Scottish Union, although registered as an ordinary Act of Parliament, was made by a treaty between the representatives of England and Scotland. There was no suggestion of inferiority on either side. The Scots and English made a fair compact with each other, and entered upon their union on equal terms.

In the second place, there was no very deep religious difference between the Scots and English. One nation was chiefly Presbyterian, the other was chiefly Episcopalian; but both were Protestant, and in each country the faith of the majority of the people was the faith of the legally established Church.

Thirdly, owing to the absence of any feeling of difference in religion, or even any special difference of race, the Scots passed freely into England and the colonies, and made great careers there. Not so with the Catholic Irish: they were not anxious to come to England; those who did come were not particularly successful; England was never a home for them. But Scots filled the highest posts in England and the Empire: the Church, the Universities, the Law, the Cabinet, the East India Company, the great mercantile houses, provided them with careers, honours, emoluments, in exchange for their probity, their industry, their idealism, and their courage. For the Scot is not, as stories so often describe him, shrewd, cautious, slow in thought. He is brave, adventurous, enthusiastic; he has still the *perfervidum ingenium Scotorum*; and the wealth of England, the spacious fields of the Empire, have given his spirit the range which his own poor country could not offer. Therefore the Union has suited him. It has suited England too, for it has added to her the elements of strength which the Scots provide alongside of the sterling worth of the Anglo-Saxon.

The Years after the Union. It is true that at first the Union was unpopular in Scotland. The citizens of Edinburgh disliked the loss of their Parliament. The Legislature in London was too far off to be much influenced by local Scottish opinion; when the Scots Parliament sat in the High Street of Edinburgh, the people, as the old woman says in the

Heart of Midlothian, 'could aye peeble them with stanes'. There were rankling memories of the 'Massacre' of Glencoe, where on February 13, 1692, thirty-eight Highlanders were killed and the rest of the inhabitants driven into the mountains by the soldiery of William III.

Gradually, however, the Union won its way. When the Jacobite rising occurred in 1715 (see p. 440) considerable support was given not merely in the uncultivated Highlands, but in the well-to-do Lowlands. As late as 1736, much ill-feeling was shown against the Government in London, during the Porteous riots. These occurred at Edinburgh. Two smugglers, imprisoned in the Tolbooth, had attempted to escape, but one of them, Andrew Wilson, a stout man, had stuck in the grating, and so prevented the other, George Robertson, from escaping likewise. Next Sunday, when the two prisoners were taken to St. Giles's, to hear the 'condemned sermon', Wilson seized hold of the guard, and shouting 'Run, Geordie, run for your life', gave his companion the chance to flee. Robertson escaped; Wilson was taken back to prison, and then hanged in the Grassmarket on April 14. Some disturbance took place at the execution, and Captain John Porteous of the City Guard gave orders to fire; and some sixteen men and women were killed or wounded. For this act, Porteous himself was condemned to death, but was reprieved. The mob, however, furious with this interference from London, broke into the Tolbooth prison and murdered him. Walpole at first meditated a severe punishment of Edinburgh, but feeling ran very high in Scotland, and the Union itself almost seemed in danger. He therefore contented himself with getting the city fined £1,500 for the benefit of Porteous's widow. In 1745,[1] however, the Lowlanders had learned their lesson. They had found that England was a splendid market for their cloth; and they had experienced the just and mild rule of the Hanoverian Government. Therefore, while the Highlands, even then almost a foreign country

[1] For the history of the Rebellion of 1745, see pp. 468–75.

which had learned nothing and forgotten nothing since the days of Montrose and Dundee, rose to the call of Prince Charlie, the Lowlands did not move. The port of Glasgow was growing great on the profits of the American trade, and was typical of the new Scotland, eager, commercial, staunch in the cause of law and order.

Intellectual life. It was not merely the flesh-pots of the Empire which attracted the Scot. He has never been a mere business man. There was a thriving, keen, intellectual life in the country. The Scottish legal profession has always been dignified and learned; in the eighteenth century it was great. A fine radiance of mellow wisdom shines in the faces of the old judges whom Sir Henry Raeburn painted, as it does in the face of old Lord Glenalmond in Stevenson's *Weir of Hermiston*. Lord Monboddo, who became a Scots judge in 1767, wrote a book on *Antient Metaphysics* in which he traced the development of men from animals, thus in some degree anticipating the work of Darwin. Lord Mansfield was the younger son of a Scots lord, and became Chief Justice of the King's Bench in England in 1756; in this position he gave some of the most notable judgements in the history of English law. Another Scotsman, Thomas Erskine (afterwards Lord Chancellor), was at the end of the eighteenth century easily the leader of the English bar.

In theoretical studies the Scots were equally distinguished. David Hume, who lived from 1711 to 1776, was, after Clarendon, the greatest of the philosophical historians till Gibbon came; in economics he was only second to Adam Smith; in ethics and political philosophy he was second to none. It was Hume's *Inquiry concerning the Human Understanding* which Kant said 'woke him from his dogmatic slumber'. And following Hume came the great figure of Adam Smith, whose wholesome influence has made for peace and prosperity wherever sound economics are studied. Adam Smith was a Snell Exhibitioner of Balliol College, who became tutor to the young Duke of Buccleugh, and published *The Wealth of*

Nations in 1776. He showed how the richness of one country does not necessitate the poorness of another, but that, on the contrary, the wealth of nations consists in each doing only what each can best do, and then in mutual exchange of the fruits of their labour. *The Wealth of Nations* is history, economics, philosophy, and romance, none the less romantic because every word of it is true.

In Art Scotland was no whit behind what she achieved in the speculative studies. British portrait-painting reached its highest achievement in the work of Sir Henry Raeburn,[1] whose magnificent men—judges, and lords, chiefs with sword and musket, and soldiers with splendid chargers—equal the majestic pictures of Velasquez or the grave and lofty portraits of Vandyke. Sir David Wilkie's[2] charming pictures of rural life are as justly celebrated as those of Teniers or Van Ostade. The graceful houses, with beautiful ceilings and mantels, which still stand serene in the old squares of Mayfair, were designed by two Scotsmen, the brothers Robert and James Adam, towards the end of the eighteenth century.

In literature progress has been continuous, and all those who were distinguished for learning or speculation wrote with a style which is singularly pure and wholesome. Hume's style is a model, beautiful, clear, impressive. It was at the end of the eighteenth century, however, that the greatest glory was to come when the Ayrshire peasant Robert Burns kindled the lamp of lyric poetry in its purest flame. The flame rose, burned brightly, then died an early death. This rare genius was only thirty-seven when he died, in 1796. He has left a heritage of song which will endure as long as hearts beat and eyes see. There is no purer expression of feeling in the English language than the lyrics *O my luve's like a red red rose*, or *Ye Banks and Braes o' bonnie Doone*. To Burns succeeded Scott, after Shakespeare, the deepest and the widest literary genius of our people. Here, then, on the threshold of the nineteenth century, we may leave the

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northern land, which Scott describes so well, with its lairds and its farmers, its Nantie Ewart the smuggler, and its Gifted Gilfillan the ranter; its world of heroes, grave and gay, brave and humorous, idealistic and shrewd. Scott's novels are the Tragedy and Comedy of the old and new Scotland, the complete picture of her life.

CHAPTER XXVIII

INDIA

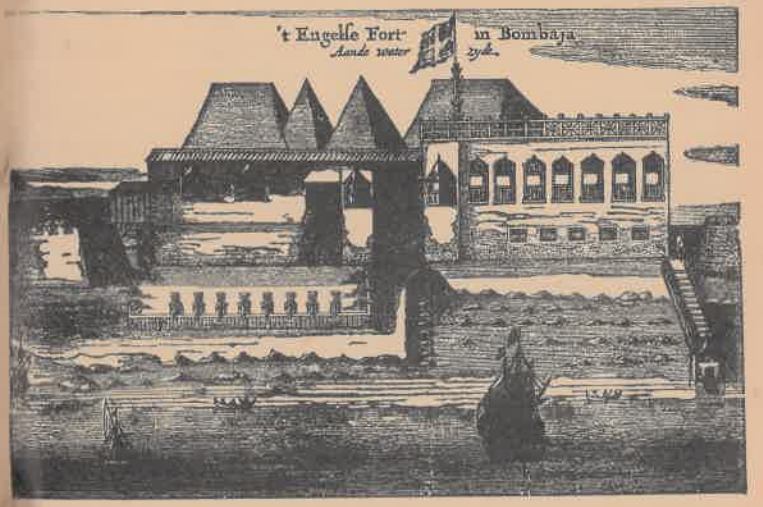
§ 1. The Rise of the British Power

India was not completely unknown to Europe in the Middle Ages, but it was not till Bartholomew Diaz sailed round the Cape of Good Hope in 1487, and Vasco da Gama actually reached India by sea in 1498, that a steady direct traffic became possible. The Portuguese, those daring navigators who ranged the seas in the sixteenth century, were the first European Power to make permanent settlements. The union of the crowns of Spain and Portugal in 1580 was one of the chief causes of the ultimate failure of the Portuguese in their attempt to found an Empire in the East. The Dutch, bold sailors and keen traders, devoted their attention chiefly to the spice trade of the Indian Archipelago, where they succeeded in excluding competition. Their settlements on the mainland of India never were important, and offered little hindrance to their French and English rivals in the seventeenth century.

The Honourable East India Company. The British East India Company was an association of traders, formed in 1600. On the last day of that year Queen Elizabeth gave to certain merchants of London a Royal Charter, which authorized them, and none but them, to trade with India. They began business in a warehouse at Surat (on the Tapti, 160 miles north of Bombay), built on land occupied with the sanction of the local Indian prince. The next hundred years saw their trade and factories increase, but they remained practically

without political power. The Surat settlement is thus described by Dr. John Fryer, an English traveller who visited it in 1673:

'The house the English live in at Surat, is partly the King's (Moghul's) gift, partly hired; built of stone and excellent timber, with good carving . . . very strong, for that each floor is half a yard thick at least, of the best plastered cement, which is very weighty. . . . The President has spacious lodgings,



BOMBAY FORT FROM THE SEA, 1720

noble rooms for counsel and entertainment, pleasant tanks, yards, and an hummum [Turkish bath] to wash in. . . .

'Here they live (in shipping time) in a continual hurly-burly, the Banyans [native agents] presenting themselves from the hour of ten till noon; and then afternoon at four till night as if it were an Exchange in every row; below stairs the packers and warehouse-keepers, together with merchants bringing and receiving musters [samples], make a mere Billingsgate. . . .

'The whole mass of the Company's servants may be comprehended in these classes, viz. merchants, factors, and writers; some Bluecoat boys also have been entertained

under notion of apprentices for seven years, which being expired, if they can get security, they are capable of employments. The Writers are obliged to serve five years for £10 per annum, giving in bond of £500 for good behaviour, all which time they serve under some of the fore-mentioned offices. After which they commence Factors . . . and lastly Merchants . . . out of whom are chose chiefs of Factories.' [1]

The Moghul Empire. The Moghul Empire began in 1526 with the conquest of Delhi by Baber, a great Tatar warrior. Under him, and under the ablest of his descendants—Akbar, who was a contemporary of Queen Elizabeth, and even under Aurungzebe (when the Moghul Empire began to decline)—India was, to a large extent, a united country. Aurungzebe died in 1707. In the Moghul Empire the great provinces were held by viceroys and governors under the orders of the Emperor at Agra or Delhi.

With the death of Aurungzebe, the Moghul Empire began to fall to pieces: anarchy and confusion spread over India. The viceroys converted themselves into local sovereigns, and as none had any definite right, internecine wars raged intermittently over all the country. In Central India the Mahratta tribes began to create their system of military States, which were usually little more than armies living by plundering the peaceful population: 'the Indian people were becoming a masterless multitude swaying to and fro in the political storm, and clinging to any power, natural or supernatural, that seemed likely to protect them.' It was in this crisis of Indian history, when the native structure of society was dissolving into atoms, that the English East India Company, bereft of the strong protection which the Moghuls had formerly given to it, began to extend its influence from commerce to politics. That its neighbours should be peaceful and orderly was a vital interest of the Company: otherwise its trade could not be carried on and its factories could not exist. Once involved in Indian politics, the Company

[1] Fryer, *A New Account*, &c., ed. Crooke, Hakluyt Society, 1909, vol. i, pp. 214–16.

could neither go back, nor stay still. Order and disorder cannot exist side by side. So as the Moghul system dissolved, the Company's predominance advanced, till the British peace reigned throughout the land.

§ 2. Foundation of British India

The British and French Companies. The year 1739 was fateful for three continents. When the over-prosperous and impatient English forced Walpole to declare war on Spain, a struggle for Empire was started between France and Britain, and was continued with brief interruptions for seventy-five years. Europe, India, and North America were the fields of this titanic contest. When the struggle ended at Waterloo France had been made powerless for harm in Europe, and had lost North America, while India had passed almost wholly under British control.

By the year 1739 neither the British nor the French Company had gained much influence in the country. The British held Bombay, Madras, and Fort William near Calcutta. The French held Chandarnagore on the Hooghly, and Pondicherry on the east coast about a hundred miles south of Madras. In 1739 Nadir Shah, the Persian, had invaded India and sacked Delhi. This was the last blow needed to cut the reins of government, still feebly held by the 'Great' Moghul. The Deccan, the southern viceroyalty, became independent under its own 'Nizam', while its eastern province, the Carnatic, assumed practical independence likewise under its 'Nawab'.

The two Companies during the War of the Austrian Succession. When the war with Spain merged into the War of the Austrian Succession, and French and English armies met on the battle-fields of Europe, it was not to be expected that their overseas traders and colonists should remain at peace. In the North American backwoods and on Cape Breton Island they were soon at war. An expedition of New Englanders captured Louisbourg, the capital of Cape Breton (June 17, 1745). In India fortune went the other way; Labourdonnais,

the governor of Mauritius, came with a squadron of ships and captured Madras. It was in Europe, however, that the fate of India and of the North American colonies was settled. The fighting both in Europe and overseas was indecisive. At



Robert Clive

the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) Louisbourg was exchanged for Madras, and France and England were for a moment at peace officially.

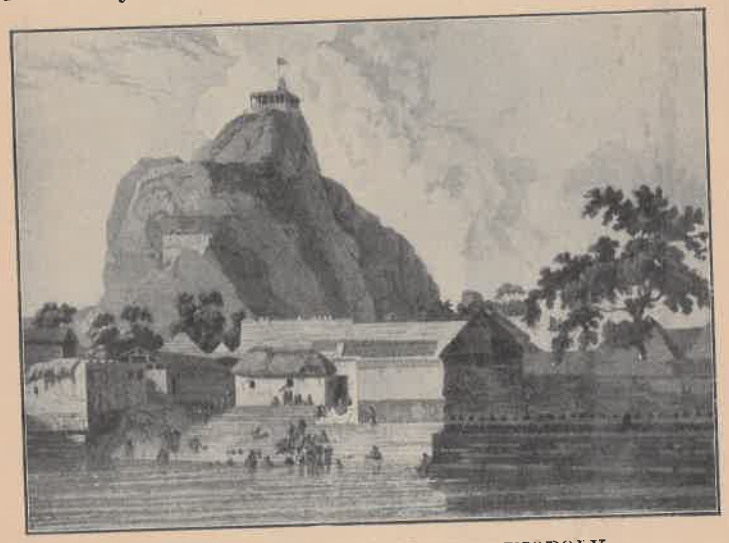
The War of the Coromandel. In India, however, there was no peace. In the Carnatic—the south-eastern or 'Coromandel' coast of the Deccan—two claimants arose for the Nawab's throne. One was called Mohammed Ali, the other,

Chunda Sahib. The French Governor-General of Pondicherry, Joseph, Marquis Dupleix,[1] saw that by supporting one claimant he might gain for France a paramount position in the Carnatic, and might expel the English. He found that the assistance of one or two thousand trained French troops would decide any native battle. So he intervened in the War of the Coromandel (or Carnatic) on the side of Chunda Sahib. The English Company, threatened with destruction (for Dupleix was undermining their influence on every hand) allied themselves with Mohammed Ali. Thus began the action of the English on Indian politics. It was in this unofficial War of the Coromandel that Robert Clive first showed his genius, as may be read in the sober history of Orme, or the more glowing pages of Macaulay's essay.

Clive. Robert Clive was born at Market Drayton in Shropshire on September 29, 1725. His father was a small landed proprietor of an old but undistinguished family. Robert was sent to school at the Merchant Taylors' and Hemel Hempstead and proved 'out of measure addicted to fighting'. When he was eighteen, his family procured for him the post of a 'writer' in the East India Company's service. In 1743 the Company was still only a trading body; and the duties of its writers were purely mercantile—checking invoices, arranging the advances of money to weavers, or to Indian merchants, and, generally, looking after the year's 'investment' of the Company's funds. The young officials were boarded in the 'Writers' Buildings' at Madras; their accommodation was poor, and their pay—about £80 a year—was scarcely able to provide them with clothing and the ordinary comforts necessary in India. Clive's harsh and melancholy nature would have withered under that system, had he not found some solace and refreshment in reading. The Governor had a library and allowed Clive the use of it.

[1] There is a touching and informing account of the career of Dupleix by the descendant of one of his fellow sufferers, Lally Tollendal, in the *Biographie Universelle* (Paris, 1819).

With Clive, however, any life but a life of action was insupportable. When the War of the Austrian Succession sent ripples of battle from Europe over the Indian Ocean, Clive obtained a temporary commission in the Company's forces, and soon distinguished himself by his physical courage, as well as by his enthusiasm and resourcefulness. The melancholy 'writer' became an alert, clear-sighted, decided



VIEW IN THE FORT OF TRICHINOPOLY

soldier. After the Peace of 1748 he had to go back to the desk again, but soon volunteered for the War of the Coromandel. He was given a Company. At this moment (1751) Dupleix was carrying all before him in the Carnatic. The English candidate for the Nawab's throne—Mohammed Ali—was besieged in Trichinopoly by Chunda Sahib and the French. Clive, however, made a dash at Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, seized it and then held it against all comers. The Sepoys, or Indian soldiers trained in European fashion, who formed this small garrison under Clive, recognized in

him a leader of men; they endured privation with the simple determination of heroes, and the assaults of the enemy were of no effect. Orme tells how, when food ran short, they offered their rice to Clive and the English soldiers, saying they themselves could live and fight on the water it was boiled in. Against such a spirit, the numbers of Chunda Sahib, the subtle genius of Dupleix, could not prevail. The siege was raised after fifty-three days. The defence of Arcot, in the judgement of the historian, Colonel Malleson, was 'the turning-point in the Eastern career of the English'. Soon the cause of Mohammed Ali triumphed everywhere. The English Company obtained the lead in the Carnatic, and Dupleix was recalled to France. The Seven Years' War ruined his property in India, and he died in poverty in 1763.

The Conquest of Bengal. After a period spent in England, Clive returned to India in 1755 as Lieutenant-Governor of Fort St. David near Madras. Next year Surajah Dowlah, the Nawab of Bengal, a young man about twenty-eight years of age and of dissolute character, descended upon the factory of the Company at Calcutta, and captured the inmates after a brief siege. 'Then was committed that great crime, equally memorable for its singular atrocity, and for the tremendous retribution by which it was followed.'[1] One hundred and forty-six British prisoners were put into a cell which was only twenty feet square. Packed together in this narrow chamber, they suffered awful agonies from thirst and heat, through the summer night. Many lost their self-control and fought like madmen, while their jailors laughed at them through the window-bars. 'At length the tumult died away in low gaspings and moanings.'[2] Only twenty-three of the prisoners survived the horrors of that night (June 21, 1756).

The news of the capture of Calcutta and of the tragedy of the Black Hole reached Madras in August. After two months' delay the Madras Government got together a force of nine hundred English soldiers and fifteen hundred sepoys under

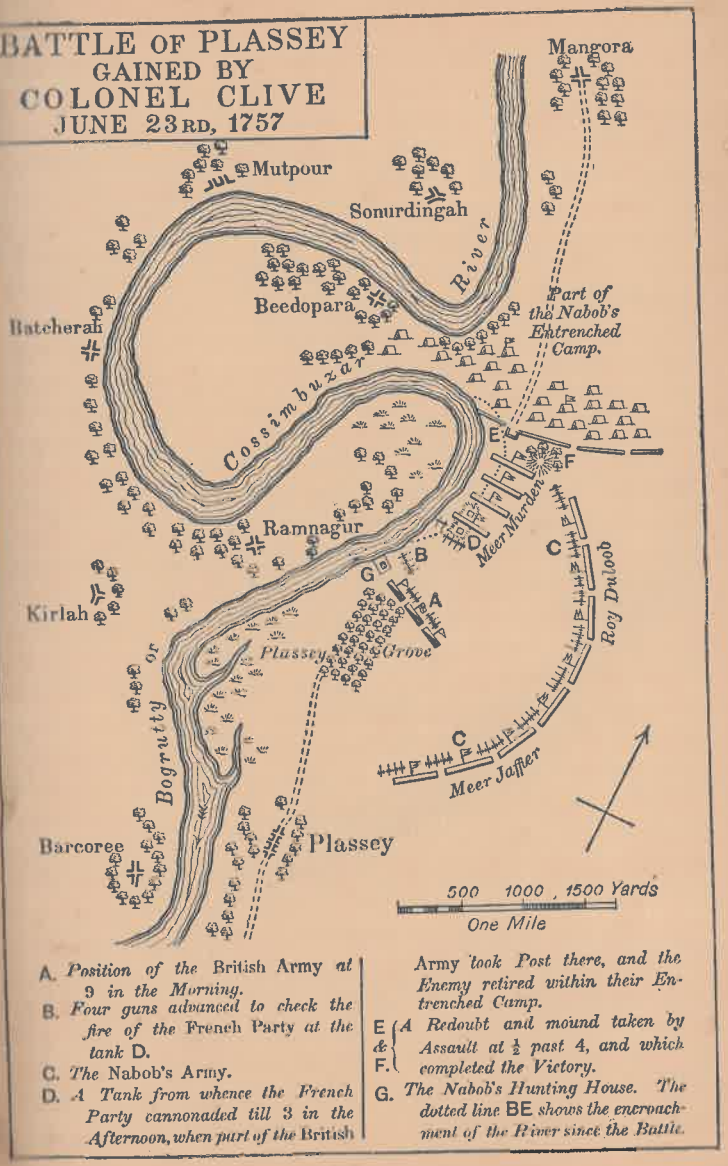
[1] Macaulay, *Essay on Clive*. [2] Ibid.

the command of Clive, 'to punish a prince who had more subjects than Lewis the Fifteenth or the Empress Maria Theresa'.[1] A squadron commanded by Admiral Watson conveyed the expeditionary force to the Hooghly. Some time was spent in negotiations until hostilities were brought on by an ultimatum from Clive. The two armies drew near each other on June 23 (1757) at Plassey. Clive's force, even with all its reinforcements, numbered only about 3,000 men, of whom nearly 1,000 were English. The Nawab had about 50,000 foot and 18,000 cavalry, with 50 heavy guns directed by French officers. The story, although of doubtful authenticity, is well known, how Clive held a Council of War, the only one he ever consulted; how the Council gave its advice for a retreat; and how Clive sat down in the shade of some trees by the camp, to turn the subject over in his mind. At the end of an hour, he is said to have arisen strengthened and refreshed, with the fixed determination of fighting a battle. Such is Orme's account of the decision to which the existence of British India is due.

The battle of Plassey lasted from daybreak until about four o'clock in the afternoon. The Nawab's troops were badly led, and dejected in spirit. Several of his highest officers had treacherously come to an understanding with the enemy. At first, indeed, they gave no open help to Clive, but when his determined attack began to spread confusion among the Nawab's troops, they began to withdraw their contingents. The defection of Mir J'afar completed the discomfiture of Surajah Dowlah's army, and Clive held the field with the loss of only twenty-two soldiers killed. The Nawab fled, and Mir J'afar was placed by Clive on the vacant throne. Some time afterwards Surajah Dowlah was caught and hacked to death by the men of the new Nawab. In February 1760 Clive sailed for home.

Before the Seven Years' War was far advanced in Europe, the French Government made a vigorous effort to conquer

[1] Macaulay, *Essay on Clive.*



the English power in India. A distinguished officer of Irish descent in the French service, the Count de Lally Tollendal, was sent to Pondicherry, with a well-supplied force. He is described by a contemporary as a man of 'a savage ferocity', and 'a contempt for every person that moves in a sphere below that of a general'. Lally's attack upon the English in Madras in 1758 was foiled by the splendid defence of Colonel Stringer Lawrence; and in 1760 he was signally defeated by Colonel Eyre Coote at Wandiwash. After sustaining a long siege in Pondicherry with the utmost heroism (May 1760 to January 1761), Lally was taken prisoner by the English forces. He was sent back to France in 1763 at the close of the Seven Years' War, and, after two and a half years' confinement in the Bastille, was most unjustly executed as a traitor.

The military history of British India is the story of great things done by small bodies of soldiers led by officers who, unknown though many of them remain, showed the most heroic qualities in courage, endurance, self-sacrifice, and devotion to duty. In September 1764, shortly after the establishing of the British power in Bengal, the Nawab of Oudh, supported by the Emperor of Delhi, and the Nawab of Bengal who had turned against the English, came with a large army against the Company. They were met by Major Hector Munro at Buxar on the Ganges; Munro had 7,072 men (857 being European) against about 50,000. The fight lasted from nine in the morning till noon, and then the enemy broke and fled. 'The victory, which was absolutely decisive, completed the work of Plassey.'[1] The Emperor of Delhi accepted British protection. The Nawab of Bengal ceased to have any power in the country. Oudh next year (1765) entered into alliance with the Company, and remained henceforward most closely connected with the British 'Raj'.

The Government of Bengal. When Clive quitted India for the second time, in 1760, he left the Company in the possession of power without responsibility. It controlled Bengal

[1] Vincent Smith, *The Oxford History of India* (1919), p. 501.

through the Nawab, but was still only a trading corporation. The agents of the Company, poorly paid, were permitted to make the bulk of their income by trading on their own account. They could exercise power through the nominal government of the Nawab, and yet had none of the responsibility attaching to officials in a regular civil service. It is to this period that the abuses belong, from which at other times the British administrators in India have been free.

In 1763 Clive, now Baron Clive of Plassey, returned to Bengal as Governor, and at once took the steps necessary to produce honourable dealing by the British agents in India: he absolutely forbade the officials of the Company to engage in trade on their own account; and (so that no excuse for private trading should be left to them) he increased their salaries by using the proceeds of the salt monopoly for this purpose. At the same time he obtained a grant from the Moghul Emperor at Delhi, to allow the Company to collect all the revenues of the three provinces of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa; and, as compensation, he arranged that the Company should pay to the Nawab a fixed annual sum. The Nawab thus became merely a wealthy pensioner, and passes out of history. The East India Company from that time was forced to take up the work of political administration. Henceforth its functions were of two kinds; firstly, to manage the export trade of India; and secondly, to administer the country. The second function soon became the more important and in the end superseded the other.

From Clive's first visit to India (1743), says Macaulay, dates the renown of the English arms in the East. From his second visit (1755) dates the political ascendancy of the English. From his third visit (1765) dates the purity of the administration of our Eastern Empire.

The crisis in British India. When Warren Hastings, the most able official in the Company's service, was made Governor of Bengal in 1772, two things in particular had to be done: the attacks of formidable Indian Powers had to be met; and

a regular civil administration had to be created out of an organization which had been constructed simply for trading purposes. These two things Warren Hastings, amid incredible difficulties, successfully accomplished.

There have been three especially severe crises in the history of British India; one in the time of Warren Hastings, between 1772 and 1783; one in the time of the Marquess Wellesley, between 1800 and 1805; the third in 1857 was the Mutiny. In the Mutiny, however, the final result was never in doubt, although the personal fate of the British residents in India at the moment was at stake. In the time of Wellesley, too, it was not so much the existence of British India as the extent of it which had to be fought for; but in the time of Warren Hastings it was nothing more nor less than the existence of British India which was in jeopardy. The Company's military and administrative power was still weak; while the Mahratta Confederation and Haidar Ali of Mysore might, with a lesser man than Warren Hastings in India, have swept the English into the sea.

The Mahrattas. The Mahrattas were all supposed to be under a nominal sovereign called the Raja of Satara, who was indeed little better than a prisoner. The Raja's Prime Minister, the Peshwa, had become practically sovereign at Poona, and had in fact founded a regular dynasty of hereditary Prime Ministers. On the outskirts of the Peshwa's State, other Mahratta States were being founded, like those of Sindia and Holkar.

The Mahratta soldiers lived by levying plunder or taxation on the countries they had conquered, or on their neighbours. The Mahratta warrior did no peaceful work; in general, a musket, a lance, and a horse were his only property. To maintain their military hordes, the Mahratta chiefs made regular incursions into the provinces of Central India, and levied blackmail on the peaceful inhabitants. A number of clever Brahman officials kept the accounts at Poona, and gave some sort of semblance of civil administration to this very loose State or confederation of military chiefs. Such a plundering State was bound, of course, to come into collision with the Company, whose interest was commerce and the suppression of violence and robbery.

The Mahratta War. The First Mahratta War began with a rash and unauthorized act of the Administration of the Bombay Presidency. The authority of the Governor-General of Bengal over the other Presidencies was then vague and not clearly recognized. In 1774 the Bombay officials, without consulting Bengal, espoused the cause of a Mahratta pretender to the Peshwa-ship. They dispatched a military force against Poona. The Mahrattas met it at the battle of Arras in Gujarat; victory remained with the British only at a very heavy cost (1775). Some complicated negotiations followed, Hastings at this time being involved in a serious quarrel with his council in Bengal. When he recovered power, he retrieved the British reputation in Central India by sending Colonel Goddard with a force of 6,000 fighting men right across from Bengal to Bombay. This march, admirably conducted, was followed in the beginning of the next year (1779) by the capture of Ahmadabad by Goddard; but the most brilliant exploit was the capture of Gwalior (one of the finest fortresses, natural and artificial, in India) by Major Popham (August 1780). This operation was carried out at



WARREN HASTINGS AS A YOUNG MAN

night, without the loss of a single man; the news of it went like magic throughout India. In 1782 the Treaty of Salbai was concluded with the Mahrattas. They were not forced to accept the pretender to the Peshwa-ship, and Bombay was gratified by the cession of the little island of Salsette.

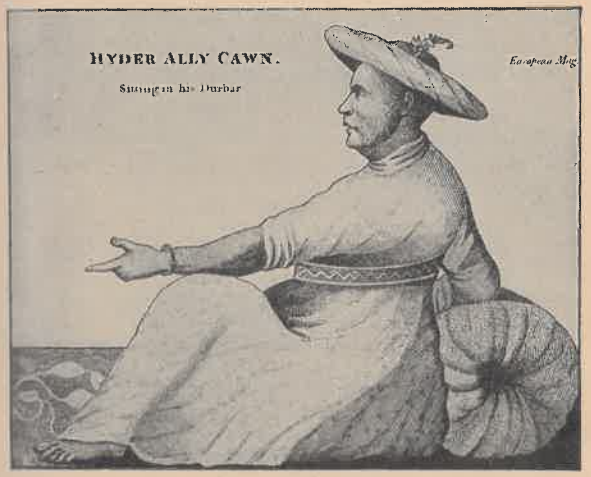
The Mysore War. It was not the Mahratta War alone which threatened the existence of the British in India; it was combined with a war against Haidar Ali of Mysore. Haidar



THE FORT OF GWALIOR FROM THE NORTH-WEST

Ali, who was born in 1722, had started his active career as an officer in the service of the old Hindu dynasty of Mysore. Becoming a successful general, he had gradually got all the power of the Mysore State into his own hands, and had then displaced the old dynasty. Haidar, an able and energetic soldier, was a man of shrewd, penetrating mind. Colonel Wilks, who was Resident at Mysore from 1803 to 1808, and the author of an old-fashioned and most interesting history of Mysore, gives many instances of Haidar's shrewd sayings. One of the finest is: 'The defeat of many Brathwaites and Baillies will not destroy them [the English]. I can ruin

their resources by land, but I cannot dry up the sea.' So said Haidar on his death-bed. He had won a notable victory over a British force under Colonel Baillie, and another over Colonel Brathwaite (whose contingent was destroyed); but Haidar knew that the sea was Britain's, and that as long as this was so, she was invincible. Able and shrewd as he was, tolerant too, in religion (he was a Mussulman himself), he was no better than a brute when his passions were roused.



HAIDAR ALI

He punished one of his Prime Ministers, Kandē Rās, by imprisonment for life in a cage.

The great menace to the existence of the British in India came after 1777. In that year General Burgoyne capitulated to the American General Gates at Saratoga Springs in the colony of New York. The war in America turned against England, and France immediately joined the insurgents. It was not to America only, however, that her fleets and soldiers were sent; French officers came to India to rouse the princes against the Company, and a fleet under France's best admiral appeared in the Indian Ocean. Hard pressed on land, in

danger of losing communication by sea, Warren Hastings may indeed be said to have had his 'back to the wall'.

In 1780 Haidar descended upon the Carnatic with men, among whom were a number of capable French General Munro, the hero of Buxar, had now lost all and allowed a body of 3,700 Company troops under Co Baillie to be isolated and cut down near Conjeveram. Madras authorities miserably failed to deal with the invasion, and the weight of all the duties which other pe should have performed fell upon Hastings. Harassed overwork, in straits for money, men, and supplies, together a small army, and sent it, poorly supplie transport and equipment, under Eyre Coote to Madr months the veteran general, who was often too ill t horseback, waged a war of defence against Haid July 1, 1781, he got the chance of a decisive fight Novo on the Madras coast. Haidar was defeated loss of 10,000 men. Another battle at Pollilore the defeat of the Mysore forces; Madras was saved, it, India.

Hughes and Suffren. Meanwhile Admiral Pierre Bailli de Suffren, had been waging an honourable command of the sea with Sir Edward Hughes, the admiral. Suffren was a fine sailor, and his squadr most powerful which France had equipped for Indies. Hughes, although not brilliant, was sound, and determined. He could not destroy Suffren's fle in five separate actions severely handled the French, and his own fleet in being. Suffren nearly starved Madras, w began to suffer from actual famine; and yet he could not wrest command of the sea from the unbeaten Hughes, whose flag was still flying at the end of the war. These operations, although not on the grand scale of European warfare, were so important in the world-wide struggle for command of the sea that the naval historian Mahan devotes a whole chapter to them in his *Influence of Sea Power upon History*.

Haidar died in December 1782. Next year the French and English made peace (Treaty of Versailles, 1783); India was preserved for the British, though the American colonies were lost.

The Regulating Act. It was during the period of Warren Hastings that Parliament began to take the keen interest in Indian affairs, of which record has been left not merely in the speeches



AN EARLY ENGLISH TRAVELLER. An Indian Portrait

of Burke and the two famous essays of Macaulay, but also in the Reports of Select Committees of the House of Commons. The work of Select Committees in general has a great and deserved reputation in English history, and the Reports on Indian affairs are no exception. The Fifth Report (published in 1812) is full of sound judgement and is a priceless mine of information on the social, judicial, and financial life of India in the time of Warren Hastings and Cornwallis.

Macaulay says that the attention of Parliament was directed to Indian affairs by the sight of men returning from that

country with stupendous fortunes. These were the so-called **nabobs,** so often represented in literature as being peppery, liverish, vulgar, and incredibly rich, East India traders or officials. Whatever the reason, Parliament, when Lord North was Prime Minister, did become most attentive to Indian affairs; and in 1772 two Select Committees were appointed to inquire into the condition of the Company and of British affairs in the East. The Government too became interested, and no wonder, as it was receiving £400,000 a year from the Company, a tribute used to lighten the expenses of the English taxpayer. This tribute, it must be noted, was only paid from 1765 to 1770, the year of the great famine in Bengal, when it stopped and has never been renewed.

Till 1773 the East India Company had no Parliamentary title. Its charter had been renewed from time to time by the Crown, with which the Company negotiated as one great Corporation with another. In 1773, however, Lord North's Ministry renewed the Company's charter by Act of Parliament, and changed its Constitution, thus affirming the right of Parliament to control all the British possessions in India. This Act—Lord North's Regulating Act, as it is generally called—is the basis of the Constitution of British India to-day. It established a Governor-General of Bengal with four councillors. The Governor-General was to have £25,000 a year, the councillors £10,000 each, and they were forbidden to trade or to receive presents. A Supreme Court of Judicature was also established, with a Chief Justice, on a salary of £8,000 a year, and three Judges with £6,000 a year each. The Act thus aimed at getting well-paid officials, who should give their whole time to their work, without fear or favour. The Bengal Presidency was declared to have supremacy over the other two Presidencies. The defects of the Act lay in not defining what this supremacy meant; and also in putting the Governor-General in a weak position in his Council, for he had only one vote, like the other councillors, with a casting vote when they were equally divided. Thus the strong man

in a turbulent land might have his hands tied, as Warren Hastings's were tied, by factious colleagues. Not till 1780, when the most troublesome member of his Council, Philip Francis, retired to England after fighting a duel with Hastings, did the Governor-General have peace in his Council.

The work of Warren Hastings was not merely to save British India from being overwhelmed by the Mahrattas and Haidar Ali. He also gave the country, in so far as it came under British rule, something like a regular administration. The Company, in the words of the Fifth Report, had resolved '*to stand forth as Diwan*'—that is, to become the collector of revenue in Bengal, but it had no real control over the expenditure. Hastings remedied this; he transferred the revenue affairs from the old Mohammadan capital at Murshidabad to Calcutta, which thus became the capital of British India till 1912, when Delhi took its place. The careful, efficient, all-pervading administration, which impresses all visitors to India, really began with Hastings; but in his time a vast amount of the work fell on his shoulders alone. He worked long, all day and every day, only leaving Calcutta, even at the worst seasons, on official business. He learned Bengali, Persian, and Urdu, in order to understand the people he governed. He encouraged travel, learning, and education. He was fearless, honest, lofty, a great man, worthy of the English name.

Macaulay's Essays. Macaulay's two essays on Indian History—*Clive* and *Warren Hastings*—are splendid works, which cast a brilliant light over a country too little known to Englishmen. Too easily, however, he accepted the charges against Hastings, which are chiefly four—the Rohilla War, the trial of Nundkomar, the affair of Chait Singh, and the fining of the Begams of Oudh.

The Rohilla War. The Rohillas were an Afghan tribe who had occupied for a few years the country on the north of Oudh between the Upper Ganges and the Himalayas. In order to preserve their territory from Mahratta invasions, they had made a defensive treaty with the Nawab Vizir

of Oudh, agreeing to pay a subsidy in return for military help (1772). In 1773 the Mahrattas invaded Rohilcund, and the army of Oudh threatened war with them on behalf of the Rohillas. The Mahrattas were forced to withdraw, but the Rohillas, although they had thus been saved, refused to pay the subsidy for the assistance received. The Nawab asked Hastings, in accordance with treaty engagements, to co-operate in compelling the Rohillas to keep their bargain. Hastings accordingly lent an English brigade, and in 1774 Rohilcund was invaded; the Rohillas resisted with the utmost courage, but were defeated and their land was annexed to Oudh. The result was to give Oudh, the ally of the English, a safe frontier on the north. It is, however, a matter of deep regret that this was done by shedding the blood of the Rohillas and by taking away their independence, although by their bad faith they had brought their fate upon themselves. Macaulay's impassioned description of the devastation of Rohilcund is not borne out by the facts.

Nundkomar. Macaulay next makes a severe charge against Hastings for the trial and execution of Nundkomar. The truth is simply that Nundkomar, a Brahman of bad character, had forged a letter to show that Hastings took bribes. It was not for this forgery, however, that he was tried in the Supreme Court under the Presidency of Sir Elijah Impey, but on a charge brought by a private person, arising out of an old law-suit. This had no connexion whatever with Hastings. Nundkomar was given a very fair trial for eight days (June 9–16, 1776). In the height of the Calcutta summer, the jury and judges sat from 8 a.m. till late at night; in the end Nundkomar was clearly convicted of forgery by the jury; and execution followed inevitably on the verdict. Everything goes to show that Impey was a just, laborious judge. British India owes to him, among other things, the compiling of a code of law.

Chait Singh. Chait Singh, Raja of Benares, was a great landowner in a high feudal position, but was not a sovereign prince. In 1778 and in 1779 Hastings made him pay

two special contributions of about £50,000 each to help towards meeting the heavy expenditure incurred during the Mahratta War. In 1780 the Raja refused to pay any more, and revolted. The revolt was quelled, and a new Raja was put in Chait Singh's place. There is no doubt that the Company was justified in asking for special war-contributions from the Raja, and the amount asked for is said by competent authorities not to have been excessive.

The Manny Begams. The Nawab Vizir of Oudh received the support of a brigade of the Company's troops to guard his territories. In return he was supposed to pay a subsidy, which, however, was frequently in arrear. In 1781, the Mahratta and Mysore Wars having made a great drain on the Company's revenue, Hastings told the Nawab Vizir to get some of the required money from the royal treasure which had been left in the hands of his mother and grandmother, who were known as the Begams (princesses) of Oudh. It appears that some violence was used on the Begams' servants to make them produce the treasure. Hastings may be censurable in allowing the Nawab Vizir to employ such means as he chose, but the amount of violence used must have been slight, for the Begams and their eunuchs bore Hastings no ill will afterwards.

After Hastings retired from the position of Governor-General in 1785, he was impeached in Parliament for certain of his acts done in India. The trial lasted from 1788 to 1795, and in the end he was acquitted. The great pro-consul lived meanwhile the quiet and dignified life of a country gentleman, on the small estate of Daylesford in the Cotswolds, which as a boy he had dreamed of buying back for his family. He died at Daylesford, on August 22, 1818, in the eighty-sixth year of his age.

§ 3. Cornwallis and Wellesley

Pitt's India Act. Lord North's Regulating Act of 1773, while establishing the principle that Parliament was supreme

over the Company and its territories, had set up no permanent organ of the Imperial Government to control India. In 1784, however, Pitt had a Bill passed through Parliament, establishing a *President and Commissioners for the Affairs of India*. The Commissioners—commonly known as the Board of Control—scarcely ever met, but the President of the Board, who was always a Cabinet Minister, became the London head of British India. When the Company was abolished in 1858 the President of the Board of Control was replaced by the Secretary of State for India.



TIPPU SULTAN

Lord Cornwallis. In 1786 Charles Cornwallis, 2nd Earl Cornwallis, went to India as Governor-General, and is thus the first of the long series of distinguished noblemen who have governed the Dependency. Except Warren Hastings, Sir John Shore, and Sir John Lawrence, no commoner, no member of the Civil Service, has been Governor-General, unless for brief periods to fill an unexpectedly vacant period between one nobleman Governor-General and another.

Cornwallis was nearly 48 years old when he went to India. Till then he was known only as a soldier, having fought well in the American War; after many successes he had been forced to capitulate at Yorktown in 1781—a disaster which practically ended the war. He was a man of perfect physical and moral courage; and in India, as throughout his career, was conscientious, honourable, laborious, and self-sacrificing.

One of the first things he did on becoming Governor-General was to insist that the Civil Servants should be adequately paid, and should be at the same time absolutely forbidden to make money in any other way. The modern type of Indian Civil Servant, well-trained, well paid, and efficient, may be said to date from this time.

In spite of his honest desire for peace, Cornwallis was forced, in consequence of the invasion of our ally Travancore by Tippu Sultan, son of Haidar Ali, to make war on Mysore. Want of supplies prevented him from besieging Seringapatam, but he signally defeated the Mysore army, and deprived



NORTH-EAST VIEW OF SERINGAPATAM

Tippu of half his dominions (1792). It is for his land policy, however, that Cornwallis is chiefly remembered.

Permanent Settlement. The revenue of the State in India—whether of the Moghul Empire, of the British 'Raj', or of the many native States—has always rested chiefly on the land. Land was formerly regarded as belonging to the State, although occupied and cultivated by peasants who were not disturbed so long as they paid their tax. This tax was generally about one-fourth of the produce, sometimes more; and it was the only form of rent which existed in India. The Moghul's officials valued each peasant's land at a certain sum, and took a certain proportion of this value every year. A fresh valuation was made from time to time, after five, ten, or even fifty or seventy years. To save trouble substantial local

people were employed to collect the revenue and allowed to keep 2½ per cent. of it for themselves. These local collectors were called zemindars.

When the East India Company stood forth as Diwan', it inherited the Moghul system of land-revenue in Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa. Warren Hastings had a summary valuation made of the land-holdings, to last for five years. To value the holdings fairly was a work of extreme difficulty and complexity; naturally conditions changed every few years—some land might become more valuable, some less. Cornwallis, when he came to deal with the matter, proposed two things: firstly, to treat the zemindars as the proprietors or landlords of the areas in which they had collected the land-revenue; and secondly, to value all the holdings for taxation once and for all. Sir John Shore, one of the ablest of the Company's Civil Servants and afterwards Governor-General from 1795 to 1798, pointed out the unreasonableness of making a hasty *permanent* settlement, but Cornwallis, supported by the British ministry, had made up his mind. He thought that the landholders—both zemindars and peasants—would be induced to spend money and labour on improving their land all the more if they knew that the increased yield would go to themselves and not to the State treasury. So the Permanent Settlement was made (1793). The land was necessarily valued at a low figure, because the famine of 1770 and other causes had temporarily reduced its value. The zemindars became a class of wealthy proprietors paying a comparatively small fixed rent to the State, with a permanent and legal hold on the land, but it is only in comparatively recent years that the customary rights of the peasant cultivators have been properly secured. The State has been deprived of much revenue, which it ought to get from the increasing value of the land, but which instead it must make up from other sources. The mistake of the Permanent Settlement has been generally recognized and has not been repeated in any other province.



Sir John Shore. Lord Cornwallis left India in October 1795 with the reputation of being a straightforward, hard-working, high-minded public servant. He was succeeded by Sir John Shore (afterwards Lord Teignmouth), a distinguished Indian

Civil Servant, although not a success as Governor-General. The Company was under a moral obligation to support the Nizam of Hyderabad, yet Shore allowed him to be attacked and defeated by the Mahrattas at the battle of Kharda in 1795. Shore had honestly convinced himself that the words of the treaty with Hyderabad did not absolutely bind him to take sides in this instance. Nevertheless, he would have done better had he given the Nizam the benefit of the doubt and shown the generosity as well as the strength of Britain. The next Governor-General had to pay for Shore's mistake by meeting an over-strong Mahratta confederation.

The Marquess Wellesley. Richard Colley Wellesley was born at Dangan Castle, County Meath, on June 20, 1760. His father Garret, second Baron Mornington in the peerage of Ireland, died at the age of 46; his mother, a daughter of Arthur Hill Trevor, Lord Dungannon, lived to be ninety, and to see four out of her six sons become famous servants of the State—Richard, who became Marquess Wellesley, Arthur Duke of Wellington, Henry Lord Cowley (Ambassador at Paris), and William Baron Maryborough (Chief Secretary of Ireland).

All the Wellesley boys went to Eton. Richard started at Harrow, but was withdrawn after taking part in the barring out of the new head master, Mr. Heath. So from Harrow he went to Eton, where a beautiful portrait of him as a boy, by Romney, is still to be seen in the Provost's Lodgings. In 1778 Wellesley went into residence at Christ Church, Oxford. There he won the Chancellor's prize for Latin Verse, and became a Student (the Christ Church equivalent for Fellow) of the House. He was a brilliant classical scholar, and all through life read with close attention the Latin and Greek writers; their influence on his style may be clearly seen in his elaborate splendidly written dispatches. Before going to India as Governor-General in 1798, he had studied Eastern affairs for years; no one ever went to a great position with a better intellectual equipment than did Wellesley. His big

ideas, his enthusiasm, his extraordinary industry, made him an exceptional man in every way. He was noble, dignified, and somewhat haughty; his high manner, especially his rather contemptuous treatment of the East India Company directors, frequently caused offence, but no one could deny that he was a great statesman and a magnificent Governor-General.



THE MARQUESS WELLESLEY

Wellesley's work in India may be summarized under three heads: the extension of the Company's political influence by means of *subsidiary alliances*; the overthrow of Sultan Tippu's cruel and aggressive government at Mysore; and the shattering of the Mahratta Confederacy.

The Subsidiary Alliances. The British power in India, and the existence of peace and quietness over the whole land, depend partly upon the direct administration of the Crown, and partly on a series of treaties concluded with some hundreds of native princes and rulers. Such treaties existed before the time of Wellesley, who extended and improved the system. His method was to make a defensive treaty with a powerful Indian prince, to give him the support of a certain number of trained soldiers under British officers, and to receive in return just so much territory as would supply enough revenue to support the regiment or brigade. Such subsidiary treaties he made with Oudh, the large native State which covered the northern

frontier of Bengal; with Hyderabad, which he brought back into the Company's close alliance after Shore's unfortunate neglect of it; with Mysore after he had overthrown Tippu and restored the old dynasty; and, finally, with the premier Mahratta power, the Peshwa of Poona, after the defeat of the Mahrattas at Assaye. This system of subsidiary alliances helped to spread peace over the whole peninsula. The objection to it was that it took away from each allied native prince the responsibility of securing his own peace and order. To-day the system has been improved; the Native Rulers have their own military contingents and manage their own police, with the advice of a British Resident.

Mysore, 1799. Haidar Ali's son Tippu, who succeeded his father in December 1782, hated the English, and was determined to have no peace with them. He entered into an alliance with the French Republic, which was at this time engaged in war with England, and received French officers into his army; in 1792, however, he was defeated by Cornwallis (p. 643). Wellesley demanded that he should dismiss these officers, and on Tippu's refusal sent an army into Mysore. Seringapatam was stormed, and Tippu, fighting bravely at a gate of the town, was killed. Some of the Mysore territory was given to the Nizam, some was annexed to the British dominion, and the rest was restored to the old Hindu dynasty which Haidar Ali had dispossessed.

The Mahrattas. The Mahrattas were still the leading power in Central India, and if they had remained quiet no one would have disturbed them there. Unfortunately the Mahratta social and political system did not permit of this, for they lived only by plunder and the levy of blackmail upon their neighbours. It was Wellesley's object to induce the Mahratta States to enter into subsidiary treaties with the Company, so that they should receive a British garrison and give up their predatory habits. The premier Mahratta State still had its centre at Poona under the Peshwa. The other two chief Mahratta States were Sindia's, with its capital at Gwalior,

and Holkar's, with its capital at Indore. These States had no fixed boundaries. In 1802 Holkar and the Peshwa quarrelled; a battle took place outside Poona, and Holkar's irregular horse swept the Poona battalions off the field. The Peshwa fled to Bombay for protection, and was glad to sign a subsidiary treaty, the famous Treaty of Bassein, December 31, 1802. A British force was stationed within his territory, and a British adviser guided his affairs. It is from the Treaty of Bassein that the substantial supremacy of the British over India may be dated.

Sindia, however, was not going tamely to see the British gain control of all Central India. He had a fine army of about 50,000 men, well trained by regular French officers whom he had taken into his service. He had actually occupied Delhi and kept the 'pageant' Moghul emperor for his own purposes. Together with the Raja of Nagpore, another formidable Mahratta chief, Sindia, was threatening the frontier of the Nizam of Hyderabad, when General Arthur Wellesley, the Marquess Wellesley's famous brother, told the Mahratta chiefs that they must retire. Their refusal brought about a swift campaign, concluded by the victory of Assaye (September 1803) over Sindia, and of Argaum (November) over the Nagpore Raja. Meanwhile, farther north, General Lake was advancing on the contingents of Sindia which were defending Delhi. In November, at Aligarh and Laswari, he defeated them in hard-fought actions, in which the Mahrattas displayed all their best fighting qualities. Delhi was taken; the Moghul emperor was brought under the control of the British again; Sindia was made to cede his fortresses and to give his adhesion to the Treaty of Bassein.

Holkar, who more than any other chief had kept up the ancient predatory ways, and the swift irregular fighting methods of the Mahrattas, was still defiant. He was very difficult to bring to bay; and the army which pursued him was never safe from some terrible surprise. It was by such a surprise attack that Colonel Monson's column was all but

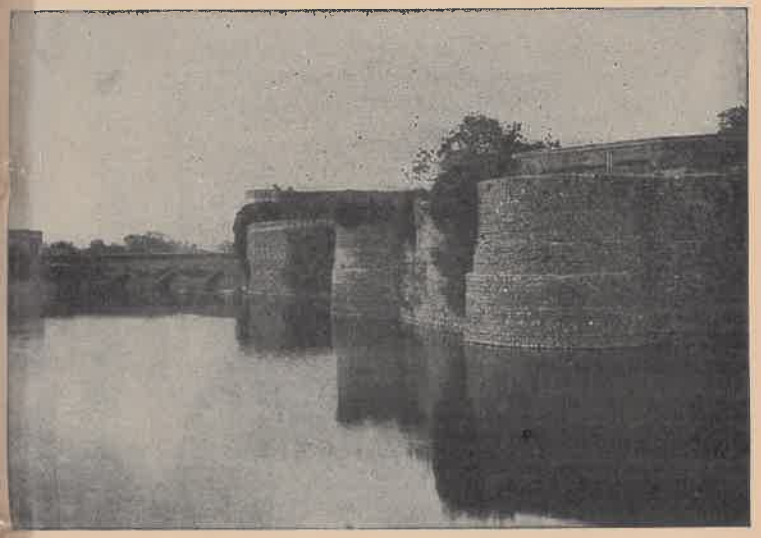
annihilated in his retreat from the Mukandwara Pass in Malwa. General Lake, however, carried on the campaign against him with more caution throughout the autumn of 1804; and although he failed in the assault on Bhurtpore (the famous fortress city of Holkar's ally), he wore down Holkar's resistance, and compelled him too, at last, to come into the subsidiary system.



MĀHĀDAJI SINDIA

The results of Wellesley's Administration. The Marquess Wellesley left India in July 1805. His work was undoubtedly a great achievement. He had extended the British power over Mysore, as well as over large parts of the Mahratta country; and had confirmed it in Hyderabad and Oudh. He had utterly broken and expelled the dangerous French influence, and prevented Bonaparte's grandiose Asiatic schemes from having any chance of success. He had helped to bring

forth the military genius of his great soldier brother, and had gathered round himself a band of able Civil Servants, like the future Lord Metcalfe, whom he trained in the higher flights of administration. Splendid in deed and in word, he was one of the most magnificent of England's governors, a worthy ruler of that teeming continent, the most varied, the most romantic, the most opulent, under the British flag.



BHURTPORE FORT

The last years of Struggle with Napoleon. When the Marquess Wellesley left India, Europe was still convulsed with the great Napoleonic wars, although these had been finally prevented from spreading towards India. The aged Cornwallis, who was sent out to succeed Wellesley, with instructions to adopt a strictly pacific policy, held the Governor-Generalship for a brief and inglorious two months. His successor, Sir George Barlow, a civil servant, has been called 'the meanest of the Governors-General', and the epithet is not undeserved, although the main lines of his

policy were prescribed from London. During his period of nineteen months in office, the Mahratta States were again allowed to get out of hand. Under Lord Minto, however, a more energetic, though at the same time cautious policy, was resumed. Minto, as Sir Gilbert Elliot, had gained experience both in the House of Commons and in foreign affairs, having been Governor of the Protectorate of Corsica from 1794 to 1796 during the British occupation, as well as Minister Plenipotentiary at Vienna. In India he dealt successfully with trouble which had arisen both inside and outside the British territory. A terrible mutiny of Sepoys at Vellore in Sir George Barlow's time had resulted in the massacre of two companies of white soldiers (July 10, 1806). Lord Minto settled this difficulty by a judicious combination of firmness and moderation. Next, the great Sikh power of Ranjit Singh threatened the peace of British India, but by skilful diplomacy (Treaty of Amritsar, April 25, 1809), the Governor-General induced him to withdraw his forces to the Sutlej, which remained the frontier till the extinction of the Sikh State. In 1811 came Lord Minto's most brilliant exploit, the expedition to Java, the magnificent Dutch island which Napoleon had annexed. The Governor-General himself accompanied the expeditionary force. On August 28 Batavia was stormed by troops which Colonel Gillespie (a hero who had been chiefly instrumental in suppressing the Vellore rebellion) personally led. Java was then taken over by the British administration, and put under Stamford Raffles as Governor, whose régime proved to be an unqualified success. The wealth of the country and the social condition of the people had made immense progress by the time the island was handed back to the Dutch (1815).

After Lord Minto came the Earl of Moira (afterwards Lord Hastings) as Governor-General (1813). He soon found occasion to exercise the distinguished military gifts which he had shown over thirty years earlier in the Carolinas (see p. 526). The Gurkhas of Nepaul were giving great trouble on the

Northern frontier of Bengal, and in 1814 a regular war took place. The British at first suffered considerable disasters, and Colonel Gillespie was killed in a rash attack on a Gurkha stockade. In 1815–16, however, separate operations conducted by General David Ochterlony and Colonel Nicholls forced the Gurkhas to sign the Treaty of Sagauli (March 1816), by which they ceded a strip of territory which safeguarded Bengal, and accepted a British Resident at Katmandu. Since then Great Britain and Nepaul have been friends; Gurkhas have freely joined the Indian army and form some of its most renowned regiments.

Besides dealing with Nepaul, the Marquess of Hastings had to settle with the Mahrattas, and their allies, the Pindaris. The Pindaris were hordes of plunderers who had arisen in recent years amid the disorders of Central India, and they spread disorder far and wide, and especially in Malwa and Rajputana. Many of these freebooters were Mahrattas; men of all classes and religions, however, might join the Pindari bands. These bands followed each their chosen leader, and are said to have included between 20,000 and 30,000 men in the early years of the nineteenth century. The Peshwa, the Bhonsla of Nagpore, Holkar, and Sindia were not free from complicity with these robbers. When Sir George Barlow was Governor-General no attempt was made to check them, and even Lord Minto did nothing to stop their ravages. Lord Hastings, however, dealt seriously with the problem, which was all the more pressing as the Pindaris had, since the year 1812, been making incursions into the Company's territory.

In the year 1817 Lord Hastings set on foot an army of 120,000 troops, of whom about 13,000 were British soldiers. This army was divided into a northern and a southern corps. The northern corps under Hastings himself was to close upon the Pindaris from the side of Bengal, the southern under General Hislop was to come up from the Deccan. The operations were completely successful, and by the early

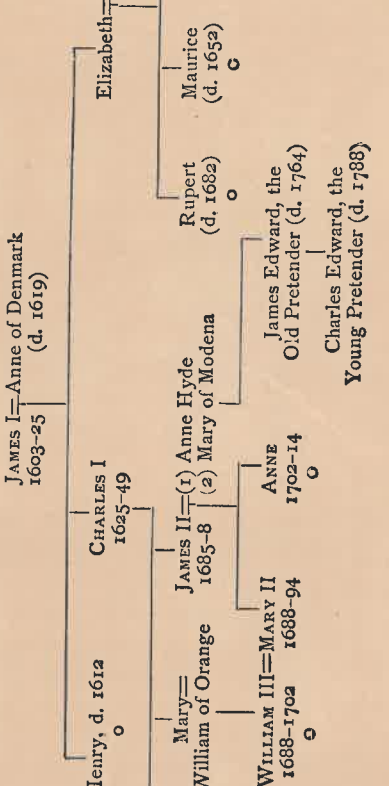
months of 1817 all the Pindari bands had been rounded up and destroyed.

The Peshwa, Baji Rao, had, meanwhile, in spite of the Treaty of Bassein (p. 649), taken the opportunity of the Pindari war once more to challenge the British rule. He was met and overthrown at the battle of Ashti (February 20, 1818). The position of Peshwa was abolished and his dominions annexed to the Company's territory. Baji Rao spent the rest of his days as a wealthy pensioner at Cawnpore; his son was the infamous Nana Sahib.

Two months before the battle of Ashti, the forces of the Bhonsla, who had begun the war by an attack upon the British Resident at Nagpore, were defeated outside that city on December 16, 1817. The Bhonsla was deposed and that part of his territories which lay north of the Narbada was annexed. On December 20 (1817) General Hislop overthrew Holkar's army at the battle of Mahidpur.

The Mahratta power was thus completely broken. The States of Sindia and Holkar have survived, and their rulers are powerful princes. Satara and Nagpore, the other two Mahratta principalities, were annexed.

TABLE TO SHOW THE DESCENDANTS OF JAMES I.



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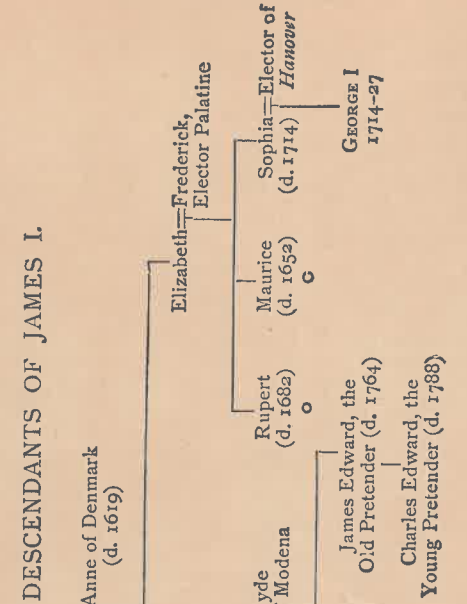


TABLE TO SHOW:—

(1) THE HAPSBURG EMPERORS AND SPANISH KINGS;

(2) THE CLAIMANTS IN THE WARS OF THE SPANISH AND AUSTRIAN SUCCESSIONS.

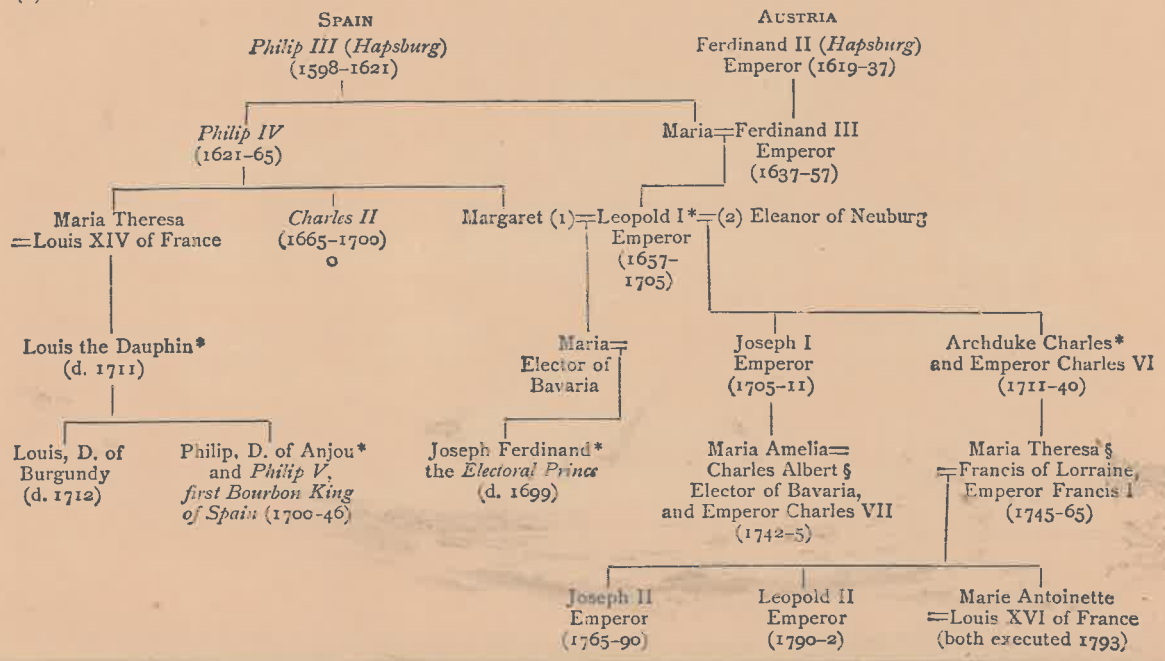
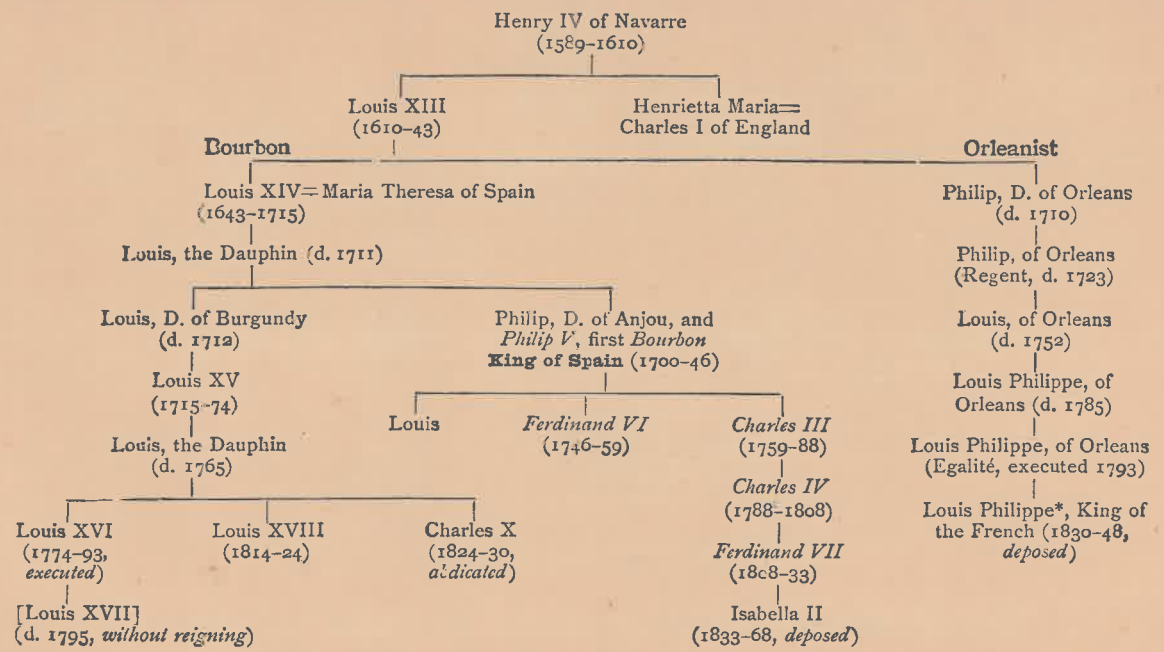


TABLE TO SHOW:—

(1) THE BOURBON AND ORLEANS KINGS OF FRANCE (1589–1848);

(2) THE BOURBON KINGS OF SPAIN (1700–1868).



Note.—Bourbon Kings of Spain *in Italics.* Orleanist King of France *.

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