noble path of a virtuous and thoughtful life by observing (1) right views; (2) right feelings; (3) right words; (4) right behaviour; (5) right mode of livelihood; (6) right exertion; (7) right memory; (8) right meditation and tranquillity.

By endeavouring to live according to these rules a man ever changes to a purer and a truer being, and, after his death, a new man is born whose life begins with the virtues

gained, and the faults which have not been lost. Through another life the same gradual change towards the better should go on, and this should continue until all evil thoughts are gone, and a man of perfect goodness made. This Nirvana, or perfect peace, goodness, and wisdom, was the aim of every true follower of the Buddha.

To preach his views the Buddha formed a company of begging priests. These were to eat solid food only between sunrise and noon, and were never to taste intoxicating drinks. They were to carry a begging-bowl of brown earthenware, and beg for food from house to house. In fine weather they travelled from place to place, but in the wet season they settled at one spot in or near a town. They were to wear clothes of no value, put together from cast-off rags.

These clothes consisted of two under-garments and a loose robe over the whole, and were made of cloth of dull orange colour first torn to pieces and then sewn together again. They were allowed to possess only eight articles, the three robes mentioned, a girdle for the loins, an alms-bowl, a razor, a needle, and a water-strainer. The last was used in order to prevent the destruction of any living creatures.

Buddhism, much altered from this fine and simple plan, is still practised by name in India,

but upon its noble stock many doctrines of Siva and other gods have been grafted; so that, under its name, customs and sacrifices are permitted which Gotama himself would have driven out as unclean. The praying-wheels, filled with prayers, or charms, or passages from the holy books, the vain repetition of prayers, the Tree of the Law, the praying-flags, whose every flutter in the wind counts as an uttered prayer, are an essential part of the Buddhism of the Tibetan Lamas, but had no share in the teachings of Gotama.

Though nearly two thousand five hundred years have passed since Gotama sat under the Tree of Wisdom and formed his great resolution, one true connection with that time still exists; for a daughter of the King of Ceylon visited the Bo Tree of Gotama more than two thousand years ago, and carried a branch of it to Ceylon. Here it was planted and took root, and is thought to be living till to-day. The old roots have decayed, but round the fig-tree, time after time, new roots have grown. It now stands more than twenty feet above the surrounding soil, an emblem of one of the purest faiths ever taught outside Christianity.

To this land of mixed religions and mixed races, momentarily at peace with each other,

and steadily pursuing their weaving of silks, cotton, and carpets, displaying their skill in metal-work, especially in gold and silver, and enjoying the bountiful harvests of rice and millet and wheat which their river-valleys so readily gave them, came the East India Company.

England and Portugal

THE voyages of Stevens and Cavendish showed that it was possible for the English to reach India, and the victory over the Spanish Armada having proved their strength on the seas, it was not long before English sailors began to frequent Eastern waters, and to attack the Portuguese and Spaniards at every opportunity.

The Pope had divided the heathen nations of the world between the Spaniards and the Portuguese, but his authority did not extend to the Protestant English and Dutch, and both these nations declined to recognise the claims of their rivals.

In the year immediately following the destruction of the Spanish Armada, an English captain set sail from Plymouth with four ships on a piratic expedition against the Spaniards, and took eleven vessels containing pepper and cinnamon, which should have gone to Lisbon; then off the Azores he captured three Spanish ships laden with wine and salad oil. Afterwards he robbed Spain of vessels carrying sugar, ginger, hides, ivory, gold, and cocoanuts; seized and

ransacked the port of Fayal, releasing it only after the payment of 2000 ducats; and, finally, on the way home captured a French ship coming from Newfoundland with cod-fish, and ships from Brazil and Mexico laden with sugar, Brazil-wood, hides, and cochineal.

The members of the expedition honestly believed they were acting most piously in thus attacking the Spaniards, and were at one stroke laying up for themselves treasures both on earth and in heaven. One wonders whether Queen Elizabeth had her share of the spoil in this case, as she did in the next, when the Portuguese vessel, the *Mother of God*, was taken in 1592.

A fleet sent out by Sir Walter Raleigh, Lord Warden of the Stannaries (*i.e.* of the tin-mines of Cornwall and Devon), had fallen in with three Portuguese vessels returning from the East Indies.

'Captain Thomson, in the *Dainty*, had first sight of the huge carrack or vessel, the *Mother of God*, one of the greatest size belonging to the Crown of Portugal. The *Dainty*, being of excellent sail, got the start of the rest of our fleet, and began the conflict somewhat to her cost, with the slaughter and hurt of several of her men.

'Within a while after, Sir John Burrough, in the *Roebuck* of Sir Walter Raleigh, was at hand

to second her, and saluted her with shot of great ordnance, and continued the fight within musket-shot, till Sir R. Gosse, the vice-admiral of the fleet, came up in the *Foresight*, being to leeward, —at whose arrival Sir J. Burrough demanded of him what was best to be done. He answered that if the carrack were not boarded, she would recover the shore, and find herself as the other had done.

'Whereupon Sir J. Burrough concluded to entangle her, and Sir R. Gosse also promised to fasten himself to her together at the instant, which was performed. But after a while Sir John receiving a shot from a cannon under water, and ready to sink, desired Sir R. Gosse to fall off, that he might also clear himself, and save his ship from sinking, which with difficulty he did. For both the *Roebuck* and the *Foresight* were so entangled as with much ado could they clear themselves.

'The same evening Sir R. Gosse, finding the carrack then drawing near the island, persuaded his company to board her again, or else there was no hope to recover her. After many excuses and fears, they were by him encouraged, and so fell athwart her foreships all alone; and so hindered her sailing, that the rest had time to come up to their succour, and to recover the carrack ere she gained the land.

'Toward evening, after he had fought with her alone three hours single, two ships came up, and with very little loss entered with Sir R. Gosse, who had in that time destroyed their courage, and made the assault easy for the rest.

'The General, having disarmed the Portugals, and stowed them for better security on all sides, had first presented to his sight the true proportion of the vast body of the carrack, which did then, and still may, justly provoke the admiration of all men not previously acquainted with such a sight. Albeit this first appearance of the hugeness thereof yielded sights enough to entertain our men's eyes. . . .

'Sir John, intending not to add 'too much affliction to the afflicted, moved with pity and compassion of human misery, in the end resolved freely to dismiss the captain of the carrack and the most part of his followers to their own country, and for the same purpose bestowed them in certain vessels furnished with all kinds of necessary provision.

'This business thus despatched, good leisure had he to take such view of the goods as conveniency might afford.

'And having very prudently (to cut off the unprofitable spoil and pillage, to which he saw the minds of many inclined) seized upon the whole to Her Majesty's use, after a short and

slender rummaging and searching of such things as came first to hand, he perceived that the value would arise nothing contrary to expectation; but that the variety and grandeur of the rich commodities would be more than sufficient to content both the adventurer's desire and the soldier's labour.

'And here I cannot but take into consideration and acknowledgment God's great favour towards our nation, who, by putting this purchase into our hands, hath manifestly discovered those secret trades and Indian riches, which hitherto lay strangely hidden and cunningly concealed from us; whereof some few among us had received a small imperfect glimpse only, which now is turned into broad light of full and perfect knowledge. Whereby it would seem that the will of God for our good is to have us trade with them in these East Indian treasures, and by the erection of a lawful trade to improve our means to advance true religion and His holy service.

'The carrack being in burden, by the estimation of the wise and experienced, no less than 1600 tons, had fully 900 of those stowed with the gross bulk of merchandise.

'To give you an idea of the commodities it shall suffice to particularise them according to the catalogue taken at Leadenhall on the 15th

September 1592; where, upon examination, it was found that the principal wares after the jewels (which were no doubt of great value, though they never came to light) consisted of spices, drugs, silks, calicoes, quilts, carpets, colours.

'The spices were—pepper, cloves, mace, nutmegs, cinnamon, green ginger.

'The drugs were — benjamin, frankincense, galingale, aloes, camphor.

'The silks were—damasks, taffetas, counterfeit cloth of gold, unwrought China silk, sleaved silk, white twisted silk, white cypress.

'The calicoes were — book calicoes, calico lawns, broad white calicoes, fine starched, coarse white, brown broad, and brown coarse calicoes.

'There were also canopies and quilts of coarse sarcenet and of calico; carpets like these of Turkey; whereunto are to be added pearl, musk, civet, and ambergris.

'The rest of the wares were many in number, but less in value, as elephants' tusks, porcelain vessels of China, cocoanuts, hides, ebon-wood as black as jet, bedsteads of the same, cloth of the rind of trees, very strange for the matter, and clever in workmanship.

'All which pile of commodities, being by men of approved judgement rated, in reasonable manner, amounted to no less than £150,000

sterling, which being divided amongst the adventurers (whereof Her Majesty was chief) was sufficient to yield contentment to all parties.'

Not only did the sight of this, the largest vessel the English had ever seen, yield contentment, but it added to the religious zeal a desire for further riches.

A sudden rise in the price of pepper formed a sufficient excuse for action, and the English East India Company was quickly founded and eagerly joined.

The East India Company

Its Early Days

THE company called itself 'The Company of Merchants of London trading into the East Indies,' and its first venture was a fleet of five small ships under Captain Lancaster, which left England on the 13th of February 1601. Among the merchants combining were many who, like Sir Thomas Smith, belonged also to the Merchant Adventurers.

Though the ships were small in size and few in number they really formed a fleet, having both admiral and vice-admiral, while each vessel was armed to meet the attacks of any foe.

This first small fleet carried a cargo of broadcloth, cutlery, glass, and iron, together with money to give in exchange for any Indian merchandise which might be bought, and was fortunate enough to reach India without mishap.

It was able to effect an exchange of goods which brought in a satisfactory profit, and returned to England after an absence of two years.

Other fleets followed, but all were not so successful in escaping attack on the voyage. Not

only were the Portuguese naturally angry at this intrusion upon their monopoly, but the Dutch, who had formed an East India Company of their own in 1602, and had quickly established factories both in India and in the East Indies, joined with them, and on one occasion the Portuguese and the Dutch combined to attack the English fleet on their outward voyage, lying in wait for their enemy near the Persian Gulf.

In this particular fleet Baffin, who had earned well-won fame by his three Arctic voyages, was captain of one of the vessels.

It is pleasant to learn that, when the English heard news of this intended assault, the whole fleet asked leave to seek the enemy; and although Admiral Shelley and Baffin were both killed, the result of the fight was a decisive victory for the English. This particular fleet was the eighth which the East India Company had despatched, and the encounter took place in the year 1620.

The victors took advantage of their success to unite with the Shah of Persia in driving the Portuguese out of Ormuz.

Before this, however, the English had obtained permission from the Great Mogul to build a factory at Surat, and by degrees others were established, one on the Coromandel coast, at Fort St George in Madras, and another, called

Fort William, on the river Hugli, at Calcutta. On his marriage to the Princess of Portugal, Charles II. received, as part of her dowry, the island of Bombay, and this came into the possession of the company in 1668.

Thus, before the end of the seventeenth century, a beginning had been made of the three presidencies into which India is now divided, though no one at that time could have foreseen that Fort St George, Fort William, and Bombay would become the centres of such large possessions.

More quickly than the English, the Dutch had made their footing in the East. Originally, their efforts were applied more to the East Indies, and in opposition to the Portuguese; but we have already seen they were not averse to attacking the English, though these were fellow Protestants.

Shortly after the battle which the combined Dutch and Portuguese had lost, the Dutch set about the work of driving the Portuguese out of the East, and quickly obtained possession of Java, Bantam, Amboyna, Ternate, and the Banda Islands, all in the East Indies, and later on added to these Malacca, Ceylon, and Celebes. They also obtained the sole privilege of trading with Japan.

As the headquarters of their stations, they

built Batavia, a seaport on the south-western coast of Java, and immediately began to establish monopolies even more strict than those of the Portuguese.

Thus, in order to control the growth and supply of each product, they permitted only one to be grown in any area, and determined exactly how much of each should be planted. In this way, Amboyna grew nothing but cloves, and the labourers were instructed to plant altogether 500,000 trees, while the cultivation of the nutmeg was confined to the Banda Islands.

The worst incident in the relationship between the English and Dutch East India Companies occurred in 1621 at Amboyna. The Dutch had expelled the Portuguese six years before, but had permitted the English to retain their factories. Owing possibly to the sea-fight of the previous year, the Dutch imagined their rivals were influencing the natives to join in their expulsion, and, as a consequence, they massacred every Englishman on the island.

About this period another rival to both English and Dutch appeared. The French East India Company was formed in 1624, and speedily obtained permission to establish a factory at Pondicherry on the Coromandel coast, just south of Fort St George.

Of these four Trading Companies, Portuguese, English, Dutch, and French, the first gradually lost its possessions during the seventeenth century. The Dutch made most of their efforts amongst the East Indian Islands, with Batavia as their chief port, while England and France were to become strongly opposed to each other in India.

Owing to the jealousies between these nations, trade with India and the East Indies was rendered less profitable to all; for, up to the fighting fleet of 1620, out of seventy-nine ships despatched by the East India Company to India only thirty-four returned to England. Fortunately, the profit on the goods brought by these more than balanced the loss on the others, since the company sold for nearly two million pounds what had cost in India only £350,000.

Naturally enough this success aroused much jealousy in England, and numerous interlopers endeavoured, to obtain a share in the trade.

Towards the end of the seventeenth century another company of English merchants entered into rivalry with the old company, but it was quickly found that it would be to the advantage of both to join forces, and in 1708 the two united, changing the old name into that of the 'United Company of the Merchants of England trading to the East Indies.'

The East India Company

First Step to Power

THE peaceful days of 1600 A.D., when Akbar the Great held the whole country in perfect order, were not to last. The Hindu tribes could not forget their former power, nor could they stay quietly under the government of a Muhammadan race much less numerous than their own.

The more warlike of the Hindus rose in rebellion against the Moguls, and the Mahrattas of the north-west Deccan, with the Sikhs of the Panjab and the Rajputs of Rajputana, Hindu tribes of the fertile plains, made fierce attacks upon their rulers.

Shah Jehan (famous for the magnificent buildings which he erected, and particularly for the wonderful mausoleum called the Taj-Mahal at Agra, which he built in loving memory of his favourite wife Mahal), and the famous Aurangzeb, his son, who deposed and succeeded him, managed to keep these warlike races in check. After the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, however, they gradually obtained their independence, and first one Hindu state and then another was lopped from the Mogul Empire.

India thus became divided into numerous states, some under Muhammadan rulers, and others with a Hindu raja, but all jealous of each other. In all, the antagonism of Hindu and Muhammadan was ever ready to burst out. Some rulers were called nawabs, and others maharajas, the former being the Muhammadan, and the latter the Hindu name for a ruler who owed allegiance to a higher power, in this particular instance to the Great Mogul, whom these nawabs and maharajas pretended to acknowledge as their head.

The first European to turn to the advantage of his own country this division and jealousy amongst the Indian states was Dupleix, the head of the French East India Company. He had allowed his troops to train the sepoys, or native soldiers of one of these states. On a dispute occurring about the appointment of successors to the Nizam, or ruler of the Deccan, and to the ruler of the Carnatic, the southern part of India, he had joined one of the two claimants against the other. With his French troops and well-trained sepoys, he speedily secured the triumph of his allies, and thus became the virtual ruler of Southern India.

Before this success the French had attacked the English factories, and Admiral Labourdonnais had even driven the company's servants from Fort St George, but at the Treaty of

Photo. by Elliott & Fry.
T.O.

Cecil Rhodes.

Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748 A.D. the fort was restored to the English Company.

The new conquest made the English fear another attack from the French, and one which promised to be more dangerous than the first. They had helped the other claimants among the natives, only to see them defeated and Dupleix supreme. His two nawabs gave him the title of 'Supreme Vizier of Southern India,' and made him the permanent chief of their armies.

But in the employment of 'John Company' at Madras was a young clerk or writer named Robert Clive, who was destined to secure for Great Britain the mature fruit which in its early bloom seemed assured for France.

Service under the East India Company at that period was carefully regulated. The beginner was a writer or clerk for five years, then factor for three years, junior merchant for another three, and after that senior merchant. From the ranks of the senior merchants the higher offices were filled.

Naturally, the workers in our Indian factories could not hope to be allowed to carry out their work in peace. Bound to be ever ready for a sudden attack, they acquired some knowledge of a soldier's work, and found frequent opportunities of putting this knowledge into practice.

Clive, who had been a bit of a scapegrace, and had been sent out to India on that account, thought he saw a way of getting the better of the French, and for this purpose joined the army of the company.

The nawab, with whom the company was in alliance, was being besieged in Trichinopoli by Dupleix with his French and sepoys. Clive decided that, while Dupleix and his army were thus engaged, a successful attack might be made upon some other part of the Carnatic.

With a small force of 500 men, English troops and sepoys, he marched by night to Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, entered it, and placed his troops in the citadel. In vain the nawab and Dupleix attacked him there with 10,000 men. Clive's few soldiers fought so bravely that Dupleix was compelled to withdraw, and the English had gained their first real success as a fighting force in India.

The result so pleased the English Governor at Fort St George that Clive was placed at the head of the company's forces in South India, and thus had an army of 200 Europeans and 700 trained sepoys to oppose the thousands of Dupleix and his two nawabs.

His bold courage and wise generalship gave his troops victory after victory, and in less than a year Dupleix was driven out of the Carnatic,

the nawab was deposed, and the one chosen by the English installed in power. In the Carnatic, therefore, in 1752, was the real beginning of our Indian Empire. Dupleix and Clive had both shown that the internal quarrels among the Indian states gave Europe an opportunity of conquering India mainly by the employment of Indian sepoys.

Dupleix, though not well supported by the French Government, might have succeeded had he not been hindered at every turn by the jealousy of the Governor of Mauritius, a French island in the Indian Ocean.

This governor had command of the French fleet sent in aid of the French East India Company, and, though equally clever and brave, could not agree with Dupleix as to the best plan of carrying on the campaign.

The East India Company

Plassey

THE calm which followed the departure of Dupleix did not last long. The Nawab of Bengal, in whose country the English had erected a factory called Fort William, resented their presence, and picked a quarrel with them.

Marching upon Fort William in June 1756 he easily captured it, and took all its occupants prisoners. They numbered 146—merchants, clerks, soldiers, and women—and these the Nawab, Suraj-ad-Daulah crowded into a small room, the only ventilation of which came from two small barred windows. Macaulay thus gives the story of that terrible night:—

'Nothing in history or fiction approaches the horrors which were recounted by the few survivors of that night. They cried for mercy. They strove to burst the doors. One offered large bribes to the gaolers. But the answer was that nothing could be done without the nawab's orders, that the nawab was asleep, and would be angry if anybody woke him. Then the prisoners went mad with despair. They

trampled each other down, fought for the places at the windows, fought for the pittance of water with which the cruel mercy of the warders mocked their agonies, raved, prayed, blasphemed, implored the guards to fire among them. The gaolers in the meantime held lights to the bars, and shouted with laughter at the frantic struggles of their victims.

'At length the tumult died away in low gaspings and moanings; the day broke. The nawab permitted the door to be opened. But it was some time before the soldiers could make a lane for the survivors, by piling up on each side the heaps of corpses on which the burning climate had already begun to do its loathsome work. When at length a passage was made, 23 ghastly figures, such as their own mothers would not have known, staggered one by one out of the charnel-house. A pit was instantly dug. The dead bodies, 123 in number, were flung into it furiously, and covered up. The nawab inflicted no punishment on the warders. He showed no tenderness to the survivors. These, still bowed down by the sufferings of that great agony, were lodged in miserable sheds, and fed only with grain and water, till at length the prayers of the female relatives of the nawab procured their release.'

Clive, having just returned from England,

where he had spent a two years' holiday after his long struggle with Dupleix, started immediately for Fort William. He took with him one regiment of British troops and 2000 of his faithful sepoys from Madras.

This first appearance of troops of the British Government in India is important, as showing that affairs in India were not matters for the East India Company alone, but for everybody in the homeland. The horrors of the Black Hole had stirred Great Britain into action, and the arrival of the 39th Regiment of Foot in India was the outcome of their indignation. The 39th still proudly carry on their colours the words, 'Primus in Indis'—the first in India.

Fortunately for Clive, he soon learned that Suraj-ad-Daulah was not popular with his own subjects, and that numbers were ready to desert him. To one of the most influential Clive promised the succession to the throne, and the influenced native held aloof when Clive, with his 3000 troops, arrived at Plassey to oppose Suraj-ad-Daulah's army of 58,000.

The battle of Plassey, fought in 1757, was quickly and easily won. Almost at the first charge of the British the natives fled, and only the French gunners stood at their posts. The British lost only 72 men in adding Bengal to their possessions.

Clive at once seized Murshidabad, the capital of Bengal, deposed the Nawab, and made his successor pay tribute to the British and act as their servant. Suraj-ad-Daulah himself was speedily caught and put to death.

In the Carnatic also the struggle with the French was continuing, and did not cease till 1760, when Sir Eyre Cook defeated his opponents finally at Wandewash, and captured all the French possessions, including Pondicherry.

Thus, from being a small trading company with a few scattered forts, at the mercy of the natives and of their French rivals, the genius of Clive had made the company a power in the Carnatic and in Bengal, and had changed it from a trading company into a government.

Clive remained in Bengal till he had seen it properly settled, and then returned to England.

The East India Company

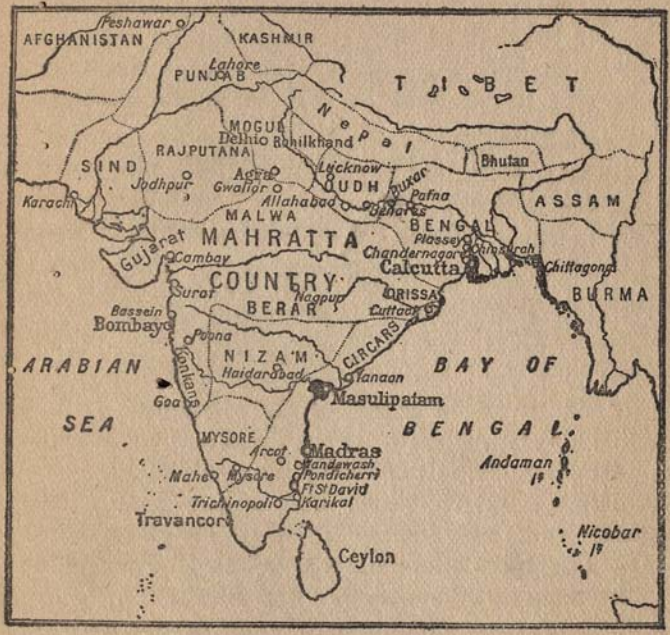
About 1760 A.D.

By 1760, the year in which King George III. ascended the throne, the East India Company had firmly established itself in India. Beginning originally with a few factories and the sending out of a few fleets of small ships not oftener than once a year, it had made little or no advance for over a century. On the contrary, it had been obliged to meet the opposition first of the Portuguese and Dutch, and then of the French.

Its first real step had been made in 1717, when it had obtained from the Great Mogul what is commonly called the Great Charter of the English in India, namely, the right to import and export goods into and from India without the payment of any duty or toll.

Yet this privilege did not prove of such benefit as was anticipated, because the company had rather unwisely permitted its servants in India to trade on their own account, and many of these, naturally enough, thought more of filling their own pockets than of making their employers wealthy. They were the more tempted to this

action because the company, probably thinking that the privilege of private trading was a



INDIA IN 1760.

British Possessions in solid black.

sufficient return for their services, did not pay them very generously.

Clive, who had left India after his conquest of Bengal, was well aware of this, and when

he returned again in 1765 as Governor of Bengal, he immediately increased the salaries of the clerks and soldiers, at the same time forbidding them either to trade on their own account, or to receive presents from the natives. To enable the larger salaries to be paid he put aside the proceeds of the salt tax.

In 1765 Clive also obtained from the Mogúl the right of collecting the taxes in Bengal, and thus the company became the virtual ruler of that province.

The rulers of Bahar and Audh districts adjoining Bengal, had assisted the nawab in an attack upon the company's factory at Patna, but had been severely defeated, and compelled to submit to the orders of the company; so that Clive, as Governor of Bengal, was really Governor of the greater part of North-Eastern India.

Unfortunately, Clive, after a stay of less than two years, was compelled by ill-health to return to England, where he was accused of receiving large sums of money on his own account, and of displaying harshness to some of the natives. In his defence he expressed surprise at his own moderation, and the trial resulted in his acquittal. Shortly afterwards, in a fit of despondency, he committed suicide.

The East India Company

The First Governor-General

THE position of the English in India was now so assured, and the necessity for combined action so great, that in 1773 the company decided to place the whole of their territory under one ruler, and Warren Hastings was sent out in that year as the first Governor-General, having supreme command in Bengal, Madras, and Bombay.

Hastings had already had a long experience in India, having begun, like Clive, as a writer, but in Bengal. When Suraj-ad-Daulah made his fierce attack upon the company's forts in Bengal, Hastings, being fortunately at Patna, escaped the horrors of the Black Hole, and suffered the milder punishment of imprisonment in Murshidabad. When Clive attained full power, he recognised the merits of Hastings and promoted him in the service. After Clive's departure Hastings made a rapid advance, and his appointment as Governor-General in 1773 was cordially received.

To assist him in his work a council was formed, but unhappily some of the members did

all in their power to hinder him. In spite of their opposition, and in spite of the pressure of the East India Company at home, which was always demanding more and more money, he ruled India wisely and strongly for twelve years, and at the end of that time had largely increased the company's authority.

His first reform was to remove the collection of the taxes from the hands of the natives into those of English officials, a step which put an end to a large amount of bribery.

He also had the law administered by Englishmen, and thus firmly fixed the company in power, though not without causing much discontent among the natives, to whom purity in collecting taxes was somewhat strange, and by whom also English methods of administering justice were not always understood.

His first war in India was carried on by proxy. The Nawab of Audh a vassal of the English, was much troubled by an Afghan tribe called the Rohillas, who were in the habit of attacking his western boundary and robbing his subjects. To him Hastings lent the aid of the company's troops, and the Rohillas were subdued. For thus permitting English troops to interfere in the quarrels between Indian nawabs, Hastings was much blamed in England.

Before long, however, he was involved in a

much more hazardous enterprise. Bombay felt itself inferior to Bengal and Madras, inasmuch as each of these stations had made itself master of the country surrounding it, while Bombay ruled over nothing but the small island granted to the company by Charles II.

The land opposite the island belonged to the Mahrattas, those warlike Hindus who had been so troublesome to the Great Mogul, and who had made themselves practically independent.

The Mahratta races had formed a confederacy for mutual defence, and the leader of the confederacy was called the Peishwa. To be Peishwa was the highest honour a Mahratta leader could obtain, and the English in Madras consented to lend their troops to one of these princes to enable him to obtain that position. In return, he agreed, if successful, to pay a large subsidy to his allies, and would, as a matter of course, be partly dependent upon them.

The other chiefs refused to acknowledge this prince, and immediately attacked and defeated the English troops. Bombay was saved only through the enterprise of Hastings, who marched his soldiers from Bengal right across India, and succeeded in defeating the Mahrattas. Little, however, was gained from this war, and the Mahrattas retained their independence for another twenty years.

Even while Hastings was fighting in the North-West he began to be faced with another serious trouble in the South.

The nawab whom the British had placed upon the throne in Maisur had proved a very weak ruler, and Haidar-Ali, a Muhammadan, inducing a large number of his fellow-Muhammadans to join him, had not only taken possession of Maisur, but, sweeping southwards over the Carnatic, had approached quite near to the town of Madras itself.

Britain was also at war with France at that time, and a French fleet cruised in the Indian Ocean ready to deliver an attack at any spot which might seem favourable.

Hastings consequently found it necessary to raise a force to oppose Haidar-Ali, and for this purpose compelled the vassal nawabs to contribute large sums of money, fining heavily those who did not respond promptly, and even deposing one who hesitated too long.

The Nawab of Audh, pleading that his father had left all his treasures to his widows, and that he was consequently penniless, asked permission to obtain it from them, and this Hastings granted.

Unfortunately, the young nawab was not too scrupulous in his method of procuring the money, and much cruelty was practised before

the Begums of Audh, as the ladies were called, consented to surrender their treasure, amounting to a million pounds. The Governor-General's share in this shameful incident aroused bitter indignation against him at home.

With the money thus obtained Hastings got together an army to oppose Haidar-Ali, and Sir Eyre Cook, who was appointed its general, a second time succeeded in making the English all-powerful in the Carnatic. Haidar-Ali's army was thoroughly defeated, and, after his death in the following year, his son Tipu Sahib, who for a short time offered some resistance, was compelled to submit to the company's terms.

In 1785 Warren Hastings left India for England, after a rule of twelve years during which, in spite of the faults mentioned, he had succeeded not only in maintaining the company's authority, but in checking bribery and corruption both in the collection of taxes and in the administration of justice.

Almost immediately on his return he was impeached before the House of Lords for his wrongful lending of British troops, for his non-prevention of the oppression of the Begums of Audh and for other alleged misdemeanours, but after a trial which lasted six years he was acquitted on every point.

The East India Company

Pitt's India Bill

MENTION has already been made of the efforts of the interlopers to secure the opening of the East Indies to all, and of the complaints in the seventeenth century that the company was exporting English money and not English goods. The partial success of the complaints at the beginning of the eighteenth century at first threatened to damage the company's interests very severely, but the union of the new and old companies for a time seemed successful in preventing this. Now, however, two other forms of complaint began to arise. The first came from the British merchants, who said that the company was beginning to import Indian silks and muslins into England, thus damaging British manufacturers.

To remedy this grievance, the company was compelled to export a certain amount of British manufactured goods to India, and not allowed to bring back more than a limited quantity of Indian woven goods.

There arose, also, complaints of the manner in which Indian affairs were managed. In

London two courts or councils ruled the company. The one court, larger in numbers, but less in influence, was called the Court of Proprietors, and every shareholder had a right to attend its meetings. Superior to the Court of Proprietors, and elected from among its members, was the Court of Directors. Both met at India House in the city, and at first managed all the affairs of the company.

In the defence of their actions against the interlopers these two courts pointed out that, while the company was responsible for the good conduct of its own servants whom it was able to keep under proper control, the interlopers were guilty of numerous offences such as selling goods of bad quality, and even of piracy, which the company could not prevent, but for which the natives of India blamed its servants, thus causing quarrels and dissensions.

Regulations had been passed by parliament in 1773 under which a Board of Control was set up in London to supervise all the doings of the two courts. This Board of Control was quite independent of the company, but its powers were not very clearly defined. However, the frequent wars in India, together with the necessity of limiting the authority of a company which made the members of its council almost kings, caused the attention of parliament to be

drawn again to the way in which Indian affairs were managed. It was soon evident that British influence in India was becoming too great, too important, to be left entirely to the management of a company of merchants.

Fox, the Prime Minister in 1783, had brought in a Bill which was intended to abolish the political power of the company, and to leave only the trading rights. Seven men nominated by parliament were to have the appointment of all the officials in India. This Bill failed to pass. The next year Fox resigned, and his successor, the great William Pitt, almost immediately introduced his India Bill, which brought India under the control of parliament. By it the Governor-General and the Board of Control in London were, for the future, to be nominated by the Crown, that is, by the leaders in parliament for the time being.

Under this Bill Lord Cornwallis was appointed as the first Governor-General, responsible, not to the company, but to parliament. From 1786 onwards, India has formed part of the British Empire, while the East India Company returned to its former position as a body of traders, though with considerable influence over Indian affairs through its right of appointing nearly all the officials of the Indian Government.

At the time of this change there passed

from the hands of the company the Bengal Presidency, stretching along the river Ganges, and including Bengal, Bahar, and Audh, with Calcutta as its capital; the Madras Presidency, along the Coromandel coast, including the Carnatic and the Circars, with Madras, the old Fort St George, as its capital; and the Bombay Presidency on the west coast, with Bombay as its capital, and with no annexed territory except the little island of Salsette, which was all that Warren Hastings had obtained by his victory over the Mahrattas.

South of the Bengal Presidency lay the Mahratta states, a federation of aggressive Hindu soldiers, and south of these again the Muhammadan states known as the Nizam's dominions, and the state of Maisur.

The Mogul, the nominal head of the whole vast peninsula, lived, a neglected, powerless ruler, in his capital at Delhi on the Jumna.

The East India Company

Cornwallis

In spite of the great outcry against Clive and Warren Hastings, and of the desire to alter the methods by which India had been governed by the company, Cornwallis found himself troubled by difficulties similar to theirs, and was forced to use similar methods to overcome them.

Almost at the beginning of his rule he had to face a struggle with Tipu, the son of that Haidar-Ali who had caused Hastings so much trouble; and for the contest Cornwallis sought the alliance of the Mahrattas and the Nizam, or ruler of the Deccan, thus uniting with him both Hindu and Muhammadan.

With his own forces alone, however, he marched into Maisur and stormed Seringapatam, its capital. In order to secure peace Tipu was compelled to surrender nearly half his kingdom of Maisur, part of the ceded territory being given to the Mahrattas and the Nizam, the rest being added to the Madras Presidency.

Cornwallis only avoided a more serious trouble later on, because of the mild temper of

the Bengalese, who won their victory in the law courts instead of upon the battlefield.

Anxious to establish a working system of taxation in Bengal, he fixed what was called the perpetual settlement, or rate at which each parcel of land should be taxed by the government.

Unfortunately this perpetual tax was collected by the *zemindars*, a race of Hindu taxgatherers which had existed during and since the rule of the Moguls, and with whom the British bargained for the collection of taxes from the different villages.

These zemindars soon found it to their advantage to pay this fixed amount themselves, but at the same time demanded more and more money from the poor peasants, or *ryots* as they are called in Bengal, and pocketed the difference.

The ryots, in order to stop this exaction, determined to send in their complaints to the law courts all together, and refuse to pay any tax till the cases were settled. As the zemindars could not get any money from the ryots whilst these cases were proceeding, and as they were liable for the amount fixed by the perpetual settlement, many of them were ruined.

Happily peace was brought about without any fighting, and the tax levied by the 'Perpetual Settlement of 1793' continues to be paid, though without the possibility of extortion from the poor peasant.

The East India Company

Assaye

LORD WELLESLEY, who followed Cornwallis as Governor-General, saw that the position of the three presidencies would never be secure while Hindu and Muhammadan states were allowed to remain detached and absolutely independent in their actions.

Tipu of Maisur, who either had forgotten the lesson which Cornwallis had given him, or who believed that our war with France at that time would prevent us from defending strongly our possessions in India, determined to strike one more blow at Madras.

The Governor-General's brother, Arthur Wellesley, afterwards the famous Duke of Wellington, took the field against him, and Tipu and his army were quickly driven out of the Carnatic into Seringapatam. The British followed in pursuit, and Tipu was killed at the gate of his own palace.

Half of Maisur was annexed to Madras, and over the other half the Hindu rule was re-established. The rulers of the Carnatic being suspected of having aided Tipu, were deposed,

thus bringing the greater part of Southern India under British rule not only in name, but in fact.

There is no doubt that the French had helped to entice Tipu to his ruin, and even after his defeat they endeavoured to persuade the Nizam and chief of the Mahrattas to force the English out of India.

But the power of the French in India was by no means so great as it had been, and the immediate action of the Governor-General tended to decrease it still further. In addition to this, the influence of Great Britain was steadily increasing.

Lord Wellesley acted quickly. He first compelled the Nizam to dismiss all his French advisers, and then attacked the Mahrattas. Against these he despatched two armies, one under General Lake, who annexed the land between the Jumna and the Ganges, called the Doab, or country of the two rivers, capturing Delhi, the Mogul's capital; while the other, marching south under Wellesley himself, defeated the Mahrattas at Assaye in 1802.

As a result of these victories two more districts, the North-West Provinces and Orissa, came under British rule, while, by the Peace of Amiens, in the same year, Ceylon was transferred to us by the Dutch. At the same time the Peishwa or

head of the Mahratta confederacy, whose country stretched along the western coast north and south of Bombay, came under our influence. Thus, like the Nawab of Audh, the Nizam of the Deccan, and the Raja of Maisur, his territory was under our protection, and he was compelled to supply us with money and soldiers in time of war.

All these events made plain the fact that, despite the troubles with which Great Britain had to contend in Europe during this period, her power and influence in India were increasing by leaps and bounds. We have seen, too, that as British influence rose higher and higher the power of France was weakening. The cession of Ceylon by the Dutch formed another proof of Britain's growing strength, and the corresponding weakness of her old trade rival—the Dutch.

The East India Company

The Beginning of the End

LORD WELLESLEY'S successors could not prevent the Mahrattas from harassing their weaker neighbours, nor did they succeed in mastering the Sikhs of the Panjab. These people had succeeded, like the Mahrattas, in throwing off the rule of the Great Mogul, but, unlike the Mahrattas, they took care not to interfere with territory under British protection. Like the Mahrattas, however, they belonged to a branch of the Hindu religion, and the chance of their combining always existed.

The struggle was bound to come sooner or later, and a reason for open hostility quickly arose. Bands of soldier-robbers who fought for their Mahratta chiefs in times of war, and who used the Mahratta states for a starting-place for their pilfering expeditions, had caused considerable trouble in the Deccan.

These Pindaris, as they were called, under a famous leader called Chitvo, were soon not content with pillaging the Deccan, but began to ravage other parts of India.

The Marquis of Hastings, the Governor-General in 1815, who had previously conquered

the sturdy Goorkhas of the hills, determined to hunt down the Pindarees, and finally succeeded in destroying them.

Whilst he was doing this, the Mahrattas thought they saw an opportunity of regaining their entire independence. The Peishwa, anxious to set himself free from the control under which Lord Wellesley had placed him, combined with his fellow-chiefs, Holkar and the Rajah of Berar, to rise against the British.

Hastings was prompt. Each was attacked before he had an opportunity of reaching the others, and all three were defeated. This happened in the years 1817 and 1818, and the close of the war saw the end of the Mahratta power. Bombay at last obtained the land it wanted in the time of Warren Hastings, and the Peishwa's territories were added to the Bombay Presidency. All the Mahratta states came under British control, and at the same time Rajputana, the part of India lying to the east of the Indus, was also glad to secure the peace and protection afforded by a stable and resolute government. In 1818 the Punjab alone remained outside British influence.

In 1813 the exclusive right to trade in India had been taken from the company and thrown open to all. The result of this action was a large increase in our trade with India, which

trebled itself in less than ten years; so that, when the charter of the company came up to be renewed in 1833, it was considered advisable to abolish its remaining privileges so far as trade was concerned, and limit its duties to patronage and administration.

The years which followed saw probably the best of the company's work. No longer possessing a personal interest in dividends, and with their servants acting only as administrators and collectors of revenue, they were able to abolish both oppression and bribery.

Attention was given to the internal affairs of the country, and the horrible custom called *Satti*, or the burning alive of the widow at the burial of her husband, was suppressed. India was liberated also from the terror of the Thags, a body of murderers and robbers who attacked lonely travellers.

Yet the company had not secured perpetual peace in India. With the extension of its powers towards the west, a new dread arose that Russia might find it convenient to use Afghanistan as a point of approach for an attack upon India. It was felt that the country would not be safe from Russian invasion unless Afghanistan was governed by a ruler favourable to Britain.

In 1839, therefore, an army marched through

the Panjab, the land of the Sikhs, succeeded in crossing that vast mountain barrier the Suleiman Mountains, and captured Kabul, the capital of Afghanistan. The reigning amir was deposed, and Shah Shuja enthroned in his stead.

Shah Shuja, hated by the Afghans, was unable to keep them under control, and in 1842 they rose in revolt and murdered him. At the same time they fell upon the British troops stationed in Kabul, and compelled them to retreat towards India. Another British army quickly took revenge for this, and Kabul was once more in our hands. The throne was given back to its former ruler, Dost Muhammad.

The next trouble arose with the Sikhs of the Punjab, who alone in India had retained their independence. Their wise ruler, Ranjit Singh, who had carefully prevented them from coming into opposition with the forces of the company, had died in 1839. After him no strong ruler arose, and when the idea spread, after the disastrous Afghan campaign, that now was the time to drive the British from India, the Sikhs had no statesman to give them better counsel.

In 1845 they invaded the North-West Provinces, and two fierce battles were fought. In these the Sikhs showed themselves both skilful and brave, and neither Firozshah nor Sobraon was won by our forces under General Gough

without a severe struggle. In the latter battle the Sikhs were driven back upon the river Satlej, and many of them were drowned.

Although they then obtained peace, on agreeing to acknowledge themselves under the protection of the company, the Sikhs rebelled again in 1848, and more fierce battles, at Chillianwallah and Gujerat, were necessary before they were conquered. After that the British took possession of the Punjab.

Thus the whole of India was now either directly or indirectly under the control of the company, while parts of Burma had been annexed, and British influence extended to Afghanistan.

The story of the rise of British influence in India as related in the foregoing chapters is one of absorbing interest, the ascent to power being itself a marvel. That a handful of traders allowed into the country on sufferance should, in the course of years, become the governors of such a huge territory is a wonder not likely to be repeated in our time, though in the case of the Hudson Bay Company and several parts of Africa, other lands besides India have been added to the Empire through trade.

The East India Company

The End

JUST when its success seemed to be complete, the storm burst which overwhelmed the company. The real causes of the terrifying disturbance still remain somewhat obscure and involved. Lord Dalhousie, the governor-general, had displeased the Hindus by carrying on as rapidly as possible the plan of deposing the native rulers, and of bringing each district under direct British control.

It was the Indian custom to allow a childless ruler to adopt a son to succeed him. This, in two or three cases, Dalhousie would not sanction, but insisted upon bringing the states under direct control. He also dethroned the King of Audh, and refused permission to the Peishwa to adopt a successor.

Taking advantage of the dislike of the Hindus for these actions, stories were spread that the company was issuing cartridges greased with the fat of pigs and cows—pigs being an abomination to the Muhammadan, while cows were animals reverenced by the Hindu.

The time, too, seemed favourable for an

organised revolt. An old prophecy was circulated that the British rule would last just 100 years after the battle of Plassey, and this gave hope to the discontented natives.

At the time, too, the British forces in India were considerably depleted. Regiments required for the Crimean War during the preceding years had not been replaced. The proportion of British to native soldiers, usually one to three, was then only one to six.

The rebellion began at Mirut on 10th May 1857, and soon almost the whole of the native sepoy army was in revolt. The British officers were shot, and their wives and children murdered. In Audh, the natives rose to recall the ruler whom Dalhousie had deposed, and in the Residency of Lakhnau, its capital, a single British regiment was besieged.

Help came from the Punjab, where Sir John Lawrence was in command of the troops which held the annexed province. An army of 4000 British soldiers, assisted by the now friendly Sikhs, advanced upon Delhi, and finally captured it, and with it the Grand Mogul, whom the rebels had replaced upon the throne.

General Havelock, with a small force quickly gathered in Calcutta, hastened to relieve the British garrisons at Cawnpore and Lucknow. At the former place he arrived too late. The

garrison had surrendered to Nana Sahib, the adopted son of the Peishwa, whom Dalhousie had refused to recognise. He promised them a safe escape, but as soon as they were clear of their camp he murdered them all except 200 women and children. When he heard of Havelock's approach he cut these to pieces, and threw their bodies down the well of Kahnpur.

Havelock quickly defeated Nana Sahib (who died a fugitive in the jungle), and, after receiving more troops, marched on to Lakhnau, and forced himself into the Residency. Here he was himself besieged until Lahknau was finally relieved by Colin Campbell, Lord Clyde.

In the next year the Mahrattas joined the rebels of Audh, and battles were fought at Bareilly and Gwalior before the mutiny was finally crushed.

Nothing could show more strongly than this mutiny the fact that India is a country of many races, many religions, and many tongues. Had the Sikhs of the Panjab and the races of the Deccan also risen, the efforts of Lawrence and Havelock would probably have been impossible, and India would have ceased to be a British possession.

But though Muhammadan and Hindu joined

for a time, the mutiny was confined almost entirely to Oude and its neighbourhood.

Britain also learned its lesson from the mutiny, which proved that the administration of the eastern empire could no longer be left in the hands of a trading company. After a period of 250 years the East India Company, which had begun by begging the keys of a factory at Surat, handed over to the British Parliament the keys of a dominion, and the reign of the John Company ended. Yet it had good reason to be proud of its work.

The Portuguese, who had been first in the field, and who had been well established before the company despatched its first East Indian fleet in 1601, now possessed in India the seaport of Goa, where St Francis Xavier, the famous Catholic Portuguese missionary to the Hindus, lies buried, and one other small seaport, both on the western coast. France, which, but for the jealousy between Dupleix and Labourdonnais, might have reaped what Dupleix had sown, and now be the ruling power in India, has only Pondichéry and three other seaports on the coast.

Holland has lost the Cape of Good Hope, its half-way house to India, and Ceylon, the pearl of the Indian Ocean. More fortunate, however, than Portugal or France, it is still

in possession of the great spice islands of the East Indies; and Batavia, its chief seaport there, is the centre of a busy trade.

France also has acquired the large territory of Indo-China, and has played a noteworthy part in South Asiatic affairs during the last forty years. The United States has acquired the Philippine Archipelago from Spain, and is now an Asiatic power.

India Since the Mutiny

SINCE the taking over of the administration of India by the British Government in 1858, Indian affairs have been managed by a Viceroy or Governor-General in India, who usually holds his office for five years. He is assisted by an Indian Legislature consisting of two chambers, the Council of State and the Legislative Assembly. This Legislature has power, subject to certain restrictions, to make laws for all persons within British India, for all British subjects in other parts of India, and for all native Indian subjects of the King in any part of the world.

At home there is a Secretary of State for India, with a council of not less than eight and not more than twelve members, and no act of the Indian Councils comes into force until approved by this Council and by the British Parliament.

The three Presidencies of Bengal, Bombay, and Madras are still retained. Many native states possess their own rulers, but all submit, in various degress, to British authority.

The revenue, or money received annually for the purpose of carrying on the government, is

derived from the rent of the land, all of which is paid to the state; the earnings of the canals and irrigation works; the state gains from the various government monoplies, such as opium, salt, forests, postal and telegraph services, and the mint, besides ordinary taxation, such as duties on imported goods.

As the rent of land provides a large portion of the revenue, the method by which it is levied is important. In Bengal, after the Permanent Settlement of 1793, when the zemindars, or tax-gatherers, became landlords at a fixed rental, it was found that their tenants or ryots were not always treated fairly. The government was at length bound to interfere for their protection, and a law was passed to prevent, under certain conditions, the increase of rent. In Madras, the ryot himself is assessed according to the value of his land, so that the zemindar has no power over him, and he is his own landlord. The system of Bombay is somewhat similar.

Unfortunately, the fact that the peasant has become the owner of his land has encouraged the business of money-lending, for in years of bad harvests he is glad to borrow money, and the money-lender is not slow to seize his land should he be unable to pay.

The history of India since 1858 has been one of rapid progress. The country has been opened

up by roads and railways, the telegraph, telephone, and postal services have been widely extended, and the fertility of the soil has been increased by the making of canals and water-works.

A complete network of railways and improved harbours enables India to exchange productions with all parts of the world, and its traffic has increased tenfold since the abolition of the company's authority.

The missionary and the teacher have been at work. The seed sown by St Francis Xavier at Goa is still scattered by missionaries of various creeds. The natives, and especially the Hindus, have taken advantage of the education offered to them, and many have entered the service of the government. To-day one or more natives of India sit on the Legislative Council.

Freed from strife with each other, Muhammadan, Hindu, and Parsi have all reaped the advantage, and the British Raj or rule has made this possible. The New Year's Day of 1877, just twenty years after the mutiny, saw a grand gathering of all the native rulers of India at Delhi, when the pride of Britain in her work and in the land she had reformed was shown by the proclamation of Queen Victoria as *Indiæ Imperatrix*, or Empress of India.

Westward Ho!

If the English found themselves in opposition to the Portuguese and French in the East, they were not without rivals in the West. Spain, taking full advantage of the discoveries of Columbus, had established its power in South America, California, and all round the Gulf of Mexico. Cortes had conquered Mexico, and Pizarro had gained Peru.

The riches of these kingdoms were sent to Spain, and to sail Westward Ho! to attack their rivals, and rob them of their wealth was the chief delight of the sturdy war-dogs of Elizabeth.

Many of these westward voyages, however, were undertaken with the definite object of finding some other and shorter sea-route to India than that round the Cape of Good Hope, or the longer one round Cape Horn which Magellan had discovered.

The difficulties confronting the explorers of the North-West Passage to India were not those of the Indian voyages. Although they had not the long journey down the coast of Africa, nor the dread of the fierce tornadoes of

the Indian Ocean, nor the difficult landings at Madras, nor the dangers of the shifting currents of the Hugli, they had to endure the severe cold of the Arctic regions, the danger of being crushed by icebergs, and the terror of the dense fogs so frequent in the Arctic Seas.

Martin Frobisher, who made three voyages to these regions in 1576, 1577, and 1578, the first an attempt to find the North-West Passage, the others with the object of bringing back an ore which he wrongly thought contained gold, thus describes the dangers of these ice-thronged seas:—

'I will speak a little of the storm that fell, with the mishaps that we had, the night that we put into ice in the mouth of the (Frobisher) strait. We had a fair open place without any ice for the most part, being a league in compass, the ice being round about us and enclosing us, as it were within the palings of a park. In this place we minded to take in our sails and lie all that night.

'But the storm so increased, and the waves began to mount aloft, which brought the ice so near us and coming so fast upon us that we were glad to bear in and out, where we might espy an open place. Thus, the ice coming on us so fast, we were in great danger, looking every hour for death.

'And thus we passed on in that great danger, seeing ourselves and the rest of our ships so troubled and tossed amongst the ice that it would make the most wicked heart repent.

'At the last one of our small boats, being but a weak ship and bruised before among the ice, being so leaking that no longer could she tarry above the water, sunk without saving any of the goods that were in her; which sight so abashed the whole fleet that we thought verily that we should have tasted of the same sauce. But nevertheless, seeing them in such danger, we manned our boats and saved all the men in such wise that not one perished, God be thanked.

'The storm still increased and the ice enclosed us, so that we were glad to take down top and top-masts; for the ice had so environed us that we could see neither land nor sea as far as we could ken; so that we were glad to cut our cables to hang overboard for fenders (defenders), somewhat to ease the ships' sides from the great and dreary strokes of the ice, some with capstan bars, some fending off with oars, some with planks two inches thick, which were broken immediately with the force of the ice, some going out upon the ice to bear it off with their shoulders from the ship.

'But the rigorousness of the tempest was

such, and the force of the ice so great, that the sides of the ship were greatly rased, insomuch that it was pitiful to behold, and caused the hearts of many to faint.

'Thus we continued all that dismal night plunged in this perplexity, looking for instant death. But our God, who never leaveth them destitute which call upon Him, although He often punisheth for amendment's sake, in the morning caused the winds to cease and the fogs to clear, so that we might perceive about a mile from us a certain place clear from any ice, to which with an easy breath of wind, which our God sent us, we bent ourselves.'

When it is remembered how small ships were in these days, how poor the instruments for ascertaining the exact position of a vessel, how great was the dread of the disease called scurvy, which nearly always attacked sailors on these long voyages through their lack of vegetables, and how the whole of these regions were practically unknown or wrongly marked upon the charts, the courage and endurance of these Elizabethan sailors appear marvellous.

Following Frobisher came the voyage of Sir Humphrey Gilbert to Newfoundland, in returning from which he was drowned, though he had succeeded in making it an English possession, and thus founding our oldest colony.

The story of this gallant seaman is one which will ever be held in remembrance. On his homeward voyage he journeyed in a vessel which was not only small but rather unseaworthy. He would not leave his men, and when a terrific storm broke upon the little fleet he was seen with a book in his hand as if all was going as well as possible.

'Courage,' he was heard to call out, 'we are as near to heaven by sea as by land.' Those in other vessels saw him for a moment. When next they strained their eyes for a sight of his little ship nothing met their gaze but the wild rolling waste of waters.

John Davis also made three voyages in the endeavour to discover the North-West Passage, thinking he had found it when he sailed up Davis Strait, which is named after him; while Hudson and Baffin Bays remind us of the explorations of these two famous seamen.

Nor were France and Holland idle, for the Henry Hudson just named made one voyage to find the North-East Passage on behalf of the Dutch East India Company, and, being driven back by ice and storm, sailed for the West, and discovered the Hudson River in 1609. On an island at the mouth of the river the Dutch built a settlement called New Amsterdam, the present New York.

Forty years before Frobisher, a Breton sailor named Jacques Cartier had carried the French flag up the St Lawrence as far as an Amerindian village called Hochelaga, a place which he renamed Mount Royal, the present Montreal. The King of France took advantage of the discovery to settle a colony of Frenchmen on the banks of the river St Lawrence. Under wise governors like Champlain this colony of Canada flourished and progressed. Such towns as Tadoussac, Montreal, and Quebec quickly grew in importance, and the French power stretched from the St Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico, being protected by a row of forts of which Fort Duquesne (now Pittsburgh), on the Ohio, Ticonderoga, and Magora were the most formidable.

The Hudson Bay Company

The English in North America

HATRED of the Spaniard, a desire for trade, and the discovery of a new passage to India were the three chief magnets which drew the English to North America.

The first settlements effected were called Plantations. Some of them were undertaken by wealthy men, others by trading companies. Sir Humphrey Gilbert's plantation of Newfoundland was an example of the former, which, generally speaking, ended in failure.

The Virginia Company was formed in 1606 to establish a plantation in Virginia, its object being to convert the heathen, and form a colony to which people from overcrowded England might go. No doubt, also, it was hoped that a successful plantation there might be used as a point of attack upon the Spanish traffic with America.

Other companies also started plantations in New England and the Bahamas, while those at Carolina, Maryland, and Pennsylvania were begun by private individuals.

In the case of many plantations, differences of religion had been the cause of their formation. Thus in New England the Puritans, in Maryland the Roman Catholics, and in Pennsylvania the Quakers were the settlers. In some the attempt was made to keep out all persons of any other religion or denomination, but finally this exclusive spirit broke down, and all forms of religion were tolerated.

The character of the plantations differed greatly. In the northern ones, whose climate resembles the temperate climate of England, the productions were naturally similar to those of England, and the settlers themselves were able to grow what they needed. They could not hope to find a market in the mother country for their productions.

In the southern ones, on the contrary, where the climate is much warmer, the productions were entirely different, and the tobacco of Virginia found a ready sale in England.

In order to encourage the Virginians, and at the same time to strike a blow at the Spaniards, no other tobaccos but those grown in our own plantations were permitted to be sold in England, a monopoly which enabled Virginia to develop very quickly.

Unfortunately, in this development it was found necessary to obtain more labourers than could be secured in a legitimate manner. At

first a supply was obtained by the importation of prisoners of war and criminals, and by offering to free labourers in England opportunities they could not expect at home.

The climate of Virginia did not altogether suit white labourers, and the importation of slaves from Africa was sanctioned, it being argued that the sending of labourers from England was a hurt to England itself, by depriving it of some of its best workers, while the black man was better suited for the work on the plantations. A brisk trade in the importation of slaves sprang up, and Liverpool took a large share in it.

At the same time, to encourage the English shipping trade, Navigation Acts were passed, which forbade many kinds of goods to be carried to or exported from the plantations except in English ships, and these laws the home Government carried out very strictly.

The Navigation Acts were naturally not all to the advantage of the plantations, since they had much nearer markets in the Spanish West Indies and with the French of Canada, while the fact that they were compelled to buy all their goods from England prevented them from obtaining things more cheaply elsewhere.

While the plantations to the south of Canada were thus developing, the English made an advance further north in the continent. The French

of Canada had found that the country surrounding them contained a rich supply of fur-bearing beasts, and the company of New France was making vast sums of money by trading with the Amerindians for the hides of the bison, the moose (elk), and the caribou (reindeer), and for the furs of the bear, silver fox, and marten.

Two Frenchmen, Huguenots or Protestants, and therefore not regarded kindly by their countrymen, realised that this trade might be developed very much more, but were unable to obtain the help they needed without travelling to England. Here they were fortunate enough to interest Prince Rupert, who obtained a charter for a company to be called the Hudson Bay Company, over which the Prince himself was the president from 1670 to 1683, being succeeded by the Duke of York.

Just before this time New Amsterdam (New York) had been taken from the Dutch, and in 1684 Pennsylvania had been founded by the Quaker William Penn; so that by the year 1700 a long and continuous line of English Colonies stretched from Florida northwards to the French territory, and the Hudson Bay Company had firmly established itself to the north of our French rivals.

In 1611, as the result of a mutiny on board ship, Henry Hudson, with his son and seven companions, was cast adrift upon the bay he

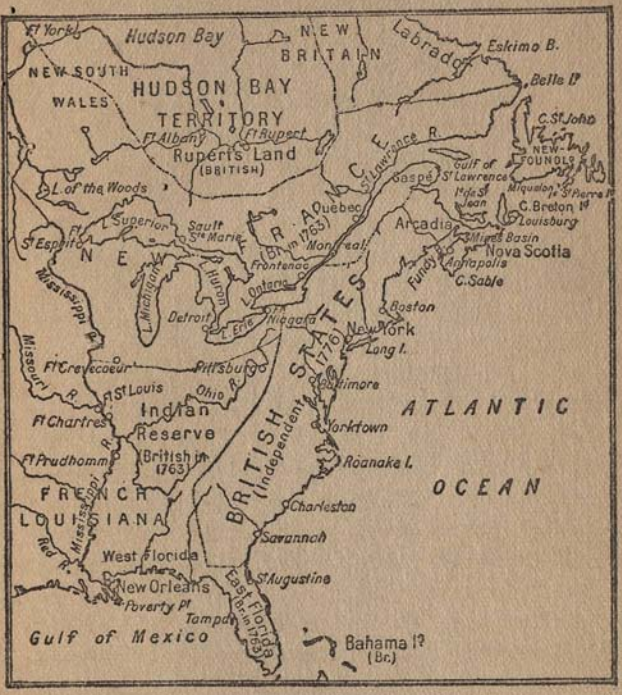
had discovered, and not a sign of the unhappy adventurers was ever afterwards found; yet Hudson's name is honoured by the success of the company which derives its title from his discovery.

The charter granted to Prince Rupert and his associates was a wide one. Over all the lands and territories upon the countries, wastes, and confines of Hudson Bay they were to be true and absolute lords and proprietors, and to have the whole, entire, and only trade and traffic not only there, but in any havens, creeks, rivers, lakes, or seas into which they should find entrance or portage. This sovereign power was to be exercised only over such lands as were not then under the control of any other European country.

A glance at a modern map of North America will show that, apart from the territory then under the King of France, the charter gave them dominion over a region almost large enough to form a continent.

They were not slow to take advantage of their privileges, and the usual method of forming stations, which were half forts and half warehouses, was adopted. Fort York, upon Hudson Bay, became the principal centre, and other forts were erected in convenient places as business developed.

To these forts the Amerindians brought the furs they had collected, and exchanged them for



BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AMERICA IN 1760.

rifles, gunpowder, shot, blankets, beads, trinkets, satchels, knives, and also, unfortunately, for

spirits or fire-water, which speedily did them a great deal of harm.

From each inland fort the furs were conveyed to Fort York, from which a vessel sailed annually to London with the hides and furs so obtained. With the company of New France engaged in the same business, but more handicapped by the longer distance over which their furs were carried to a seaport, and with the great jealousy and almost continuous warfare between the two nations, it was not long before disputes and quarrels occurred, and the same struggle for power which distracted India in 1757 was maintained with equal vigour in Canada.

At the beginning of the Seven Years' War of 1756-1763, Great Britain determined to drive the French out of North America. A British army and fleet were sent down the St Lawrence, the famous Captain Cook being their guide, and a second army advanced from the south, capturing the French forts one by one, though not without suffering an occasional defeat.

General Wolfe, who commanded the army of the St Lawrence, with great difficulty managed to scale the Heights of Abraham at Quebec, where a decisive battle was fought, in which both Wolfe and Montcalm, the rival generals, were killed, but in which the British gained a momentous victory. Since 1759, the date of

the battle, Canada has been a part of the British Empire.

The war proved very costly, and it was decided to raise some of the requisite money by taxing the American colonies. This attempt led to almost immediate rebellion, as a result of which the colonies obtained their independence, and the British possessions were limited to the northern half of the continent of North America.

Though the fall of Quebec in 1759 and the annexation of Canada removed the opposition of the company of New France, the British company was not allowed to develop its traffic without the interference of interlopers.

These naturally attempted to continue the work of the old French company, and carried on their trade in the southern territories, along the shores of the Great Lakes. They banded themselves into a company called the North-West Company of Montreal, and first commenced their work in 1784.

They were not a joint-stock company, and therefore possessed no special privileges, but were a regulated company which any one willing to pay the fees and obey the regulations was allowed to join.

To the members of this company the Hudson Bay Company offered the strongest opposition,

as being contrary to the privileges granted them by their charter of 1670. Whenever possible, the company drove them away from the hunting-grounds, and fierce fights occurred on numerous occasions. In these struggles extreme bitterness was shown on both sides, and in 1814 the North-West Company was warned off its rival's territories.

Like the East India Company, however, the Hudson Bay Company at last recognised the wisdom of compromising matters, and in 1821 the two bodies were amalgamated.

One result was that the fur trade of the North-West Company, previously carried on along the Lakes and the river St Lawrence, was now transferred to York Factory on Hudson Bay, and Canada proper lost its share of the trade. Fort William, on Lake Superior, which had been the principal centre of the North-West Company's trade, naturally sank into unimportance.

In 1838 the company's charter was renewed for twenty-one years, but before the end of that time Canada, which had rapidly increased in importance and population, found very irksome the restriction which the exclusive charter placed upon its westward advance.

It accordingly began to question the company's right to its privileges, and to claim as its own

the Red River Settlement on Lake Winnipeg, and the country round the Saskatchewan River.

The Canadian settlers claimed that the charter was a monopoly, and that monopolies had been declared illegal in the reign of James I. They argued also that, when the Hudson Bay Charter was granted, all territory in the possession of any other European government was expressly excluded, and that Canada was then a French colony, and, consequently, altogether outside the limits of the company. As the company of New France had carried on their fur trade in the districts claimed, the settlers urged that the rights of this company had descended to them.

The question was argued out in England, where it was finally decided that the charter no longer held good, and that, consequently, its exclusive power of trading in furs must cease. It was permitted to retain its forts and the land immediately surrounding them, and was granted one-twentieth of what is called the fertile belt.

Thus, as ruling powers, the East India Company and the Hudson Bay Company ceased almost at the same time. Each had given to Britain a dominion, but if the record of the East India Company is the more brilliant, the Hudson Bay Company may pride itself upon being a pioneer in a land which promises to become

one of the richest and most valuable of those peopled by the British race.

The hunting-grounds of the Hudson Bay Company are being moved further and further north, but York factory still sends home its annual cargo of furs. Where the trapper pursued his solitary occupation, the axe of the lumberman has followed, and after him again the ploughing and reaping machines which enable Canadian wheat to be grown in such abundance as to make the Saskatchewan and Red River Settlements of the highest importance and attraction.

In spite of its loss of power, the Hudson Bay Company remains rich and prosperous. Besides the value of the fur trade, which it still carries on, the lands granted to it in the settlement of 1870 are becoming more and more important as years pass, and the demand for Canadian wheat is increasing. The shares in this joint-stock company have risen to ten times their value of a few years ago, so that the bargain made with the Canadian Government has not been without advantages.

The Hudson Bay Company

Its Territory

Probably, if Charles II. had known as much of North America as we know now, the charter of the Hudson Bay Company would not have been so liberal. But in those days only the eastern fringe of the continent was explored, together with a little of the St Lawrence, the Ohio, and the Mississippi. The great plain north of the Lakes, and stretching from Hudson Bay to the Rocky Mountains, was practically unknown, and its well-rivered stretches were the hunting-grounds of the Indian.

The Hudson Bay Company and its trappers, Amerindians and white men, gradually opened up vast territories, and their line of forts crept slowly westwards and southwards from the Bay. The necessity for quick communication between them was soon discovered. For this purpose the numerous rivers proved of excellent service. The forts themselves were always near some stream, along which the provisions and furs were conveyed in light birch-bark canoes skilfully guided by the Amerindians through dangerous whirlpools and rapids.

Where the direction of the journey had to be altered from river to river, the shortest passage, or portage, as it was called, was chosen, and canoes and goods were quickly transferred from one river to the other.

Like India, the Hudson Bay Territory is bounded by a lofty chain of mountains, but the Rocky Mountains of North America run north and south, and thus afford no protection from the cold winds of the Arctic regions. Their greater nearness to the western coast gives to the Hudson Bay Territory its wealth in rivers, and the long slope eastward causes them generally to flow in slow, navigable courses.

India, lying mostly within the tropics, naturally produces the crops which flourish in a warm climate. Canada, which now includes the old Hudson Bay Territory, is bounded upon the south by the 49th parallel of latitude, the Great Lakes, and the St Lawrence, and stretches northwards into the Arctic circle. Instead of the lion, tiger, and elephant of India are found fur-bearing animals such as the moose, reindeer, fox, wolverene, and polar bear.

The East India Company carried on its work in a land whose many millions of inhabitants were as civilised in most respects as themselves, who followed the religions either of Brahma or Muhammad, and were capable at times of uniting for a

common purpose, and fighting with skill, bravery, and determination. It was only by taking advantage of the quarrels between the different sections of the people, and by training one set of natives to fight against the other, that the company advanced step by step to the formation of an empire.

In North America things were entirely different. There was neither unity of empire nor any civilisation. The native races were ignorant of all the arts and manufactures, and skilled only in such savage ways as enabled them to kill their fish and game. They possessed no magnificent cities like Delhi or Benares, but lived in tents, which they conveyed from place to place as the necessity for finding fresh game or fish arose.

The following description of the North American Indians is from Jacques Cartier:—

'They are men of fairly good stature and bigness, but wild and unruly. They wear their hair tied on the top like a wreath of hay, and put a wooden pin within it, or any other such thing instead of a nail, and with their hair they bind certain birds' feathers. They are clothed with beasts' skins, as well the men as the women, but the women go somewhat straiter and closer in their garments than the men do, with their waists girded. They paint themselves with certain roan colours. Their boats are made of the bark of birch trees. With their boats they fish, and take

great store of seals. All their viands and meats are without any taste or savour of salt at all. They sleep upon bark of trees laid all along the ground, being overspread with the skins of certain wild beasts, wherewith they also clothe and cover themselves.'

These poor savages took Cartier for a god.

The settling of the British in Canada was rendered less difficult owing to the jealousy between the various tribes of Amerindians, who were often on the war-path, one against the other. This intertribal strife caused them to take different sides in the quarrel between the French and British, the Hurons of the Quebec area siding with the French, and the Iroquois, the name given to the tribes living round about New York, helping the British. The Crees, the Ojibways, and the Blackfeet Indians of the central part of the territory also took part in these quarrels.

Since Cartier's time much more has been learnt about these Amerindians, and every boy has read of their cleverness in tracking through the woods, their keenness of hearing and sight, their savage delight and fierceness in fighting with the tomahawk, their brave endurance of torture, their eagerness to scalp conquered enemies, and their desire to meet, after death, the Great Spirit in the happy hunting-grounds. In this last how like they are to the old Vikings, whose desire was

to enter Valhalla, the palace of the all-seeing Odin, there to dwell for ever, feasting and drinking mead out of the skulls of their enemies, and engaging in stirring fights just as they had done on earth.

Besides such Amerindian tribes as the Micmacs of Newfoundland, the Iroquois, and the Hurons, the Hudson Bay officials met in the north a somewhat different race called the Eskimo. This is how Frobisher describes what he saw on his first voyage :—

'They be like to Tartars, with long black hair, broad faces and flat noses, and tawny in colour, wearing sealskins, as do the women, not differing in the fashion, but the women are marked in the face with blue streaks down the cheeks and round about the eyes. Their boats are all made of sealskin with a keel of wood within the skin. These are flat in the bottom and sharp at both ends.'

John Davis says, 'These people are very simple in their conversation, but marvellous thievish, especially for "iron," which they hold in great account.' They were so eager to bargain with him that he was able to buy the clothes from their backs. These were made of seals' skins and birds' skins, the latter with the feathers on them.

Of these, too, we now know much more, including their fondness for raw fish and blubber, their

cleverness in hunting the seal in small boats called *kayaks*, and the building of winter ice-houses called *igloos*. Even now their fondness for bargaining remains, and the following account of a recent visit not only shows this, but illustrates the way in which the Hudson Bay Company was able to secure its enormous profits.

'On board the yacht there had been a busy day of barter. Furs and ivory had been gathered in heaps in exchange for guns, knives, and needles, and every sailor, from the cabin-boy to the captain, had suddenly become rich in the gamble of trade for the prized blue fox skins and narwhal tusks. The Eskimos were equally delighted with their end of the bargain, for the beautiful fox skin is of less use to the native than dog skin.

'A woman had exchanged her furs, worth £20, for a red pocket-handkerchief, with which she would decorate her head and her igloo for years to come. Another had given her bear-skin mittens for a needle, and conceived that she had had the long end of the thread. A fat youth with an oily smile displayed with glee two bright tin cups, one for himself and one for his prospective bride. All this glitter had been received and exchanged for an ordinary ivory horn worth about £18!'

Thus, instead of dealing with the civilised Hindu or Muhammadan, and trading in well-

woven silks and carpets or splendid goldsmith's work, the Hudson Bay Company, unlike the East India Company, had to deal with a country divided up among many savage tribes, and had to obtain its profit by bartering guns, needles, and knives for the spoils of the hunter and the fisherman. It was able by this means to avoid one of the complaints against the John Company, since it carried no coin out of the country.

The Hudson Bay Company

Its Servants

MR R. M. BALLANTYNE, the author of *Coral Island*, *The Young Fur-Traders*, and many other stories, was a clerk in the service of the Hudson Bay Company from 1841 to 1847, and has written an account of the work of the company during that period. From this account the following facts are taken.

The servants of the company were divided into seven classes. The lowest rank was that of the labourer, who was ready to turn his hand to anything—to become a trapper, fisherman, or rough carpenter at the shortest notice. He was generally employed in cutting firewood for his post, shovelling snow from before the doors, repairing damages of all kinds, and carrying furs and goods between his place and the nearest depôt. Next in rank came the interpreter, who had picked up a smattering of the Indian tongues and was useful in trading with the natives. Above him came the postmaster, who was generally a promoted labourer placed in charge of one or two of the smaller outposts.

In the higher branches a young man entered

as an apprentice clerk, and after five years became a clerk. From this position he was promoted to be a trader, and after that to be a factor of the company. The large posts or forts were placed in charge of a factor, the smaller ones were looked after by a trader.

In those days the large forts consisted of wooden houses surrounded by a square stockade or defence as a protection. The largest one, York Factory on Hudson Bay, possessed a large staff of clerks, but in the smaller ones sometimes only two or three white men lived.

Inside the square stockade were the homes of the officers, the unmarried ones living together in what was called the bachelors' quarters. There also were the stores and offices.

The whole of the territory over which the company operated was divided into four departments called respectively the Northern, Southern, Montreal, and Columbia Departments. Each department contained one central factory or depôt, to which all the furs were brought, and from which stores and goods for the smaller stations were despatched. The four depôts were York Fort, Moose Factory, Lachine, and Vancouver. To these in 1845 were attached about one hundred and twenty posts or forts.

To give an idea of the distance between these stations, and the consequent loneliness of the lives

led by many of the company's servants, we may imagine Great Britain to be one huge wilderness covered with forests. The company would have built upon it three forts, one at Land's End, one in Wales, and one in the Highlands, so that in Britain there would be but three hamlets, with a population of some thirty men, half a dozen women, and a few children.

Here is a list of the principal articles dealt with by the company.

Beaver Skins.
Bear Skins, Black.
" Brown.
" White or Polar.
" Grizzly.
Badger Skins.
Buffalo Robes.
Castoreum.
Deer Skins, Rein.
" Red.
" Moose or Elk.
Feathers of all kinds.
Fox Skins, Black.
" Silver.
" Gray.
" Red.
Fox Skins, White.
" Blue.
Goose Skins.
Lynx Skins.
Marten Skins.
Musquash Skins.
Otter Skins.
Oil, Seal.
" Whale.
Swan Skins.
Salmon, salted.
Seal Skins.
Walrus Tusks.
Wolf Skins.
Wolverine Skins.

Of those, the beaver skins at one time were the most important; but the beaver hat has long gone out of fashion, and the quaintly interesting animal is now no longer driven out of his winter quarters in order to be killed.

The most valuable, because the rarest, of all these furs is that of the black fox, an animal much larger than the English fox, pure black except for a few white hairs upon the backbone and a pure white tuft at the end of the tail. The silver fox is very similar, except that it possesses a number of white hairs sprinkled all over its body. The fewer white hairs present the more valuable is the skin. The cross fox is a cross between the black or silver fox and the common red fox.

The most profitable of all the furs to the company is that of the marten, which is very numerous around the Mackenzie River. Large numbers of these sable-like furs are sent to England every year.

The bison (mis-called buffalo), once numerous in the Saskatchewan district, has now become very rare, and is preserved by the Canadian Government. Seventy years ago large herds of these animals roamed over the prairies. Their skins, dressed on one side, with the hair left on the other, are called buffalo robes, and were much used in Canada for sleigh wrappers in winter. The Amerindians sometimes used them instead of blankets.

The Amerindians came to the trading-station twice every year, once in the spring, when they brought in the result of their long winter hunting, and once in the autumn.

Their summer dress consisted of a blue or gray cloth, or a blanket, reaching below the knee, made very loose, and strapped round the waist with a scarlet or crimson vest. The Amerindian wore no trousers, a very coarse blue striped cotton shirt being his only underwear. Round his legs from the feet to the knee he wore leggings made of various kinds of cloth, frequently decorated with the bead-work at which the Indian squaws are so clever.

In winter, a smoked red-deer skin took the place of the blanket, and this was lined with flannel and edged with fur. Fingerless mittens, with a place for the thumb, and moccasins, or shoes, of the same material were worn. The moccasins fitted as tightly as a glove, and were tastefully ornamented with dyed porcupine quills and with silk threads of various colours. As they were very thin, blanket and flannel socks were placed below them, one, two, or even four pairs according to the degree of cold.

When he arrived at the station he entered the white man's trading-room, where his furs were examined by the trader, and the price paid to him by means of little bits of wood called castors, which were used instead of money. The number of castors an Amerindian earned in a winter hunt varied from fifty to two hundred. The value of a castor was from one to two shillings.

When the sale was completed the Amerindian examined the bales of cloth, guns, gunpowder, blankets, knives, and other articles with which the shop was filled, and after a long while decided to purchase a certain article. The value of the purchased article might be six castors; if so, the native returned six of his bits of wood and chose something else. In this way he went on until all his wooden cash was expended; and then, packing up his goods, departed to show his treasures to his squaw, and another Amerindian took his place.

The Hudson Bay Company

At Work

MR BALLANTYNE thus describes his first journey from York Factory to the Red River Settlement. The Red River Settlement was a Scottish colony on the Red River which flows into Lake Winnipeg on the south. Ballantyne had arrived at York Factory in the beginning of August, having sailed from London in the *Prince Rupert*, the Hudson Bay boat which left London annually with stores for the Northern Department, and returned later with furs.

About the beginning of September the young apprentice clerk was ordered to the station at Fort Garry, in the Red River Settlement, and at once set out with the Portage La Loche brigade. Portage La Loche is at the head of the Churchill River, where goods were carried on men's shoulders for twelve miles to the head of a tributary of the river Athabasca.

This brigade usually numbered six or seven boats, adapted for inland travelling where the river was obstructed by rapids, waterfalls, and cataracts, to surmount which boats and cargoes

were carried overland by the crews. These carrying-places were called *portages*, and between York Factory and Red River there were upwards of thirty-six of various lengths. In addition, there were innumerable rapids, up which it was necessary to push the boats by poles, inch by inch, for miles together.

The brigade usually left Red River about the end of May, and proceeded to Norway House (on the north-east side of Lake Winnipeg), where it received the Athabasca and Mackenzie outputs. It then proceeded into the interior, and upon arriving at Portage La Loche, the different boats landed their cargoes, while the Mackenzie River boats, which came to meet them, exchanged their furs for the outfits. It then began to retrace its way, and returned to Norway House, whence it proceeded to York Factory, where it arrived about the beginning of September, landed the furs, and received part of the Red River outfit, with which it set out for that place as soon as possible.

With the brigade, then, Mr Ballantyne started from York Factory, with a cheering song from the men in full chorus. They were in good spirits, being about to finish the long journey and return to their families at Red River after an absence of nearly five months, during which time they had met and overcome difficulties

which would have steadied the most light-hearted; but these hardy Canadians and half-breeds were accustomed to such voyages from the age of fifteen or sixteen, and thought no more of them than other men did of ordinary work.

He travelled in the guide's boat, which was long, broad, and shallow, capable of carrying four hundredweight and nine men, besides three or four passengers, with provisions for themselves and the crew. It did not draw more than three or four feet of water when loaded, and was, moreover, very light for its size. The cargo consisted of bales, being the goods intended for the Red River sale-room and trading-shop.

The provision of the men consisted of pemmican and flour. Pemmican is made by the buffalo hunters of the Red River, Swan River, and Saskatchewan prairies; more particularly by those of the Red River, where many colonists used to spend a great part of the year in pursuit of the bison. They made it thus: Having shot a bison, they cut off lumps of its flesh, which they slit up into flakes or layers and hung in the sun to dry. When dry, the meat was pounded between two stones till broken into small pieces; these were put into a bag made of the animal's hide, with the hair on the outside, and well mixed with melted grease; the

top of the bag was then sewn up, and the pemmican allowed to cool. In this state it might be eaten uncooked, but the *voyageurs*, as the men of these brigades were called, who subsisted on it when travelling, mixed it with a little flour and water, and then boiled it; in which state it was known throughout the country as *robbiboo*. Pemmican was good, wholesome food, and kept fresh for a great length of time, but it had a nasty appearance, and often through careless mixing it contained a good many bison hairs.

Each night they encamped in tents by the riverside, and at the first blush of dawn were awakened by the cry of 'levez!' (get up). The men rowed for a space of time called a pipe—so called because they smoked a pipe at the end of it. Each spell lasted for nearly two hours, during which they rowed without rest. The smoke usually occupied five or ten minutes. While travelling in boats it was only allowable to put ashore for breakfast, so about noon they ate a cold dinner in the boat.

As they proceeded higher up the river the current became so rapid that the oars were useless, and they were compelled to send men ashore with the tracking or towing line. Half of the crew dragged the boat slowly along, while the other half went to sleep.

On the fifth day after leaving York Factory they anchored at their first portage. A perpendicular waterfall, eight or ten feet high, barred further progress. Upon arriving, a brisk and cheerful scene took place. Some of the men, jumping ashore, ran briskly to and fro with enormous burdens on their backs, while others hauled and pulled the heavy boats up the cataract, halloaing and shouting all the time. In about an hour two or three boats had passed the falls.

Rapid succeeded rapid, and portage followed portage in endless succession, giving the passengers abundance of opportunity to range about in search of drakes and geese, which were numerous, while the voyageurs were dragging the boats and carrying the goods over the portages. The weather was beautiful, it being the season of the year when the slight frost in the morning and evening renders the blazing camp fire agreeable, and destroys the pestilent mosquitoes.

After eighteen days they arrived in safety at Norway House, a fort built at the north of a small and sluggish stream. The houses here were arranged in the form of a square; none of them exceeded one storey in height, and most were whitewashed. From here, by way of Lake Winnipeg and the Red River, they reached Fort Garry.

Travelling, however, was not always so pleasant as this: 'In bad weather when a storm comes on, they have to hurry to the shore, amid a storm of rain which saturates everything in a few minutes. The tents are pitched, but the fires will scarcely burn, and are at last allowed to go out. The men seek shelter under the oiled cloths of the boats; while the travellers, rolled up in damp blankets, with the rain oozing through the tents upon their couches, gaze mournfully upon the dismal scene, and think sadly of the shortness of the step between misery and happiness.

'In warmer weather, too, the mosquitoes are very troublesome. Nothing can save one from the attacks of these little torments. All other insects go to rest with the sun:—sand-flies, which bite viciously during the day, go to sleep at night; the large bull-dog fly, whose puncture is terrible, slumbers in the evening; the long-legged, determined, vicious, persevering mosquito, whose ceaseless hum dwells for ever in the ear, never goes to sleep. Day and night the painful, tender little pimples on our necks and behind our ears were constantly being retouched by these villainous flies. It is useless killing thousands of them, millions supply their place. The only thing, in fact, that can protect one during the night (nothing can during the day) is a net of gauze hung over the bed.'

Some of the tribes inhabiting the Hudson Bay Territory are known by the following names: Crees, Seauteaux, Stone Indians, Sioux, Blackfeet, Chippewayans, Slave Indians, and Crows. Of these the Crees are the quietest and most inoffensive, writes Mr Ballantyne.

'They inhabit the woody country round Hudson Bay: dwell in tents: never go to war: and spend their time in trapping, shooting, and fishing. The Seauteaux (Sôtô) are similar to the Crees in many respects, and inhabit the country further in the interior. The Stone Indians, Sioux (Siū), Blackfeet, Slave Indians, Crows, and Flatheads inhabit the vast forests and plains in the interior of North America, east and west of the Rocky Mountains, and live chiefly by the produce of the chase. Their country swarms with buffaloes, deer, bears, etc., which they hunt, shoot, snare, and kill in various ways. Some of these tribes are well supplied with horses, with which they hunt the "buffalo." They use the gun a good deal, but prefer the bow and arrow.

'The personal appearance of the Cree Indians is not bad, although they have not the bold, daring appearance of the wilder tribes. Yet they have active-looking figures, intelligent countenances, and a peculiar brightness in their dark eyes, which, from a constant habit of looking

around while travelling through the woods, are seldom for a moment at rest.

'Their jet-black hair generally hangs in straight matted locks over their shoulders, sometimes ornamented with beads and pieces of metal, and occasionally with a few partridge feathers; but they seldom wear a cap of any kind, except in winter.

'They are thin wiry men, not generally very muscular, but yet able to endure great fatigue. Their average height is about five feet five inches.

'The step of a Cree Indian is much longer than that of a European; owing probably to his being accustomed to walking swamps and forests, where it is necessary to take long strides.

'The Indian women are not so good-looking as the men. They have an awkward slouching walk, and a downcast look, arising, probably, from the rough treatment they receive from their husbands.

'Their colour is a dingy brown, which, together with their extreme dirtiness, makes them anything but attractive. Their dress is a gown, made without sleeves, and short in the skirt, of coarse blue or green cloth; it reaches down below the knee, below which their limbs are cased in leggings beautifully ornamented. They wear their hair in long straggling locks, which have not the slightest sign of a curl.

'These Indians live in tents of deer-skin or bark, and, sometimes, where skins are scarce, of branches of trees. They are conically shaped, and are constructed thus:—The Indian with his family (probably two wives and three or four children) arrives in his bark canoe at a pretty level spot sheltered from the north wind, and conveniently situated on the banks of a small stream, where fish are plentiful, and pine branches for the floor of the tent abundant. Here he runs his canoe ashore.

'His first business is to cut a number of long poles, and tie three of them at the top, spreading them out in the form of a tripod. He then piles all the other poles round these, and thus encloses a circle of between fifteen and twenty feet in diameter. Over the poles (if he is a good hunter and has plenty of deer-skins) he spreads the skin tent, leaving an opening at the top for the smoke to escape. A small opening is left facing the river or lake, which serves for a doorway; and this is covered with an old blanket, a piece of deer-skin, or, in some instances, by a buffalo robe. The floor is covered with a layer of small pine branches, which serves for carpet and mattress; and in the centre is placed the wood fire.

'Here the Indian spends a few days or weeks, according to the amount of game he finds there, and then removes to some other place, carrying

with him the covering of the tent but leaving the poles standing.

'The Indian canoe is so light that one man can easily carry it on his shoulders over the land, when a waterfall stops his progress; and as it only sinks four or five inches in the water, few places are too shallow to float it.

'The birch bark of which it is made is about a quarter of an inch thick, and the inside is lined with very thin flakes of wood, over which a number of light timbers are driven to give strength and lightness to the boat. It measures from twelve to forty feet long, and from two to four feet broad in the middle.

'Not less elegant and useful is the snow-shoe. It is formed of two thin pieces of light wood, tied at both ends, and spread out near the middle, thus making a long oval, the interior of which is filled up with network of deer-skin threads. Strength is given to the frame by placing wooden bars across, and it is fastened loosely to the foot by a slight line going over the toe. It measures from four to six feet long, and from thirteen to twenty inches wide.

'Frosty weather is the best for snow-shoe travelling, as the snow is fine and dust-like, and falls through the network. If the weather be warm, the wet snow renders the shoe heavy, and the lines soon begin to hurt the feet. On these

shoes an Indian will travel between twenty and thirty miles a day, and they often make from thirty to forty when hard pressed.'

Here is Mr. Ballantyne's description of an Amerindian family at home :—

'The tent, which was made of sheets of birch-bark sewn together, was pitched beneath the branches of a gigantic pine, upon the lower of which hung a pair of worn-out snow-shoes, a very dirty blanket, and a short bow, with a quiver of arrows near it. At the foot of it, upon the ground, were scattered a few tin pots, several pairs of old moccasins, and a gun; while against it leaned an Indian cradle, in which a small, very brown baby, with jet-black eyes and hair, stood bolt upright, basking in the sun's rays, and looking very much like an Egyptian mummy. At the door of the tent an older child amused itself by rolling about among the chips of wood, useless bits of deer-skin and filth always scattered round a wigwam. On the right lay a pile of firewood with an axe beside it, near which crouched a half-starved, wretched-looking dog.

'The inside, filled with smoke from the fire and Indian pipes, was, if possible, even dirtier. Amid a large pile of rabbit skins reclined an old woman, busily plucking the feathers from a fine duck, which she carefully preserved (the feathers, not the duck) in a bag, for the purpose of trading

them with the company at some future time. Her dress was a coat of rabbit skins, so strangely shaped that no one could possibly tell how she ever got it off or on. This, however, was a matter of little consequence to her, as Indians seldom take the trouble of changing their clothes, or even of undressing at all. The coat was fearfully dirty, and hung upon her in a way that led one to suppose she had worn it for six months, and that it would fall off her in a few days. A pair of faded blue cloth leggings completed the costume. Her long black hair fell in tangled masses upon her neck, and it was evidently a long time since a comb passed through it.

'On the other side sat a young woman similarly dressed, employed in mending a hand-net, and on a very much worn buffalo robe sat a young man, wrapped in a blanket, smoking his pipe in silence. A few dirty little half-naked boys lay sprawling among several packages of furs tied up in birch bark, and disputed with two or three ill-looking dogs the most pleasant place to lie.

'The fire in the middle of the tent sent up a cloud of smoke, which escaped through an opening at the top, and from a cross bar hung a few slices of deer meat undergoing the process of smoking.

'The Indian at work is better. Steman, the Cree Indian, sets out during the winter night to

visit his traps. A large leathern coat, very much overlapped in front, and fastened round his waist with a scarlet belt, protects his body from the cold. A small rat-skin cap covers his head, and his legs are cased in the ordinary blue cloth leggings. Large moccasins, with two or three pairs of blanket socks, clothe his feet, and fingerless mittens, made of deer-skin, complete his dress.

'He takes a small axe, a large hunting-knife, a fire-bag, and a hand-sledge. This is a thin flat slip or plank of wood from five to six feet long by one foot broad, and turned up at one end. It is extremely light, and Indians invariably use it when visiting their traps, for the purpose of dragging home the animals or game they may have caught.

'He slips his feet through the lines of his snow-shoes, throws the line of the hand-sledge over his shoulders, and sets out through the forest over the hard deep snow. A noise like the rattling of a chain tells him that something is caught in one of his traps. It is a beautiful black fox which Steman kills by a slight blow on the snout with the axe-handle. In ten minutes more it is tied to the sledge, the trap is reset, and again covered with snow. His steel trap is very much like the ordinary English rat-trap, but is larger, has no teeth, and has two springs instead of one.

A chain is fastened to one spring for the purpose of fixing a weight to the trap, so that the animal caught may not be able to drag it far from the place where it was set. It is generally set so that the jaws, when spread out flat, are exactly on a level with the snow. The bait, consisting of chips of frozen rabbit, partridge, or fish, is then scattered around in every direction.

'Steman visits trap after trap, and at last comes to one in which a coast-wolf is caught. He places his gun against a tree, draws his axe from his belt, and advances to kill the animal. The fierce brute, which is larger than a Newfoundland dog, strains every muscle to break its chains; its eyes glisten, and foam curls from its blood-red mouth. It springs with a fearful growl towards Steman, who slightly wounds it with his axe as he jumps backwards just in time to save himself from the angry beast, which catches in its fangs the flap of his leggings and tears it from his limb.

'Again Steman advances, and the wolf retreats and again springs on him, but without success. At last as the wolf glances for a moment to one side, the axe descends as quick as lightning. Another blow follows, and in five minutes more, Steman heaves the huge brute across his shoulder and carries it to his sledge.

'Tired with his exertion, Steman clears out

a circle in the snow round the base of a pine tree. This he makes about eight feet across and four feet deep. He fells a few trees, cuts them up into pieces about five feet long, piles them at the root of the tree, and sets fire to them. A pipe and then to sleep.

'Next day he sets out for the beaver lodges, leaving his wolf and fox in his last night's sleeping place. The beaver lodges are' the small earthy mounds in which the beavers live. In summer and autumn the beavers are busy nibbling down trees and bushes for the purpose of repairing their dams and supplying their storehouse with food. The beaver keeps within doors in winter.

'Upon arriving, Steman cuts down several stakes, which he points at the ends. These are driven, after he has cut a good deal of ice from around the beaver lodge, into the ground between it and the shore. This is to prevent the beavers from running along the passage they always have from their lodges to the shore. He next stakes up the opening to the storehouse on shore, and so imprisons those that may have fled there for shelter.

'With a bit of steel about a foot long by one inch broad, fastened to the end of a stout pole, and called an ice-chisel, he proceeds to dig through the lodge. At last the inside of the hut is laid bare, and the Indian, stooping down,

gives a great pull, when out comes a large, flat, sleepy beaver, which he flings sprawling on the snow. A blow on the head from the pole of the ice-chisel puts an end to it.

'In this way several more are killed, and packed in the sleigh. Steman then turns his face towards his last night's encampment, where he collects the game left there, and away he goes at a tremendous pace, over the trackless snow to his forest home.

'Near his tent he visits a marten-trap, which is made of two logs, one of which is supported over the other by means of a small stick, in such a manner that when the marten creeps between the two and pulls the bait, the support is removed and the upper log falls upon it and crushes it to death.

'He is unlucky in finding nothing here, and returns home to be welcomed by his squaw who enjoys the prospect of gorging for days on fat beaver, and of having furs enough to purchase beads and ornaments from the white man when she and her husband visit the posts of the fur-traders in the following spring.'

This writer, and all others, until the beginning of the present century always styled the original natives of America "Indians," following the fashion set by Columbus, who thought, in discovering America, he had merely lit on an extension of Southern Asia.

The Dominion of Canada

THE ending of the Hudson Bay Company as a ruling power in British North America has made possible the union of all that vast territory into one Dominion of Canada.

In this Dominion are included all the separate parts of British North America, except Newfoundland and Labrador, which prefers to govern itself. The seat of government is at Ottawa, on the Ottawa River, to which the provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Manitoba, British Columbia, Prince Edward Island, Saskatchewan, and Alberta, and the Yukon Territory, send their Members of Parliament.

The development of "the Prairie," the district between Manitoba and Edmonton, has made necessary the formation of new provinces. Saskatchewan and Alberta are growing into importance owing to the excellence of their soil for raising wheat and fruit. Winnipeg, which has developed from the old Red River Settlement, was at one time a principal depôt of the company. Greater Winnipeg is now a city

of 276,000 people, and possesses the largest wheat market of any town in the world.

Edmonton, the chief town of Alberta, once an outpost of the company, is also growing into importance daily, and new towns are springing up almost as quickly as mushrooms.

To encourage settlers, the Canadian Government grants 160 acres free to all who show proofs of being able to cultivate it, and thousands enter Canada yearly to take advantage of the offer. Many of these at present are Americans from the wheat lands of the United States, who find the soil of the prairie richer than their own, and who consequently are able to raise a richer crop at greater profit.

In a large number of cases these farmers bring their farming implements, stock and so forth by special train. It is worth noting, too, that the machinery they use is of the very latest and most scientific character. Thus a maximum of labour can be accomplished with a minimum of effort on the part of those engaged upon the work.

To make the development easier, the Canadian Government has encouraged the laying down of railways, and its greatest triumph has been the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway, which runs for 3367 miles from St. John, New Brunswick, westwards to Vancouver City, touching Lake Superior, and passing across the prairie through

Winnipeg, Regina, and Calgary, over the Kicking Horse Pass in the Rockies to British Columbia and the Pacific.

It is almost impossible to over-estimate the beneficial effect of this railway upon the development of the various resources of Canada. The phrase 'The demand creates the supply' might very well read in this case 'The supply creates the demand.' The railway ran, and of some parts this is still true, through lands which were not yet settled; but the very presence of the railway track formed an inducement to farmers to take up homesteads in its neighbourhood, and thus the country is constantly becoming more populous.

The lines built or acquired by the Canadian Government are now consolidated in one system known as the Canadian National Railways, covering about one half of the single track mileage, including two transcontinental lines with termini in Canada at Halifax, Vancouver, and Prince Rupert, and the Grand Trunk with termini at Portland, Maine, U.S.A., and Chicago.

Unlike old countries, therefore, which build railways only to towns which are found to show promise of paying, the Canadians build their railways first, and the towns rise quickly along the route.

Enormous wheat elevators are erected at various places along the railway, and the wheat of the Canadian prairie has made itself a name all over the world.

The Canadian farmer, not content with the small holdings usual at home, ploughs thousands of acres, and by means of the best machinery is able to sow, reap, and bind his immense crops.

Besides its farms and fruit lands, Canada is proving itself rich in oils and minerals. The gold of British Columbia and Alaska, the copper of Cobalt, and the oils of the Mackenzie River are proving of great value, while the salmon of the Fraser River in British Columbia are canned for the world.

Its immense forests make the timber trade of Canada important, and the enormous rafts which are floated down the Ottawa, Fraser, and other rivers all bring wealth to the country. Wood-pulp, which is made out of the yellow pine, is now very largely used in the manufacture of paper.

At the present time Canada offers a splendid opportunity to any one with a knowledge of farming or who is young, willing, and strong.

Thus Canada has rapidly advanced, its chief exports being wheat, flour, wood and wood-pulp, paper and iron and manufactures, bacon and hams, cheese, tinned salmon and lobsters, oil, etc.,

while it has been a customer principally to Great Britain and the United States for goods, the United States receiving the larger share of patronage.

It is to be regretted that these goods are not obtained from Great Britain in larger proportion, but although Canada does her best to increase her purchase by allowing British goods to be imported at a lower rate of duty, the Americans, being nearer, are able to obtain the greater part of the trade.

Companies which Failed

The Darien Company

It must not be forgotten that, at the end of the seventeenth century, though England and Scotland were governed by the same king, each had its own parliament, and in many respects they were two separate kingdoms. Nearly all the restrictions which England placed upon goods coming from the continent were placed also upon goods of Scottish manufacture, and the trade of the two countries was kept entirely distinct.

Although Scotland was not treated in these matters with the same severity as was shown to Ireland, yet the restrictions placed upon Scottish merchants were very irritating to those who were keenly desirous of emulating their English rivals by establishing trading companies.

Accordingly, in 1695, the Darien Company was granted a charter by the Scottish Parliament.

By its charter the free port of Darien, on the Isthmus of Darien, in Central America, was to be established, and the company was authorised to make fortifications, to build a war-fleet, to

form alliances with other nations, and to colonise. Its full name was 'The Company of Scotland trading to Africa and the Indies.' The money subscribed was £900,000, £400,000 coming from Scotland, and, besides the object mentioned above, the company desired to trade with Russia at the port of Archangel, and to secure a share in the Greenland and Spitsbergen Whale Fisheries.

The care taken by the English Government to encourage English shipping, by ordering all goods to be carried in English vessels, has been mentioned in describing the plantation of North America. The establishment of a free port on the Gulf of Mexico, where ships of every nation could enter and trade, was naturally regarded with dislike by the English. The Spaniards also thought this an invasion of their own particular area, and caused trouble with the English Government, which was blamed for what it was unable to prevent.

The Muscovy Company also resented the entry of the Scots into the Archangel trade, and into their whale-fishing grounds, while the East India Company, which was at that time vainly grumbling at the help given to the interlopers in their trade, were jealous that the monopoly refused to them by the English Parliament should have been granted to a Scottish Company by a Scottish Parliament under the same king.

In no way, therefore, did the Darien Company receive either help or sympathy from the English merchants, nor were its affairs wisely managed.

The port of Darien was badly chosen. It lay in a hot and damp climate, and the colonists who went there found it almost impossible to stay. The freebooting robbers, or buccaneers, who crowded the Gulf of Mexico, also caused considerable trouble by using the port for their own purposes. The directors did not show a wise discretion in choosing the articles they wished to sell, sending things most unsuitable for the climate. They were also slow in despatching supplies which might have kept the early colonists from ruin. The company quickly failed, and the Scottish nation nursed an angry feeling against the English who, they considered, had helped to kill it by opposing the scheme in every way.

The knowledge that this resentment would increase the kindly feeling with which the majority of people in Scotland regarded the Stuarts, and the fear that the Scottish Parliament might be tempted to start similar enterprises conducted with more money and with greater skill, induced the English to find some method of making the interests of both nations the same.

The Scottish people, on their part, realised that it would be a great advantage to unite with England in commercial matters, England being

nearest to them, and the nation which bought the greatest part of their productions; while this union would also enable them to share in a far more extensive foreign trade.

Thus one result of the failure of the Darien Scheme was the Union of the Parliaments of England and Scotland in 1707 A.D., and the Scottish nation, instead of being, as they declared at the time, 'in a state wherein we are not considered as subjects or allies, nor friends nor enemies, but all of them, only when, where, how and how long our Task Masters please,' now takes a prominent and ample share in the work of the British Empire.

Companies which Failed

The South Sea Bubble

SHORTLY after its formation in 1694, the Bank of England had a hard struggle to keep its doors open for the payment of its debts. The English coinage had become very debased. Coins were clipped, or 'sweated' of some of their gold or silver. The older ones were badly made, each being hammered into shape, instead of being stamped and milled as they were after 1663. The consequence was that apparently even full-sized coins differed from each other in weight, and therefore in value.

The trouble became so serious that in 1695, the year after the foundation of the Bank of England, a new coinage was struck under the superintendence of Sir Isaac Newton, the Master of the Mint. While this was in progress all the old hammered coins were withdrawn, so that, for a time, there was a scarcity of money.

The goldsmiths, who disliked the Bank of England because it had deprived them of their former lending trade, fancied they saw an opportunity to retaliate. Collecting all the Bank of England notes they could, they took them to the

Bank for immediate payment in coin. The Bank, however, was able to tide over the difficulty, and its paper money came more and more into use, even although men knew that the Bank could not possibly repay all the sums at once.

The Government also issued paper money as exchequer notes, and these were accepted as freely as money, so that a large amount of paper money in addition to the gold and silver coinage was in circulation.

This credit given to paper money, and the whittling down of the monopolies of the various great trading companies, encouraged a venturesome spirit amongst British merchants, and numerous projects, which dazzled prospective subscribers to the shares with promises of immense profits, were brought forward.

Many of the joint-stock companies which this eagerness for profit started at the beginning of the eighteenth century seem ridiculous to us now, but the gambling spirit at that time was so strong that reckless promises of enormous profits were eagerly accepted without examination.

The most notorious of these bubble companies was the South Sea Company, formed in 1711 to trade with the South Seas, *i.e.* in the Pacific Ocean. This company intended to obtain its profit both by trading and by lending money to the goverment to repay the National Debt.

Britain had secured from Spain what was called the Asiento, or the right of selling negroes in South America for thirty years from 1713.

By this agreement she could send to South America 4800 slaves every year, on payment of 100 livres duty per head. It had also to pay a large sum (600,000 livres) to the King of Spain. Vessels of 400 tons could be used in coming from America to Europe, and the company was granted permission to employ one vessel of 500 tons to carry goods from Europe to America for the purposes of trade. One quarter of the profits was to be divided between the Kings of Spain and England. All these powers the government passed over to the South Sea Company, which in consequence took a great share in the slave-trade. It also very artfully abused the permission to have one vessel for purposes of trade, by keeping a vessel moored off the harbour allotted to it in South America, and constantly refilling it with goods brought from England in other ships. Like the Darien Company it took part in the whale fisheries off Greenland and Newfoundland.

The prospects of the company seemed so good that in 1720 a mad rush occurred for its shares, and between April and July in that year they increased nearly ten times in value. Change Alley, where the shares were sold, was crowded

every day with people anxious to buy or sell the shares, and large fortunes were made in a few hours.

But the crash soon came. Having lent its money to the government, the company had not enough to finance the many new schemes in hand. Others besides themselves were importing slaves into South America, and the profits of the whale fishery were small. Soon the rush came to sell, and shares previously worth more than a thousand pounds became worth almost nothing. The South Sea Bubble burst, and an end was put to the gambling spirit of 1720.

The British North Borneo Company

THE island of Borneo lies in the East Indies, right across the equator, and is the third largest island in the world. The South China Sea separates it from the continent of Asia, the Philippine Islands lie to the north-west, and the island of Java is on the south, divided from it by the Java Sea.

A range of mountains, reaching 13,000 feet in height, crosses from its north-eastern point in a slight curve to the south-west, and from these mountains numerous rivers, fed by the equatorial rains, run to the sea, those on the south being longer because the range is much nearer the northern coast.

The principal native race of this island is generally called the Dayaks. They tatu their bodies, and are very fond of chewing betel-nut. They shoot animals not with the bow and arrow, but by blowing a dart at them through a *sumpitan*, or blowpipe. They are still a somewhat savage race, and, as in recent times no youth was considered to be a man until he had obtained a certain number of heads from the enemy,

quarrels were frequent and fierce, head-hunting expeditions frequently took place, though not so often as in the early nineteenth century: this has all given way under British and Dutch rule to peace and quiet.

The dress of the Dayak male consists of a waist-cloth of blue cotton, while the woman wears a tight-fitting petticoat. Brass rings decorate the arms and legs. Necklets of black and white beads are worn, and large crescent-shaped ear-rings. They worship many gods both from love and fear, and offer sacrifices to them. They build their houses of bamboo, placing them high above the ground on piles, and are very clever in constructing suspension bridges over their rivers. They raise crops of rice and maize, spin their own cloth, and dye it with home-grown indigo.

Besides the Dayaks and a number of other tribes of similar physique, numerous Malays and Chinamen live in Borneo, and all form willing workers for the Dutch and British who now rule the island. The Dutch exert their sway over the south and west, while the British have established three separate protectorates over the land in the north.

The first Europeans to arrive in Borneo were the sailors in Magellan's ship, who had lost their leader in a skirmish with the natives of the Philippines, where he had arrived after crossing South America in 1520, through Magellan's Strait.

British occupation arose in a strange way. James Brooke, after a period of service in the East India Army, had returned home to England. Being tired of a quiet life he fitted out a vessel, and sailed to the Indian Ocean in search of adventures. Raja Muda Hassim, the native ruler of Brunei (North Borneo), was at that time at war with a rival, and Brooke offered his assistance on condition of receiving a grant of land for his services.

Muda's rival, mainly through the bravery of the British sailors, was quickly humbled, and Sarawak was given to Brooke in 1841. He ruled there as Raja Brooke until his death, and his nephew has succeeded him as raja under British protection. The island of Labuan off the north coast was ceded to Great Britain in 1823, and the British North Borneo Company obtained ruling rights over the northern corner of the island, and a charter to maintain them under the protection of the British Government. This charter was granted in 1881.

The company, which is a joint-stock one, whose shares number nearly 1,500,000 at £1 each, possesses sovereign and territorial rights over an area of about 31,000 square miles. It does not exert a monopoly in any direction, but encourages immigrants to come to Borneo to develop it. It is empowered to frame and enforce laws, to fix customs or other tariffs, and to levy taxes

for revenue purposes within the state of North Borneo. It holds all the state land, a large portion of which is suitable for the cultivation of rubber and high-class tobacco. The marketable timber on the land, estimated at 50,000,000 tons, belongs to it. One-fifth share of the profit of the North Borneo Exploration Company has to be paid to the Chartered Company. The Exploration Company possesses the sole right to search for minerals for fifty years. A railway 127 miles long, and 800 miles of telegraph and telephone lines belong to the Chartered Company, as well as government buildings and jetties. From these assets the return to the company has been growing year by year, its annual profits amounting to over £50,000.

Besides rubber and tobacco the island produces gutta-percha, cinnamon, camphor, cloves, nutmegs, and the cocoa and sago palms. Ironwood is also grown, and the tappan tree, which rises to an immense height, and has a dense mass of leaves at the very top, supplies the natives with timber. Yams, pineapples, and bananas are also cultivated, while amongst flowers, rhododendrons, orchids, and the pitcher-plant are common. Coal is mined on a considerable scale, and the increasing output of oil is enormously important.

The most remarkable beast in Borneo is the orang-utang, one of the apes most nearly resembling man. There is also a species of gibbon, a much smaller anthropoid ape with very long arms; and several long-tailed (and one very long-nosed) Semnopithecus monkeys together with one short-tailed macaque. The Indian elephant is present, but only in a domesticated or run-wild form. The Javan one-horned rhinoceros is apparently present in Borneo, and the island swarms with wild pigs of the Indian wild-boar type, but with very long and slender muzzles. As a remarkable peculiarity, Borneo possesses the Tarsier, a very strange lemur with enormous eyes, and the Galeopithecus, or flying lemur, a sort of first cousin of the fruit bats. Then there are the Tupaias, large, squirrel-like insectivores, and particularly large and handsomely coloured squirrels. Amongst Bornean birds are some amazingly beautiful pheasants, especially the curiously adorned argus, which belongs to the peacock-turkey sub-family. The numerous limestone caverns are filled with the nests of swifts (mis-called swallows), and these sticky nests the natives eagerly gather for the Chinese trade, the Chinese happening to consider 'birds'-nest soup' a great delicacy.

Among its minerals and metals Borneo can number diamonds, gold, platinum, quick-silver,

copper, iron, tin, antimony, petroleum, sulphur, rock-salt, marble, and coal.

With a climate by no means so hot and unpleasant as the latitude would lead one to expect, and under the watchful, supervising eye of the Colonial Office, the English-governed states of Sarawak, North Borneo, and Brunei (under a native raja), promise to be useful and prosperous portions of the wide-spread British Empire.

The African Chartered Companies

THE granting of a Charter to the North Borneo Company in 1881 was a daring and quite unexpected deed on the part of Mr Gladstone's Government. He and his Liberal policy were supposed at that time to distrust the expansion of the British Empire, and the relative ease with which the North Borneo Company—a collection of Hong-Kong merchants—obtained this encouragement from the Colonial Office provoked some astonishment at the time. But the Act was followed in 1886 by the granting of a Charter to the Royal Niger Company, which by that year had grown up out of the National African Company (formed by Captain George Goldie Taubman in 1879); in 1888 the Imperial British East Africa Company received a similar Charter, and the following year—1889—another was conferred on the British South Africa Company formed by Cecil Rhodes for the purpose of bringing under British direction the vague and vast territories in South Central Africa lying to the north of the River Limpopo.

The Niger Company (which still exists as a trading, mining enterprise) fulfilled the plan

conceived by its founder (who became the Right Honourable Sir George Taubman Goldie), of generating the enormous Nigerian Empire of the present day and handing it over to the British Empire to manage and develope. In 1885 Consul Edward Hewett, and in 1886-8 Vice-consul H. H. Johnston had secured by a number of treaties with native chiefs nearly the whole of the Nigeria Coast Protectorate which was made conterminous with the older colony of Lagos.

The first sign of native trouble arose in 1897 with the old Kingdom of Benin. This state had withdrawn from contact with Europeans since the heyday of the Portuguese; and although its territories had remained slightly open to inspection by inquisitive Europeans down to about 1865, from 1870 onwards they remained firmly closed against exploration. In 1897 this isolation provoked somewhat impatient action on the part of a young official, who more or less forced on the King of Benin an official visit. A conflict arose, seven English officials were killed; and a noteworthy military and naval expedition invaded and conquered Benin, thus completing the British hold over Nigeria between the frontier of French Dahomé and the German Cameroons.

For some reason, now forgotten, the Royal Niger Company deemed it necessary, partly to secure itself against political trespass on the

part of French and German agents, to acquire a virtual monopoly of trade in Northern Nigeria. This condition, of course, fell to the ground upon the assumption by the British Government of full responsibility for Nigeria, north and south. The two Protectorates were fused completely, and were joined with the much older colony of Lagos in 1907. Since that time there has been very little fighting with the natives, who in this region seem entirely content with British rule and supervision.

Nigeria is an extremely interesting portion of Tropical Africa, still divided naturally into two main regions: *Southern Nigeria*, between the Benue and the coast as far as the mass of the great Cameroons volcanoes and the deltaic region of the Niger basin south of Lokoja including Benin and Abeokuta; and the much more open, less forested region of *Northern Nigeria*, for centuries exposed to the raids of cavalry, and mainly Muhammadanised in religion.

In Southern Nigeria—a land, except where man has cleared, of dense forests and many river courses—the population is entirely Negro, and either recently Christian or elaborately Pagan. The pagan region in districts and states like Benin, the Aro country near the Cross River, and the Ibo country developed secret societies, shockingly cruel fetish rites, and much interference

with human liberty. Nowhere in the world has the intervention and teaching of Christian missionaries (white or black, and not a few of them have been of Negro race) been more markedly beneficial than in densely populated Southern Nigeria. Before the days when Bonny and Brass or old Calabar became converted to Christianity, the natives and the European traders—the trade was first of all in slaves, then in palm oil and other forest produce—were pestered by the "fetish" animals—the huge snakes, monitor lizards, crocodiles, or leopards —adopted by the people as sacred, never to be killed or even injured or driven away. The spread of Christianity in Southern Nigeria has really meant the spread of liberty and wholesomeness, and of knowledge. The missionaries have been noted linguists, reaping a remarkable knowledge of native tongues (now, many of them extinct), they have been botanists and zoologists, enabling us to realise the amazing wealth of forested Africa in valuable trees and plants, or strange and remarkable birds, beasts, reptiles and insects, river fish, land crabs or spiders.

The Royal Niger Chartered Company made it possible in fifteen years for the British Empire to take over as a going concern the really marvellous territory of British Nigeria, extending from Lagos, on the Guinea coast in the south-west, to Lake Chad in the north-east, from the

limits of the Sahara on the north-west, to the luxuriant forests in the equatorial belt of the Cameroons.

Two years after a Charter was conferred on a trading company in Nigeria, another Charter was almost thrust on a highly-intentioned but slightly timorous group of men which had founded the Imperial British East Africa Company. The Chairman of this company was Sir William Mackinnon, who had been for some years at the head of the British India Steamship Company, and in that position had come to know the celebrated Sayyid—afterwards recognised as Sultan of Zanzibar,—Barghash bin Sayyid. Sayyid Barghash had attempted more than once to interest Mr Mackinnon in the development of East Africa, but Mr Mackinnon had shrunk from the expense and the uncertainty of any profit. He had, however, sent out there from Glasgow two remarkable persons in the late 'seventies, the brothers Moir, who afterwards played a noteworthy part for the African Lakes Company in Nyasaland. Mr H. H. Johnston, who had spent the greater part of 1884 on the slopes of Mt. Kilimanjaro, making natural history collections, had—perturbed by German activities farther south—concluded several treaties with chiefs and tribes on Kilimanjaro and in its

neighbourhood, which on his return to England in 1885 he had placed at the disposal of the Foreign Office. These treaties were transferred to a group of Scottish and Manchester merchants before Mr. Johnston returned to Africa, and they became ultimately the basis of the Imperial East Africa Company's claim to a Charter, granted in 1888.

Sir William Mackinnon and his colleagues had hard work to make the company pay its way; in fact it never did so. The customs duties on the small trade, the fees for licences were not sufficient to meet the heavy cost of exploration and the building of healthy residences for the few officials, the pay of the native police needed for the suppression of the Arab slave trade or the restraint of turbulent native tribes. The Imperial British East Africa Company, moreover, became involved in exacting questions and problems outside the actual sphere of East Africa. The French were endeavouring to question our claim to control or protect Uganda; so was King Leopold II. of the Congo Free State. German ambitions in that direction were checked by the terms of the 1890 Convention; yet German explorers were frequently crossing our path in exploration of the regions round the Victoria Nyanza. In 1890 the company was obliged to intervene in the affairs of Uganda, where chaos had begun to

reign under the attempts of the French missionaries to secure the overlordship of that land for the French Government. It therefore sent Captain Lugard with a small force of fifty black soldiers to intervene in its affairs. Lugard in a really masterly manner restored peace and secured the direction of Uganda affairs for the British power. But the Imperial British East Africa Company felt it was being dragged far beyond its depth in the politics of East Africa. Sir William Mackinnon died in 1893; and the other directors intimated to the British Government that the company must be wound up and the rule over Eastern Africa must be undertaken by the British Empire in its stead. This was finally brought about in 1895.

But the intervention of Sir William Mackinnon and his brother directors brought about the introduction into East African affairs of several remarkable men. Sir Frederick Lugard, Sir George Mackenzie, Mr Charles W. Hobley, and others sent out by the Imperial British East Africa Company effected great and beneficial changes, and additions to our knowledge in eastern equatorial Africa. Mr Hobley was especially noteworthy for his discoveries in native languages, in the fauna of the lake Victoria Nyanza, and the fossil remains of the Miocene and Pliocene periods. One way and

another this Chartered Company of East Africa brought about the creation of a great British domain in east equatorial Africa between the British Sudan and the regions of Zanzibar and Tanganyika.

The last of the great African Chartered companies to be brought into existence—for all time, probably, for it is an out-of-date scheme of government—was the British South Africa Chartered Company, created in the autumn of 1889.

This company had in effect a dual origin, one emanating from the expeditions and life work of the missionary-explorer, Dr David Livingstone, north of the Zambezi, and, in succession, of other explorers, adventurers, officials, and missionaries coming from Scotland and England; and the other from a South African impetus, which led an Englishman—Cecil John Rhodes—to push from Cape Colony for the formation of a great Chartered Company, which should invade, rule, and develop the South-central African region lying to the north of the Limpopo River and Bechuanaland, the greater part of the Zambezi basin; in short, as far as the Congo watershed.

Cecil Rhodes was born at Bishop's Stortford, a quiet little town on the eastern borders of Hertfordshire. He was a younger child of the large family

of his father, the Vicar of Bishop's Stortford. In boyhood his health failed, and he was thought to be in danger of tuberculosis. To avert this weakness he went out to join an elder brother in South Africa. This brother was interested, passingly, in diamond mining. Cecil stuck to the search for diamonds at Kimberley, and by the time he was nineteen he had already accumulated a substantial fortune, and entirely regained his health. Without losing interest in South Africa in the least, he returned to England during the 'seventies and, with little previous book education, put himself into Oriel College, Oxford, to complete his education. He then returned to South Africa, and entered politics, largely with the idea of pushing British rule northwards to pass over and beyond Bechuanaland to the Zambezi valley, and, perhaps, across that to the heart of Central Africa, to what became in later years the Congo Free State.

Two other brothers came out in early days to South Africa, and a third brother—Herbert—turned his thoughts to East Africa. He joined the exploring expedition of Consul Elton, which proceeded to Lake Nyasa in 1878, and with Elton journeyed in a small boat to the north end of Lake Nyasa, up till then unvisited. Thence they travelled a considerable distance farther north. Herbert Rhodes returned to Nyasaland a year afterwards and died by the east bank of

the River Shiré, from his straw hut catching fire at night time. He had made himself very popular with the natives, who called him 'Roza.'

This fact served to interest his brother Cecil in the ultimate fate of Nyasaland. The African Lakes Company had been founded there about the time of his brother's death by two young Edinburgh men—John and Frederick Moir—who had previously sought to interest Mr Mackinnon of the British India Steam Navigation Company in the opening up of the Zanzibar coast. The African Lakes Company originated in Glasgow, and was designed to help the Scottish Christian Missions, which had been settled in Nyasaland two to three years after Livingstone's death. There also came out an energetic young planter, John Buchanan, who commenced the planting of the Shiré Highlands, south of Lake Nyasa, with the coffee shrub. Coffee was not indigenous to Nyasaland as it is to Abyssinia, Uganda, Northern Congoland, and the West African forest belt, but it was believed it would prosper in the soil and climate of the Shiré Highlands, a mountainous region south of Lake Nyasa. About a hundred enterprising Scottish and English planters joined these pioneers, and in 1883 the British Government established a Consul at Blantyre in the Shiré Highlands to supervise the proceedings of the settlers.

The energetic Lakes Company not only navigated Lake Nyasa in all directions, but, extended their activities to Lake Tanganyika. Their presence at the north end of Lake Nyasa aroused the enmity of a strongly entrenched group of Zanzibari Arabs established along the east and west coasts of Nyasa, for many years engaged in a devastating policy of slave-raiding to feed the Zanzibar slave market. The Lakes Company strove to avoid hostilities, but was drawn into a bitter struggle in sheer self-defence. Amongst other adventurous brave men who heard their appeal and came to their assistance was Captain Lugard, already mentioned as having played such a noteworthy part in Uganda, a short time after leaving Nyasaland. But Lugard and the Moirs, and a band of some ten other noteworthy volunteers could not conquer the strongly established Arabs. They drew, however, the attention of Lord Salisbury and the British Government to the state of affairs in East-central Africa, and also aroused considerable interest in Cecil Rhodes's mind, not forgetful as he was of his brother's exploration of Nyasaland. He, therefore, proposed, when he came to England in 1889, the inclusion of Nyasaland in the domain to be covered by his Charter.

This step, however, was objected to by the now growing body of settlers in the Shiré

Highlands, who wished for a direct connection with the British Government in England. Accordingly, in the eventual settlement of 1891, Mr Rhodes's Charter extended over North and South Zambezia, but did not include the districts within the watershed of Lake Nyasa, which were made into a separate protectorate, now a colony.

Between 1889 and 1893 many enterprising, adventurous Britons from the homeland and from South Africa poured through Bechuanaland and across the Limpopo into the region known as Matebleland and Mashonaland. These regions at that period were still dominated by Lobengula and his population of Matebele or Amandebele Zulus.

This chief was the son of Umsilikazi, a Zulu raider of the early nineteenth century, who had broken away from the boiling-over Zululand—at that period, a hundred years ago, in a state of upheaval—and had carried his following of a hundred thousand people across the Limpopo, into lands within the Zambezi basin. There by his vigorous raids he had imposed respect, but no feeling of liking on the indigenous tribes of the Zambezi basin. He especially dominated the Mashona who shared with him the hilly, even mountainous lands of what is now called 'Southern Rhodesia.' These Mashona—they went by other names as well—were a segment

of the important, almost 'venerable' Karang'a people who had formed the central portion of the Monomotapa Empire (really Mwene-mutapa) met with by the Portuguese explorers of the sixteenth century. This Bantu kingdom of the middle ages had had much to do with the declining industry of gold mining in South-east Africa, which had been started in antiquity by some remarkable searchers after wealth, possibly the Phœnicians. Rhodes's imagination was inflamed by the discoveries made by Boer and German pioneers in Eastern Mashonaland. They had found wonderful deserted masonry cities like Zimbabwe and the evidence of deserted gold mines. Rhodes thought, with some justice, that north of the Limpopo and elsewhere in the Zambezi basin there might be a new California awaiting discovery. If this gold country were first occupied by Boers or Germans, it might be difficult to induce the British authorities to include it within the British Empire; and then British South Africa might be cut off from any northward growth.

So he sent first in 1887 his secretary, Rochfort Maguire, and other trustworthy Englishmen to interview Lobengula, and Lobengula reluctantly sold these persons a far-reaching mining concession over Southern Rhodesia—as their country came to be called. Other concessions followed. Rhodes came to England in the spring of 1889,

at a time when a Portuguese expedition under Serpa Pinto was most unwisely threatening the Shiré Highlands, and the Shiré route to Lake Nyasa. Pinto's action provoked an ultimatum from the British Government and his withdrawal was followed by the granting of a Charter to Mr Rhodes's company.

The British pioneers who then hurried into Mashonaland at Rhodes's invitation were afterwards strongly tempted to push the few Portuguese on the South-east African Coast into the sea, and claim all the land north of the Limpopo and south of the Zambezi as British; but from this exuberance they were withheld by the British Government. The treaty of delimitation which accorded to Portugal very full and handsome recognition of the utmost extent of East Africa she had ever occupied, all she had ever ruled, was signed in 1891.

North of the Zambezi, Rhodes, through the great explorer, Joseph Thomson, and the after-ruler of Nyasaland, Alfred Sharpe, and other agents, secured treaty rights over extensive regions between Barotseland (Upper Zambezi), the Congo basin, Tanganyika, and the Nyasaland borders, and entrusted the administration of Northern Zambezia till 1895 to Sir Harry Johnston, who represented the British Government in Nyasaland, which he had renamed British Central Africa.

In 1893 the Matebele Zulus forced on a fight with the Rhodesian settlers. They were signally defeated. Lobengula fled to the Zambezi, but lost his life on the way. The success which attended Sir Starr Jameson's attempt to settle the countries of the Matebele and Mashona was unfortunately followed by a most retrograde step. Dr Jameson—as he then was (his knighthood was not conferred for another fifteen years)—turned abruptly south from Mafeking and marched with about five hundred mounted men into the Transvaal, attempting to reach Johannesburg and aid the British settlers there to exact the parliamentary vote which was denied them by the Boer Government of the Transvaal. Rhodes was cognizant of this projected mad action, or at any rate did not peremptorily order Jameson back from the Boer frontier. The British Government intervened. Jameson was sent back to England, where he was tried and sentenced to eighteen months' imprisonment. The Charter of the South Africa Company was revised, and its powers were restricted. The whole episode broke Rhodes's heart, and caused many breaches of friendship and co-operation. It affected his health to such an extent that he ultimately died from its effects in the early part of 1902.

Jameson attended him as a doctor (which was his original profession), and after his death settled

in Cape Town, and re-entered South African politics. He became Premier of Cape Colony and served in that region with much distinction, doing a good deal to promote friendship between the British and the Boer elements in the different South African States. He was knighted in 1910 and made a Baronet in the following year. His health failed in 1912 and he returned to England, where he rendered much service during the events of the Great War. He died in 1917.

Mr Rochfort Maguire, who had obtained the first concessions from Lobengula which created the South Africa Company (and whose brother, Captain Cecil Maguire, had in 1891 achieved some brilliant victories over the slave-trading Arabs in Nyasaland) ultimately became the Chairman of the Chartered Company. Southern Rhodesia meantime during the first twenty-two years of the new century had grown considerably in the numbers of its white population (nearly 34,000), and of the Negro people to nearly 800,000, with three or four thousand Asiatics. Northern Rhodesia with a much more tropical climate had only about 3500 whites and nearly a million blacks. In 1923 Southern Rhodesia became a self-ruling colony of the British Empire; and a year later—1924—Northern Rhodesia took up the status of a Crown Colony under a separate governor, much the same standing, in fact, as

Nyasaland alongside. The British South Africa Company has given up its Charter, but it has played a great part in the development of South Central Africa, and its gradual introduction into the British Empire.