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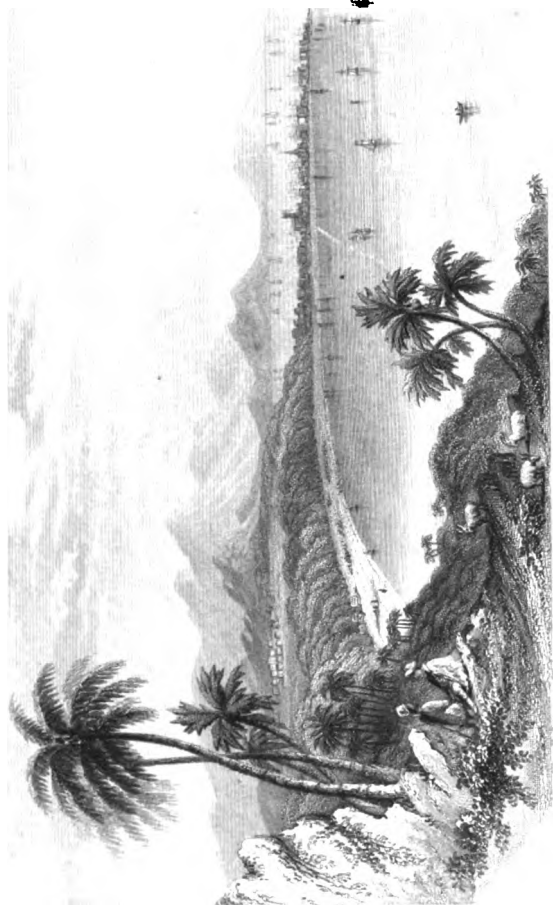
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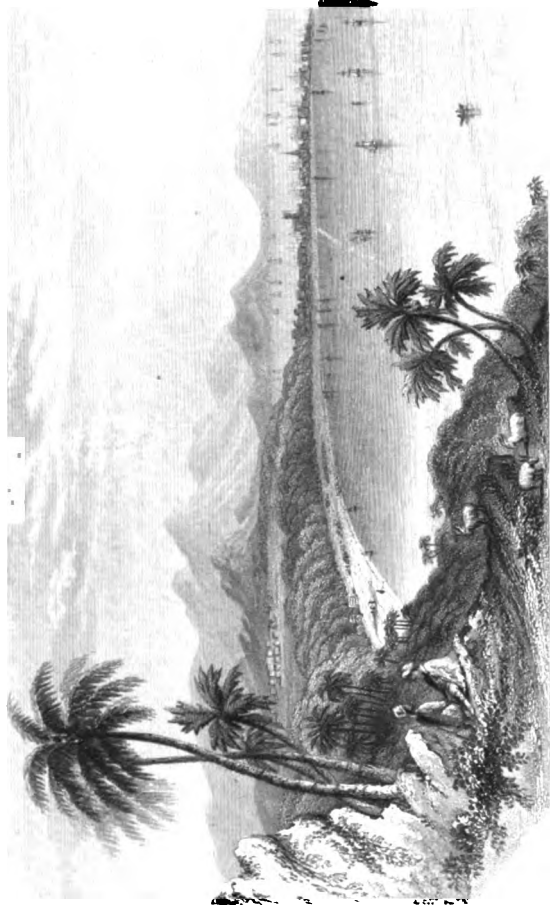
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VIEW OF BOMBAY

# HISTORY OF BRITISH INDIA.



VIEW OF BOMBAY

# HISTORY OF BRITISH INDIA.

BY

HUGH MURRAY, ESQ., F.R.S.E.

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CONTINUED TO THE CLOSE OF THE YEAR 1854.



T. NELSON AND SONS, LONDON: EDINBURGH:  
AND NEW YORK.

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## ADVERTISEMENT TO THE PRESENT EDITION.

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IN the edition of Mr. Murray's "History of India," now offered to the public, the narrative is brought down to a period very close upon the present time. The last edition embraced the chapters devoted to the Afghan and Sikh wars. These have now been somewhat modified by the present Editor, who has had at his disposal those more ample and authentic materials which the progress of time is sure to evolve. He has also added to the history, chapters containing an account of the administration of Lord Dalhousie, and of those changes in the general administration of India which followed the passing of the Act of 1853, under which the country is now governed. The entire work presents a complete history of India from the earliest times to the present year. The whole has been revised with the utmost care; and it is now confidently recommended to the public, in the belief that it fulfils all the conditions of a compendious history, which may be consulted with advantage both by the professional student and the general reader. The increased attention, which is now given to Indian affairs, and the enlarged social circle from which the Indian services are now drawn, seem to have rendered more necessary to the satisfaction of the public wants the existence of such works as the present, which, whilst it deters no one by its elaborate amplitude of detail, is yet sufficiently copious to render the student intimately ac-

quainted with all the leading events of Indian history, and, for all ordinary purposes, independent of other authorities. The extensive acceptance which the work has already met, as a text-book, both in the East and the West, and the recommendation of high official authorities, sufficiently vouch for the trustworthiness of its contents. It is written without bias; neither its original author nor its subsequent editors have had any theories to maintain. It is a plain narrative of facts, written, it is believed, in a popular style; and as such it is again offered, with renewed confidence, to the public.

LONDON, October 1866.

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# HISTORY OF BRITISH INDIA.

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## CHAPTER I.

### GENERAL VIEW OF THE NATURAL FEATURES OF INDIA.

Great Importance always attached to India—Its Outline and Boundaries—General Aspect—The Great Central Plain—Provinces of which it is composed—Vegetable and Animal Productions—The Great Desert—Mountain-region of the Himalayah—Belt or Border of thick Jungle—Tract of lower Hills—Elevated Ranges—Their steep and rugged Character—Change in Vegetable and Animal Nature—Three Zones of Vegetation—Central Region—The different River-glens—Valleys—Caashmere—Dangerous Passes—Difficulty of Respiration—Sources of the Jumna and Ganges—Pilgrimage—The Deccan—Vyndhya Range—The Ghauts—Nilgerries—Opposite Coasts—Central Table-plains—Scenery—Influence of the physical Character upon the political State of these different Regions.

Of all the countries on the Asiatic continent, India, from the earliest ages, has excited the greatest interest, and enjoyed the highest celebrity. The exploits of the conquerors who made it the object of their warlike expeditions, as also the splendid productions of nature and art which were thence imported, procured for it a great name even in the remotest eras of classical antiquity. It has always appeared to the imagination of the Western World adorned with whatever is most splendid and gorgeous; glittering as it were with gold and gems, and redolent of fragrant and delicious odours. Though there be, in these magnificent conceptions, something romantic and illusory, still India forms unquestionably one of the most remarkable regions that exist on the surface of the globe. The varied grandeur of its scenery, and the rich productions of its soil, are scarcely equalled in any other country

It is also extremely probable that it was, if not the first, at least one of the earliest seats of civilization, laws, arts, and of all the improvements of social life. These, it is true, have at no period attained to the same pitch of advancement as among Europeans; but they have, nevertheless, been developed in very original forms, displaying human nature under the most striking and singular aspects.

The strong interest which India in itself is thus calculated to excite, must to us be greatly heightened by the consideration of its having become so completely a province of the British Empire. The government of this country now directs the fortunes of a hundred millions of human beings placed at the opposite extremity of the earth; and hence the welfare of the state is intimately suspended on that of this vast dependency. This connexion, too, is peculiarly strengthened by the great number of our countrymen who are constantly going out to administer the affairs of that important colony. Closer personal ties, in many instances, are thereby formed with our eastern settlements, than with the different provinces of Britain itself. Thousands, to whom Cornwall and Devonshire are almost strange lands, are connected by the most intimate social relations with Madras and Calcutta. For such persons the history and description of our Indian possessions, independently of the grandeur of the subject and its union with national wealth and power, must have a peculiar interest, as being closely associated with the pursuits and prospects of their dearest friends.

India is enclosed by grand natural boundaries. Its whole northern frontier is separated from the high table-land of Thibet by the chain of the Himalayah Mountains, which, according to recent observation, appears to reach at least as great a height as any other ridge by which the globe is traversed. The western and eastern limits are formed by the lower course of two great rivers,—the Indus on one side, and the Brahmapoutra on the other. The southern portion consists of a very extensive peninsula bounded by the ocean. Other countries have often been

comprehended under the general appellation of India,—particularly the territories of Afghanistan, which ranked long as provinces belonging to the Mogul emperors, in consequence of those warlike rulers having conquered India, and transferred thither the seat of their empire. These districts, it is manifest, bear a much closer relation to Persia and Tartary; and, when they are included in Hindostan, they necessarily extend that country beyond its great river-line on the north-west, where it has no decided or natural boundaries. But within the limits we have indicated there are found a religion, languages, manners, and institutions, characteristic of this region, and distinguishing it from all the other countries of Asia.

India, thus defined, though some of its extremities have not been very precisely determined, may be suitably described as lying between the 8th and 34th degrees of north latitude, and the 68th and 92d of east longitude. It thus extends somewhat above 1800 miles from north to south, and, at its greatest breadth, nearly 1500 from east to west.

In treating of this important country, it will be useful to begin with a general survey of its geographical features; and these, it will soon appear, are distinguished at once by their grandeur and their variety. India is, as it were, an epitome of the whole world. It has regions that bask beneath the brightest rays of a tropical sun, and others, than which the most awful depths of the polar world are not more dreary. The varying degrees of elevation produce here the same changes that arise elsewhere from the greatest difference of position on the earth's surface. Its vast plains present the double harvests, the luxuriant foliage, and even the burning deserts of the torrid zone; the lower heights are enriched by the fruits and grains of the temperate climates; the upper steeps are clothed with the vast pine forests of the north; while the highest pinnacles are buried beneath the perpetual snows of the arctic zone. We do not here, as in Africa and the polar regions, see nature under one uniform aspect; on the contrary, we have to trace gradual yet complete transitions between

the most opposite extremes that can exist on the surface of the same planet.

The main body, as it were, of India, the chief scene of her matchless fertility and the seat of her great empires, is composed of a plain extending along the entire breadth from east to west, between the Brahmapoutra and the Indus; and reaching, in point of latitude, from the great chain of mountains to the high table-land of the Southern Peninsula. It may thus possess a length of 1500 miles, with an average breadth of from 300 to 400. The line of direction is generally from south-east to north-west, following that of the vast mountain-range which bounds it on the north, and from whose copious streams its fruitfulness is derived. With the exception, perhaps, of the country watered by the great river of China, it may be considered the finest and most fertile on the face of the earth. The whole of its immense superficies, if we leave out an extensive desert-tract to be presently noticed, forms one continuous level of unvaried richness, and over which majestic rivers, with slow and almost insensible course, diffuse their sea-like expanse.

Of this general character of the Indian plain, the province of Bengal presents the most complete and striking example; no part of it being diversified with a single rock, or even a hillock. The Ganges pours through it a continually widening stream, which, during the rainy season, covers a great extent with its fertilizing inundation. From this deep, rich, well-watered soil, the sun, beating with direct and intense rays, awakens an almost unrivalled power of vegetation, and makes it one entire field of waving grain. Bahar, farther up the current, has the same general aspect, though its surface is varied by some slight elevations; and Allahabad, higher still, is distinguished by some of the same characteristics, but has a drier atmosphere than Bengal. North of the river the provinces of Oude and Rohilcund, sloping gradually upwards to the mountains, enjoy a more cool and salubrious climate, and display in profusion the most valuable products both of Asia and Europe. Here the valley of the Ganges termi-

nates, and is succeeded by that of the Jumna, more elevated, and neither so well watered nor quite so fertile. The Doab, or territory between the two rivers, requires in many places artificial irrigation. Its woods, however, are more luxuriant, while the moderate cold of its winter permits a crop of wheat or other European grain to be raised, and the summer is sufficient to ripen one of rice. To the south of the Jumna, and along the course of its tributary the Chumbul, the ground is broken by eminences extending from the hills of Malwah and Ajmere; while, even amid its most level tracts, insulated rocks, with perpendicular sides and level summits, form those almost impregnable hill-forts so much celebrated in Indian history. Westward of Delhi begins the Great Desert, which we shall at present pass over to notice the plain of the Punjaub, where the five tributaries of the Indus, rolling their ample streams, produce a degree of fertility equal to that of the region watered by the Ganges. High cultivation, too frequently obstructed by public disorders and the ruder character of the people, is alone wanting to make it rival the finest portions of the more eastern territory.\*

Throughout the whole of this vast plain, the wants of the population and the demands of commerce have entirely superseded the original productions of nature, and substituted plants and grains better fitted for human use. Even under the most careful management, few of those exquisite shrubs are now reared which have given such celebrity to the vegetable kingdom of the East. Here are quite unknown those aromatic gales which perfume the hilly shores of Malabar and the oriental islands. Its staples consist of solid, rich, useful articles, produced by strong heat acting on a deep, moist, and fertile soil,—rice, the eastern staff of life,—sugar, the most generally used of dietetic luxuries,—opium, whose narcotic qualities have made it everywhere so highly prized,—indigo, the most valuable substance used in dye-

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\* The reader must bear in mind that this was written when the Punjaub was under the rule of its own princes. It is now a province of the British Indian Empire, and as tranquil as any part of our dominions.—Ed. 1854.

ing,—and, in the drier tracts, cotton, which clothes the inhabitants of the East, and affords the material of the most delicate and beautiful fabrics. Such an entire subjection to the plough and the spade, joined to the want of variety in the surface, gives to this great central region a tame and monotonous aspect. Baber, its Afghan conqueror, complains, in his *Memoirs*, of the uniform and uninteresting scenery which everywhere met his eye, and looks back with regret to the lofty cliffs, the green slopes, and murmuring streams of his native land.

In spite, however, of every human effort, some tracts are left uncultivated in consequence of political disorder and misrule; while, in others, nature, under the combined influence of heat and moisture, make efforts so powerful as to baffle all attempts to modify or control her. She then riots in unbounded luxuriance, and covers large tracts with that dense, dark, impenetrable mass of foliage, crowded and twined together, called *jungle*, which opposes an almost impassable barrier even to an army. Trees spreading on every side their gigantic arms,—thorny and prickly shrubs of every size and shape,—canes shooting in a few months to the height of sixty feet,—compose the chief materials of those natural palisades. Even in the open plain, the banian and other single trees, when full scope is given to their growth, spread out into the dimensions of a considerable forest.

From the cultivated regions the various classes of wild beasts are excluded with the utmost solicitude. Even the domestic species are not reared in great numbers, nor to any remarkable size or strength. There is a small cow with a hump, fit only for draught, but which the Hindoo regards as a sacred object. Light active steeds are bred by the natives for predatory excursions; though, for regular military service, the large Turkish horse is decidedly preferred. But the wooded tracts, where nature revels uncontrolled, are filled with huge and sometimes destructive animals, of which the two most remarkable are the elephant and the tiger. The former, of a species distinct from that of Africa, is here not merely pursued as game, but, being caught alive, is

trained for the various purposes of state, hunting, and war. The tiger, the most formidable tenant of the Bengal jungle, supplies the absence of the lion, and, though not quite equal in strength and majesty, is still more fierce and dangerous. These two mighty quadrupeds are brought into conflict in the Indian hunts, when the elephant is used as an instrument for attacking his fiercer but less vigorous rival. The hunter, well armed, is seated on the back of his huge ally; and, in the first advance, the whole body of the assailants are ranged in a line. When the combat commences, the elephant endeavours either to tread down the tiger with his hoof, crushing him with the whole weight of his immense body, or to assail him with his long and powerful tusks. Whenever either of these movements can be fully accomplished, the effect is irresistible; but the tiger, by his agility, and especially by his rapid spring resembling the flight of an arrow, often succeeds in fastening upon the legs and sides of his unwieldy adversary, and inflicts deep wounds, while the latter is unable either to resist or to retaliate. Even the rider, notwithstanding his exalted seat and the use of fire-arms, is not on such occasions wholly exempt from danger.

To complete the survey of the great Indian plain, there remains to be described, as already hinted, one feature wholly dissimilar to all the rest. Immediately westward of the Jumna, the general level of the country attains a point of elevation, whence it descends on both sides; and all the torrents, falling from this high mountain-range, roll either eastward and become tributary to the Ganges, or westward to pour their waters into the Indus. Between these two rivers and their respective branches there intervenes a considerable space, which is refreshed only by a few small rivulets that spring up and disappear amid the waste. In this manner is formed a desert, of extent sufficient to compose a mighty kingdom, and occupying in that direction the whole breadth, from the mountains to the ocean. This entire region, about 600 miles long and 300 broad, presents an aspect nearly similar to the most dreary tracts of Arabia and Africa. Accord-

ing to the observations of Mr. Elphinstone, who crossed it in his way to Peshawur, the eastern division consists of sand often rising into hills of surprising height, and so loose that, whenever the horses quitted the path hardened by beating, they sunk above the knee. Over this wilderness, however, is scattered some coarse grass, with stunted and prickly shrubs; while, in the midst of the sand, there grow large water-melons, affording the most delicious refreshment to the thirsty traveller. At wide intervals are found villages, or rather clusters of mud huts, round which are reared crops of coarse grain and pulse, whose stalks, like shrubs, stand distinctly separate from each other. Yet a considerable population must be sprinkled over this immense desert, since Bikaneer, in its centre, presents, though on a small scale, the aspect of a city adorned with palaces, temples, and other spacious edifices. Westward of that town the soil is generally a hard clay, variegated only by mounds of sand. Poogul, a village of straw huts, defended by a ruinous mud fort, encompassed with naked hills, and amid a sea of sand without a trace of vegetation, appeared a spot so desolate, that it seemed astonishing how any human beings could make it their abode. On the more smooth and level portions of this dreary tract the traveller is tantalized by the phenomenon of the *mirage*, producing before him the appearance of immense lakes that even reflect the surrounding objects; and the illusion continues till he has almost touched the watery semblance, and finds it to consist of the same arid soil as the rest of the desert.

Northward of this great plain, and along its whole extent, towers the sublime mountain-region of the Himalayah, ascending gradually till it terminates in a long range of summits wrapped in perpetual snow. According to Mr. Calder, there may be traced, for the space of 1000 miles, a continuous line 21,000 feet above the sea, from which, as a base, detached peaks ascend to the additional height of 5000 or 6000 feet. The inhabitant of the burning plains contemplates, not without wonder, this long array of white pinnacles, forming the boundary of the distant horizon. In this

progressive ascent nature assumes a continually changing aspect; and hence it will be necessary to view in succession the different stages through which she passes.

The Himalayah range, where it touches on the champaign country, is almost everywhere girt with a peculiar belt or border, called the Tarryai. This term is applied to a plain about twenty miles broad, upon which the waters from the higher regions are poured down in such profusion that the river-beds are unable to contain them. They accordingly overflow, and convert the ground into a species of swamp, which, acted on by the burning rays of a tropical sun, throws up an excessively rank vegetation, whereby the earth is choked rather than covered. The soil is concealed beneath a mass of dark and dismal foliage, while long grass and prickly shrubs shoot up so densely and so close as to form an almost impenetrable barrier. It is still more awfully guarded by the pestilential vapours exhaling from those dark recesses, which make it at certain seasons a region of death. Hence the destruction which overtakes an army that encamps for any length of time near this valley,—an effect fatally experienced by the British detachments which were stationed on the frontiers of Bootan and Nepaul. Beneath these melancholy shades, too, the elephant, the tiger, and other wild animals, prowl unmolested; while the few human beings who occupy the vicinity present a meagre, dwarfish, and most sickly aspect.

In emerging from this dark and deadly plain, and beginning to ascend the lower mountain-stages, the visiter enjoys a much more pleasing scene. He passes now through smiling and fruitful valleys, overhung by the most romantic steeps, and covered to a great extent with the noblest forests. Amid trees similar to those which spread their majestic foliage on the banks of the Ganges, various species of the more hardy oak and the pine begin to appear. Some possess rich juices and aromatic odours not found among the lower woods; such as that peculiar mimosa, the fluid extracted from which yields the medical substance called catechu, and a species of cinnamon or rather cassia, the virtue of

which resides in its root. The prospects obtained from commanding points in these regions, consisting in a foreground of smiling and cultured vales, hills behind crowned with natural plantations, steeper and loftier ranges beyond, and in the distance the snow-clad tops of the highest mountain-chain, form a combination of the most sublime and enchanting scenery.

The Himalayah, as it ascends above the picturesque slopes which diversify its lower border, assumes a much bolder and severer aspect. The lofty ridge, the deep valley, the dashing torrent, produce a resemblance to the most elevated portions of our own central Highlands; and Scottish officers, accordingly, who happened to serve in that remote province, have fancied themselves wandering amid the romantic glens of their native country. Generally speaking, the character of this mountain-chain is rugged and stern; its ridges rise behind each other in awful array; but they enclose no rural scenes, nor present any gentle undulations. Their steep sides, sometimes wooded, sometimes presenting vast faces of naked rock, dip down abruptly, forming dark chasms and ravines, at the bottom of which there is only room for the torrent to force its way through rude fragments fallen from the cliffs above. A laborious task is imposed on the traveller, who has successively to mount and descend this series of lofty terraces, along rough and narrow paths that often skirt the most tremendous precipices. The expedients, too, provided for the passage of the rivers which dash through these gloomy hollows, are of the most slender and imperfect description. Two planks fastened to the point of opposite cliffs, called a *sanya* or *sankha*, are in many cases considered amply sufficient; others called *jhulas*, are formed by ropes stretched across, making a species of loose parapet, and supporting a light ladder for the feet to rest upon. Captain Webb met with an instance where there were nearly stretched from bank to bank two or three ropes, round which the passenger was expected to coil himself, and work his way across, having a hoop for the back to rest upon; those who could not effect this movement were pulled across by a cord.

So irregular is the surface of this territory that great difficulty occurs in finding a level space on which to build their towns. It is supposed that, in the whole extent of country surrounding Serinagur, there could not have been discovered another place on which to have erected that small city; and there is no spot between it and the great plain where a thousand men could encamp. At Nahn the passenger mounts through the principal street by a stair cut in the rock. Rampore, the chief town in the valley of the Upper Sutledge, is reached only over ledges of rocks and flights of steps; its houses rise in tiers above each other along the face of the steep, while the river tumbles beneath, and awful crags overhang it from above.

In consequence of this peculiar structure, these loftier regions of the Himalayah do not present that tranquil grandeur, and those picturesque views, which render the mountain-scenery of Europe so enchanting. They are rugged, gloomy, and monotonous. The mighty summits overhang no soft pastoral valleys, nor wave with varied foliage, nor are reflected in the bosom of still and transparent lakes. The traveller, hemmed in between their steep precipices, sees only the dark grandeur of the chasm through which he winds. Sometimes, however, on reaching a clear point, he finds himself in possession of a prospect bearing a character of the most awful sublimity. A spot, raised almost to an immeasurable height above the plain beneath, proves only the base, whence seven or eight successive ranges rise towards heaven, and terminate at length in a line of snowy pinnacles.

Mr. Royle, in his elegant and instructive work on the botany of the Himalayah, divides that region, in respect to vegetation, into three zones or belts. The first he considers as rising to the height of 5000 feet. The general temperature is here lowered, as usual, in proportion to the elevation, yet without the disappearance, to the extent that might be expected, of tropical plants. The southern exposure, the intense force of the sun's rays during the hot season, and the tropical rains falling in undiminished abundance, enable these to be brought to almost equal maturity as in the

upper part of the central plain. In Nepal, and other favourable situations, rice as a summer, and wheat as a winter crop, form the regular course of cultivation. But some of the more delicate plants are unable to resist exposure to the keen atmosphere and the nightly breezes; among which are the choicest of fruits, the mango and the pine-apple. At the same time, in the colder season, on elevated peaks, the plants of Europe and other temperate climates, are seen springing contiguously to those of the tropic. Snow is scarcely ever observed on this lower stage of the mountain territory.

The second belt is considered as reaching to the height of 9000 feet. Snow here falls constantly in winter, often to a great depth, but melts in early spring. Although the vegetation becomes more and more that of the temperate zone, yet the causes already stated enable tropical plants to climb beyond their natural height, and to mingle with those of a very different clime. In sheltered well-watered valleys, crops of rice are still successfully raised, while wheat grows on the heights above. But though the herbaceous plants are able to mount thus high, it is otherwise with trees, exposed to every vicissitude of the seasons. The palms and other Indian species are seen no longer, and the foliage appears exclusively European.

The third and most elevated belt reaches from the border of the latter to the summit of the Himalayah. The climate here is that of the more northern part of Europe and America, terminating in the perpetual snows of the arctic world. These, even in the lower districts, do not melt till May or June, when the extreme cold of winter is suddenly succeeded by the most intense heat. The rays of the sun, indeed, beat fiercely and painfully, even when the atmosphere is so little affected by them that the thermometer stands many degrees below the freezing point; and hence the traveller is scorched amidst almost unbearable cold,—extremes which always prove distressing, and sometimes fatal. The territory called Bhot, constituting the most elevated portion, has the severity of the climate aggravated by its rocky surface, so that

not above a sixteenth part of it is fit for cultivation; yet, even here, under circumstances not at all favourable, vegetation displays a luxuriance which could little be expected at so great a height. Buckwheat and barley are generally raised with success. At 12,000 feet, Captain Webb saw the finest grain, and at 11,680, he observed forests of oak, and beds of strawberries and currants in full blossom. The pasturage, in consequence probably of copious moisture, combined with the power of the sun's rays, grows with a luxuriance almost unequalled. The natives, prone to exaggeration, assert it to be inexhaustible, so that whatever has been reaped during the day is restored in the following night. A productive field, however, is occasionally ruined by the descent of glaciers, or beds of snow, which do not melt for several years. It is alleged, indeed, by the inhabitants, that there is a gradual lowering of the frozen line, and that the snow covers woods and fields which were once entirely free from it.

Notwithstanding the shattered and rocky aspect of those precipices, they are yet covered with vast masses of hanging wood. Amidst the wild, tall and majestic forests of pine, larch, spruce, and silver fir, sometimes even of cypress and cedar, grow, flourish, and decay; for there are no means of conveying the timber to any spot where it might be subservient to human use or ornament. With these trees are intermingled numerous bushes loaded with the fruits which form the luxury of the northern regions of Europe; gooseberry, raspberry, strawberry, all unknown to the plains below. In sheltered spots, the wild rose, the lily of the valley, cowslip, dandelion, and various other flowers, are seen bursting through the green carpet. The trees and rocks in the higher districts are richly clothed with moss and lichen, the vegetation of the countries bordering on the arctic circle; a specimen of the latter has even been observed resembling that which flourishes in Iceland, and which is imported for medicinal purposes under the name of Iceland moss. 2.

After passing the crest of the Himalayah, and descending the northern side, quite a different scene opens to the view. The

periodical rains, which plentifully water all the opposite face, cannot pass that tremendous barrier. Snow also falls in much smaller quantity, and is more easily melted. The same luxuriant verdure and vegetation no longer clothe those remote heights, which are described by Jacquemont as steep and naked, covered with shrubs, parched grass, and debris washed down by the waters. Yet it is remarkable that a mild climate, fit for the production of valuable grain, reaches to a considerably greater elevation here than even on the southern face. In the Tartar pergunnah of Hungarung, the village of Nako, 12,000 feet high, was seen surrounded by the most luxuriant crops of wheat and barley. A hamlet, in the north-east of Kunawur, at 14,900 feet, is described by Dr. Gerard as being encompassed with the finest fields of the latter; and it appeared to him that culture might be carried to the height of 16,000 or 17,000 feet. Even the grasses, though having a withered appearance, are of a nutritious species, and afford subsistence to numerous flocks and herds. Passes 20,000 feet high have, in this region, been found clear of snow. It is remarkable that, on coming to the outer face of one of these mountains, even with a southern exposure, the temperature is greatly diminished. The case is the same with peaks projected into the air, like promontories into the ocean; though the cause of the peculiar mildness in this enclosed part of the great range seems not to be fully understood. Mr. Royle suggests the reflection of the sun's rays from opposite mountains, and the warm vapours ascending from the sheltered valleys which lie between them.

The animal world in this higher region undergoes a change equally striking with the vegetable. The elephant and tiger, kings of the forests beneath, disappear, or are very seldom seen. Depredations are chiefly committed by the wild cat, the bear, and the hog. The chamois bounds from rock to rock, and the forests are filled with deer of various species; of which the most rare and precious is that producing the musk. It is found only in the loftiest heights, amid rocks which the human foot scarcely dares

to tread. The most intense cold is so essential to its life, that the young, on being brought down to a warm situation, usually perish in a few days. The forests at all the more moderate elevations are filled with flocks of such fowls as are elsewhere domesticated, here running about wild, tempting the pursuit of the sportsman; but, as they very seldom take wing, they are with difficulty reached by the gun. The peacock displays his glittering plumage only on the lower hills. The sovereign eagle is seldom descried amid the cliffs, which are inhabited by kites, hawks, and others of the minor predatory birds. Partridges and pheasants are numerous and of various species; the latter are even seen flying amid the snows at a great elevation. Bees swarm in all the lower districts, making their hives in the hollows of trees; these the natives plunder by merely raising a loud noise, which causes the swarm to issue forth and leave the honey unprotected.

The domestic animals, fed by the natives on their rich pastures, are the common black cattle of India, combined with the yak of Thibet. A mule bred between the two is also very common. The latter produces with either of the pure species, and even with its own kind, though in this last case it soon degenerates. Sheep and goats are also reared in large numbers, not only for the ordinary purposes of food and clothing, but for the conveyance of merchandise, which they alone are fitted to transport over the steep mountain-passes. Besides the common sheep, there is another breed, powerful, and long-legged, and able to bear more than double the burden of the other; its wool is also very fine.

The most elevated part of this stupendous range is that to the north of Bengal, along the heads of the Gogra, the Ganges, and the Jumna, and westward as far as the Sutledge. In this line there are supposed to be at least twenty-eight peaks higher than Chimborazo; and several appear, upon strict measurement, to reach 25,000 feet. Three, farther to the north, seen at different times, but at some distance, by Moorcroft, Gerard, and a govern-

ment surveyor, could not, it was thought by these gentlemen, fall short of 29,000 or even 30,000 feet. This sublime formation, supposed to be 1000 miles in length and eighty in breadth, does not enclose anything that can properly be called a table-land; for though, from the plain, it appears like a succession of ridges, in the interior it is found composed of arms, radiating in every direction, intersected by deep ravines, through which the waters struggle, and are often turned in opposite directions. Their line is so winding and irregular, that the traveller is usually obliged to cross the summit of the ridge, as if no openings existed. It is observed, too, that the north-western face is always rugged, while that to the north-east is shelving. The declivity towards Thibet is small, when compared to the descent on the southern side; indicating the great elevation of that country, which is estimated not to fall short of 15,000 feet.

Westward of the Sutledge, the Himalayah greatly declines, or rather, according to Baron Hügel, it stretches in a northern direction, along the frontier of Thibet, detaching only an inferior branch along the Indian border. The white summits are no longer seen in a continuous line, but appear only singly, and at some distance. The most western is Tricota Devi, a beautiful three-peaked mountain, and beyond it a break occurs, which, however, to an eye looking from India, is filled up by more distant masses. Southward of Cashmere, the Peer Pandjahl, as it is called, rears its snowy head, though not altogether to the same stupendous height; and it is continued to the Hindoo Coosh, which separates Cabul from Tartary.

A natural division of this high country is formed by the narrow valleys, or rather ravines, furrowed out by those mighty rivers which descend from the heights to water the plains of Hindostan. These glens, all deep, dark, and enclosed by precipitous walls, have each, besides, its own peculiar aspect; and a late traveller has enabled us to form some idea of the leading features which distinguish those of the Sutledge, the Pabur, the Jumna, and the Bagharuttee, or principal head of the Ganges.

The glen of the Sutledge is little more than a profound and gloomy chasm, without the romantic beauty produced by swelling banks or fringing woods. Cultivation appears only on a few scattered patches; no villages smile along its border, though numerous forts frown over its steeps. The Pabur, a tributary of the Jumna, presents a pleasing variety compared to this or to any other ravine of the Himalayah. It rolls through a vale of moderate breadth; its banks and the slopes above are beautifully studded with fields, woods, and villages; while brown hills, tipped with rocks and snow, tower in the background. The Jumna, again, has its borders generally bold and savage; all its higher tracts, too, consist of mighty rocks and precipices buried under huge masses of snow. Yet the lower grounds are wooded; and along the river are seen some narrow vales, rising into slopes covered with cultivation and verdure, which diversify even its wildest scenes with a mixture of softness and elegance. The banks of the Bagharuttee, a broader stream, which has worn a still deeper bed through the mountain-strata, are beyond all others repulsive, and equally destitute of beauty and life. These solitary steeps, too, are only scantily clothed with the foliage of the sombre fir; the cliffs, shattered and splintered, are not even tinted with moss or lichen, but, bearing the dusky colours of their natural fracture, shoot up on every side into pinnacles of amazing height.

But, notwithstanding the gloomy aspect of these mountain-scenes, there are a few places in which they open out into smiling plains of considerable extent. The valleys of Nepaul, indeed, besides being very narrow, belong rather to the region of the lower hills. Considerably higher is found the Rama Serai, or the Happy Valley, where little eminences, villages, and richly cultivated fields, combine to form a delightful scene. The most extensive opening, however, takes place at its western extremity, where these great ridges enclose the little kingdom of Cashmere, which, beyond any other spot on earth, seems to merit the appellation of a terrestrial paradise. Numerous rivulets flowing down the mountain-sides diffuse verdure and beauty over the hills

and vales, and in the plains expand into an extensive lake, profusely adorned with all the pomp of art and nature. The Mogul sovereigns had erected on the banks of this sheet of water gay palaces and pavilions, to which they were wont to repair as their most pleasing retreat from the toils of empire. The poets vie with each other in celebrating the delights of this enchanting valley. They extol particularly the rose of Cashmere as possessing beauty without a rival, the opening of whose buds is held by their countrymen as a national festival. M. Jacquemont, a very recent traveller, considers these descriptions of the country as exaggerated; though Baron Hügel, who visited it in 1835, thinks that none can be too flattering. The flora is entirely that of Europe, and particularly of Lombardy; the gigantic plane-tree, the vine, the poplar, cover the lower grounds; while on the heights hang majestic forests of cedar and pine. The level part of the valley, nearly 5000 feet above the sea, is about eighty miles long and from six to thirty broad; but between the eternal snows of the opposite Pandjahls, or mountain-ridges, from fifty to sixty miles intervene. Shalimar alone, of the gay palaces erected by the Mogul, is still standing. The beauty of the Cashmerian maidens has also been highly celebrated throughout the East; and though M. Jacquemont professes scepticism upon this point, he gives a solution of his doubt, by mentioning the painful circumstance that almost all who possess good looks are in early life sold and carried away as slaves.

The passes which extend across this tremendous ridge into Thibet are of extreme and peculiar difficulty. From the structure of the mountains the roads must generally be carried nearly over their summits, rising sometimes as high as 20,000 feet. They are in most cases formed by a precarious track along the alpine torrent, which dashes in an unbroken sheet of foam, through dark ravines bordered by precipitous mountain-walls ascending above the clouds. Down the perpendicular faces of these stupendous avenues descend almost continual showers of stony fragments, broken off from the cliffs above. Occasionally large por-

tions of rock are detached, and roll down in heaps, effacing every path which has been formed beneath, filling the beds of the rivers, and converting them into cataracts. The whole side of a mountain has been seen thus parted, and spread in fragments at its base. Trees torn up, and precipitated into the abyss, lie stretched with their branches on the earth, and their roots turned up to the sky. Yet through these tremendous passes, and across all these mighty obstructions, the daring industry of mortals has contrived to form tracks, narrow indeed, as well as fearful and perilous, but by means of which Thibet and India find it possible to exchange their respective commodities. Nothing, it is true, resembling a waggon, not even the ordinary beasts of burden, can pass this way. The goods, as already suggested, are placed on the backs of goats and sheep, which alone can scramble along these precipitous routes, though, in other respects, these animals are ill-fitted for such a laborious employment. Goats, in descending, are often pressed down by the load, while sheep, if at all urged, are very apt to run,—a movement which is here attended with the utmost peril. In some cases human aid is required, and these patient quadrupeds are raised and lowered by slings. The principal passes are those of Niti and Mana, by the heads of the Ganges; Juwar, Darma, and Byanse, by those of the Gogra. They are connected by a few cross-paths; but these are uncertain, and passable only in the very height of summer.

In proceeding along these stupendous heights, the traveller occasionally experiences a distressing sensation. The atmosphere, rarefied to excess, becomes nearly unfit for supporting respiration,—the action of the lungs being impeded, the slightest fatigue overpowers him,—he stops at every three or four steps, gasping for breath,—the skin is painful, and blood bursts from the lips,—sometimes he is affected by giddiness in the head and a tendency to vertigo. The natives, who are also seized with these symptoms without being able to divine the physical cause, ascribe them to *bis*, or *bish*, meaning air poisoned, as they imagine, by the deleterious odour of certain flowers. A little observation would have

shown them that the flowers in these regions have scarcely any scent; while it is in the most elevated tracts, where all vegetation has ceased, that the feelings in question become the most severe and oppressive.

The arrangements for facilitating a passage over these frightful cliffs are still more perilous than those employed on the lower declivities. Rude staircases are constructed along the precipices, by which the traveller is invited to make his way. The road in some places is formed merely by posts driven into the side of the steep, over which branches of trees and earth are spread, affording a narrow footpath, suspended at a fearful height above the torrent, and shaking beneath the tread of the passenger.

Amid these awful scenes there are two spots peculiarly sacred and sublime; those, namely, where the Jumna and the Ganges, the two rivers which give grandeur and fertility to the plain of Hindostan, burst from beneath the eternal snows. No mortal foot has yet ascended to their original springs, situated in the most elevated recesses of the mountains. There they issue forth as torrents, amid broken masses of granite, to force their way through the deep glens of the middle Himalayah. Above them, huge piles of rock and heaps of snow rise higher and higher, till they shoot up into the two amazing peaks of Roodroo Himala and Jumnavatari.

Jumnotree is situated at the foot of the immense mountain-mass of Bunderpouch, the upper section of which is entirely buried in snow; but the brow which overhangs the village is rendered green by the trickling of numberless rills that fall down and unite in a broad basin, the fountain of the Jumna. The highest peak that towers above is estimated by Mr. Colebrooke at 25,500 feet, which, however, Mr. Fraser suspects to be considerably overrated. The river is here swelled by numerous hot springs issuing from the rocky banks, or from pools in its own current. Captain Hodgson penetrated to several of these fountains that lay concealed beneath vast beds of snow, which, being melted by the exhalations, were formed into spacious halls resembling vaulted roofs of marble.

The mountain-scenery which surrounds Gangoutri, where the infant Ganges bursts into view, is still more sublime and amazing. The traveller winds his way to this place, clambering over steep rocks, or creeping along the face of precipices, where flights of steps are formed by posts driven into the crevices. At length he reaches the village, consisting only of a few huts and the temple dedicated to Mahadeo. Here the naked and pointed cliffs, shooting up to the skies, with confused masses of rock lying at their feet, and only a few trees rooting themselves in the deep chasms, make the spectator feel as if he trode on the ruins of a former world. Shattered precipices, which frown over the temple, have strewn the vicinity with enormous fragments of granite, destined probably one day to overwhelm the edifice itself. A few old pines throw a dark shade over the troubled waters, whose roar is heard beneath, mingled with the stifled but fearful sound of the stones borne down by the current. Rocky heights shut in the prospect on every side except towards the east, where, behind a crowd of naked spires, the view is bounded by the four snowy peaks of Roodroo Himala.

Mr. Fraser attempted to trace the Ganges above Gangoutri to a spot famous in India under the appellation of "The Cow's Mouth," the river being represented as rushing there from beneath the snows through an aperture bearing that particular form. The ruggedness of the banks and other obstacles obliged him to return; but Captain Hodgson, after three days of severe toil, reached this memorable spot, and saw the stream issuing from under a perpendicular wall of frozen snow, with numerous depending icicles, in a manner not very dissimilar to that which Indian report had led him to expect.

The two places above mentioned, with the lower shrines of Bhadrinath and Kedarnath, and indeed the whole of this region, possess a peculiarly sacred character in the eyes of the Hindoo, and are the scene of many of the most remarkable fictions in his poetical mythology. They are esteemed the chosen dwelling of Siva or Mahadeo, the third person in the Hindoo trinity, who, in

withdrawing from Lunka or Ceylon, threw up, it is pretended, the Himalayah as his place of retreat. Dewtas, or spirits, are imagined to haunt the inaccessible glens, and by feigned sounds to allure the unfortunate passenger into their recesses, whence he never returns to the living world. Pilgrimage, the favourite form of Hindoo devotion, is most frequently performed into these mysterious solitudes, where many, however, in attempting to penetrate by the rugged paths buried in snow, either perish, or lose partially the use of their limbs. The perils which bar the approach to Gangoutri deter the greater number of the devotees, who ascend from the great fair at Hurdwar, from proceeding beyond the lower shrine of Bhadrinath, which, in the year when Captain Webb was there, had been visited by between 45,000 and 50,000 pilgrims.

The Deccan or Southern Peninsula, which alone remains to be described, presents none of those singular features that distinguish the great central plain and its northern boundary. Hills occasionally rising to the rank of mountains, and enclosing tablelands of various elevation, diversify its surface, and procure for it at once the climate and vegetation of the tropical and of the temperate zones. But the most prominent feature is a range of heights corresponding to the triangular form of this part of the continent. The northern border consists in a tract of high country stretching from the Gulf of Cambay to the Bay of Bengal, chiefly along both banks of the Nerbudda, and composing the provinces of Malwah, Candeish, and Gundwana, to which has been given the appellation of Central India. It is known by the name of the Vyndhya chain; yet it is so widely extended, and of such moderate height, seldom exceeding 2000 feet, that it seems rather a very rough and broken table-land than a regular mountain-range. Various local names are given to its branches. In some of the districts rise perpendicular heights, with a plain at the top, on which, as already mentioned, are constructed those strong hill-forts peculiar to that part of the world. From its extremities extend southward two parallel chains, called the

Ghats, which, at a greater or less distance, girdle the whole of the opposite coasts of Malabar and Coromandel.

The Western Ghats, which range along the Indian Ocean, stand generally at a small distance from the sea, and sometimes approach so close that their cliffs are washed by its waves. More commonly at ten or twelve miles from the shore, they rear their peaks, crowned, not like those of the Himalayah with the trees of the temperate or arctic zones, but with the stately palms and aromatic shrubs which form the pride of tropical groves. The most valuable of these productions are the plant bearing the pepper,—the betel, whose leaves are the universal masticatory in India,—the areca-palm, the nut of which is chewed along with the betel,—the sago-palm, whence flows a rich and nourishing juice,—and the cocoa-palm, so famed for its numerous and important uses. Higher than all towers the teak-tree, whose timber, stronger and more durable than that of the British oak, forms the material of Oriental navies. This chain does not in the northern part reach above 3000 feet. Near Bombay, the Peak of Mahabuleshwar, 5000 feet high, affords a convenient station for invalids from that city. But it is on the coast of Canara and Malabar, southward of the fifteenth degree of latitude, that this range attains its greatest height, shooting up pinnacles of granite 6000 feet. At the boundary of Mysore there crosses the continent a ridge called the Nilgerries, the highest in all this part of India, having one peak estimated at 8700 feet, which has lately become a most important sanitary retreat. Mr. Royle conceives this group as joining together and closing the parallel chain of the two Ghats, so that from thence only a single arm stretches southward to Cape Comorin. The western coast is in general very low, and traversed by numerous rivers flowing parallel to the shore, thus affording great convenience for inland navigation.

The Eastern Ghats, rising behind the Coromandel coast, are generally less lofty, but spread into more numerous branches, and over a wider surface. They leave also a broader plain between them and the sea; yet, unless in the deltas of the great rivers,

which from the west cross the Ghauts, and fall into the Bay of Bengal, this space bears somewhat of a naked and arid character. There occur even extensive tracts of sandy soil impregnated with saline substances, which in some degree taint the atmosphere. More to the north, in Orissa and the Circars, the high grounds often advance close to the sea, and consist to a great extent of mountain and jungle, continuing in a more uncultivated state, and peopled by more uncivilized races, than almost any other part of India. Cuttack, again, a district approaching the Ganges, is so low as to be liable to frequent inundations from the sea, which, in 1830, 1831, 1832, and 1833, broke the bounds or barriers, and overflowed numerous fields.

These three ranges enclose a table-land, elevated nearly two thousand feet above the level of the ocean, and comprising the main body of Southern India. The south-western track, the original seat of Mahratta power, forms a hilly country, not extremely rugged, but interspersed with deep valleys. In its aspect it is decidedly highland, and is a fit residence for a pastoral people of predatory habits. The central region, composing the once powerful kingdoms of Golconda and Bejapore, comprehends extensive plains, secured by their elevation from the scorching heats which afflict the territory along the coast. The surface is generally level, and possesses much fertility, though diversified by those insulated steeps which supply a position for the almost impregnable hill-forts. The extreme southern district, called the Carnatic, is divided into two table-lands, the Balaghaut and the Mysore, considerably higher than those of the Deccan, and on that account including a greater variety of climate, soil, and production.

The mountain-scenery of Southern India in general, though wanting those features which invest the Himalayah with so sublime a character, is beautiful, striking, and picturesque. It assimilates more to that of Wales and Scotland,—with this peculiarity, that it never rises above the limit of the richest vegetation, and has its highest summits crowned with woods and

verdure. The greater part is under cultivation ; though there is distributed over it a considerable portion of jungle, rock, forest, and even of sandy waste.

The political condition of the different regions of India varies strikingly according to the peculiarities in their physical circumstances. The great central plain, for example, has generally, from the earliest ages, been the seat of an empire whose greatness and splendour have eclipsed those of almost every other country. Some detached portions, as Bengal in the east, and the Punjaub in the west, have been frequently divided from the main body ; but, under a vigorous and warlike dynasty, they have been as often reunited. It might have been expected that India, separated from other countries by a vast ocean and the loftiest mountain-barrier on earth, would have been secured from foreign aggression ; but nothing could check the avarice and ambition which were attracted by the fame of her great wealth. That ocean has been passed,—those mountain-barriers have been scaled,—and during many generations she has submitted without hope of deliverance to the yoke of the stranger.

The power which bears rule over this central empire has usually aspired to the dominion of the whole ; but the success of such undertakings has been only partial and temporary. They have been chiefly directed towards the extensive plains of the Deccan, which have in fact for ages been under foreign sway,—composed of branches broken off from the great trunk of Mogul dominion. In the most southern quarter, the table-lands and coasts have been shared among a number of little kingdoms, wealthy, populous, and civilized. These have often owned allegiance, and even paid tribute, to the Mogul, or more frequently to the Deccan rulers ; but in all essential respects they have ranked as independent states.

The mountain-regions of Northern India have enjoyed a happier lot, and been inhabited generally by races different from those which occupy the lower parts of the peninsula. The rugged tracts of the higher Himalayah are possessed by bold, fierce,

semi-Tartar tribes, who scarcely acknowledge the supremacy of the several powers which govern the adjacent plains. They have even from time to time harassed their neighbours by predatory inroads ; but their small number, and the strong barriers by which they are separated, have prevented them from forming any extensive schemes of conquest.

Since the war with Nepaul, a considerable tract has been annexed to the British dominion—to which officers of the Bengal presidency are now in the habit of resorting with a view to the restoration of health. At Simla and Landour, government have formed stations for invalids ; and, in the vicinity of those places, villas built by opulent Europeans stud the summit of hills rising 7000 or 8000 feet above the sea, and commanding extensive views into the regions of perpetual snow.

## CHAPTER II.

### KNOWLEDGE OF INDIA AMONG THE ANCIENTS.

India early known to the Ancients—Accounts in Scripture of its Trade—Bacchus—Sesostris—Expedition of Semiramis—Conquest by Darius—Accounts by Herodotus and Ctesias—Expedition of Alexander—He is obliged to return—Voyage down the Indus—Voyage of Nearchus—Alexander's March through Gedrosia—Accounts of India obtained by this Channel—Kingdoms of Syria and of Bactria—Its Numismatic Remains—Mercantile Voyage from Egypt to India—Coasts which were then visited.

INDIA, to the view of the earliest Greek and Roman writers, appeared an almost inaccessible region; the extensive seas which intervene being in the infancy of navigation considered quite impassable. The inland route, besides its very great length and the imperfect means of conveyance, lay partly across the loftiest ridge of mountains in the world, partly through deserts as dreary as those of Arabia. Yet the country had features which, seen even at this mysterious distance, strongly attracted attention among the civilized nations of antiquity. Its wealth and large population made it one of the principal objects of ambition to those great conquerors who aimed at universal empire; its fabrics, the most beautiful that human art has anywhere produced, were sought by merchants at the expense of the greatest toils and dangers; and the manners of its people, as well as the maxims of its sages, had something original and peculiar, which strongly excited philosophical inquiry. For these reasons, from the first moment that its existence became known down to the present day, Hindostan has continued to hold a conspicuous name in the Western world.

In the sacred volume, which contains the earliest of our historical records, no statement is made whence we might conclude that the Jews had arrived at any knowledge of India. The Great River (Euphrates), and the territory immediately beyond it, appeared to them the most remote objects to the eastward, and are described under the appellation of the "ends of the earth."

Yet those writings make a direct allusion to the extensive caravan routes, formed at an early period for conveying the manufactures of that opulent region into the kingdoms of the West. We cannot hesitate to believe, with Dr. Vincent, that the embroidered work, and chests of rich apparel bound with cords, mentioned by Ezekiel (xxvii. 23) as brought from Haran, Canneh, and other towns on the Euphrates, were not produced by the ingenuity of the nations on that river, but drawn from the more distant countries of Eastern Asia. We have little doubt, also, that the trade across Arabia, by way of Dedan and Idumea, and of which "precious cloths" are mentioned as the staple, was an Indian trade.

Bacchus, in the classic mythology, is named as the conqueror of India; but this tradition, though probably not destitute of some foundation, is so enveloped in fable that we can attach to it little historical importance. Whether that country was at all included in the wide career of invasion, rather than of conquest, pursued by Sesostrius, seems extremely doubtful; though some light may perhaps be thrown upon the subject by the researches now in progress for the interpretation of Egyptian hieroglyphics.

The next expedition into the East, which is described in more ample detail, was that accomplished by Semiramis, the celebrated queen of Assyria. Although the knowledge possessed by the Greeks respecting the early Asiatic empires is exceedingly imperfect, yet the great fame of this enterprise, and the various shapes in which it has been reported, leave little room to doubt that it was actually undertaken. In the absence of a narrative on which a fuller dependence might be placed, recourse must be had to the account given by Diodorus. The Assyrian queen, it is said, having extended her dominion widely over Western Asia, till even Bactria was comprehended within it, and having been informed that India was the most populous, the most wealthy, and the most beautiful of kingdoms, determined to employ all the resources of her empire in attempting its conquest. Only two circumstances made this great exploit appear impracticable. One

was the broad and rapid stream of the Indus, with the entire want of vessels fitted for its passage; the other was the strength and formidable character of the war-elephants, the very aspect of which struck terror into troops unaccustomed to their presence. To supply these deficiencies, the queen engaged naval architects from Phenicia, Cyprus, and other maritime districts; and, as proper materials were not to be found on the banks of the river, she caused vessels suited to its navigation to be constructed at Bactra, and conveyed thence overland. For supplying the want of elephants a still more singular plan was devised. Three hundred thousand oxen were slain, and their hides formed into the shape of the huge animals to be represented, within which camels and men were introduced as the moving power. After three years spent in these extraordinary preparations, she sent forward her armies, which some writers describe as amounting to several millions of combatants; but the narrative of Ctesias, itself much exaggerated, estimates them at three hundred thousand foot, five hundred thousand horse, while two thousand boats and the mock elephants were conveyed on the backs of camels. Stabrobates, the Indian king, was ready to meet them on the eastern bank, with four thousand boats framed out of the reeds (canes) which grew in abundance on its marshy borders. At the same time he collected, from the various districts of India, an army even greater than that of Semiramis, supported by a numerous body of elephants. The two powers first encountered each other in the river-stream, where the queen gained a decided advantage, sinking many of the enemy's barks, and obtaining possession of both shores. She then constructed a spacious bridge, by which the whole army passed, and advanced against her adversaries. In front the pretended elephants ranged in order of battle, somewhat surprised and appalled the native troops; but Stabrobates, having learned by means of deserters the real composition of these fictitious quadrupeds, prepared without apprehension to encounter them. As long as the contest was confined to the cavalry, victory inclined to the side of Assyria; but as soon as the real

and mighty war-elephants, on the most powerful of which the king himself was mounted, rushed to the attack, the artificial semblances opposed to them, wholly unable to sustain the shock, were soon resolved into their constituent elements, who fled in dismay, and, being pursued, were many of them trampled under foot. The whole army was completely routed, and Semiramis brought back scarcely a third of her host; some authors even maintain that she herself perished in the expedition. At all events, the conquest of India appears not to have been again attempted by any of the Assyrian or Babylonian monarchs.

Darius, the Persian, is mentioned as the next who undertook to explore and to conquer that vast country. Having reached the Indus, he determined to trace its course till it should fall into the ocean. In this important service he employed Scylax the Caryandean, the most distinguished naval commander of that early age, who sailed down the stream, and, after a navigation of two years and a half, arrived in Egypt,—a most extensive, and at that period most arduous voyage, of which, unfortunately, no detailed account has been preserved. The historian then simply informs us, that “Darius subdued the Indians;” and it appears that he drew from their country a more ample tribute than from any other province of his wide dominions,—paid too in gold, the most valuable of commodities. Yet the description of Herodotus, brief and indistinct as it is, shows that the power of the conqueror extended over only a very small portion of India. The simple statement that this country was bounded on the east by vast sandy deserts, forming on that side the limit of the known world, renders it manifest that *his* India included nothing beyond the western provinces of Moulton, Lahore, and possibly Guzerat. His details, which are truly defective, seem applicable to some rude mountain-tribe rather than to the inhabitants of a great and civilized empire; yet the particulars, when narrowly examined, indicate the early existence of the same features by which the land of the Hindoos is still distinguished. The wool growing on trees like fruit, more beautiful and valuable than that produced

from sheep, and like it used for clothing, is evidently cotton,—a substance then unknown in the West. The statement, too, that some natives kill no living thing, but subsist wholly on herbs, points out a characteristic fact in Indian manners; while the assertion that others of them neither cultivate the ground nor inhabit houses, clearly applies to the superstitious practices of the yogues or fakirs. The Padaei, probably a mountain-horde, are described as living on raw flesh, while the people bordering on the river are said to subsist on raw fish. The singular statement that when any one, male or female, falls sick, his relations kill him, and feed upon the body, as well as another passage asserting that those who feel themselves indisposed go out into the desert, and die without any one caring for them, may have been suggested by the various forms of self-immolation, which, if not urged, are at least permitted, by the nearest kindred. A remarkable notice is conveyed respecting the great quantity of gold found in mines and in the beds of rivers; to which is appended an odd story respecting huge ants that defend this treasure, and often give chase to those who attempt to collect it.

The work of Ctesias, who, after the time of Herodotus, communicated the information collected during a long residence in Persia, is known to us only through the medium of some fragments preserved by Photius and other authors. The knowledge of India in his time does not appear to have been any farther extended. He mentions no river except the Indus, yet says that the inhabitants in its neighbourhood are the remotest people known to the eastward; so that his intelligence evidently terminated with the western desert, and did not include the vast regions which compose the proper Hindostan. Yet, even under this limited view, he relates that it surpassed in number all other nations; and hence it may be inferred, that the country, even in that early age, was populous and highly cultivated. His descriptions of the animals and vegetables, though bearing some traces of truth, are greatly mixed with fable. Some light, however, is thrown on the reports of Herodotus concerning the gold of India, which is here stated to

be found, not like that of Pactolus in the beds of rivers, but in extensive and rugged mountains, haunted by wild beasts of peculiar form and fierceness. For this reason, it is added, only a small quantity of the precious metal could be extracted from the mines; and it is probable that their remote and difficult situation led to an exaggerated idea of their real importance.

Much more ample information respecting this quarter of the globe was obtained from the expedition of Alexander, though that great conqueror did not pass or perhaps even reach the limit which had arrested the progress of Darius. Having overrun the whole Persian empire as far as Bactra (Balkh), the capital of Bactria, and finding it everywhere subdued and submissive, he determined to cross the mountains, and complete the subjugation of the known world by conquering India. He cleared the ridge of Paropamisus, probably by the great caravan-route between Balkh and Candahar, without having suffered any serious loss, though it is admitted that the reduction of the strongholds by which the passes of the mountains were guarded gave occasion to several arduous conflicts. He then marched eastward, and reached the Indus at or near Attock, where its breadth is considerably less than in most other parts of its lower course; and he crossed it without encountering any obstacles, but such as arose from the rapidity of the current. Although this hero founded his claim to India on its being a province of the Persian empire, transferred to him by right of conquest, the truth appears to be, that during the weak reigns of the successors of Darius, every trace of their dominion had been entirely obliterated; the country not being even united under one sovereign, but parcelled out among numerous independent chiefs. The first whose territories the Macedonian entered was named Taxiles, or Tacshailas, who, either considering resistance hopeless, or expecting to derive advantage from the Greek alliance, immediately joined him with all his forces. But when the conqueror reached the Hydaspes, he found its opposite bank occupied by Porus, or Phoor, with a very numerous army, composed of stronger men and braver troops than those whom he

had so easily vanquished in Persia, and selected, it is probable, from the Rajputs and mountain-tribes, the most warlike part of the Hindoo population. The difficulties of the invading army were increased by the rainy season, which had swelled the river to a height that made it impossible for the soldiers to ford it. Alexander, however, displayed his generalship by taking advantage of a wooded island at some distance below; to which, while making a feigned attempt in another quarter, he transported the flower of his phalanx as well as the best of his cavalry. These, having easily defeated the small force which hastened to oppose their landing, were soon drawn up in order of battle. Porus without delay attacked the strangers; and his defeat, his noble bearing in captivity, and the generous treatment bestowed upon him, are well-known events in the history of the Grecian prince.

Alexander having overcome this formidable enemy, pressed onward, and soon arrived on the banks of the Hyphasis, the modern Sutledge, and the last of that series of rivers which water the Punjab. But here his progress was arrested by the celebrated mutiny, which seems to have originated in the opinion of his followers, from the highest to the lowest, that no farther advance could be made with advantage or safety. The extensive desert which it was necessary to pass, joined to the great magnitude and populousness of the eastern regions, rendered the attempt at invasion most hazardous, and precluded almost every hope of being able to preserve any conquests which they might make in so remote a quarter. Their leader was therefore obliged to set bounds to his vast ambition, and to resign the fondly cherished hope of reaching the Ganges, and the supposed extremity of the world.

It behoved Alexander to commence the disagreeable task of returning towards Assyria; but he resolved at least to vary his route, and thereby to extend his acquaintance with the country which he had overrun. Among his other great qualities he was animated with an ardent thirst for knowledge, and particularly for geographical discovery. In retracing his steps towards Babylon, therefore, which he made his Asiatic capital, it appeared to him

that he might have an opportunity of determining the course of the Indus and the southern limits of Asia. He was encouraged by an idea, and even belief, which to us it appears astonishing he could even for a moment have cherished, that the Indus and the Nile were the same river. But we must not, from the full light we now enjoy, denounce too severely the imperfect steps by which the ancients groped their way in that twilight of science. The voyage of Scylax being probably forgotten or doubted, and the shores of Asia as well as the situation of the Arabian and Persian Gulfs continuing still very imperfectly known, the imagined circuit uniting the two rivers might appear by no means impossible.

Having formed this resolution, he proceeded to execute it with his characteristic activity. Having found on the banks of the Hydaspes an ample store of excellent timber, he employed the Phenicians and other maritime people belonging to his army to construct out of it a fleet of more than two thousand vessels, of which eighty had three banks of oars. He put some of his troops on board, while strong detachments encamped on either side of the stream. After solemn sacrifices, celebrated both in the Grecian and Indian manner, this great armament began its movement. The varied and imposing spectacle,—the shouting of the troops,—the brandishing of so many thousand oars, as the flotilla dropped down the majestic river,—filled with admiration the natives, who watched its progress to a considerable distance. Some time was spent in attacking certain strong places of the Malli (people of Moulton), who are accused by the Greek historians of a hostile disposition, although their whole conduct seems to have been strictly defensive; and Alexander appears to have rashly sacrificed many of his soldiers, and even endangered his own life, in making conquests which he could never hope to retain. After the voyage down the Indus, which from various causes was protracted to nine months, he found, enclosed by the branches of that river, the large insular territory of Pattala. On his approach the inhabitants fled, and allowed him to occupy their capital without resistance.

Farther down, the stream divided itself into two spacious channels; in descending one of which his followers were much surprised and alarmed, when the water, suddenly receding, left a great part of the ships on dry land. Next day it rose again and floated the vessels; and hence it was soon perceived that these alternations were occasioned by the tide, and that the Indus, once supposed to reach the plain of Egypt, was already approaching its termination. The king then put a stop to the progress of the main fleet, and sailed down with a few vessels to the mouth of the river, where he beheld, spreading before him as far as the eye could reach, the magnificent expanse of the ocean. Exulting to have thus, as he conceived, reached one of the grand boundaries of the earth, he formed the idea of turning his discovery to the advantage of science, and perhaps of commerce. He proposed to employ a small squadron in surveying the coast, from this point to the entrance of the Euphrates, where the expedition might join the army which he was now preparing to lead back to Babylon. The enterprise, however, appeared so very hazardous, that none of the naval chiefs were willing to undertake it except Nearchus, the most distinguished of their number and admiral of the fleet. Alexander hesitated much before he would consent to expose so precious a life; but finding that no other would volunteer, he at length yielded his concurrence.

Nearchus accordingly performed his celebrated voyage along the coast; during which he suffered very severely, chiefly from the great scarcity of provisions, as a large extent of the land was completely desert, and the rest inhabited by rude tribes, from whom no supplies could be obtained except by violence. At length he entered the Persian Gulf, where he found a fertile and friendly shore, in which all the wants of the fleet were supplied, and where his crews soon recruited their strength. Here, with great joy, he learned that the Grecian camp was pitched at the distance of only a few days' journey in the interior. He accordingly set out with five of his officers, who received the most hearty congratulations from their sovereign and countrymen who

by that time had almost resigned every hope of their return. Alexander himself, in marching through Gedrosia, the modern Mekran and Beloochistan, saw his army exposed to miseries and dangers, greater, if possible, than the sailors had encountered. Their route lay through immense deserts of moving sand, rising into steep hillocks, into which the feet sunk as in mire or in the sea. Water occurred only at long intervals, when they reached the banks of rapid streams; and so eager were the men to quench their thirst, that some of them plunged into the current and lost their lives. Indeed, of all the rash enterprises which have been laid to the charge of that conqueror, this march was perhaps the most foolhardy. However, by that energy which he always displayed in the hour of danger, and by sharing the toils and privations of the meanest soldier, he at length conducted his army to the capital of Gedrosia, and thence to Carmania (Kerman), where their difficulties terminated. He then gave a loose to rejoicing, and converted the rest of his march into a kind of festive procession.

The biographers of Alexander, and other writers using their materials, have transmitted a pretty full account of the state in which he found India; and their narratives, in the absence of native records, still possess a great degree of historical value. The result, brought out still more fully than in the Persian annals collected by Herodotus and Ctesias, appears to be, that this region was as populous and as highly cultivated at a very remote age as in the present, and that it exhibited manners and customs almost precisely similar. That characteristic institution, the division into castes, according to which, dignities and employments are transmitted from father to son by hereditary succession, was already established. The same may be said of the pre-eminence enjoyed among these orders by the priesthood, who were understood to inherit all the learning and philosophy of the Eastern world. The prince and several of his officers, imbued with Grecian literature and curiosity, felt an unusual interest respecting the doctrines of these oriental sages. The self-denial and studied austerity, which

had astonished them in Diogenes and others of the Cynic school, were carried here to a much more unnatural and extravagant pitch. The men whom India held in veneration were seen withholding from themselves all the enjoyments and comforts of life, subjecting their persons to the most unheard-of tortures and penances, lying naked in the woods and fields, exposed to the burning rays of the sun. The Macedonian chief does not seem to have been himself inclined to enter into conversation with these uncouth sophists; but he sent Onesicritus to endeavour to obtain some idea of their principles. This envoy was accordingly guided to a solitary spot, about two miles from the city, where a group of fifteen, braving the noon-day heat, had placed themselves in the most painful and fantastic attitudes. The Greek accosted them, and made known the object of his visit, when one of their number, named Calanus, observed, that it little became them to reveal the mysteries of philosophy to one arrayed in the costume of a courtier and warrior; and required, as an indispensable preliminary to all communication, that he should throw himself naked on the same stones where they lay extended. As Onesicritus seemed to pause, Mandanis, another of the Indian group, condemned this harsh reply to the representative of a sovereign and conqueror who deserved praise for such enlightened curiosity; and then, through the medium of an interpreter, he gave a summary of the tenets held by his fraternity, and inquired if they bore any resemblance to the doctrines professed in Greece. Onesicritus assured him that Pythagoras, Socrates, and, above all, Diogenes, entertained opinions very similar. Mandanis admitted this to be in so far satisfactory, yet conceived that no one who wore clothes, or mingled in human society, could attain to that mysterious height of wisdom which distinguished the Indian philosophers. The conversation continued till evening, when the learned men rose and accompanied their new companion to the city. It then appeared that this ostentatious self-denial was far from being unrewarded. If any one carrying fruit or provisions met them, they were invited to partake; and they were readily received into the greatest

houses, where they were privileged to enter apartments whence all others were excluded. Calanus, notwithstanding the stern pride which he had displayed, was prevailed upon to accompany Alexander into Western Asia, a proposal rejected by his milder companion; but he always preserved the manners and demeanour of a Hindoo philosopher, and, at a very advanced age, exhibited to the Greeks an example of religious suicide, by mounting a funeral-pile, on which he was consumed to ashes.

The other castes appear to have been more numerous than they are at the present day, and to have been distinguished on grounds somewhat different from those which are recognised in modern times.

The following is the enumeration given by the several authors who derived their information from the source now pointed out:—1. Priests; 2. Husbandmen; 3. Shepherds and Hunters; 4. Manufacturers; 5. Military; 6. Inspectors employed in the service of the sovereign; 7. Royal Councillors and Magistrates. The last two orders, with their functions, must in a great measure have ceased during the long subjection of Hindostan to foreign sway; probably they have merged into that of Kuttri or Chittry, which at present includes the most distinguished civil members of Indian society. The ranking of Shepherds as a distinct order was, we may conjecture, founded rather upon observations made on the bordering Afghan and other mountain-tribes, than on the inhabitants of the plain, where the more general pursuit of agriculture must have superseded the habits of pastoral life. Much is said of the honours paid to the class of husbandmen, who were seen ploughing in the midst of hostile armies,—a happy arrangement, not always observed during the evil days which the same country has lately been doomed to experience. Other statements made by the ancients, respecting the early marriage of females,—the worship of the Ganges,—the mode of catching elephants,—the burning of widows on the funeral-pile of their husbands,—confirm the belief that the Greeks beheld the very same race who now inhabit that interesting land.

Seleucus, the general who, on the partition of the Macedonian empire, obtained Syria for his share, claimed as its appendage all the vast regions of the East. He undertook an expedition to secure, or more properly to regain, those distant possessions, which, after Alexander's retreat, had probably shaken off entirely the slight yoke imposed upon them. The very imperfect accounts of this enterprise represent it as having been successful, though the invader had to encounter the force of Sandracottus (Chadragupta), who had already established on the banks of the Ganges a sovereignty embracing almost the whole of India. But much doubt will rest on this brilliant result, when we find it to have issued in a treaty by which he resigned all the provinces *eastward* of the Indus. This amity, however, was cemented by intermarriage and mutual presents. Seleucus, moreover, sent Megasthenes on an embassy to Palibothra, the metropolis of this powerful monarch, whence he returned with the most splendid account both of his kingdom and his residence. Sandracottus is said to have possessed an army of 400,000 men, including 20,000 cavalry and 2000 chariots. His chief city was ten miles in length and two in breadth, defended by 574 towers and a ditch thirty cubits deep, and entered by sixty gates. The site of this celebrated capital has been the subject of much controversy; but a mist of obscurity still surrounds it.\*

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\* The most precise statement is that made by Arrian after Megasthenes, placing it at the junction of the Ganges with another river (the Erranobas), considered the third in India as to magnitude. Relying on this indication, D'Anville has fixed upon Allahabad, a great, ancient, and holy city, standing at the junction with the Jumna, a river certainly not ill entitled to the distinction just stated. But this conclusion is positively contradicted by the narrative of Pliny and Ptolemy, the two highest authorities in ancient geography, both of whom place the city a great way farther down,—the former about 400 miles, the latter still more distant. Major Rennell next suggests Patna, likewise a large town, and considerably below the confluence in question; while the Soane, a stream certainly of great magnitude, which at present falls into the Ganges about thirty miles above, is supposed anciently to have followed a different channel, and to have flowed close by Patna. Still that city is not so far down the Ganges as Palibothra is described both by Ptolemy and Pliny; the latter of whom, in enumerating the tributaries of the great river, mentions both the Soane and the Erranobas as perfectly distinct. Colonel Franklin, by a series of learned researches, has lately endeavoured to fix the position at Rajemahl, which, though still liable to some objec-

As the kingdom of Syria declined in strength, it submitted to the separation of its eastern territories. Bactria was erected into an independent state, which, during several ages, seems to have been both powerful and enlightened; and its dominion appears to have extended even over parts of India that had not been reached by the arms of Darius and Alexander. According to the conclusions of Bayer, it was founded in 256 B. C. by Theodotus, who threw off the Syrian yoke, and was crushed in 125 B. C. by an irruption of a Scythian or Getic nation from the north; but this last date is by some esteemed doubtful. No part of ancient history has been involved in deeper obscurity, on which, however, some rays of light have recently been thrown by a learned examination of coins and medals.

Major Tod, author of the valuable history of Rajastan, was the first who drew attention to the number of such relics, with inscriptions wholly or partially Greek, which are scattered through the western provinces. They are found in the *topes* or sepulchral tumuli which mark the site of decayed towns; and their profusion is such as to prove both the ancient wealth of the country, and the custom of burying treasure. The first great discovery was at Manikyala, a city in the Punjaub, erected upon ruins which appear to have belonged to the capital of a kingdom, and the chief seat of the national religion. A very spacious *tope* had been observed here by Mr. Elphinstone; and General Ventura, when encamped in the neighbourhood, succeeded in penetrating its re-

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tions, certainly agrees better than any other with the ancient authorities. The present writer, in a former work, has mentioned Bogilpoor, a town not far distant from Rajemahl, but somewhat nearer to the position described by Ptolemy, and still more so to that assigned by Pliny as the site of Palibothra. The name exactly coincides; for, in the European orthography of oriental sounds, *b* and *p*, *a* and *o*, are always used indiscriminately, while the other alterations are manifestly adopted for the sake of euphony in the Greek language. A name is nothing where there is no agreement as to position; but where the coincidence in that respect is so great as in the present instance, it is of much importance, because ancient appellations often remain long attached to the same localities. After being obliged to give up the Jumna, we cannot hope for a river which shall actually be the "third in India." The Ganges, not far from Bogilpoor, receives the Coosy, or river of Nepaul,—a large stream, which flows nearly 500 miles, and drains a vast extent of mountain-territory.

cesses, where he discovered a great variety of interesting coins. Another was opened by M. A. Court with still more important results, westward of the Indus; and at Peshawur and Jellalabad in Afghanistan, M. Hönigberger made similar discoveries. About twenty-five miles from Cabul, M. Masson explored with success the remains of a large town, called by the natives Beghram, which he endeavours to identify with that named Alexandria ad calcem Caucasi; but this hypothesis, even from his own statements, must be pronounced somewhat doubtful.

The greater proportion of these coins are called Græco-Indian, or Græco-Scythic. The oldest, which appear to have been purely Greek, and are of fine workmanship, are succeeded by others of the same country, with an Indian, Scythic, and sometimes Pehlevi, or Persian obverse. There is, moreover, a considerable number of Roman pieces, bearing the impress of Antony, Cæsar, and Agrippa; but these, we think, were probably introduced by commerce, which was always carried on with India in metallic currency.

No specimens have been found of the two earliest kings, Theodotus I. and II., whence, and from other circumstances, it has been inferred that they ruled only over Bactriana Proper, and never crossed the Indian Caucasus. The next name is Euthydemus, who is even suspected of having usurped the throne. From the places where his coins are found, it may be certainly inferred that he pushed his conquests into the kingdom of Cabul. He was succeeded by Apollodotus, the wide diffusion of whose money proves, not only that he reigned there and in India, but that these were the chief seats of his dominion. Menander, who succeeded him on the throne, is celebrated as a powerful monarch even by the classic writers, whose report is strongly confirmed by the species of evidence now described. India appears even to have been the main theatre of his power; and, to conciliate his new subjects, he was probably induced to combine a native reverse with the Greek legend. Demetrius, whose name is also mentioned by the ancients, is supposed to have been a brother, and to

have reigned in a different quarter. Eucratides I., who assumed the title of Great, is understood, on similar grounds, to have held sway only over Bactriana and Western Afghanistan, his coins not being found so far east as Jellalabad. There are many bearing the impress of Hermæus I. and II., sovereigns who are referred to nearly the same era. These researches have moreover brought to our knowledge a number of princes whose very names had never before reached Europe. Among these is Antimachus, the purity and beauty of whose silver pieces might seem to place him in the age of Apollodotus, though it is difficult to find an interval for him in the succession. From the same source we derive Agathocles, Antilakides, Lysius, Matius or Megas, Unadpheros. M. Hönigberger brought to light Kadphises, whose coins are as rude as his name, and who is conjectured either to be the prince in whom this remarkable dynasty terminated, or one of the barbarous race that immediately succeeded. There has also been revealed to the knowledge of modern times a mighty and mysterious potentate, "Azos the Great, king of kings," whose titles, and the numerous relics of his mint, unite in attesting his wide dominion. Mr. Prinsep is of opinion that the character of these remains marks them as belonging to the age of the Roman emperor Gallienus; but if a Greek monarchy existed in India at that era, it is a circumstance altogether new to history.

Strabo relates that Augustus, when at Antioch, received an embassy with letters from an Indian sovereign who called himself Porus, and boasted that he held sway over six hundred kings; but it is not said whether any additional information was ever obtained through this unwonted channel.

Commerce ultimately afforded the means of enabling the ancients to obtain a great accession to their knowledge respecting India. The navigation from Egypt, though it appears, as already observed, to have been performed at a very early date by Scylax under the direction of Darius, did not for a very long period become the regular channel of conveyance. Alexander, by the voyage of Nearchus, connected the mouth of the Indus with the Persian

Gulf; but the communication between the latter and the Red Sea, round the peninsula of Arabia, was regarded by him as a discovery yet to be made. It was still considered a novel enterprise when performed by Eudoxus, in the reign of Ptolemy Euergetes, about the year 130 B. C. A powerful impulse was however given by the wealth and unbounded luxury of Rome towards creating an ample market for the beautiful productions of India. In the first century, a regular intercourse was established between the Red Sea and Musiris, on the coast of Malabar; and in a treatise, entitled the *Periplus of the Erythræan Sea*, by a writer whose supposed name is Arrian, the details of this voyage are given at considerable length. In conformity to the limited resources of the ancient mariner, who always kept close to the land, it comprised an immense circuit of very dangerous coast.

Any details as to the voyage down the Red Sea, and along the coasts of Arabia and Persia, do not properly come within the compass of the present undertaking. Suffice it to remark, that in due time the navigators reached the mouth of the Indus, which, in the "*Periplus*," is called Scynthus, and justly said to be the greatest that enters the Indian Ocean. It has seven mouths, but all narrow and shallow except one, by which alone large vessels could ascend. They soon came to Barbariké (*Barbaricum Emporium*), where they unloaded their ships and received fresh cargoes; but it was necessary to proceed upwards to Minnagara, the principal city of this region (which is called by the author Scythia), and where the king, who was subject to the Parthian empire, resided. The commerce appears to have been very considerable, consisting in the exchange of silk and silk stuffs, bdellium, spikenard, sapphires, and indigo, for cloth, coral, incense, vessels of glass and silver, money, and a little wine.

Beyond the Indus the merchantmen passed another more northerly gulf, which they called Eirin (the modern Cutch). The waves, however, were so high and tempestuous, the current so rapid, while the bottom, rough and rocky, destroyed so many of their anchors, that, in order to sail with safety, it was necessary to

keep considerably out to sea. They came then to a coast (that of the modern Guzerat), which is accurately described as very fertile in grain, rice, and above all in *carbusus* (cotton), from which was manufactured an immense quantity of clothing. Turning a promontory (Diuhead) they soon entered a third gulf, deriving its name from Barugaza (Baroache) which appears to have been then the emporium of Western India. The navigation of this inlet required great caution, on account of the extraordinary violence of the tide, by which, at its periodical ebb, a great extent of land, before covered with the sea, was suddenly left dry; and the cautious sailor, anticipating this phenomenon, was admonished by the sound as of a great army advancing, which was that of the waves, rushing on with such fury as threatened to drive him ashore. The mouth also of the great river (the Nerbudda) upon which Barugaza was situated, could not be found without difficulty, owing to the flat shore and the numerous shoals. The object of the merchants was to arrive in the month of July, when a great fair was held in that city. The imports were nearly the same as at Barbariké, except that wine is mentioned as a leading article, to which was added a great quantity of gold and silver money. The exports consisted in a variety of cotton cloths and finer muslins, *vasa murrhina* (supposed to be porcelain), and onyx stones, which were brought down chiefly from Ozene (Ougein), a great city, and the capital of an extensive kingdom. Beyond Barugaza, India extended from north to south, and was called Dakinabades (the Deccan or South Country). It is described as comprising regions of vast extent, mountains and deserts filled with wild animals, particularly elephants, tigers, leopards, and serpents of enormous size. In the interior were two great capitals, Plithana and Tagara. The former is supposed to be Piltanah, on the Godavery,—the latter Deoghir, the modern Dowlatabad, in whose vicinity the splendid excavated temples of Ellora still indicate its former greatness.

The coast, extending southward from the Gulf of Barugaza, or Cambay, presented the ports of Akabaros, Oopara, and Kalliena,

the last of which is easily identified with Kalliana, opposite to Bombay. It had once been open to Grecian enterprise, and was a place of considerable resort; but the prince to whom it was then subject rigorously excluded vessels of that nation, which could not even safely pass without a convoy. A line of shore is delineated with a considerable number of ports, which cannot now be very easily ascertained; but when we find them described as the seat of some trade, and infested by pirates, we recognise at once the Concan, which still bears the same character. Having reached the island of Leuke (Angedive), they approached the fertile shores of Limurike, comprising Canara, with part of Malabar Proper, and which seems to have formed the centre of their commerce with India. The three great emporia of this coast were Tyndis, Musiris, and Nelkunda, which Dr. Vincent thinks may still be traced in Barcelore, Mangalore, and Nelisuram. Although the second of these was a place of extensive resort, yet Nelkunda is described as the principal emporium. There even appears much reason to conclude that the Egyptian navigators proceeded no farther, but found there an assortment of all the goods produced on the eastern shores of India, and even in the regions beyond. These were, pepper in great abundance, pearls, silk, ivory, spikenard, diamonds, amethysts, other precious stones, and tortoiseshell. The imports were nearly the same as elsewhere, except that money was in very particular request.

The voyage to this part of India, after being for some time pursued by the tedious and circuitous line of the Arabian and Persian coasts, was greatly improved by an accident of which there is perhaps no other example in ancient navigation. Hippalus, having observed the steady course of the monsoon at fixed periods in a certain direction, taught the mariners to steer, under its influence, from the mouth of the Red Sea directly across the ocean; and thus a voyage, which, according to the ordinary method, usually lasted two months, was often completed in a few days.

Beyond Nelkunda, where, as already observed, there is reason to think that the navigation of the Greeks terminated, the descrip-

tion of the shores of India becomes much more meagre and imperfect. The next city mentioned is Colchi, probably Cochin, represented as part of the kingdom of Pandion, which at that time extended over all this part of the continent, and included even Nelkunda. This is followed by Comar, a town evidently adjoining to Cape Comorin, the most southern point of the land, and said to possess a species of convent where persons of both sexes, devoting themselves to celibacy, engaged in the performance of certain religious rites in honour of a goddess whom they imagined to haunt the neighbouring waters. Ceylon is next described under the appellation of Palesimonda, or the more ancient one of Taprobane, and particular mention is made of the extensive pearl-fishery carried on both there and on the opposite coast. The author now proceeds to Coromandel, respecting which he can give only some imperfect notices. Mesolia, mentioned as an extensive district distinguished for the manufacture of very fine cloths, seems clearly to be Masulipatam and the surrounding country. He came afterwards to a region of terrors and prodigies,—one people with flat noses, and another with horses' heads, reported to feed on human flesh. These wonders unequivocally prove that the narrator had attained the boundary of accurate knowledge; yet the wild tract of mountain and jungle, which composes so large a proportion of Orissa, afforded considerable room for these imaginations. Then, however, he reaches the mouth of the Ganges, where he finds a great commercial city called by the name of the river, an appellation which it no longer bears. Its trade consisted chiefly in cloths of the most delicate texture and extreme beauty,—a description under which it is impossible not to recognise the superb muslins fabricated at Dacca and other districts of Bengal. Beyond the Ganges was the golden country, doubtless the Aurea Chersonesus of Ptolemy, which must be placed on some part of the long range of coast intermediate between India and China.

The weakness and distractions of the Roman empire, and subsequently the rise of the Mohammedan power, cut off the nations of Europe from all direct communication with India. The rich

productions of that country were, during a considerable period, conveyed by Arabian navigators or by inland caravans, and sold to the Venetians and Genoese on the shores of the Mediterranean or of the Black Sea; but these traders themselves, so distinguished in the Middle Ages by their maritime enterprise, made no attempt to open a direct commerce with the distant regions whence those precious commodities were imported.

## CHAPTER III.

## PORTUGUESE DISCOVERY OF THE PASSAGE TO INDIA.

**Maritime Power of Portugal—Voyages along the Coast of Africa—Discovery of the Senegal and Gambia—Of the Gold Coast—Of Congo—Bartholomew Diaz discovers the Cape of Good Hope—Mission of Covilham and De Payva—Expedition of Vasco de Gama—He passes the Cape—Touches at Mozambique, Mombasa, and Melinda—Arrives at Calicut—Visit to the Zamorin—Differences with him and the Moors—Departure—Voyage round Africa—Return to Portugal.**

PORTUGAL, a small kingdom, of little fertility, placed at one of the extremities of Europe, appeared ill fitted for acting any great part in the affairs of that continent. A long period of her history, accordingly, has been obscure and inglorious. Under the Roman government the Lusitanians were only remarkable for their extreme barbarism; and during the Middle Ages they were crushed beneath the yoke of the Moors, who, after having overrun nearly the whole peninsula, erected the western portion into a kingdom under the name of Algarve. In more recent times, oppressed by tyranny and fanaticism, and holding little communication with more enlightened nations, she was kept in every respect very far behind the other countries of Europe. Yet there was an interval between the Middle Ages and the present period, when this monarchy held the foremost place, not only in arms and power, but in all those arts and liberal pursuits which have given lustre to the modern world. But it was in the stern school of adversity that those energies were unfolded. The Portuguese, like the Spaniards their neighbours, had to fight a battle of many hundred years, ere they could drive from their native land the numerous, warlike, and fanatical hosts, united under the standard of Mohammed, by whom it had been subdued. Religious zeal, the blind exercise of which has since degraded Portugal, was then the inspiring principle of her heroic exploits. The kingdom, according to De Barros, was founded in the blood of martyrs, and by martyrs was spread over the globe; for that name he conceives

himself entitled to confer on those who fought and fell in her glorious conflicts with infidel nations. After expelling the Moors from Europe they pursued them into Africa, seeking to avenge that long series of outrage and thralldom to which the peninsula had been subjected, and claiming an undoubted right to every territory that might be conquered from the enemies of the faith. This enterprise, as it necessarily involved some degree of maritime skill, attracted the attention of their monarchs towards the ocean, as the scene in which they might find greatness, wealth, and renown. This circumstance, combined with the favourable situation of their country, having a long range of coast bordered by the yet unmeasured expanse of the Atlantic, paved the way for the distinction which Portugal obtained in the career of maritime discovery.\*

The first attempt was made by John I. on a limited scale, and in connection with an expedition to the shores of Barbary. He detached on this occasion a small squadron to survey the coast of Morocco, and even to trace the whole outline of the African continent. The mariners succeeded in passing Cape Nun (then the limit of European knowledge), and in exploring to a great extent the boundaries of Western Africa. At length, accustomed only to hold a timid course along the shore, they were repelled by the view of those formidable cliffs which compose Cape Bojador, and the tempestuous waves that dash around them. But this voyage, upon the whole, gave animation and encouragement to farther discovery, which was likewise greatly promoted by an individual of royal race, who devoted all his exertions, and attached the

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\* This historical account of Portuguese Discovery and Conquest is derived from the *Asia* of Juan de Barros (4 tom. folio, 15 tom. 12mo); *Asia Portuguesa* of Faria y Sousa (8 tom. 4to); *History of the Discovery and Conquest of the East Indies*, by Hernan Lopez de Castaneda; and *History of the Portuguese during the Reign of Emanuel*, by Osorio: the first two of which were consulted in the original, and the last two in translations. Although these authors agree in the general tenor of the narrative, there occur various discrepancies in the details, which we have endeavoured to reconcile as we best could, without in general troubling our readers by noticing them. We have considered chiefly the probability and consistency of the events related, giving also a certain preference to the authority of De Barros.

glory of his name, to the cause of maritime enterprise. Prince Henry, a younger son of John, by Philippa of Lancaster, sister to Henry IV. king of England, after having acted a distinguished part in the expeditions against Barbary, directed all his attention to this new object. He fixed his residence at Sagres, near Cape St. Vincent, where his eye rested continually on the vast ocean; and there collected every information and every aid which the infant sciences of geography and navigation could then furnish. He afforded to successive adventurers the means of prosecuting their discoveries; while the deep interest he took in their various attempts threw a peculiar lustre around this hazardous pursuit.

The first expedition fitted out by Henry, in 1418, consisted of only a single vessel under two officers of his household, Juan Gonzales and Tristram Vaz, who, being driven out to sea by a tempest, made the discovery first of Porto Santo, and afterwards of Madeira. These two beautiful islands, being found very productive in several valuable commodities, were considered as a promising commencement. Yet it was not till 1433, fifteen years after, that Gilianez, steering a bolder course through the open sea, passed Cape Bojador, and thereby proved that the fears which this celebrated promontory had inspired must have been in a great measure chimerical. The success of the Portuguese in tracing the line of the African continent was now rapid; yet for a considerable time it was only rewarded by the sight of a barren and desolate coast, "a dread expanse of lifeless sand and sky." At length they reached the verdant shores of the Senegal and Gambia, where nature assumes a grand and romantic form; and to which gold, ivory, and other precious commodities, were brought down from the interior.

The progress of discovery was somewhat checked by the death of King John in 1433, and still more by that of Prince Henry in 1463; yet it still advanced. Alphonso, John's successor, granted to Fernand Gomez an exclusive right of navigation for five years, on condition of discovering during that time five hundred leagues of coast. Gomez, accordingly, in 1471, succeeded

in exploring the Gold Coast, which, corresponding in some degree to its name, afforded a brilliant promise of wealth. The king no longer hesitated to assume the title of Lord of Guinea; and the castle of Elmina, or the Mine, being erected on this shore, was made the capital of all the Portuguese possessions.

John II., who succeeded Alphonso, pressed discovery with augmented zeal. In 1484, Diego Cam sailed from Elmina, and proceeded along Africa, till he found himself, though considerably out at sea, involved in a powerful current of fresh water. Concluding hence that some mighty stream in this latitude must empty itself into the ocean, he made his way towards land, and discovered the mouth of the Congo. He opened a communication with the natives, and the Portuguese afterwards formed very extensive settlements in the country situated on the banks of that river.

Discovery had advanced thus far in 1486, when John II. determined to make a grand effort to complete the circuit of the African coast. He placed three vessels under the command of Bartholomew Diaz, whom he strictly enjoined, if possible, to pass the southern boundary of that continent; and this officer, having arrived at the mouth of the Congo by a course now easy and ascertained, began from that point his career of discovery. He adopted the odd contrivance of carrying with him four negro damsels well clothed, and furnished with gold and silver ornaments, toys, and spices, whom he landed at different points of the coast, that they might spread brilliant reports of the wealth and power of the Portuguese. He gave names, as he went along, to remarkable bays and capes; and at St. Jago, 120 leagues beyond the Congo, erected a pillar of stone to denote at once the dominion of the king and of the Cross. He passed successively the Bays of the Landing, of Isles, and of Windings,—the last name being given on account of the many changes of course which, during five days, the sinuosities of the coast, and adverse gales, obliged him to make. The weather continuing stormy, drove him from the land in a southern direction, where his frail barks seemed

scarcely fitted to live amid the tempestuous billows by which they were surrounded. After a voyage, too, along the burning shores of Guinea, the Portuguese felt intensely the cold blasts of the antarctic seas. They considered themselves as lost; when, after thirteen days, the tempest having abated, they sought by steering eastward to regain the land, but they were already beyond the farthest point of Africa, and saw nothing before them except the unbounded ocean.

Surprised and bewildered, they turned towards the north, and at length reached the coast at a point which proved to be beyond the Cape of Good Hope. They called it "the Bay of Cows," from the large herds seen feeding, but which the natives immediately drove into the interior. Diaz steered onwards till he came to a small island, where he planted another pillar or ensign of dominion. A general murmur, however, now arose among his exhausted and dispirited crew. They urged, that they had already discovered enough of land for one voyage, having sailed over more sea than had been traversed by any former expedition; that their vessel was shattered, and their provisions drawing to a close; and, finally, that the coast having been left running north and south, and now found running west and east, there must intervene some remarkable cape, the discovery of which would give lustre to their voyage homeward. Diaz then called a council of his principal officers, who all agreed in the necessity of returning. The commander yielded, it is said, with deep reluctance, and parted from the island where he had planted his last ensign "as a father parts from an exiled son." The Portuguese had not sailed far westward, when they came in view of that mighty promontory which had been vainly sought for so many ages, constituting, as it were, the boundary between two worlds. The commodore, from the storms he had endured in doubling it, named it the Cape of Tempests; but on his return the king, animated by a more sanguine spirit, bestowed the appellation, which it has ever since retained, of the Cape of Good Hope.

At the time when Diaz sailed, the king had also sent Pedro

Covilham and Alonzo de Payva, by way of the Red Sea, to gain through that channel every possible information respecting India. The latter died in Egypt; but his colleague, in two successive voyages, visited Cananor, Calicut, and Goa, the three principal cities of Malabar; also Sofala, on the coast of Eastern Africa, and Ormuz, the splendid emporium of the Persian Gulf. On his return through the Red Sea he visited the Emperor of Abyssinia, venerated by the Portuguese under the character of Prester John. Covilham was well received, but, according to a custom prevalent at that court, was never permitted to quit the country. He transmitted to his sovereign accounts which were never made public, but were understood to favour the most sanguine expectations as to the advantages to be derived from opening a passage into the seas of India.

John did not immediately follow up the discovery of Diaz. He was at this time much engrossed by the arrival of a negro prince from the Senegal, and in fitting out an expedition to reinstate him in his dominions. He suffered also a deep mortification from having been induced, by unenlightened advisers, to reject the application of Christopher Columbus, which was made in the first instance to the Portuguese monarch as the chief patron of naval discovery. This navigator having performed his grand expedition, was obliged, in returning home, to put into the river of Lisbon. He brought with him trophies of the newly-discovered world, which the king could not view without the deepest agitation. He even held several councils, and sought to advance untenable claims to those new regions. There were not even wanting at court certain base instruments who tendered their services to assassinate the great discoverer; but the king was of too noble a character to sanction so dreadful a crime.

John died in 1495, before a new expedition could be fitted out; but his cousin Emanuel, who succeeded him, displayed an ardour in this cause surpassing even that of all his predecessors. There were indeed not a few counsellors who represented that he would thus waste the resources of his kingdom in undertakings every

way uncertain, and the happiest results of which might be snatched away by foreign aggression. The king, however, buoyed up by sanguine hope, and calculating that the task of penetrating to India descended to him by inheritance, applied himself with the utmost diligence to the fitting out of a grand expedition. Diaz was instructed to superintend the building of the ships, that they might be made of such size and strength as to be fit for traversing the stormy seas which he had experienced. The command, however, was bestowed not upon him, but upon Vasco de Gama, a member of the royal household, who had acquired a reputation for nautical skill and talent which his subsequent conduct fully confirmed. The preparations being completed, Gama was called before the king in presence of some of the most distinguished lords of the court, and presented with a silk banner, attached to which was the cross of the order of the knighthood of Christ, of which his majesty was perpetual master. On this token he was made to swear that he would, to the very utmost of his power, accomplish the voyage, and fulfil its objects. The banner was then delivered to him, with a list of instructions, and a letter to the mysterious prince called Prester John, with whom it was not doubted that he would open some channel of intercourse. That he might depart under favourable auspices, various solemnities were observed, inspired by the religious and somewhat superstitious spirit of the age. On the day of embarkation, the captains and mariners repaired to the convent of Our Lady of Bethlehem, where the sacrament was administered to them; the monks walked to the ships in devout procession, bearing wax tapers, and uttering a prayer, echoed by the whole population of Lisbon, who flocked behind to witness the scene. The sailors then went through the ceremonies of confession and absolution, according to a form prepared by Prince Henry for those who should perish in these distant expeditions. This was a somewhat gloomy preparation for the parting. They hastened on board, and began to unfurl the sails; but when they saw the shore lined with their relations and dearest friends dissolved in grief, and felt themselves entering on

a voyage so full of doubt and peril—while they looked alternately to the land that they were quitting, and on the ocean into which they were advancing—they could not restrain a few natural tears.

Gama sailed on the 8th July 1497, with three good vessels,—the *St. Gabriel* and *St. Raphael*, commanded by himself and his brother Paulo, and the *Berio*, a caravel, under Nicolas Coelho. Castanheda describes them as encountering in the early part of their voyage severe tempests, and even repeated alarms; and though this is not mentioned by De Barros, it seems probable, since after sailing four months they had not yet reached the Cape. Vasco landed in a bay, which he called *St. Helena*, to obtain water and to make astronomical observations. Here having espied two negroes, he caused them to be waylaid and brought before him; but they could hold no communication by words, and were, besides, in such agitation and alarm, as to be unable to comprehend the signs of friendship which were liberally tendered. Gama hereupon desired two of his grumettas, or negro servants, to take them apart and give them abundance of food, of which when they had partaken, their minds apparently underwent a happy change, and they pointed to a village two or three miles distant belonging to their countrymen. Fernando Veloso, a Portuguese, obtained permission to repair thither and make observations on the natives. Not long after his departure, however, he was seen running back full speed, pursued by a large party of negroes. He found refuge in the boat, but several of the sailors were wounded with spears and assagaies thrown by the savage assailants. Veloso then related that he had been at first well received, but observing some suspicious symptoms, he took to flight, and found his alarm fully justified by the event.

De Gama, quitting this inhospitable shore, steered directly towards that grand promontory which he was now closely approaching, and the passing of which was to decide the fate of his voyage. Deep and solemn emotions filled the minds of the sailors, as on the 18th November they came near to the southern extremity of

the African continent. They roused their courage to the highest pitch, in order to face the tempests which they had been taught to expect in making the circuit of this formidable cape. But as they proceeded, a moderate breeze from the south-west filled the sails; and, keeping well out to sea, they rounded without danger, and almost without effort, that mighty and dreaded barrier. With the sound of trumpets and loud acclamations they celebrated this memorable event, which was to give a new character to the commercial policy of Europe. The shore itself showed nothing of that forbidding aspect which rumour had announced: it was lofty, indeed, but green and wooded, with numerous flocks feeding on the hills; though the deep recess which it enclosed on the eastern side could not be safely entered. Before them lay the unbounded expanse of the Indian Ocean; and Gama did not pause till he reached the Bay of San Blas, called afterwards by the Dutch Mossel Bay, where he landed to obtain water and refreshments. Scarcely had the boats touched the shore, when on the top of the neighbouring heights ninety natives appeared, similar in aspect to those in the Bay of St. Helena. The Portuguese commander desired his men to approach cautiously and well armed, throwing to the savages a few bells and toys; upon which the latter came forward in the most familiar manner, and offered to exchange their cattle for such European commodities as attracted their eyes. Three days were employed in carrying on this barter, and also in various scenes of mirth and frolic,—the inhabitants performing on a species of pastoral flute, to the sound of which both parties danced. Yet towards the close of the visit suspicious symptoms began to appear. The people increased in number, and parties of them were seen lying in ambush; their attitude became more and more hostile, and they were observed closely watching every movement of the Portuguese. Gama, humanely and wisely desiring to avoid any hostile collision, dispersed them by merely firing a few balls over their heads, and proceeded on his voyage.

The navigators were soon after overtaken by a violent storm, the first they had encountered in those unknown seas. It was

truly terrible; and in their despair they sought relief, according to De Barros, too exclusively in religious exercises, without employing sufficiently their own exertions to escape the pressing danger. The tempest, however, having abated, the two ships rejoined each other, and proceeded cheerfully onwards. Having passed the coast, called Natal from the day on which it was discovered, they were tempted to land at the mouth of a fine river, where they were soon surrounded by a numerous band of natives, chiefly composed of females; whose comfortable clothing of skins indicated, in comparison of the former parties, both a colder country and a higher degree of industry and civilization. The latter inference was not belied by their demeanour. Martin Alonzo, one of the sailors, having succeeded in making himself understood, received an invitation to their village, which, notwithstanding the alarm sustained by Fernando Veloso, he did not hesitate to accept. The huts of which it consisted were rudely built of straw, but comfortably fitted up; he was treated with the greatest respect and kindness, and sent back next day under an escort of two hundred men. The chief came afterwards with a large retinue to take a view of the ships, and harmony continued uninterrupted during the five days that the voyagers remained on the coast. Gama, delighted with this people, who belong to the comparatively improved race of the Caffres, distinguished their inlet as the River of Peace.

In navigating this coast, the admiral found the sea agitated by violent currents coming down the Mozambique Channel, which greatly impeded the progress of his ship. Having passed a bold cape, to which, in allusion to this fact, he gave the name of Corrientes, and seeing the land now trending rapidly to the westward, which made him afraid of being involved in a deep gulf, he steered out into the ocean. Thus he failed to discover Sofala, then the chief emporium of this part of Africa, enriched by the commerce of gold and ivory brought down the Zambeze. He came, however, to a river on whose banks were persons dressed in silk and blue cotton vestments, some of whom understood Martins, the

Arabic interpreter. They gave information that, towards the rising sun, there was a white nation who sailed in ships resembling those of the Portuguese, and were often seen passing and repassing. These symptoms of an approach to the civilized countries of the East greatly cheered Gama; and his vessels having been considerably shattered, he determined to spend some time here in refitting and preparing them for their arduous voyage across the Indian Ocean. But his joy was damped by an unexpected calamity. The crews were attacked by a disease of unknown and terrible symptoms,—putrid spots overspreading the body,—the mouth filled with flesh which did not seem to belong to it,—the limbs unable to move,—exhaustion and debility of the whole frame. This appears to be the first mention of scurvy, since so fatally known to mariners. Several fell victims to it; the others were cured by means, as was supposed, of medicines brought from Lisbon, but more probably by the use of the fresh meat and vegetables with which they were supplied from the shore.

The armament again set sail from this river, to which the admiral gave the name of "Good Signs," on the 24th February 1498, and in five days came to a port formed by two small islands, about a league from the mainland. This he learned was called Mozambique, a place of considerable trade, then subject to Quiloa, but since distinguished as the capital of the Portuguese settlements in Eastern Africa. Here the ships were visited by some boats, having on board people well clothed in cotton, and wearing silk turbans like those of Barbary, a circumstance which delighted the eye of the navigators from the assurance it conveyed that they had completely passed the domain of barbarism. They little thought that a more deadly enmity, arising from religious antipathies, was now to be encountered. Gama being asked who he was and what he wanted, replied, that he was a subject of the King of Portugal, who had despatched him on a mission to India, and particularly to the King of Calicut, and that he wanted only water, provisions, and two pilots. Unfortunately the person addressed was a native of Fez, in whom the prejudices of a different faith were heightened

by the deadly wars waged between his nation and the Portuguese. Yet, though some change was observable in his countenance, he maintained a friendly demeanour, assuring the admiral that these moderate demands would be most cheerfully complied with. An unrestrained intercourse was immediately opened between the Europeans and the natives; and, a few days afterwards, the governor, or *xegue*, came himself on board, wearing robes of fine linen and rich velvet, and on his head a silk turban trimmed with gold. The interview passed most amicably; though, amid all this show of kindness, there were not wanting slight grounds of suspicion. There came on board, among others, three individuals, who proved to be the subjects of the King of Abyssinia, a monarch whom the Portuguese had almost deified under the appellation of Prester John. Though these visitors had become converts to the Moslem creed, yet, on seeing a painting of the angel Gabriel on the stern of one of the vessels, they were so far moved by old recollections as to bend down on their knees, and do reverence to it. This movement, which betrayed their secret and ancient faith, led to an eager inquiry and a more intimate communication; which the Moors no sooner remarked, then they drove the Abyssinians out of the ship, and carefully prevented the voyagers from holding any further intercourse with these strangers. Notwithstanding these unfavourable symptoms, the necessity of procuring wood and water induced Gama to send two boats' crews daily on shore, where they obtained an ample supply at a moderate rate. One day these boats, having gone beyond the range of the ships, were suddenly attacked by seven large barks, whence was discharged a cloud of darts, spears, and javelins. The natives were soon driven off by a volley of fire-arms, and their conduct was disavowed by the *xegue*. Sundry transactions followed, and promises were alternately made and broken, till Vasco, by the terror of his artillery, and the threat of reducing Mozambique to ashes, compelled the governor to allow him to complete his supplies, and also to grant him a pilot for Mombaza, where he was assured that he would find a more skilful one to conduct him to India.

Gama sailed from St. George, an island near Mozambique, on the 1st of April, and continued to steer close to the coast of Africa. A strong current carried him past Quiloa, for which he felt deep but ill-founded regret, having been treacherously assured by his guide that this was a Christian city. In a few days the armament reached Mombaza, which, on the same authority, was asserted to contain at least a large proportion of Christians. This town, situated on an elevated point of land resembling an island, and seen from a great distance at sea, delighted the eyes of the mariners; the houses built of good stone, with terraces and windows like those of Portugal, inspired a pleasing illusion, as if they were approaching their native shore. They soon saw a boat coming out with four persons apparently of consequence, who, on making the usual inquiries, and learning the object of the adventurers, assured them that their arrival would afford the greatest pleasure to themselves and to the king, and that all their wants would be supplied. Much care, though probably without success, was taken to prevent intercourse between them and the trusty pilot from Mozambique. The admiral was urged to land immediately, and this request was reiterated next day by another party; but he chose previously to send two sailors on shore to make observations. These last were entirely pleased with everything they saw, having been received by the king without much pomp, but with great kindness; and having been introduced to merchants from Guzerat, who professed themselves Christians, were assured by them that Gama, on landing, would meet with many of the same faith. The admiral no longer hesitated; and next day the vessels began to move into the harbour. Providentially, while that of the commander was near the beach, it seemed in danger of striking a sandbank, to avert which an anchor was let down. This operation gave occasion to violent running to and fro, and to those loud clamours which European mariners are wont to raise in such emergencies. Hereupon the Moors on board were seized with such a panic that they, along with the Mozambique pilot, leaped into the sea, and swam full speed to the shore. This

alarm, though groundless, disclosed to Gama the deep treason to which he had nearly fallen a victim. He immediately resumed his former station, where it required the greatest vigilance to defeat the repeated attempts which were made by the enemy to surprise his ships or cut the cables. He pursued and took one boat, having on board thirteen men, whom he treated well, but compelled them to show him the way to Melinda, a town which was at no great distance, and where he hoped at last to obtain a pilot for the Indian Sea.

Melinda proved a large, well-built, beautiful city, surrounded by numerous gardens and forests of palm-trees crowned with perpetual verdure. The king, though a Mohammedan, and imbued with the usual bigotry of that faith, appears to have been otherwise a prince of liberal and enlightened views, who saw all the advantages which his subjects might derive from intercourse with an opulent and powerful people. The Moors, therefore, being sent on shore, returned with assurances which bore a greater air of sincerity than any received in the cities hitherto visited. Gama, however, was still too prudent to accept the invitation to visit Melinda, pretending that his master had strictly prohibited him from landing; but he proposed a meeting in boats between his vessels and the shore. His majesty, accordingly, was soon seen approaching in a spacious silk pavilion open in front, where he appeared seated in a chair supported on the shoulders of four men. Vasco then manned his boats, having his officers and sailors dressed in their gayest attire, and sounding trumpets; and, that some fear might mingle with the joy of the Africans, he gave orders to fire a round of artillery. This salute produced an effect beyond expectation; the natives, with every mark of alarm, were hastening back to the shore, when he made a signal to conclude this warlike compliment. He then rowed up to the royal barge, and had a most satisfactory interview. The king was even inspired with such confidence that he sailed round the ships, examining their structure, and putting various questions respecting the nature and uses of the artillery. He inquired about the King of

Portugal, his power, the number of his armed vessels, and various other particulars. After this friendly communication, the adventurers received on board many distinguished visitors, among whom were several Banian merchants from Guzerat, "Pythagorean philosophers," who held it a crime to kill or eat any living thing. An image of the Virgin being presented to those sages, they worshipped her with much more profound adoration than the Europeans themselves, presenting her with pepper, cloves, and other precious spices. This complaisance probably originated in the common usage of venerating images, or from some resemblance to the objects of their own adoration; but the Portuguese were willing to regard their conduct as indicating some tincture of Christianity, which might, they supposed, have been introduced by the missionaries of St. Thomas. Amid this increasing familiarity, Gama no longer hesitated to sail along the coast, viewing, as he proceeded, the skilful manœuvres of the Arab cavalry. The king came down to the shore, and urged him to land; but the admiral still thought it prudent, under pretext of strict injunctions from his master, to decline this invitation.

The Portuguese commander being now supplied with a trusty pilot, Malemo Cana, a native of Guzerat, quitted on the 26th April the African coast, to which his own progress and that of his countrymen had hitherto been confined, and launched into the vast expanse of the Indian Ocean. They could now see at once the northern and southern polar constellations, the former of which had long been invisible. As yet it was a new thing for European mariners to steer three thousand miles through a waste of water where nothing appeared except sea and sky. But at length, being wafted by favouring breezes, they happily performed this voyage, and in twenty-three days beheld a high and bold coast, which the pilot declared to be India. It was not, however, contiguous to Calicut; but a change of course brought them in four days to a station whence Gama descried that large city stretching far along the shore, having behind it a fertile and beautiful plain terminated by a distant range of lofty mountains. The object of

his adventurous voyage, and that of Portuguese ambition and enterprise during successive ages, was now attained; he was on the shores of Hindostan. A solemn thanksgiving to Heaven was mingled with loud acclamations of joy at having brought this high adventure to so glorious an issue.

Gama had now to consider in what manner a communication might be opened with the court of Calicut, and such privileges obtained as would enable his countrymen to carry on an advantageous commerce on this opulent shore. The Mohammedans under Secunder had already established their empire over the northern plain of Hindostan; but the Southern Peninsula, and even the Deccan, were still in possession of numerous native princes with various degrees of power. Among these, on the coast of Malabar, a great pre-eminence was held by the sovereign of Calicut, bearing the title of Zamorin, or "King of Kings." He was a Hindoo, superstitious but tolerant, and opened his ports to merchants of every religion. The commercial world, however, at that period consisted entirely of Moors from Egypt and Arabia, who, by their numbers and influence, possessed extensive means of rendering a residence at Calicut dangerous to their enemies or rivals. The commander, that he might proceed with all due caution, began by sending ashore his pilot, along with a condemned criminal, who had been brought out expressly to meet the hazard of such perilous missions. Considerable anxiety was felt, after a whole day and night had elapsed without any tidings, and when all their barks were observed carefully shunning the Portuguese as if they had been an infected race. At length the boat appeared with the two messengers and a third person on board. The former reported, that, on their first landing, they had drawn round them an immense crowd, astonished at the appearance of the European sailor, and eager to ascertain what sort of being he was. In this somewhat awkward situation, they were accosted by a Moor calling himself Monzaide,\* who stated that he had come originally

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\* In Castanheda the name is Bontaybo. However unlike, the two words are probably corruptions of the same oriental sound.

from Tunis, where he had formed an acquaintance with the Portuguese, and had even embraced the Christian faith. He invited them to his house, entertained them with savoury cates and honey, and, on learning the object of their mission, professed his resolution to act as their friend. In pursuance of his kind intentions, he accompanied them to the ship; on entering which he immediately addressed Gama with the frankest cordiality, bidding him welcome to a country where he would find in abundance emeralds, rubies, spices, and all other valuable commodities. The king, he mentioned, was then at Panane, a smaller town about five leagues distant, whither he advised the admiral to send messengers requesting permission to land and engage in traffic. Vasco despatched two of his men along with Monzaide, by whom they were introduced to the monarch, who gave them the most gracious reception. That prince, having inquired whence they came, and the particulars of their voyage, declared they were heartily welcome to his dominions, and invited them to come round to the port of Pandarane as more secure than that of Calicut, which was merely an open roadstead. This recommendation, being entirely in unison with Gama's own views of the two nautical positions, inspired him with additional confidence. He allowed himself, without hesitation, to be guided to Pandarane, though he declined to go altogether so far into the harbour as the pilot appeared to wish. Here he received a message requesting that he would visit the king, into whose presence the cutwal, or principal officer, was appointed to conduct him. The leading men among his crew now besought the admiral to pause before placing his person in the power of this unknown potentate, surrounded with such a host of his mortal enemies; but he magnanimously replied, that he could not otherwise fulfil his duty to his sovereign and his country, which he was determined on no account to postpone to his own personal safety. Leaving, therefore, directions for their conduct, in case of his being detained or suffering any violence, he put himself with twelve men under the guidance of the cutwal.

Gama, in landing for the first time on the shores of India,

endeavoured to make a somewhat brilliant appearance. His sailors, in their best attire, moved in regular order, with trumpets sounding. He was immediately elevated into a palanquin, and carried forward on the shoulders of four men with such rapidity that his attendants, who were on foot, were soon left behind. Thus he found himself entirely in the power of the Hindoos; but they made no improper use of their advantage. On reaching the banks of a river, the bearers waited for the remainder of the party, whom they embarked in two *almadias* or country-boats. There now appeared in view a splendid pagoda with lofty pillars of brass, where the Portuguese were invited to land. They chose, on very slender grounds, to conclude that this must be a Christian temple, —because the half-naked ministers wore strings of beads like those of the Romish priests, sprinkled the company with water which might be consecrated, and presented sandal-wood powdered, as the Catholics do ashes. The Europeans, being ushered into the grand apartment, found the walls covered with images, which being willing to identify with those of the Madonna and saints, they threw themselves prostrate on the ground. Juan de la Sala, however, chancing to look up and observe the strange and uncouth aspect of these imaginary apostles, some of whom brandished four or five arms and had enormous teeth projecting out of their mouths, judged it advisable to guard himself by the exclamation,—“If these be devils, it is God whom I worship.” The others laughed; and soon verifying with their own eyes the just grounds of his apprehension, started up and regained the boats.

On the arrival of the party at Calicut, to which the zamorin had now returned, they were joined by several friends of the *cutwal*, and other nobles or *nairs*, who escorted them to the palace in great state, with sound of trumpet. This royal residence, though built only of earth, was of large extent, delightfully situated amid gardens and pleasure-grounds. They were received at the gate by a venerable old man, the chief Bramin, dressed in white robes emblematic of purity. He took Gama by the hand, and led him through long halls into the presence-chamber, where the sovereign

was found reclining in all the luxurious pomp of the East. The couch was spread on a sort of platform or stage raised above the general level of the apartment; his robe of the finest cotton, and his silk turban, were both richly embroidered with gold; from his ears depended rings adorned with the finest brilliants; and his naked legs and arms were covered with bracelets of gold and precious stones. On one side an old man held a golden plate, on which was the betel-leaf and areca, the chewing of which is esteemed a great luxury among oriental nations; while on the other side was a golden vase to receive it when chewed. This lofty potentate, on the approach of the Portuguese, merely raised his head from the embroidered pillow on which it rested, and made a sign to an attendant to seat Gama on one of the steps leading to the throne. He, however, received graciously the admiral's credentials, and promised to examine them at leisure,—meantime recommending that he should retire to rest, and appointing for that purpose a place where he would be secure against any annoyance from his Moorish adversaries.

The admiral proposed to wait next day upon the zamorin, but was informed that he must abide the prince's commands; and also, that this second interview must be accompanied with a present, by the value of which the greatness of his royal master, and the importance of his own mission, would be measured. Gama, according to De Barros, had been fully aware that everything in the East must begin and end with gifts; yet his appointments did not indicate any consciousness of this important truth. He had been provided with no royal robe or precious stone, and his only resource was to select from his stores something which might make an appearance not wholly unsuitable. He produced, therefore, some scarlet cloth, six hats, a few pieces of brass and coral, with a little sugar and honey. On viewing this intended donation, the cutwal and his attendants burst into a fit of immoderate laughter, declaring that, so far from becoming so powerful a sovereign as his master was represented, it was such as the meanest merchant who entered the port would have been ashamed to offer to the

great zamorin. They thought it would be better to send no present at all than one of so little value. Gama, however, after serious meditation, determined, wisely it should seem, that the gift, such as it was, should be sent, accompanied by an explanation that, having left Lisbon under much uncertainty, and with scarcely a hope of reaching Calicut, he came unprovided with any present from his royal master, and could only select from his own stores what might seem least unworthy of his majesty's acceptance; but that, in his next voyage, this failure would be amply compensated. The king, apparently satisfied with this apology, admitted the admiral to an interview, at which, if we may believe the historians, he assigned, as the chief motive of his voyage, the belief of the zamorin being a Christian prince,—and received even on that head a satisfactory answer. But, in regard to this point, there must have been on the one side or the other a complete misapprehension.

Hitherto, it appears that the king, actuated by motives of the soundest policy, had shown a decided disposition to favour the Portuguese. The Moors, however, who saw in these amicable feelings their own worst fears confirmed, determined to leave no means untried for the destruction of their rivals. Their leading men held a meeting, and represented to each other, in exaggerated colours, the ruin with which they were threatened from this western people. The astrologers announced visions which had appeared to them of fleets destroyed or sunk in consequence of the entrance of these detested strangers into the Indian Seas; and the conclusion was, that no exertion should be omitted by which they might destroy their vessels. As, however, their direct interference would be justly imputed to motives of rivalry, they adopted a circuitous course. Having subscribed a large sum, they bribed the cutwal, who possessed the intimate confidence of his master, and who could not be supposed to be actuated but by a view to his welfare. This officer represented that all the accounts from the West described those strangers as persons of a very different class from what they had described themselves;

that, instead of being merchants or ambassadors from any king, they were pirates, who, having by their crimes rendered the European seas unsafe for them, had unhappily sought in the East an escape from justice, and a sphere in which to exercise their criminal vocation. He added, that, in their passage along the coast of Africa, they had committed the most dreadful outrages, firing upon the towns, and carrying off the inhabitants; of which they were so conscious, that, though received at Melinda in the most friendly manner, they could by no entreaty be prevailed upon to land. It was manifest that had they come, as they pretended, under the commission of a great monarch, they would have brought some present corresponding to his dignity, instead of offering one of which the meanest trading captain would be ashamed.

The king, considerably moved by these representations, sent for Gama, who possessed no means of directly refuting the charges; but he entered into very full explanations, with which his majesty appeared satisfied, and allowed him to depart unmolested. The admiral, who did not quite admire the aspect of affairs, had no sooner left the palace than he got into his palanquin, and set off full speed for the ships. The cutwal, however, using great diligence, overtook him with a body of his nairs, and politely rallied Vasco on his extreme haste, which, he said, had nearly deprived him of the pleasure of being his escort. It behoved the commander to frame some apology, and express a satisfaction which he was far from feeling. Late in the evening he reached Pandarane, and eagerly inquired for a boat; but none, he was assured, could be found at the moment; and he was, with some difficulty, prevailed upon to spend the night in a spacious mansion fitted up for his reception. In the morning he was early prepared for departure; when, in confirmation of his secret fears, he found all the avenues strictly guarded by nairs, and his egress politely but firmly resisted. He was a prisoner. The cutwal was inflexible as to his detention, yet treated him with the utmost politeness and respect, and even exhausted every form of courteous importunity

to prevail upon him to send out an order for bringing the ships close to the shore. He represented the many dangers they incurred as long as they were kept tossing in an open roadstead, while the position which he recommended would at once place them in safety, and secure the confidence of the zamorin, who could not but interpret their present shyness into a proof of guilt and fear. Gama, fully aware that this proposal was urged solely in the hope of obtaining an opportunity of burning or otherwise destroying his vessels, chose to dissemble his conviction, and merely replied that his ships, from their large dimensions, could not without hazard be drawn on shore, like the flat-bottomed barks of India. Seeing clearly that the zamorin's officers were acting without any authority from him, he assumed a high tone, and resolutely declared that, by some channel or other, he would bring his grievances under the view of their monarch. At length he was allowed to go on board, after having landed part of his cargo, which he left under charge of his factor Diego Diaz, and Alvaro de Braga his secretary.

The cutwal and the Moors, since they could not keep Gama in confinement, studied to spoil his market; and they had influence sufficient to prevent almost every purchaser from repairing to Pandarane. He sent Diaz to complain of this conduct to the zamorin, who appeared always disposed to favour traffic, and allowed the cargo to be brought to Calicut, where it was advantageously disposed of. These transactions led to considerable intimacy with the natives, many of whom went familiarly on board the ships. Yet the Moors abated nothing of their enmity; and Monzaide sent advice, that they had at length completely gained over the king to their hostile views. Of this Diaz was soon made sensible, when he waited on his majesty to take leave, and to request that he would sanction the continuance of the trade, and fulfil the intention formerly expressed of sending an ambassador to Portugal. His hopes were at once chilled by the cold and frowning looks of the prince,—an effect which he had it not in his power to remove by the presentation of a suitable gift. On

his return he found himself escorted by a large body of nairs, in token as he at first hoped of respect; but when he reached the factory they immediately placed him under close confinement. Gama being, through his steady friend Monzaide, duly apprized of this outrage, felt his situation somewhat embarrassing. Judging it necessary to dissemble, he received successive parties of the natives with his accustomed cordiality, and even wrote a letter to the king betraying no consciousness of any injurious conduct. The Indians accordingly resumed their intercourse with the same confidence as formerly, and he had at length the satisfaction to see the approach of a boat, having on board six nairs and fifteen other distinguished personages. These had no sooner entered the vessel than they were arrested and placed in close custody. The admiral then wrote to the king, informing him of this step, and adding, that as soon as his majesty should be pleased to release the factor and secretary he would receive his own subjects in return. The zamorin pretended ignorance of the factor's detention, yet appeared little disposed to yield to this compulsory mode of redress. Gama, determining then to take summary measures, weighed anchor, and set sail. Presently seven boats were seen pulling out from the shore with the utmost speed; in one of which were discerned the factor and secretary. They were cautiously sent forward in a boat by themselves, in which Vasco returned the principal captives. He nevertheless detained several of his prisoners, who he hoped might be gained over by good treatment, and, after seeing the splendour of the realm of Portugal and the honour in which the members of the expedition were held, might return next year with a report calculated to dispel the injurious suspicions instilled into their sovereign.

This conduct was manifestly unjust and unwise, confirming for the present all the suspicions of the prince, and inspiring him with irreconcilable enmity. He immediately despatched a squadron of boats, which closely followed the Portuguese, watching every opportunity of attack. A spy who came out from Goa, being discovered and tortured, confessed that the zabaio, or sovereign

of that territory, was busily equipping an armament destined for their destruction; and that every bay, creek, and river, were filled with boats ready, at a moment's warning, to co-operate in the same undertaking. Under such circumstances, the European chief, though somewhat unprepared for the voyage, could no longer delay his departure, and accordingly resolved to steer across that formidable ocean which separated him from the African coast. He had a tedious passage of four months, delayed alternately by storms and calms, while the scurvy renewed its terrible ravages among his several crews.

In a most exhausted state he reached Magadoxo, a more northerly port than any he had formerly visited; but, learning that it was entirely in possession of a bigoted tribe of Moors, he chose rather to proceed to the friendly harbour of Melinda. There he was received with the wonted cordiality, and amply supplied with fresh provisions, which could not, however, arrest the mortality that had begun to rage on board. The sailors were so reduced in strength and number that they could not undertake to navigate all the three vessels round the Cape; and hence he judged it necessary to burn the *St. Raphael*, and convey her stores on board of the two other ships. In his progress along the coast of Africa, he touched at the islands of Zanzibar, Pemba, and Monfia, and met a good reception; but avoided having any communication with Mozambique. Being regularly supplied with fresh provisions, all his men, at the time of passing the Cape, were fit for duty, and they met with no farther obstruction in making the circuit of the continent. The admiral, however, had to sustain at Terceira the deep affliction occasioned by the death of his brother Paulo, who had strengthened the ties of kindred by the ability and fidelity with which he had aided this grand expedition. On the 29th August 1499 Gama entered the Tagus, after a voyage of two years and two months, in which he had fully explored a new path to the commerce and empire of India. But of the hundred and eight mariners who had originally manned the vessels, only fifty-five returned to their native country.

Gama, according to the devotional and somewhat superstitious spirit of the age, repaired first to the convent of Bethlehem, and spent eight days in paying homage at the shrine of Our Lady. He then made his entry into Lisbon with a pomp resembling that of a royal conqueror. The king celebrated his arrival with bull-fights, puppet-shows, dog-feats, and other entertainments suited to the taste of that rude age. He bestowed upon him and his posterity the titles of Don, and of Conde de Vidigueira; assigned him a liberal pension, to be commuted as soon as possible into a landed estate; and finally granted the still more valuable privilege of importing, to a considerable amount, Indian spices free of duty. That Our Lady also might obtain her reward, he raised a splendid temple to her honour, which was afterwards converted into a royal palace.

## CHAPTER IV.

### PORTUGUESE SETTLEMENTS AND CONQUESTS IN INDIA.

Expedition of Cabral—Discovery of Brazil—Passage of the Cape—Arrival at Calicut—Friendly Reception—Quarrels with the Moors—Factory destroyed—Hostile Proceedings—Establishment at Cochin—Return—Juan de Nueva—Second Voyage of Gama—His severe Proceedings at Calicut—Visits Cochin—Wars between Calicut and Cochin—Exploits of Pacheco—Lope Soares—Almeida—Maritime War in Guzerat—Albuquerque—Unsuccessful Attempt on Calicut—Reduction of Goa—Expulsion from that City—Its Recovery—Means employed for cementing the Portuguese Power—Conquest of Malacca—Of Ormus—Albuquerque is superseded—Dies—Extent of Portuguese Dominion—Remarkable Sieges of Diu—General Confederacy against the Portuguese—Defeated—Their Decline—Wars with the Dutch—With the English—Low State of their Power.

Nor a moment was lost by the Portuguese in following out the grand objects of naval and commercial enterprise. An armament was immediately equipped, at that time considered truly formidable, and which, consisting of thirteen ships and twelve hundred men, was indeed sufficient to keep the sea against all the navies of the East. The command was not bestowed upon Gama; whether it was that an opposite interest had begun to prevail at court, or that his conduct in the former expedition was not considered as altogether discreet and conciliatory. On this, as on every other subject which might affect the reputation of their sovereign, the national writers maintain a profound silence. The new admiral was Alvarez Cabral, a person perfectly qualified for this important undertaking. He was accompanied by eight Franciscan friars, and, according to De Barros, was instructed to carry fire and sword into every country which should refuse to listen to their preaching.

On the 8th March 1500, the king repaired to the convent of Bethlehem, heard mass, and delivered a consecrated banner to Cabral, who then kissed his majesty's hand and embarked. The assembled multitude beheld the fleet depart next day with sensations of joy, much more general and unmixed than those with which they had seen Gama set forth on his bolder and more

doubtful adventure. The passage through the Atlantic was distinguished by a brilliant discovery. Standing westward to avoid Africa, the admiral found himself unexpectedly in sight of another shore, extensive, fertile, finely wooded, and evidently forming part of the continent recently made known by Columbus. This coast was that of Brazil, which proved afterwards the brightest jewel in the crown of Portugal, continuing to shine after all the others were dimmed. From thence he steered direct for the Cape of Good Hope, where, during more than two months, he was involved in the most frightful tempests, in which he lost four of his ships. In one of them was the renowned Bartholomew Diaz, who thus perished in those stormy seas which he had been the first to brave. Cabral had only three vessels with him when he doubled the Cape, which he passed without having seen it. Like his predecessor, he missed Sofala, though in its vicinity he detained a vessel which had been richly laden with gold; but the crew, prepossessed with the idea that they were about to be attacked by pirates, had thrown the greater part of it overboard. On being assured that no injury would be done to them, nor to any other friendly ship, they expressed the deepest regret, and vainly implored the Portuguese to use the magical powers which they were understood to possess, to bring up the treasure again from the bottom. The discoverer scarcely stopped at Mozambique, but remained some days off Quiloa, which he found a large and flourishing port, situated, too, in a very fertile country. The king behaved at first with the utmost cordiality, and consented to hold an interview with the stranger on the water, though he was more alarmed than flattered by being saluted with a general discharge of artillery. But there soon appeared symptoms of that jealousy which arises from the difference of religious creeds; and hence it became manifest that commerce could not be transacted upon any liberal or advantageous footing. He therefore set sail for Melinda, where he met with the same agreeable reception which his countrymen had twice before experienced. The king rode over the bowels of a sheep newly killed to the edge of the water, and

earnestly solicited a visit from the European captain, who, however, firmly declined the proffered honour. The latter then left the African coast, and, after touching at the island of Angedive, came, on the 13th September, in view of the city of Calicut.

He is said to have entertained considerable anxiety in regard to the reception that he was likely to experience, after the abrupt and somewhat uncourteous close of the transactions with Gama in the former expedition. First appearances, however, were very promising. Some of the principal people came out in almadias, or country-boats, with assurances from the zamorin of the most friendly disposition. Cabral then restored the captives carried off by his predecessor, handsomely dressed, and ready to bear testimony to their good treatment. Having received an invitation to land and visit the prince, he expressed an earnest wish to comply and also to negotiate a treaty of amity and alliance, only soliciting that four persons of distinction, whom he named, should be sent as hostages. To this proposal the king very strongly objected, as these were Bramins of high and holy character, who could not, without profanation, enter a ship, or perform there any of their sacred ceremonies and ablutions. The Portuguese commander, however, stood firm, and carried his point. Preparations were forthwith made on shore for his reception by erecting a gallery, which, though not very spacious, was richly hung with carpets and curtains of crimson velvet fancifully embroidered. Here Cabral, having equipped his attendants in the most handsome manner, found the monarch ready to receive him. The sole clothing of his majesty was a richly-embroidered cloth round the middle; but his person presented a most dazzling spectacle, being adorned with girdle, bracelets, rings of gold, diamonds, rubies, sapphires, and very large pearls. The interview was amicable; the present, consisting of several vessels of gold and silver, and cloths ingeniously wrought, was graciously accepted, and, in return, full liberty was conceded to establish a factory in Calicut. Meantime the hostages, who on their passage to the ship had shown the deepest alarm and horror, were struck, on entering,

with such dismay, that they threw themselves into the sea, and endeavoured to swim to the boats; but two of them were brought back and thrust into close confinement. This caused such a panic on shore, that, even after the admiral's return, no vessel would venture out to receive them; and these unfortunate chiefs remained three days on board without tasting a morsel of food, and in a state of the most deadly consternation, when at length, compassionating their sufferings, and even dreading fatal consequences from their agitated feelings, he contrived to land them on an unfrequented part of the coast.

The intercourse with the city was opened in a very promising manner, and even some of the Moors assumed outwardly the character of friends. It was intimated to Cabral that a very large vessel was passing from Cochin, a hostile city, having on board a rich cargo, part of which consisted of seven elephants, one of them peculiarly desired by the zamorin, to whom, therefore, he could not do a more acceptable service than to capture this foreigner. The European sailor, with less regard to justice than expediency, directed Duarte Pacheco to perform the exploit with a single caravel. This lieutenant, by means of his cannon, drove the ship before him till it was taken, or, according to Osorio, forced into the harbour of Calicut, where it became the prize of the sovereign.

But the pleasure derived from this acquisition did not compensate for the alarm inspired by such a display of Portuguese prowess. The first good understanding, accordingly, was soon clouded; the Moors used all their influence with the native merchants to prevent any goods from being sent to the adventurers, who constantly saw numerous vessels richly laden taking their departure, while they, after a delay of two or three months, had made no progress towards obtaining a cargo. They therefore laid their complaints before the king, whom they seem to have held responsible for the conduct of his mercantile subjects. He declared that he could not prevent such disappointments; that the Moors were too shrewd both for him and his people; and one

day hastily observed, that they had better take forcible possession of one of their cargoes, provided they paid for it an equitable price. This hint was very probably thrown out in a fit of impatience, in order to get rid of their remonstrances, without any idea of its being practically adopted. However, Aires Correa, the factor, a man of a warm and eager temper, was disposed to receive it in its literal sense; while his pretended friends among the Moors eagerly urged him not to neglect the royal permission. Cabral, on this information being transmitted to him, felt it to be a matter of extreme delicacy, and was by no means forward to engage in the transaction. Correa, however, sent repeated and urgent representations to him, upbraiding his supineness, and almost threatening mutiny.

The Moors, meantime, began ostentatiously to lade a vessel with the richest spices, and fixed an hour for her departure, of which they took special care to apprize the Portuguese. The admiral, on seeing the ship leave the harbour, allowed himself to be overcome by the urgency of his factor and agents, and sent his boats, which captured it, and proceeded to transfer its precious contents to their own ships. The Moslems, who had long watched for this crisis, ran instantly to the king, representing that the band of pirates were now seen in their true colours, having, in defiance of his royal power, commenced their system of robbery. His majesty, who had either forgotten his alleged permission, or never meant it to be seriously taken, entered into their views, and allowed them to seek redress as they chose. The nairs, and other inhabitants of Calicut, having joined them, they proceeded in a united body against the factory. The Portuguese felt so perfectly secure that they at first supposed the tumult to be raised only in jest, and hence, on ascertaining its hostile purpose, found great difficulty in shutting the gates. Correa, with his slender troop, forthwith manned the roof of the edifice; but it was a contest of seventy individuals against thousands, who rent the air with their cries, and poured in a thick cloud of darts and javelins. Signals of distress were raised to inform Cabral of their situation,

who at first sent two boats to reconnoitre, and then all his strength, with orders to push full speed to the shore. Meantime the Moors, unable to effect an entrance, brought a large battering engine, which overthrew part of the wall, and afforded an inlet to the infuriated multitude. The little band of Europeans were completely overpowered. Aires Correa and fifty men were killed; the remainder leapt into the sea, and swam to the boats.

Cabral having witnessed this dreadful catastrophe, called together his officers, and in the heat of the moment determined by the most decisive measures to avenge their wrongs. Yet, according to Castanheda, a short pause was allowed to give room to the zamorin to offer an explanation; but when, instead of this, tidings were brought that he was employed in sharing the plunder of the factory, it was resolved no longer to delay a severe retaliation. Ten Moorish ships were attacked and taken, their cargoes emptied into those of the Portuguese, and their crews made prisoners; the captured vessels were then ranged in a row, set on fire, and exhibited in full blaze to the citizens of Calicut. The assailants next drew their squadron as close as possible to the shore, and begun a furious discharge of artillery, when they had the satisfaction to see the city on fire in several places, and of being assured that a ball had nearly struck the king, who hastily fled into the country.

Having thus gratified his resentment, Cabral set sail, and proceeded southward to Cochin, the second city on this coast as well for extent as for commercial importance. In those days the preliminary step necessary in all oriental traffic was a negotiation with the sovereign. He happened at that juncture to be in the interior, but the admiral had secured as a mediator one Michael, a yogue or fakir, one of those eastern sages who wander over the country half-naked, smeared with cow-dung, and abjuring all the decencies and accommodations of social life. This holy but uncouth messenger proved completely successful. The king, an oppressed and reluctant vassal of Calicut, saw, in the commerce and alliance of these powerful strangers, the means of deliverance

from this yoke, and of raising himself to an equality of splendour and independence. He even hastened to the city, and gave them an audience, which passed most satisfactorily, though the Portuguese saw nothing of that profuse wealth which had dazzled them in the person and court of the zamorin. The city, compared to Calicut, did not exhibit the same busy and crowded scene: there was, however, a great abundance of pepper, the commodity chiefly valued by the Europeans, and a cargo was obtained with the utmost facility. When they were ready for sea, tidings came that the ruler of Calicut had sent against them sixty sail, of which eighteen were very large vessels. Cabral went out with the resolution to give them battle, without much dread of the result; but, as a favourable wind sprung up, he considered that even a victory could be of no benefit to his country, and that he should more completely realize the object of his expedition by carrying home the cargoes with which he had laden his vessels. He touched at Cananore, and met a reception, if possible, still more friendly than at Cochin; afterwards, steering round the Cape, he reached Lisbon on the 31st July 1501.

But, before his arrival, the king had sent out three additional ships and a caravel, under Juan de Nueva, to reinforce his squadron. This officer was steering directly for Calicut, but fortunately found at San Blas, on the coast of Africa, a letter detailing the tragic and hostile proceedings which had taken place, and advising him to proceed at once to Cochin. He followed this course, and was well received, though the Moors here also succeeded in raising some obstacles to European traffic. The zamorin, on learning the arrival of the new admiral, sent a fleet to attack him; but it was beaten off with such vigour as induced the Indian monarch to make overtures for accommodation, to which Nueva did not, in the first instance, think fit to listen.

Meantime Cabral had entered the capital, where the narrative of his disasters, and of the deadly hostility which he had encountered, excited a deep interest. Not only the individuals who from the first had opposed those distant and perilous enterprises, but

even some who had supported Gama in his early career, considered the undertaking as having now assumed a very critical aspect. As long as the object was confined to establishing factories, forming alliances, and purchasing valuable cargoes, such expeditions had promised to augment without hazard the splendour of the monarchy and the national wealth; but now when a mighty war was to be waged against a monarch situated at the opposite extremity of the globe, in a burning and pestilential climate, the resources of a small kingdom would too probably, they thought, be vainly exhausted in the attempt. The king, however, remained unmoved by these arguments. Inspired, as usual in that age, by a mixture of religious and ambitious motives, he trusted in the papal grant which had conferred on Portugal the dominion of all the eastern regions discovered by her fleets, and deemed it both a right and a duty to take possession of the inheritance of these proscribed nations. Descending to views of a more ordinary policy, he reflected, that against the hostile disposition of Calicut the friendship of the potent kings of Cochin and Cananore would be a powerful counterpoise. In short, he was fired with the ambition of founding an eastern empire; and, accordingly, instead of being intimidated by these tidings of temporary reverse, chose at this very moment to assume the lofty title of "Lord of the Navigation, Conquest, and Commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and India." To make good such high pretensions an armament was fitted out, much larger than had yet been sent into the Eastern Seas. The main fleet, amounting to fifteen sail, was ordered to support the factories of Cochin and Cananore; while another squadron of five vessels was directed to assume a station at the mouth of the Red Sea, with the view of excluding the hostile Moors from any communication with the coast of Malabar. The command of the fleet was offered to Cabral, and that of the squadron to Vicente Sodre; but the former not brooking a divided power, Vasco de Gama was again invested with the direction of the expedition.

This officer, in his progress round Africa, touched for the first

time at Sofala, where he formed a treaty of alliance and commerce. At Quiloa he assumed a higher tone, and, in resentment of the inhospitable treatment inflicted on Cabral, extorted from the king a promise of submission and tribute. Approaching the coast of Arabia, he captured a large Moorish vessel; when, we regret to add, he stained all the glory of his discoveries by the most savage cruelty, and in the excess of his anger outdid the crimes which he came to avenge. Having first plundered the vessel, and shut up all the crew in the hold, he set it on fire. He then made for the coast of India, touched at Cananore, and thence proceeded to Calicut. Here a negotiation was opened, to demand redress for the injuries sustained by his predecessor. Conceiving that the transaction was studiously protracted by the authorities, he collected fifty natives from the several vessels which he had captured, and, with an hour-glass in his hand, assured the messenger, that unless he received satisfaction before the sand was run, all their lives would be forfeited. The time having elapsed without obtaining a reply, he fulfilled his savage threat; adding to its horror by cutting off the hands and feet of the victims, which he sent on shore. Having then for some time poured a destructive fire upon the city, he sailed to Cochin, where he was received with the accustomed cordiality. Soon afterwards, however, a message was brought from the zamorin, by a Bramin of venerable age and aspect, as well as of the most consummate address, who began by making inquiries respecting the Christian religion, for which he professed great admiration, and even feigned a disposition to embrace it. He then assured Gama of his master's anxious wish to renew his friendship with the Portuguese, and to make ample reparation for the wrongs they had suffered; in short, he wrought so artfully upon the admiral, as to prevail upon him to go to Calicut in a single ship to confer with the zamorin. But when he arrived at that port, instead of being admitted to the expected meeting, he found himself, as might have been anticipated, surrounded by thirty-four proas of the enemy, who considered him their certain victim. In this extremity, how-

ever, he acted with the utmost promptitude and vigour; for, having cut his cable, he made full sail, and being supported by Vicente Sodre, extricated himself without loss from this imminent peril. He then set out upon a cruise, in the course of which he captured several valuable ships, particularly one in which was a most magnificent idol, adorned with a vesture of beaten gold and eyes of emerald. After touching at Cananore, and leaving Sodre with his squadron to blockade the Red Sea, the admiral took his departure for Portugal.

In this last step Gama does not seem to have duly considered the interests and safety of his Indian ally. The zamorin, as soon as he saw the Portuguese force removed, thought the time was come for avenging himself on his refractory vassal the King of Cochin, through whom this foreign enemy had obtained a fixed establishment on the coast of Malabar. He at first represented his preparations as intended only against the Europeans; but, having mustered a large army, he directed his march upon Cochin, with a peremptory demand that the sovereign should at once dissolve connexion with this new people, and deliver up all the members of their factory left in his capital. Considerable agitation pervaded the royal councils; a general alarm was spread among the people; and many of his majesty's steadiest advisers were of opinion, that he would in vain attempt to make head against so mighty an invader. But he himself remained firm, determining to brave every peril in maintenance of the Portuguese alliance. His troops, however, unable to withstand the immense force of the enemy, were driven from post to post; his allies, and even his great lords, deserted him; and at length he had no hope left but that of being able, with a chosen band, to defend a strong passage leading to his chief city. The zamorin, flushed with victory, rushed on to the assault; and the Cochinese troops, after a very gallant resistance, in which three princes of the blood fell, were forced to give way. The death of Narmuhin, next heir to the crown and a youth of distinguished gallantry, struck the deepest despondence into the minds of the people; inspiring them

at the same time with unbounded rage against the strangers, who, through the king's obstinate attachment to them, had involved the nation in such dreadful calamities. But the monarch still adhered to his allies; and to prevent them from being torn to pieces, he conducted them everywhere in his own train. Being at length obliged to abandon Cochin he took refuge in the island of Vipeen, which, from its natural strength as well as from being invested with a sacred character, afforded a temporary security. It would not, however, have long availed, had he not been relieved by the arrival of ample succours from Europe.

Emanuel was determined to maintain the footing which he had acquired in the eastern world; and having secured at Cochin a fixed point where he might land and concentrate his troops, he despatched his reinforcements, no longer in one united fleet, but by successive detachments. Three expeditions were equipped, one under Alphonso Albuquerque, the future conqueror of the East; another under Francisco Albuquerque; and a third under Antonio Saldanha. Francisco arrived first on the coast of Arabia, and collected there the remains of the squadron formerly commanded by Vicente Sodre, who, neglecting the safety of the King of Cochin, had engaged in a general piracy, and at length perished in a violent storm. The Portuguese admiral then sailed to the succour of that resolute monarch, whom, as we have already suggested, he found in the Isle of Vipeen, reduced to the last extremity. He was hailed as a deliverer, and the troops of the zamorin almost immediately evacuated the city. Having reinstated the king, he farther undertook, on the arrival of Alphonso, expeditions into the interior, and even into the dominions of the enemy. On several occasions, however, they were surrounded by greatly superior numbers, and with difficulty escaped. The sovereign of Calicut then made overtures for peace, which was granted on condition that full satisfaction should be given for the previous outrages; that a large quantity of pepper should be delivered; and that the city should be completely opened to Portuguese commerce. Soon after Fernando Correa had an unfortunate encounter

with one of his ships, which he took and carried into Cochin. Osorio represents Alphonso as acting in the most unjust manner, by refusing all redress or compensation; while, according to De Barros, the zamorin merely caught at this incident as a pretext for dissolving a treaty concluded with the mere view of gaining time. The two Albuquerque, on perceiving this hostile disposition, sailed to Calicut, and endeavoured to intimidate the monarch into a renewal of the engagement, but without success. They then, very unaccountably it would seem, set sail for Europe, leaving the capital of their ally guarded only by a few hundred men under Duarte Pacheco.

The zamorin, seeing Cochin left thus defenceless, determined to make a grand effort to crush his rebellious vassal and extirpate that hated race, who, through him, were every day obtaining a firmer footing on the Indian shores. All his nairs were summoned; his allies and dependent princes were called into the field; the Moors eagerly forwarded the equipment of the expedition; while two Milanese deserters taught him to cast brass cannon, and to introduce other European improvements. According to report fifty thousand men assembled, and began their march upon Cochin. The rumour of these mighty preparations shook the fidelity of many of the chiefs. Several stole off to join the invader; others, especially the Moslems, formed plots to aid him when he should arrive; and a general panic spread even among the well affected. Attached as the king was to the Portuguese, his courage failed; he expressed to Pacheco his fear that every attempt at resistance was now vain, and that no choice was left but of unconditional submission; yet assuring him that care would be taken to secure his safe retreat. The European replied in a tone of lofty indignation, giving vent to his astonishment that the king should doubt whether his countrymen would fulfil their promise of defending him; and declaring, at the same time, with the fullest confidence, that his little band, aided by the forces of Cochin, would bring the war to a triumphant issue. The monarch's spirits revived; and, confiding in these assurances, he placed all

his resources, and the whole conduct of the campaign, in the hands of Pacheco. That chief, perhaps the ablest and wisest of the Portuguese officers, began to prepare with the utmost activity to meet this imminent danger. He proclaimed the severest penalties against deserters, guarded all the passages by which they might escape, and having detected five Moors while making the attempt, he carried them on board with the avowed intention of putting them to death. The king made earnest intercession for their deliverance, which Pacheco resolutely refused, and even announced their doom as fixed; yet he only kept them in close and secret custody, that, after the crisis should have passed, he might agreeably surprise the sovereign and their friends by their reappearance. He began also to act on the offensive, making various incursions into the enemy's territory; and his return from thence laden with booty wonderfully revived the spirits of his adherents.

The zamorin, meantime, with his mighty host in full array, was bearing down upon Cochin. That city possessed a very defensible position, as it could only be approached across a number of islands separated from the continent by narrow channels. But these channels were passable by fords, to defend which became the main object of the Portuguese. The invader, supported by a fleet of 160 vessels, marched towards one of these shallows, at a place where his squadron had room to act. They immediately began an attack upon four European barks, and at the same time the whole army attempted to pass over. Pacheco awaited the onset with 400 of his countrymen and 500 chosen troops of Cochin. The latter, however, as soon as they saw the mighty host in glittering armour advancing with loud shouts into the water, fled at full speed, leaving only their two chiefs, whom Pacheco detained, that they might be witnesses of European valour. The first attack was made by the fleet, of which the proas covered the sea; yet his little squadron kept up a fire so well directed, that all the ships which approached were either sunk or dispersed. The hardest conflict was with twenty, which were bound together by an iron chain; but Pacheco, by a well-

aimed discharge from a large cannon, cut the chain in two, and they were scattered like the others. The land army, meantime, were making furious efforts to pass the ford, darkening the air with their javelins, which they discharged from a huge turret with powerful effect. The attack was continued so long, that the Portuguese were nearly overpowered with fatigue; yet their little band maintained their ground so firmly, and kept up so destructive a fire, that the enemy was finally beaten off. Of the defenders a few were wounded, but not a single man killed; while more than a thousand of their opponents were believed to have fallen.

The zamorin, most deeply mortified by this issue, determined to make another grand effort. He augmented his fleet to upwards of two hundred vessels, and put 15,000 troops on board, designing to make a combined naval and military attack. Pacheco, on seeing this armament approach, ordered his men not to move till the enemy should come up, when he opened a tremendous fire, which struck them with such amazement, that, in spite of the utmost exertions on the part of their leaders, the whole betook themselves to a shameful flight. Repeated attempts, always with the same result, were made on successive days by the Indian sovereign. On the last occasion the Portuguese were rather hard pressed, and suffered some loss; but the casualties on the other side were also greater than ever, and sickness having broken out in his army, he renounced all hopes of success, and returned to Calicut.

These advantages may be considered as having laid the foundation of European empire in India. It hence became manifest, that the innumerable multitude of the native people, and the vast armies which they brought into the field, would not avail either for conquest or defence, and that a handful of disciplined warriors possessed an irresistible superiority over the countless hosts of Asia. Pacheco pointed out the road of victory to Albuquerque, by the brilliancy and extent of whose exploits his own name was afterwards eclipsed; yet, with inferior means, he commanded more uniform success, and was perhaps superior to him in wisdom and talent, as well as in humanity. He was at length superseded

by Lope Soarez, who arrived with a fleet and army from Portugal, but who treated him with merited distinction, and on their return home loaded his character with the highest commendations. In his zeal for the public service he had neglected his private fortune, which the king gave him an opportunity of retrieving by appointing him Governor of El Mina, the chief settlement on the coast of Africa. Here, however, a violent faction was raised against him; he was sent home in chains, and kept long in confinement; and though at last honourably acquitted, died without receiving the rewards due to his signal merits.

Soarez, on reaching the coast of India, was immediately waited on by a Moor called Coje Bequi, accompanied by a Portuguese boy who had been a captive at Calicut. They brought overtures of peace from the zamorin, who offered to release all the prisoners, and to grant every commercial privilege the admiral could desire. This chief appears to have been now in earnest, and Lope agreed to steer for Calicut, whence a ship brought out to him a supply of provisions with several of the principal captives, who were delivered unconditionally. The treaty seemed to be proceeding in the most favourable train, when the Europeans added a condition, that the Milanese who had assisted the zamorin in the late war should be delivered up. The Moorish negotiator replied, that an article which so deeply affected his master's honour could not be concluded without special reference to himself; for which purpose a certain delay was craved, as he was then at some distance in the interior. But Soarez, with that overbearing temper to which his countrymen were too prone, demanded immediate assent; and this being withheld, he opened a fire upon the city, and reduced a great part of it to ashes. He then sailed for Cochin, the king of which earnestly pressed him to destroy Cranganore, a frontier town strongly attached to the zamorin. He found this a somewhat difficult task; however, after an obstinate contest, he took the place, burned it, and carried the fleet in triumph to his head establishment. Having afterwards destroyed a considerable squadron stationed at Panane, he returned to Europe.

In 1505, the King of Portugal sent out a large fleet under Francisco Almeyda, who bore for the first time the pompous title of Viceroy of India. Having spent some time in establishing the dominion of his flag over Eastern Africa, he sailed across to Malabar. In resentment for some acts of piracy, he attacked Onor, and obtained temporary possession of that place; but the enemy came down in such vast numbers, that he was soon obliged to re-embark. However, as they had suffered severely, and as his strength was still formidable, they were induced to grant his demands. He was soon afterwards flattered by the arrival of an embassy from the King of Narsinga, a mighty Mohammedan potentate, whose capital, Bisnagar, was justly described as far surpassing in magnificence the greatest of the maritime cities. The unrivalled splendour of the gems which they brought as presents bore ample testimony to the wealth of their master. They carried a most courteous message from this great sovereign, who even offered to bestow in marriage on John, the young prince of Portugal, his daughter, a virgin of exquisite beauty. What reply was made respecting the lady, historians have not recorded; but Almeyda's answer showed a disposition to cultivate a friendly intercourse with the monarch himself.

On repairing to Cochin, he found a remarkable change. Triumpara, the old and faithful friend of the Portuguese, was now a fakir, living on herbs, clothed in tatters, renouncing the world, and entirely absorbed in the contemplation of the mysterious essence of Brahma,—a transformation of which the West has presented only one signal example, but which is much less foreign to oriental ideas. Anxious as he was to show every mark of respect to this benevolent devotee, it would have been superfluous to bestow his rich presents on one who had bidden adieu for ever to the earth and all its concerns. He tendered them to his nephew, Nambeadim, who, by the law of nair succession, had already ascended his uncle's throne. Meantime Coulan, a port frequented on account of the abundance of excellent pepper which it afforded, had become the scene of a dreadful tragedy. Home,

whom Almeyda had stationed there, finding it difficult to make up his cargo, determined upon using the most violent means for effecting his object. He caused all the Moorish ships to be dismantled, and would not allow them to take on board a pound of the spice till the Portuguese had completed their lading. This outrageous prohibition was as annoying to the natives as to the Moors; and the former were easily induced to join in a scheme of revenge. They assembled in vast numbers, and attacked the aggressors, who, amounting to no more than thirteen, fled to a chapel dedicated to the Virgin. The mob soon surrounded this sanctuary; but not being able to force an entrance, they brought a quantity of wood, and succeeding in setting fire to it, they destroyed the edifice with all who were in it. Almeyda censured and even degraded Homo, who, however, had left the place before this crisis; yet, deeming it not the less necessary to inflict a memorable chastisement on the Coulanites, he sent an armament under his son Lorenzo, who destroyed a part of their fleet.

The viceroy now found himself exposed to a danger of the first magnitude, and which threatened to shake the very foundation of Portuguese ascendancy. The Sultan of Cairo, inflamed at once by that bigoted zeal with which the Mohammedan creed inspires its votaries, and by the injuries which his vessels had sustained from European pirates, fitted out a large fleet, and sent it under the command of Mir Hocem, to the coast of India, to extirpate that infidel race who were extending conquest and devastation over all the Eastern Seas. At the time he received intelligence that this flotilla was under sail, a considerable part of his squadron was still out under Lorenzo, to whom he sent instructions to attack the enemy before they could arrive on the coast and be joined by any of the native princes. The young admiral, who had anchored off the port of Chaul, was busily preparing to execute his father's directions when the Egyptians were seen approaching the harbour. The enemy, having a favourable wind and tide, entered the river, and at once drew up their ships in order of battle. The Portuguese fought for two days with the most desperate valour, not only

keeping up a constant cannonade, but boarding and capturing several of the Sultan's galleys; and Lorenzo was only prevented by an adverse current from taking the commander's ship. But on the second morning Mir Hocem was reinforced by Malik Az, the viceroy of Diu. At the end of that bloody day the squadron under the son of Almeyda was dreadfully shattered; the principal officers, including the gallant leader himself, were wounded; and the force of the enemy was so immensely superior, as to leave no hope of a successful resistance. It was determined, in a council of war, to take advantage of a favourable tide, and proceed out to sea. This movement having been commenced at midnight, was going on successfully, when, by a fearful mischance, the ship in which Lorenzo himself sailed ran foul of some fishing-stakes. Pelagio Sousa, who commanded the nearest galley, fastened a rope, and, plying all his oars, endeavoured to tow her off, but in vain. Meantime the whole of the enemy's fleet, having discovered what was going on, pressed close behind. Sousa's men, apprehending that they would be involved in the fate of the vessel to which they were attached, basely cut the rope, when their ship was irresistibly borne out to sea by the current, leaving the admiral to contend alone with his numerous pursuers. He was now entreated to enter a boat, in which he might still have easily regained the fleet; but the brave and high-spirited youth declared his fixed determination not to abandon his crew in this extremity, but to share their fate whatever it might be. He had not yet lost all hope that, by prodigious exertions of valour, he might hold out till the advancing tide should float his ship. He drew up his hundred men, of whom seventy were wounded, with such skill, that the enemy durst not attempt to board. They merely collected their vessels round him, and opened a tremendous fire, which wrapped the combatants in a cloud of flame and smoke. Lorenzo having received a ball in the thigh, which rendered him unable to move, caused himself to be lashed to the mast, whence he continued to direct and cheer his men. At length another ball struck him in the breast; he fell down and expired. Still

the crew resisted three successive attempts to board, till Malik Az, a prince equally distinguished for bravery and humanity, prevailed on the twenty survivors, all of whom were wounded, to surrender, and treated them with the most tender care and sympathy. De Barros adds, that he wrote a letter to Almeyda, deeply condoling with him on the death of his son, whose valour had commanded his warmest admiration.

It was a most painful task to communicate to the governor the loss of his only son, cut off in the midst of such a high and hopeful career. He received the tidings with fortitude and piety, declaring that he had much less desired for the youth long life than a distinguished character. Gratified in this point, and trusting that he was now enjoying the reward of his excellent conduct, he did not feel any cause to mourn. Meantime, however, he was eagerly preparing to avenge his death, and that too, we are sorry to add, in a temper ill accordant with the meek spirit of the faith which he had just professed. He had got ready a fleet of nineteen ships, having on board an army partly Portuguese, partly natives of Cochin, and was about to sail, when his path was crossed by a most unexpected event.

In the year 1506, Alphonso Albuquerque was despatched with a large reinforcement to the fleet now in India. He went out burning with hope, and big with vast schemes of ambition, aspiring to the reputation of spreading the Portuguese sway over all the East. Having sailed first to Arabia, he reduced Curiat, Muscat, and other important cities on that coast. He then attacked the celebrated kingdom of Ormuz, and, after several dreadful combats by sea and land, had so far succeeded as to impose a treaty which rendered its king tributary, and was erecting a fort that would have commanded the city, when the treacherous desertion of three of his officers compelled him for the present to relinquish the fruit of his victories. Almeyda, who was friendly to moderate measures, and averse to schemes of conquest, had sent a disavowal of these violent and ambitious assaults. But what was his astonishment when Albuquerque arrived at Cochin, and presented

a commission constituting himself Governor-general of India. To be thus checked in an undertaking to which he was impelled by such powerful motives was more than he could endure. Finding that his principal officers, by whom he was idolized, were ready to support him even in resistance to the royal will, he told his successor that, under present circumstances, it was impossible to carry the order into effect, and more especially until, by vanquishing the Egyptian fleet, he had avenged his son's death. The other replied indignantly, and not without reason, that the king's mandate was imperative and unconditional, and that any delay in obeying it was equivalent to setting the royal authority at open defiance. The former adhered to his resolution, and even, on polite pretences, declined allowing to his successor any share in the expedition, who retired in disgust to Cochin.

Almeyda now sailed to attack the enemy; but on his way having learned that Dabul, one of the greatest commercial establishments on this coast, had embraced with zeal the Egyptian cause, he determined to turn aside and reduce it. This station was very strongly defended, not only by a trench and palisade, but by a fort with powerful batteries, to disembark in the face of which appeared a very perilous enterprise. The Portuguese commander, however, caused the ships to be drawn up in a line facing the shore, then ordered his troops to enter the boats, and push full speed towards the land. They followed his directions with enthusiasm, and even with rapture leaped on shore, striving which should be foremost, and pressed on to the rampart. By this rapid and skilful movement the artillery pointed against the ships, having a somewhat high range, passed over the heads of the advancing soldiers, who without any annoyance reached the gates. They could then advance only by three narrow passages between the city and the beach, each stoutly defended by large bands of armed citizens. The contest was dreadful; the piles of dead formed a barrier more formidable than even the palisade; and the assailants thronging behind impeded each other. Almeyda, perceiving these obstacles, ordered Vasco Pereyra to penetrate by

another passage less open but also less diligently guarded, by which he entered the city, and soon placed it in possession of the Portuguese. The conqueror gave it up to plunder; and his followers, it is reluctantly admitted, stained their glory by inexpressible cruelties. The streets streamed with blood, and the parent besought in vain for the life of his child. The distracted multitudes fled in crowds to the great mosque, but soon finding that no place was sacred in the eyes of their enemies, hastened through the opposite gates, and sought refuge in the caves of the neighbouring mountain. The commander took up his quarters in the holy edifice; but confusion still reigned through the city, and in the morning an alarm was given that a fire had broken out in the eastern quarter. The flames spread rapidly through the light fabrics of timber; and the sparks flying from roof to roof, street after street was enveloped in the conflagration. Almeyda and his officers fled before it; and in a few hours there remained of this magnificent city only a pile of smoking wood and ashes. The fire also reached the shipping, which was entirely consumed, and even the Portuguese vessels were in danger. According to Osorio and other historians, this conflagration was ordered by the admiral himself, as the only means of withdrawing his men from plunder, and preventing an entire loss of discipline; but De Barros mentions this only as a rumour, and it certainly appears somewhat improbable.

From this disgraceful triumph the victor hastened to his main object of attacking the combined fleets in the Gulf of Cambay. Overtures of peace were received, but being considered, apparently with little reason, as insidious, they obtained no notice. The enemy's squadrons were strongly posted in the harbour of Diu, where Malik Az advised his ally to await the onset; but the impetuous spirit of Mir Hocem impelled him to leave the harbour, keeping, however, so near the shore as to be supported by a chain of batteries. The large vessels were linked two and two, and defended against boarding by a sloping network of strong rope. The Portuguese, notwithstanding, advanced to the attack with the

utmost intrepidity; and Vasco Pereyra, the hero of the fleet, undertook to bear down upon the emir himself. The enemy opened a terrible fire, one discharge of which killed ten of his men. Undismayed by this loss, he was soon on board of their ship; where, having for a moment lifted his helmet, a ball pierced his throat and he expired. Tavora with his followers had mounted the network, when, part of it breaking, they fell down upon the deck: still, notwithstanding this accident, the Egyptians were at length all either killed or forced to quit the vessel. Pedro Cam also attacked another ship, and before the grappling-irons could be fixed, thirty-eight of his sailors were on the net-work; but while they were unfortunately entangled in it, his head was struck off, and they themselves could not use their weapons with freedom; yet, being seasonably supported by another party, they rallied and in the end subdued the crew. In fine, all the large vessels were either sunk or taken; the remainder, discomfited and shattered, retreated far up the river, where the victors could not follow. The captured ships were found to contain ample booty, the whole of which Almeyda divided among his people.

After this signal defeat, Malik Az sent to treat for peace. The conqueror assumed at first a very high tone, demanding that Mir Hocem, the inveterate enemy of the Christian name, should be delivered into his hands. The Cambayan prince, with that lofty sense of honour which had always distinguished him, declared that such treatment of a firm and faithful ally was altogether inadmissible, and he could only engage to restore unconditionally all the European captives. With this Almeyda, after such a dear-bought victory, thought it expedient to be satisfied. We grieve to add that, inspired by a feeling very different from that of his antagonist, on arriving off the port of Cananore, he disgraced his cause by a general massacre of the prisoners. It is lamentable to reflect that a commander, who had previously gained some reputation for clemency, should have been stimulated to such actions by grief for the death of a son, who had fallen in open and honourable battle against a generous foe.

On his return to Cochin, he was again summoned by Albuquerque to yield up the command assigned by the sovereign to himself; but, encouraged by his partisans, he still held the reigns of power, and even went so far as to place his rival under a nominal arrest. At this juncture, however, arrived Fernando Coutinho, a nobleman of high character, with fifteen ships and a considerable body of troops. This officer immediately undertook to mediate between the contending parties, and, by representing to Almeyda how very irregular the course was into which he had been betrayed, persuaded him amicably to resign the viceroyalty. Having made this sacrifice to duty, he set sail for Portugal. In passing along the southern coast of Africa, his men involved themselves in a scuffle with a band of Hottentots, when he hastened to their aid with a party nearly unarmed, and full of contempt for this rude and almost savage enemy. These barbarians, however, swift and fearless, made so terrible an onset, that Almeyda, deserted by his troops, was mortally wounded with a javolin in the neck, and fell. The Portuguese writers lament it as a singular caprice of fate, that this illustrious commander, who had fought in all the Indian Seas, and had vanquished the mightiest warriors of the East, should perish thus miserably on an unknown shore, in a contest with a handful of naked and deformed wretches scarcely entitled to the name of men.

Albuquerque now determined not to lose a moment in entering on his vast schemes of conquest. The first object of attack was Calicut, the chief seat of a power which had the most resolutely opposed his countrymen. Coutinho, who was about to return to Portugal, insisted upon being allowed to take the lead upon this occasion, which his rank, and the friendship that subsisted between them, made it impossible for him to refuse. The fleet arrived on the 2d January 1510 in front of Calicut; but as the city could only be approached by narrow avenues through thick woods, in which the whole army had not room to act, it was arranged that the two commanders should advance in separate divisions. Albuquerque's party scarcely slept, so much were they excited by the

joyful and eager anticipation of landing; and as soon as day dawned, they could no longer be restrained, but sprung on shore, and rushed against a fortified palace, which was to be the first object of assault. A few minutes placed it in their possession; and Coutinho, whose march had been delayed by several accidents, came up and found the prize won. He burst into a torrent of invective against the viceroy for having anticipated him contrary to faith and agreement, declaring that he should not be so cheated in regard to the attack on the principal palace, which stood on the other side of the city. Albuquerque attempted to explain, and besought him not to advance without having secured a retreat; but the other would not listen either to advice or remonstrance. He forced his way with impetuous valour through the streets of Calicut, and reached the royal residence, which, as is common in the East, formed a little town surrounded by a wall, and was the only regular fortification in the city. It was, besides, defended by the main strength of the army; but nothing could arrest Coutinho, who soon forced open the gates, and rendered himself master of the whole enclosure. Deeming his victory already complete and secure, he allowed his men full license to plunder, and, repairing himself to the regal halls, sought rest and refreshment after the toils of the battle. The Indians had been surprised, but were not dismayed; perhaps they had allowed Coutinho to advance so far, with the view of drawing him into a trap. The chief nair uttered a cry which, repeated from mouth to mouth to the distance of several miles, drew quickly around him thirty thousand men well armed, and determined to conquer or die. They fell first upon Albuquerque, who with his troops occupied the city, maintaining a communication with the fleet. He found himself wholly unprepared to sustain this attack. The Indians, occupying the roofs and all the most advantageous coverts, poured upon the Portuguese a continued shower of darts; while they, entangled in narrow lanes and avenues, could neither advance nor recede. Their chief, after seeing some of his bravest men fall, had no resource but to set fire to this part of the city; when the

enemy, being dispersed by the flames, the Europeans, taking advantage of the confusion, made a rapid retreat, and reached the ships. Coutinho meantime received repeated warnings of the alarming state of affairs; but secure in fancied triumph, and viewing the natives with fixed contempt, he shut his ears to all intimations of peril. Soon, however, when his colleague had given way, and the whole force of the enemy was turned against himself, the danger became too pressing to be any longer overlooked. He then sprung to the head of his troops, and fought like a lion. The palace was set on fire; and his men, completely surrounded by a vast army, in a disadvantageous position, sought only to cut their way through to the ships. In this disastrous day Coutinho himself fell; and, in endeavouring to defend him, Vasco Sylveira, and other chiefs of the noblest families in Portugal, shared his fate. De Barros reckons that, out of 1600, eighty were killed and 300 wounded. Albuquerque, stunned by repeated blows, remained for some time apparently dead; but he was carried off by his followers, and conveyed to Cochin, where he slowly gained strength.

This inauspicious commencement in no degree cooled the ardour of the viceroy. Scarcely had he recovered from his wounds, when he resumed his boldest schemes of conquest; and though he no longer ventured to attack the metropolis of the zamorin, he still wished to gain some great city which his countrymen might establish as their capital, where he might safely moor his fleets, and thence realize his plans of victory and colonization. Timoia, an Indian pirate, the trusty friend of the Portuguese, drew his attention to Goa. This town is situated upon an island twenty-three miles in circuit, if island it may be called, which is separated from the land only by a salt-marsh fordable in many places. The surface is fertile, diversified by little hills and valleys, and almost sufficient of itself to supply a great city with every necessary of life. The adjoining territory, called Canara, forms the sea-coast of the Deccan. It had been conquered by the Mogul, and annexed to the dominions of Delhi; but, in the distracted

state of that empire, several independent kingdoms had arisen in the south, among which Narsinga, with its capital of Bisnagar, set the example. Of these rulers the sovereign of Goa, called the zabaim, was the most powerful. Timoia, however, gave notice that this prince, being occupied in war with several states of the interior, had left his own almost unprotected. Albuquerque, readily embracing this suggestion, hastily assembled an expedition, and, in conjunction with his guide, arrived off Goa on the 25th February 1510. Several of the forts which defended the approaches having been taken, and the fleet of the besiegers brought up close to the walls, the citizens, who were chiefly persons connected with trade, began seriously to ponder the consequences likely to ensue were the place to be taken by storm, especially by an enemy whose mercy had never been conspicuous. They sent, therefore, a deputation, composed principally of merchants, who privately intimated that the Portuguese commander might obtain admission on certain conditions, including full protection to commerce and private property. Albuquerque granted these terms, and was immediately put in possession of the town. He fulfilled his stipulations in the strictest manner, adopting every measure calculated to preserve order and prosperity, and even continuing many of the natives in their civil employments. Having occupied the palace of the zabaim, he assumed at once the character of a great eastern potentate; sending an embassy to the King of Narsinga, and receiving, in the most gracious manner, those of Persia and Ormuz, who were then on a mission to the sovereign of Goa. But he soon found himself by no means in the secure and agreeable position he at first imagined. The zabaim, on hearing that his capital was in the possession of those hated foreigners, roused all his energies, and disregarded every object in comparison with their immediate expulsion. He at once concluded peace with his enemies, several of whom made common cause with him against this powerful adversary; and an army of upwards of 40,000 men began its march under his direction. Albuquerque undauntedly viewed its advance, though threatened

with an internal danger perhaps still more formidable. In this distant service, the spirit of discipline was not easily maintained, and both men and officers had acquired a habit of criticising the proceedings of their general. There arose a numerous party, who argued, that with so small a number of troops, and without any prospect of reinforcement, it was madness to attempt making head against the numerous host now approaching, surrounded by a population generally hostile, and in the heart of an immense city, whose inhabitants only watched for an opportunity to aid in their destruction. These fears and reasonings were by no means without foundation; but the lofty spirit of Albuquerque indignantly repelled the idea of tamely relinquishing so magnificent a prize. The faction, amounting to nine hundred, insisted that so brave an army ought not to be sacrificed to the obstinacy of one man, and began to form a scheme for wresting the power from their commander, and carrying into effect their own counsels. But having traced this plot to its origin, he surprised the conspirators at a secret meeting, and threw the ringleaders into prison. The remainder sued for pardon, which, being unable to dispense with the services of any of his small number of troops, he could not expediently refuse. They were therefore, with a very few exceptions, restored to their employments.

The zabaim meantime was advancing upon the city. The chief hope of Albuquerque depended upon his success in defending the approaches to the island; but the channel separating it from the mainland was so narrow, and in many places so shallow, that it presented by no means an insuperable obstacle. He stationed chosen troops at all the exposed points, covering them with walls and intrenchments. The native prince, completely baffled in his first attempts, had almost resigned himself to despair; but at length he bethought himself of a nocturnal attack, favoured by the monsoon. The night of the 17th May, being dark and stormy, two large bodies advanced at different points, and though unable to surprise the Portuguese, succeeded in forcing their way into the island. The whole army was soon transported over, and com-

menced operations against the city. The viceroy stood his ground with his characteristic firmness; but as the enemy was aided by repeated risings within the walls, while his own officers took occasion to renew their remonstrances as to the untenable nature of the place, he found at last that no alternative remained but to retire into the fort, whence, by means of the river on which it was situated, he could still communicate with the fleet. But the zabaim, having taken possession of the town, immediately commenced operations for reducing this stronghold. By sinking large ships in the stream, he endeavoured to interrupt the communication, and at the same time provided pitch, sulphur, and other combustibles, for the purpose of setting fire to the Portuguese squadron. Albuquerque, unable to obstruct the progress of these fatal measures, at last felt that he must evacuate the fortress. Even this was become difficult; but he executed his resolution with vigour and success. Having conveyed privately on board all the guns, ammunition, and provisions, and seen the troops embark in profound silence, he himself went last into the flag-ship. He might have reached the fleet unnoticed and unmolested, had not the explosion of a magazine, which roused the enemy, given rise to a severe encounter.

Being in this manner compelled to move out to sea, he was anxious to do something which might redeem the honour lost in his late undertaking, and revive the spirits of his men. At Pangin, near Goa, the enemy had formed a strongly intrenched camp, and frequently sent out vessels to annoy the Portuguese. He therefore fitted out an expedition, which, approaching in deep silence, reached the shore at the first dawn, suddenly landed, and having sounded the drums and trumpets, and raised loud shouts, the Indians awoke in such a panic, that they ran off without once facing their assailants; upon which the latter, at their leisure, carried off a great quantity of artillery and stores, as well as a large supply of provisions. Learning soon after that a squadron was preparing to attack him, he anticipated the movement by sending a number of ships, under his nephew, Antony Noronha.

who was met by the Indian chief at the head of thirty paraos; but, after an obstinate conflict, the zabaim was compelled to retreat full speed to the shore. The conquerors followed, when Peter and Ferdinand Andrade, with five men, boarded the principal vessel; but their captain, mounting behind them, was severely wounded, and fell into the boat. Amid the general anxiety, and while all efforts were employed to remove their leader out of danger, the Andrades and their party were forgotten; the ship, by the receding of the tide, was left on dry land; and they were attacked by greatly superior numbers, against whom they could only defend themselves by prodigies of valour. When their condition was observed, it was for some time doubtful how to reach them; at length eight bold mariners pushing on shore in the long-boat, attacked and made themselves masters of the ship; but, being unable to tow it off, were obliged to content themselves with the feat of rescuing their comrades. It is pleasing, amid the ferocity of this war, to find an exchange of chivalrous courtesy. The zabaim sent messengers, expressing his admiration of the valour of the Portuguese; and a polite answer was returned. Even a negotiation for peace was opened, though without success.

The pride of the enemy being humbled, and the spirits and courage of the Portuguese revived by these exploits, Albuquerque sailed to Cananore, where he refitted his fleet, and received considerable reinforcements; resolving, as soon as the season allowed, to make a second attempt upon Goa. His confidence of a happier issue on this occasion seems to have been founded chiefly on the fact that the zabaim was involved in war with the kingdom of Narsinga, which was likely for some time to occupy the greater part of his forces. Unable, however, to muster more than 1500 European and 300 native troops, it was a very serious undertaking to attack a large and strong capital, garrisoned by upwards of 9000 men. It had been farther strengthened by a new wall and ditch, and by a stockade drawn through the water, behind which the ships were moored in security, and stood like so many towers. However, having arrived in front of the city, he deter-

mined not to delay the assault, though there was no appearance of his ally Timoa. In the morning, accordingly, he opened with his cannon a tremendous fire, and the whole shore was wrapt in a cloud of smoke, illumined only by the flashes. He landed and divided his troops into two parts, one of which was led by himself, and attacked the northern quarter; the other, in three separate bands, proceeded in an opposite direction. One division, led by the Limas and other chosen heroes, having anticipated their commander, drove the enemy within the walls; and as they were shutting the gate, Fernando Melos thrust in a large spear, which prevented it from closing. Several others following this example, it was, after a most desperate struggle, forced open, and the assailants entered along with the fugitives. These, however, still made a resolute stand in the houses and corners of the streets, particularly in the palace of the zabaim. Here a strong body had taken post, and twenty Portuguese, who rashly advanced, were almost entirely cut to pieces. John de Lima, on forcing a passage, found his brother Jeronymo, with several of his comrades, lying in the agonies of death; but the fallen chief professed perfect resignation to his fate, and entreated that there might not, on his account, be a moment's delay. The enemy, driven from the palace, rallied on a neighbouring hill. The commander, who had been extremely surprised to find the battle raging in the city, now entered, but had still to wage a hard contest of six hours' duration before it was completely in his power.

Albuquerque, being left for some time in the undisturbed possession of this capital, applied himself to secure it as a permanent acquisition to his country. His views on this subject materially differed from those of Almeyda, who conceived it wisest to keep their fleets united and at sea, only touching occasionally at friendly ports. So combined, they appeared to him more formidable than when dispersed over different stations and settlements, while they could, at the same time, overawe the native powers without giving any reasonable ground of jealousy. Albuquerque's opinion, on the contrary, was, that a large city and a spacious

port, which they could call their own, were essential to the maintenance of Portuguese supremacy. They would then have a secure station for their fleets, a fixed point for receiving reinforcements, and a retreat in case of disaster, without depending on the precarious friendship of their allies. He studied, therefore, to render Goa a suitable capital for an eastern empire. He sent and received ambassadors, whom he astonished by the display of a pomp surpassing even that of India; and he surprised them still more by the extensive fortifications and useful works which he had already constructed. He viewed it also as an essential object to attach the natives to his government, for which purpose he adopted a somewhat singular expedient. Having numerous female captives, some belonging to the first families in the country, he treated them in the most honourable manner; but, not satisfied with this, he proceeded to arrange matrimonial connexions between them and his European followers, without leaving much choice on either side. Some such procedure is at least alluded to by De Barros, when he compares his mode of cementing the Portuguese power to that employed by Romulus for peopling his infant state of Rome. It was made an absolute condition with the brides that they should embrace Christianity; an obstacle which was not found insurmountable, the prejudices of caste and religion being less deeply rooted there than in other parts of the East. A few such marriages being formed, the viceroy showed the parties peculiar favour, and bestowed on the husbands some of his best appointments. The principal families, finding themselves aggrandized by these connexions, so far from objecting to them, gave their countenance to new matches. An odd story is told of a great number of weddings being celebrated at once with a splendid festival, when the lights being prematurely extinguished, it became difficult for the parties to recognise each other, and they fell into many mistakes. Next morning an investigation was proposed; but, on mature reflection, it was judged best that each should remain content with the wife who had accidentally fallen to his lot, though different from the one to

whom the church had united him ; and the affair furnished to the army only an occasion of mirth.

Having thus settled the government, the viceroy resumed the consideration of his more distant schemes of conquest. Two objects engrossed his mind,—Ormuz, the splendid emporium of the Persian Gulf, which had been snatched from him almost in the moment of victory ; and Malacca, a native kingdom, considered then as the key to the remotest regions and islands of Asia. The latter obtained the preference. The capital, though situated upon the coast of a barren peninsula, was enriched in an extraordinary degree by being the centre of the commerce carried on between Hindostan, China, and the eastern islands,—a trade which now gives prosperity to Singapore. Albuquerque sailed thither with a force of eight hundred Portuguese and six hundred Indians ; to oppose which the king had mustered a garrison that has been represented as exceeding 30,000. Negotiations were opened, and professions made on both sides of a desire for peace ; but it was obvious that such an expedition could terminate only in an appeal to arms. A vigorous resistance was made by means of wooden machines, cannon, and a species of artificial fire peculiar to the East ; but the intrepidity of Albuquerque and his followers finally triumphed. Having expelled all the native troops, and become complete master of the city, he immediately began to erect a strong fort out of the materials of the shattered palaces ; he settled the government on that firm yet conciliatory principle which distinguished his policy ; and opened negotiations with Siam, Java, and Sumatra, from which countries it is even asserted that he received friendly embassies.

During his absence on this expedition, the zabaim again mustered his forces, and sent a powerful army under successive commanders, who forced their way into the island of Goa, erected there a strong fort called Benaster, and pressed the city very closely. Having, after some delay, arrived with a considerable reinforcement, he obliged the enemy to raise the siege, but was completely repulsed in an attack on the garrison ; and it was not

till after repeated assaults that he was able to drive them from their fortress, and finally establish the Portuguese supremacy.

The viceroy again resumed his plans of distant conquest, but was baffled in two successive attempts upon Aden, then the chief emporium of the Red Sea. At length he equipped a great armament to achieve the most favourite object of his ambition. With 1500 European and 600 Asiatic troops he sailed against Ormuz, where his strength was considered so formidable, that the king did not venture to oppose his demand for permission to erect a fort. Having performed this task with his usual diligence, he forthwith suggested the great convenience of transporting to this station all the cannon in the city. The unfortunate monarch, conscious of the state to which he was reduced, felt it no longer possible to refuse even this request, and the celebrated Ormuz became completely a Portuguese establishment; a triumph which left the ambitious commander hardly anything to wish in that part of the world, where he had firmly established the flag of his country.

But this brilliant career was approaching to its close. Albuquerque was now somewhat advanced in years, and his constitution, exhausted by so many toils, began to exhibit symptoms of decay. Finding his health in an infirm state, he became anxious to revisit Goa; and as he passed along the coast of Cambay, tidings arrived which struck him to the heart. A new fleet had been sent out, and Lope Soares, the name of all others which he most detested, not only commanded it, but was appointed to supersede him as Governor of India. New officers were nominated to the principal vessels and forts,—all of them known to be most hostile to his interest. His power and influence, he felt, were at an end. The Portuguese writers, always silent on everything which might affect the credit of their sovereign, give no hint of the motives that induced him to cast off so suddenly the man who had conquered for him a great empire. European counsellors, it may be presumed, possessed the ear of the monarch, and might whisper that the viceroy was becoming too great to continue a subject.

There was not even a letter or any other mark of honour to soften this deep disgrace.

A death-blow was now given to this great leader, who no longer wished to live. Amid his agonies, it was suggested to him that the attachment of his adherents was so devoted as might enable him to defy the mandate of an ungrateful master, and still remain ruler of the Indian Seas. His mind seems to have opened for a moment to the temptation; but he finally repelled it, and sought only in the grave a refuge for his wounded pride and honour. Violently agitated, refusing food and refreshment, and calling every hour for death, it could not be far distant. As his end approached, he was persuaded to write a short letter to the king in favour of his son, expressed in the following proud but pathetic terms:—"Senor,—This is the last letter which, in the agonies of death, I write to your Highness, of the many which I have written during the long period of my life, when I had the satisfaction of serving you. In your kingdom I have a son, by name Braz de Albuquerque, whom I entreat your Highness to favour as my services may merit. As for the affairs of India, they will speak for themselves and for me." Feeling that he must die before reaching Goa, his mind became tranquillized; he ascribed the present change to the ordination of Providence, and turned all his thoughts to that other world on which he was about to enter. A light barge sent before him brought out the vicar-general, who administered to him the sacraments of the church; and on the morning of the 16th December 1515 he expired. He was carried in pomp to the shore, where his funeral was celebrated by the tears both of his own countrymen and of the natives, whose hearts he had completely attached to him. Thus died Alphonso d'Albuquerque, who stood foremost among his countrymen, and ranks with the greatest naval commanders of modern Europe.

At his death the Portuguese empire in the East, so recently founded, had reached its utmost limits. Only a few points on the remoter coast of Africa, and two or three settlements on the shore of Coromandel, were afterwards added to it. Their dominion,

according to the boast of their historian Faria y Sousa, stretched from the Cape of Good Hope to the frontier of China, and comprehended a coast 12,000 miles in extent. It is impossible, however, not to observe that this is somewhat of an empty boast, since over this immense space there were not perhaps more than thirty factories established, and the nearest of them separated by upwards of a thousand miles. In many, perhaps in most cases, they possessed not a spot of ground beyond the walls of the fortress. Their real sovereignty was on the ocean, where their ships, armed and manned in a manner superior to those of the native powers, were victorious in almost every encounter. This species of government, with the exclusive commerce between Europe and India, they retained for upwards of a century. Their history, during this period, consists chiefly of the struggles to maintain their ground against the natives, whom their domineering, bigoted, and persecuting spirit, soon inspired with the bitterest enmity. These contests, which usually ended in the repulse of the latter, and in the two parties being replaced in their wonted position, are too monotonous to justify a detailed narrative. One or two of them, however, were so memorable as to deserve to be here recorded.

In 1536, Nuno da Cunha, then governor-general, obtained permission to erect a fort at the important city of Diu, in a situation highly favourable for trade, but which brought his people in contact with the powerful kingdoms of Cambay and Guzerat. Badur, ruler of the former of these nations, who at first welcomed their approach, soon began to view them with jealousy. In a visit that he paid to the settlement a scuffle ensued, in which he himself was killed, while the commandant and several other European chiefs shared the same fate. Sylveira, who succeeded to the charge, made the greatest efforts to justify the conduct of his countrymen in the eyes of the natives, and appeared at first to have succeeded; yet there still remained a leaven of discord. This was strongly fomented by Khojah Zofar, a Moorish chief, who had at first embraced with apparent zeal the cause of the

Portuguese, but afterwards became their bitterest enemy. Through him a great force was levied in Guzerat, with which Solymán Pasha, the governor of Cairo, was ordered by the Grand Seignior to co-operate. This officer sailed from Suez with seventy galleys, having on board 7000 of the best Turkish soldiers, and a superb train of artillery. He was joined on his arrival by upwards of 20,000 troops of Guzerat, and early in September 1538 laid close siege to the Portuguese fort. Sylveira had only 600 men, many of whom were sickly; and in consequence of an interregnum in the general government, occasioned by the appointment of Garcia de Noronha to supersede Nuno da Cunha, no succours were received from Goa. He, however, prepared for resistance with the utmost vigour; and the siege which he sustained is considered one of the most memorable in the annals of Portuguese domination in Asia. Exploits of the most daring valour were achieved, the women vying with the other sex in courage and enthusiasm. Donna Isabella de Vega assembled the females within the fort, and, representing that all the men were required to bear arms against the enemy, induced them to undertake the laborious task of repairing the works shattered by the incessant fire of the batteries. Ann Fernandez, the lady of a physician, ran from post to post, even while the assault was hottest, cheering and encouraging the soldiers; and her son falling in one of the attacks, she carried away his body, then returned to the scene of combat, and remained till the close, when she went to perform his obsequies.

Under the impulse of this high feeling, the enemy were defeated in successive attempts, made during several weeks, to carry the fortress by storm. The garrison, however, who suffered in each attack, were at length reduced to less than half their original number, and these so exhausted that they could ill continue such severe exertions. The besiegers, wearied out and exasperated with the length and obstinacy of the defence, determined to make one grand and desperate effort. They first began by withdrawing their galleys, as if intending to raise the siege, then at midnight suddenly returned, and immediately applied scaling-ladders

to the sea-wall. The garrison were instantly roused, and hastened to meet the attack ; but the others persevered with such fury, that they at length forced an entrance into one of the principal bulwarks. They were repulsed by an almost preternatural valour, and are reported to have had 1500 men killed and wounded in the assault. But after so long and desperate a conflict the Portuguese had not above forty soldiers fit for duty ; Sylveira was already oppressed by the most gloomy apprehensions, when, to his joyful surprise, he found that the besiegers had made their last effort. Solyman, not aware, it may be presumed, of the desperate situation of his adversary, weighed anchor on the 5th November, and set sail for Egypt with all his fleet.

Khojah Zofar, who continued to retain the supreme sway in Guzerat, still cherished the most inveterate rancour against the Portuguese. Seven years after the period now mentioned, he assembled an army nearly as large as the former, and invested the castle of Diu, defended by Don Juan Mascarenhas with a garrison of only 210 men. With this slender force the governor most stoutly and gallantly maintained his post, keeping up a very destructive fire on the besiegers. The King of Cambay, who had come in the firm expectation of witnessing the fall of the castle, was so alarmed by a ball which penetrated his tent and killed an officer at his side, that he departed, leaving his generals to prosecute the siege. Zofar, soon afterwards, had his head carried off by a cannon shot ; but his son, Rumi Khan, inherited his daring spirit as well as his enmity to Christians. Notwithstanding the valour with which the besieged repulsed every assault, their numbers were gradually thinned, and they began to suffer the extremities of famine. At length Alvaro de Castro brought a reinforcement of 400 men ; but these troops, having insisted on being led out against the enemy, were driven back after suffering great loss. In October 1545, however, the new viceroy, Don Juan de Castro, one of the ablest and most distinguished of the Portuguese officers, arrived ; and having a powerful armament, he considered himself in a condition immediately to commence

offensive operations. He broke through the enemy's intrenchments, obliged them to give battle, and drove them, with prodigious slaughter, into the city. Thence they again sallied to the amount of 8000, whom De Castro totally routed, and entering along with them, was soon master of Diu; but he stained his glory by giving it up to indiscriminate plunder and massacre. Returning to Goa on the 11th April 1546, he made a most splendid triumphal entry, with bands of music, his head crowned with laurel, and the royal standard of Cambay dragged behind him. The streets were hung with silk, and resounded with acclamations. Queen Catherine, however, on receiving the account of this ostentatious procession, is said to have remarked, that the governor had indeed conquered like a Christian, but had triumphed like a pagan.

De Castro held the office of viceroy only from 1545 to 1548, during which time he established a high reputation, and made the Portuguese name dreaded on all the coasts of India. He appears to have been zealous in the service of his country, and singularly disinterested; since, after holding the government during the period we have mentioned over this rich province, he died in extreme poverty. But the dreadful barbarities of which he was guilty, though they do not seem to have shocked the historians of his own country, must tarnish his fame in the view of all nations possessing more humane feelings.

The most critical situation in which the Portuguese settlements were ever placed was in 1570, during the government of Don Luis de Ataide. Adel Khan and Nizam-ul-Mulk, two distinguished officers under the Mogul, formed an alliance with the zamorin; uniting with the firm resolution to expel this foreign people from the shores of India. The siege of Goa, considered the most important enterprise, was undertaken by the former, who collected for this purpose his whole force, estimated at 100,000 men, and commanded it in person. His army spent eight days in defiling through the Ghauts; after which, being encamped in tents ranged in straight lines, in that regular and magnificent

order observed by the Mogul soldiers, it presented the appearance of a handsome and spacious city. The viceroy was apparently taken by surprise, not having in Goa above 700 troops, with 1300 monks and armed slaves. By stopping a fleet about to sail for Europe, he might have obtained a reinforcement of 400 men; but he intrepidly rejected this resource, on account of the inconvenience which would be occasioned at home by the vessels not arriving; he was also, perhaps, ambitious to show that he could defend the town with only its own garrison, and such soldiers as might be obtained from the neighbouring settlements. The enemy began a series of most formidable attacks, attempting to cross into the island. Don Luis, however, not only repulsed them with success, but, on receiving some reinforcements, made repeated sallies into their quarters, on which occasions his troops acted with their usual courage and barbarity. Having killed numbers of the natives, the soldiers sent into the city cart-loads of heads, to afford to the people the savage encouragement derived from this spectacle. At the end of two months Adel Khan began to despair, and even opened a correspondence with the governor; but as each party not only concealed his wish for a termination of the siege, but assumed an air of haughty defiance, the negotiation made very slow progress. Ataide received various accessions, particularly one of 1500 men from the Moluccas, and was thereby rendered so strong, that the enemy could scarcely cherish any hope of success. The Mogul general, however, observing a point which, from confidence in its natural strength, had been less carefully fortified, resolved on a desperate attempt to effect a passage. On the 13th April, Solyman Aga, captain of the guards, made an attack so sudden and vigorous, that, in spite of the most resolute resistance, part of his troops forced their way into the island; but the Portuguese soon mustered their forces, and, after a brisk conflict, drove back or cut in pieces the whole of the assailants. Adel Khan, who viewed from the opposite bank this obstinate engagement and the discomfiture of his troops, was equally enraged and disheartened. From this time all his operations were con-

ducted in a languishing manner; yet his pride induced him to persevere several months longer, till, about the end of August, he struck his tents, and withdrew from before the city, after sustaining during the siege a loss of 12,000 men.

Meantime Nizam-ul-Mulk, in fulfilment of his part of the stipulation, advanced with an army equally formidable against Chaul, then a settlement of considerable importance near Bombay. The defence of this place appeared still more hopeless, it being situated entirely on the continent, and defended only by a single wall, with a fort little superior to a common house. The governor-general was therefore advised to withdraw his troops without any attempt at resistance; but he formed a resolution more worthy of him, and Luis Freyred' Andrada, the commander of the town, having had his garrison augmented to 2000 men, undertook to supply all deficiencies by his valour and genius. After some unsuccessful attempts to carry the place by a *coup de main*, the enemy opened a regular battery of not less than seventy cannon. At the end of a month the town had suffered considerable injury, the wall was entirely beaten down, and the assailants were attacking house after house. Each mansion, however, was in its turn converted into a species of fortress, and defended with the utmost obstinacy. The Moors, attempting a general assault, penetrated the city at different points, but were everywhere completely driven out. In one house that the Portuguese found themselves obliged to evacuate, they lodged a mine, which unfortunately springing before they left it, killed forty-two of their number. Another dwelling was defended six weeks, and a third during a whole month. In the beginning of June, after the siege had continued nearly half a year, and many thousands of the natives had perished, some overtures were made for an accommodation, but without any result. The nizam then renewed the attack with greater vigour than ever, and carried successively the monastery of St. Dominic, the houses of Nuno Alvarez and of Gonzalo Menesez. But this progress was too slow to fulfil his object, though it encouraged him to attempt one desperate assault.

On the 29th June, the whole army rushed forward with barbarous shouts against the ruined works, on which the small body of Portuguese had taken their stand. The artillery in full play alternately illumined the sky and wrapped it in darkness. The shock was terrible; the enemy planted their colours on several of the remaining bulwarks, and seemed repeatedly on the eve of obtaining full possession of the city; but the valour and discipline of the Europeans were in the end triumphant. The Mogul general, after continuing the attack till night, drew off his army, and soon after opened a negotiation, which terminated in a league offensive and defensive.

The zamorin manifested little zeal to fulfil his part in the grand alliance. Indeed, on seeing the Portuguese hard pressed by the two other confederates, he offered, on certain conditions, to withdraw from it altogether, and conclude a separate treaty. But the pride of Ataide disdained, even in this extreme peril, to purchase peace by any humiliating concession; he defied the monarch's power; trusting to his own talent, and the bravery of his countrymen, to extricate him from every difficulty. The zamorin then sent some small aid to the nizam, and afterwards laid siege to Chale, a fort about two miles from Calicut. But this place being defended with the usual vigour, and its garrison reinforced, he was obliged to withdraw; hence this formidable combination, which had comprehended the greatest powers of Southern India, was, by the conduct of the governor and the courage of his troops, entirely dissolved.

By these and other achievements, the subjects of Portugal, during the whole of the sixteenth century, maintained their possessions on the coasts, and their supremacy in the seas of India. Even after their military enterprise relaxed, the high name which they had established deterred the natives from any attempt to shake off the yoke. But about the year 1600 a new enemy appeared, much more formidable than any power which they had yet encountered in that quarter of the globe. The Dutch, driven to desperation by the tyranny of Philip II., had revolted against

Spain, and after a long, hard, and glorious struggle, raised themselves to the rank of an independent republic. Even before the neighbouring states fully recognised them in this character, they had gained the reputation of being the first naval power in Europe. Owing to the narrow extent of their territory, they themselves, as well as the multitude of refugees who found among them the enjoyment of civil and religious liberty, were induced to seek on the ocean the means of subsistence and wealth. The happy situation of their coasts, both for commerce and fishery, had already led to considerable progress in these branches of industry, which now attained a magnitude before unexampled in modern times. After embarking so deeply in these pursuits, their attention could not fail to be attracted by the trade of India, to which has always been assigned an overrated importance. They were not, however, yet prepared to encounter the naval armaments of Spain and Portugal, which guarded with the most jealous care all the approaches to the Eastern Seas. They were hence induced to attempt a passage by the north of Asia, which the imperfect knowledge then possessed respecting the extent of that continent, and the character of its Arctic shores, led mariners to regard as not impracticable. Three successive expeditions were accordingly sent, chiefly under the command of Barentz; in the last of which the people were obliged to winter on the dreary shores of Nova Zembla; but they failed altogether in their hopes of discovering a north-east passage, which, if it does at all exist, must, it was found, be too difficult to be ever productive of any practical utility.

They now felt the impossibility of rivalling the Portuguese by any other route than that round the Cape of Good Hope; and their courage and resources having been augmented in the course of a successful struggle for liberty, they no longer hesitated to brave all the dangers of this undertaking. The necessary information was obtained through Cornelius Houtman, who collected it during a long residence at Lisbon. The jealous government there, displeased with his active and diligent inquiries, threw him

into prison, whence he was liberated only on the payment of a considerable ransom. But by his instructions the Dutch in three months equipped a squadron of four vessels, well armed and provided with the materials of trade. Houtman set out in the autumn of 1596, and after a tedious voyage, without, however, encountering any important opposition or obstruction, arrived off Bantam in the island of Java. He was at first extremely well treated, but afterwards, seemingly through his own rashness and violence, became involved in a quarrel with the king, was thrown into prison, and obtained release only by sacrificing part of his investment. He then effected a safe return to Europe, where he was received with the highest exultation, having evinced the practicability of a fleet finding its way without molestation from the enemy, to those remote and opulent shores. The original company, augmented by one more recently formed, sent out early in 1599 no fewer than eight ships under the joint command of Houtman and Van Neck. They reached the coasts of Sumatra and Java, where they carried on a successful traffic; and at length the second of these officers returned to Amsterdam with four of the vessels laden with spices and other valuable commodities.

This favourable beginning encouraged the Hollanders to prosecute the Indian trade with the utmost activity. Several new companies were established, without being invested with any exclusive privileges, or apparently actuated by any hostile rivalry: and thus, mutually aiding and co-operating with each other, they soon raised this branch of commerce to the highest prosperity. In 1600, not five years after the first of their squadrons had sailed round the Cape, they sent out forty vessels bearing from 400 to 600 tons; and, by their superior diligence and punctuality, had almost completely supplanted the Portuguese in the spice-market. Hitherto they had studiously shunned any interference with that people, selecting the spots not occupied by them; while the latter seem not to have ventured on any violent measures to enforce their monopoly. However, as they became stronger, they began to form schemes for the expulsion of their rivals. They studied

by every art to foment the discontent of the natives, who had themselves begun to observe that the Portuguese were more intent on conquest than commerce, and who were besides disgusted with the harsh means employed for inducing them to renounce the Mohammedan faith. Impelled by these motives, the Malays at Acheen, aided by some Dutch volunteers, surprised the fort which the subjects of Portugal had erected in the bay, and made a general massacre of the garrison. They were deprived in a similar manner of several stations on the Molucca Islands,—losing in this way some important seats of trade, while those of the Hollanders were continually extended.

Philip II., who, on the death of Don Sebastian, had seized the crown of Portugal, felt highly indignant at finding his people expelled from those valuable possessions by the arms of a rebellious province, which his own oppression had driven into resistance, and, in fact, raised to its present maritime greatness. Having learned that the Dutch East Indiamen were expected home, he fitted out an armament of thirty ships, mostly of a large size, and sent them to intercept the fleet. Near the Cape de Verde Islands, this squadron met eight of their vessels going out under the command of Spilbergen; but the latter, by their bravery and skilful manœuvres, succeeded in beating off the assailants, and made their way to India without any serious loss. From this time Philip seems to have given up every attempt to contend at sea with this rising people, and directed all his efforts, though without effect, to subjugate them by military force. He satisfied himself with issuing proclamations, prohibiting them, under the severest penalties, from trading in any of the Spanish possessions. The Portuguese in India, aided by his subjects from the Philippines, still kept up a harassing piratical warfare, to which the Dutch determined to put a stop by wresting from their antagonists all the remaining settlements in the Spice Islands. In 1605 they reinforced their fleets with nineteen fresh vessels, having on board two thousand veteran soldiers. They then invested, and successively reduced, all the forts which their opponents had

erected in the islands of Amboyna and Tidor, capturing the shipping which lay under their protection, and finally lading their own with valuable spices. The supremacy of the Dutch in the Indian Seas was thus fully established.

To complete this triumph, the Admiral Matelief sailed against Malacca, which the Portuguese had made the capital of their possessions in the more eastern parts. The place, however, was so well prepared for defence, that, after several weeks spent in the most vigorous efforts, he gave up the attempt. But what was his surprise when, on reaching Amboyna, he was saluted with a heavy fire, and saw the Spanish flag flying on the walls of the castle! This revolution had been effected by a naval force from the Philippines, which, taking advantage of his absence, had sailed to those important islands, and, finding them almost defenceless, completely reduced them. Matelief was at first a little disconcerted; but, encouraged by the valour of his men, he landed, attacked the fortress, and carried it by storm, making, as was too common, a general massacre of the unfortunate garrison. Inspired by this success, he proceeded against the other settlements, and in two months brought all of them again under the dominion of the United Provinces.

The Dutch were soon afterwards induced to form a settlement in the island of Ceylon; an expedition was sent thither in 1605, under the command of De Weert, who was at first favourably received. Having, however, not only violated a solemn engagement in the first instance, but afterwards, when he went to court, conducted himself with the *hauteur* which his countrymen had now generally assumed, he was seized, and struck dead with a scimitar. His brave companions, who attempted with unequal strength to avenge his loss, only shared his fate. The tragical issue of this adventure did not discourage Borth the governor-general, who imputed the disaster of De Weert solely to his rash and culpable violence, from sending a fresh armament under Marcellus Boschkouveau, an officer of distinguished talent and address. He arrived at the critical moment when the Portuguese

were advancing from their principal settlement at Columbo in such force against Candy, that the rajah scarcely hoped to be able to resist them. The Dutch commander, however, both by directing the operations of the Candians, and by affording to them the aid of his own troops, gained for them a complete victory. The power of their rivals was thus humbled, while they themselves obtained from the grateful monarch ample liberty to form an establishment on the most advantageous footing. But it was not till 1656, after a long and bloody struggle, that they gained the complete mastery over their competitors. In that year Columbo surrendered after a siege of seven months, and the Portuguese were completely expelled from Ceylon.\*

Having obtained the complete command of the Oriental Islands, the Hollanders determined to build a city which might become the capital of their Asiatic conquests, and the centre of all their political and commercial transactions. They fixed upon a spot near the western extremity of the north coast of Java,—a very happy situation, commanding the route to the Spice Islands, and enjoying an easy communication with Sumatra, Borneo, and Celebes. Having overcome the resistance of the native powers, they founded a city, which, being named Batavia, from the ancient appellation of their country, was subsequently rendered by them a great and flourishing station. Europeans, however, suffer severely from its climate, the evils of which are increased by canals drawn round the place, and even through its very streets, exhaling in that tropical climate the most pernicious vapours.

The Dutch made repeated efforts to drive the Portuguese from Malacca, the capital of their possessions in that quarter of India. At length, in 1640, after encountering an obstinate resistance, they effected their object, and they then became complete masters of the Eastern Islands and Seas, with the exception of some settlements made by the English on the coast of Sumatra. But

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\* We reserve for the chapter on the English Settlements in India an account of the contest in which the Hollanders were involved with our countrymen, and the means that they used to thwart their success.

as they never formed any important or extensive establishment on the continent of India, to which this volume specially relates, we have not thought it necessary to give more than a short summary of their oriental career.

In the western provinces, the Portuguese found themselves chiefly opposed by the English, and they soon, as will hereafter appear, found the contest very unequal. Notwithstanding their influence with the Mogul, they were gradually supplanted at Surat and the other ports of Guzerat by the superior power and policy of their new rivals. An expedition, jointly undertaken by our countrymen and Shah Abbas, king of Persia, deprived them of Ormuz ; while the Imam of Mascat, seconded by the natives, expelled them from most of their possessions on the coast of Africa. They were thus stripped of their vast dominions almost as rapidly as they had acquired them ; and now Goa and Mozambique, in a very decayed condition, form nearly the sole remnant of that proud empire which formerly extended over so great a part of the eastern world.

## CHAPTER V.

## EARLY ENGLISH VOYAGES AND SETTLEMENTS.

Importance always attached to Indian Trade—Mission by Alfred—The English attempt to penetrate to India by the North-East, and through Russia—By the North-West—Voyage of Drake—Of Cavendish—Newbery and Fitch, by way of Aleppo and Ormuz—Fitch visits many parts of India—First English Voyage by the Cape—Its Disasters—An Association formed—Voyage of Lancaster—Middleton—Michelborne—Keeling and Others—Sharpey—Loss of his Vessel—Sir Henry Middleton—His Adventures at Surat—Hippon—Settlements on Coromandel—Saris—Profits of the Trade—Quarrels with the Dutch—Massacre at Amboyna—Acquisition of Bombay—Settlements on the Coromandel Coast—In Bengal—Disputes with the Mogul—Company begin to form Plans of Conquest.

FROM the first dawn of maritime enterprise and adventure in Britain, the trade of India was contemplated as its grandest object, —the chief fountain of commercial wealth. Into the sanguine conceptions formed on this subject there entered, no doubt, a considerable degree of illusion. A more enlightened school of political economy seems to have demonstrated, that agriculture and manufactures open more copious sources of prosperity than traffic of any description; that the home trade, from its quick returns, is more productive than the foreign; and the intercourse between closely contiguous countries more valuable than that with distant regions. A commerce, therefore, of which the market is at the opposite extremity of the globe, can never do more than employ the surplus capital of a community already wealthy. Yet there were circumstances which, even at that early stage of mercantile speculation, threw a peculiar lustre on the trade of India. The staple articles consisted of finer and richer fabrics than any that had yet been produced in the West; and, besides, there were diamonds, pearls, jewels the most beautiful and brilliant, and spices the most fragrant and grateful to the senses. The great scale, too, on which operations were conducted, and the large fortunes occasionally made, gave to this traffic a character of grandeur not belonging to the smaller transactions which took place within the limits of Europe. Even the myste-

rious remoteness of the regions that were to be the theatre of this intercourse,—the train of adventure and uncertainty through which they were to be reached,—heightened their attraction, and were altogether congenial to the spirit of that bold and enterprising age.

It may be proper here to observe, that some record exists of a voyage from England to India at a much earlier period. Hakluyt has quoted two passages from different chronicles by William of Malmesbury, in which it is asserted that King Alfred, in the year 883, sent Sighelmus, bishop of Sherburn, into the East, that he might present gifts at the shrine of St. Thomas. He is said to have happily performed this great undertaking, and to have returned laden with gems and rich spices, the produce of that celebrated region. It is added that, at the time the chronicle was written, some of these commodities were still preserved in the church of Sherburn. Such a mission was worthy of that great monarch, whose views, far in advance of his age, were doubtless more enlightened than those which the annalist here ascribes to him. But it must be very difficult, from such meagre notices, to determine whether so very distant a pilgrimage could at that period have been really performed. Without pronouncing it absolutely impossible, we may be allowed to suspect that he merely reached those eastern shores of the Mediterranean, to which Indian commodities have always, by some channel or other, been conveyed in large quantities.

The reign of Edward VI., and more especially that of Elizabeth, formed the era at which industry and naval enterprise received that impulse which has since carried them to so unprecedented a magnitude. Prior to this period Britain was surpassed in manufactures by the Flemings, in navigation by the Italians, and still more by the Spaniards and Portuguese. These last, then her bitterest enemies, she had seen, with grief and humiliation, gain unrivalled glory by discovering a new passage to the East, and a new world in the West. They had thus almost completely preoccupied the ground of discovery and settle-

ment, and were, moreover, prepared to defend it in the most vigorous manner against all who should attempt any encroachment. The English, therefore, in the new career on which they were ambitious to enter, had to encounter not only the disadvantages of a long voyage, but the active opposition of the two greatest powers who at that time claimed the dominion of the ocean.

But the nation was not to be deterred by such considerations. Nor was the ardour of discovery confined to merchants, whose estimates might have been more cautious and professional; it was fully shared by courtiers, statesmen, and warriors. Under the auspices of Elizabeth there arose a brighter galaxy of great men, than had adorned any former period of English history. They began, however, by attempting to reach India by some new path undiscovered by the Portuguese, and where there was no chance of coming in contact with those formidable rivals. The first effort was made on the northern coast of Asia; but, like that of the Dutch in an earlier age, it was founded on a most imperfect knowledge both of the great extent of that continent and of its dreary and frozen boundaries. This expedition, fitted out by a company of merchant-adventurers, and commanded by the gallant Sir Hugh Willoughby, with three well-appointed vessels, had a most disastrous issue. He was driven upon the coast of Lapland, where, in the course of the ensuing winter, he and his crew perished by cold and famine. Richard Chancellor, however, with one of the vessels, reached the White Sea, and proceeded to Moscow, where he opened a communication with the court of Russia, then almost unknown in Western Europe. The adventurers having made several other unsuccessful attempts by water in those high latitudes, conceived the idea of opening an intercourse with India across the Russian and Persian empires. They expended in vain much capital and enterprise in this arduous undertaking. Several of their agents penetrated across the Caspian into Persia, and even reached Bokhara, the capital of Independent Tartary. But at length they became sensible that no

commodities could pay the cost of such an immense circuit, both by land and sea, besides the hazards attendant on the conveyance through the territory of so many barbarous nations. Even when this journey should prove the most prosperous, the goods could not be so cheaply carried as by the direct route across Persia and Syria to Aleppo.

The next attempt was made by the north-west passage, round the Arctic shores of America. This continent was, at that early era, imagined to terminate, at a high latitude, in a point or cape, the passing of which would enable the mariner to enter the South Sea, and reach by a direct course the wealthy shores of India and Eastern Asia. Most intrepid, energetic, and persevering efforts to effect this object were made by a succession of illustrious navigators,—Cabot, Frobisher, Davis, Hudson,—and the pursuit has been continued down to the present time. But though brilliant displays have been exhibited of courage and heroism, and striking views obtained of the shores and their rude inhabitants, every attempt to find a practicable passage to India by this route has ended in disappointment.

The abortive and even calamitous result of successive efforts to penetrate by the northern extremity of the great continents, or by journeys overland, at length turned the attention of the English nation to the passage by the Cape of Good Hope, as that from which alone any positive benefit could be derived. The exclusive right, however, to this line of navigation was claimed by Philip II., who had now succeeded as King of Portugal; and the claim was somewhat in unison with the laws generally admitted in that age respecting distant discovery. The government was afraid of bringing itself into premature collision with the greatest monarch of the time; while private and unarmed vessels, obliged to pass near the coasts of Portugal as well as of her numerous settlements in Africa and India, and exposed to meet her ships continually passing and repassing, could scarcely hope to escape her hostile attacks.

But as the views of British navigators expanded, and their

country began to rise to the first rank among maritime nations, a new path suggested itself, from which their haughty rivals would in vain seek to exclude them. Drake, after having served with distinction in the West Indies and on the coast of America, conceived the design of penetrating into the South Sea. The wealth acquired in his former expeditions was expended in fitting out five vessels, the largest not exceeding 100, and the smallest only 12 tons. He equipped them very completely, taking on board rich furniture, fine specimens of British manufacture, and even a band of expert musicians. He prepared every means, in short, by which he might dazzle and conciliate the natives of the unknown regions which he was about to explore. He sailed from Plymouth on the 13th December 1577, and in August the following year he accomplished a passage through the Straits of Magellan. He then cruised for some months along the western coast of Spanish America, not hesitating to appropriate some rich prizes that presented themselves in the course of his voyage. Having obtained great wealth, though his fleet was reduced to a single vessel, he determined to attempt a return homeward by the north-west passage. He sailed to the coast of California, of which he claimed the discovery, and called it New Albion; but finding his main object impracticable, he resolved to cross the Pacific, and proceed to Europe by the Moluccas. He steered directly through the ocean, pausing nowhere till he found himself among the Spice Islands, the valuable productions of which were then the subject of general interest in the West. The King of Ternate, who was in a state of hostility with the Portuguese, gave a friendly reception to the English navigator, who first began that commerce with India which has since been carried to so immense an extent. Having coasted along Java, he proceeded to the Cape without touching at any part of the Asiatic continent. He took in supplies at Sierra Leone, and arrived at Plymouth on the 26th September 1580, after a voyage of two years and ten months. His arrival was hailed with the utmost exultation by his countrymen, who regarded so successful a voyage as having raised to the highest

pitch the naval glory of the realm. The queen, after some cautious delays, visited him on board his vessel, and conferred on him the honour of knighthood.

This brilliant career of Drake encouraged other commanders to tread in his footsteps. Thomas Cavendish, a gentleman of extensive property in Suffolk, after having served his naval apprenticeship under Sir Richard Grenville, determined to sell his estate, and embark the produce in a voyage to the South Sea, and round the world. Having left Plymouth on the 21st July 1586, he reached, early next year, the western coast of South America, and being restrained by no very nice scruples, made a number of valuable prizes. Stretching thence across the Pacific he touched at Guahan, one of the group to which the Spaniards give the appellation of *Ladrones*. He passed afterwards through the Philippines, observing with surprise their extent and fertility, and holding communication with the natives, who expressed a decided preference of the English to the Spaniards, by whom these islands had been occupied. Sailing next through the Moluccas, and along the coasts of Floris and Sumbawa, he opened a friendly correspondence with some of the princes of Java; and, following the course of Drake, reached England in September 1588, by the Cape of Good Hope.

Notwithstanding the admiration excited by so many successful voyages, they were on too large a scale to be considered as models for commercial enterprise. Yet, invention being now employed to discover some more suitable channel of intercourse, a body of adventurers resolved upon attempting one hitherto untried by Britons. They proposed to proceed up the Mediterranean,—land on the coast of Syria,—travel by way of Aleppo and Bagdad to the Persian Gulf, and to sail thence by Ormuz, in order to reach the shores of Malabar. Mr. Stevens, who had made a voyage in a Portuguese vessel to Goa, sent home a most favourable report of the fertility of the region in which that city is placed, the opportunities it afforded for trade, and the liberality with which the port was opened to vessels of every nation. John Newbery

and Ralph Fitch, the leading parties in this undertaking, were furnished with two letters, the first to the Mogul emperor Akbar, under the title of "Zelabdim Echebar, king of Cambaya." It solicited his kind offices to men who had come from a remote part of the world to trade in his dominions, promising reciprocal aid and kindness to his subjects. The other, to the King of China, was expressed in nearly the same terms. The travellers set out early in 1583.

Newbery's letters from Aleppo and Bagdad relate almost entirely to commercial subjects. In regard to the latter place, he complains that the sale of goods was very slow and difficult; though, had he been well provided with money, he might have obtained abundance of valuable spices at very reasonable rates. From Bagdad he proceeded to Bussora, and thence to Ormuz, where he was allowed at first to carry on business without molestation. In six days, however, a charge was raised against the adventurers by Michael Stropene, an Italian, jealous of rivals in a trade which he himself had found very lucrative; whereupon both Newbery and his companion Fitch were arrested and thrown into prison. The former writes in considerable dismay to his associates at Bussora, saying—"It may be that they will cut our throats, or keep us long in prison,—God's will be done." They were soon sent to Goa; but immediately upon their arrival, after a tedious voyage, they found themselves again in confinement. The principal charge related to Captain (Sir Francis) Drake, who was stated to have fired two shots at a Portuguese galleon near Malacca. Newbery professed total ignorance as to this transaction, which in fact could in no shape be brought home to him. He represented how unjust it was, that while French, Flemings, Germans, Turks, Persians, Muscovites,—all the nations of Europe and Asia,—were allowed freely to reside and traffic at Goa, Englishmen alone should be thus barbarously treated. He was, however, remanded to prison; but, after being kept in durance for about a month, was set at liberty, having been required to sign a bond, amounting to 2000 pardaos, not to quit the town without

permission. At the time of writing he had no inclination to leave it, having taken a house in one of the principal streets, and finding his mercantile transactions very advantageous. He met with much friendship from Stevens, who had formerly been a student at New College, Oxford, and had entered the service of the Archbishop of Goa; also from John Linscot or Linschoten, an intelligent Dutch navigator.

According to the accounts given afterwards by Fitch, these favourable appearances proved delusive. They had many of their articles purloined, were obliged to give large presents, and to spend much money in procuring sureties. Having, after a residence of five months, made an appeal to the governor, they received a very sharp answer; being told that they would be better sifted ere long, and that there was further matter against them. This reply gave occasion to a very serious alarm lest they should be made slaves, or, according to some hints that were dropped, be exposed to the *strapado*. They determined, while they yet enjoyed any measure of liberty, to effect their escape, and on the 5th April 1585 fled out of the town. Proceeding into the interior of India they passed through Belgaum, where there was a great market for diamonds and other precious stones; and afterwards they arrived at the royal city of Bejapore. Here they saw all the pomp of Hindoo idolatry, the neighbouring woods being filled with numberless temples and idols. "Some be like a cow, some like a monkey, some like peacocks, and some like the devil." Fitch, who is now the narrator, was struck with the majesty of the war-elephants, and the abundance of gold and silver. He proceeded to Golconda, which he describes as a fair and pleasant city, the houses well built of brick and timber, in a country abounding with delicious fruits, and having in its vicinity rich diamond mines. He heard of Masulipatam as a great port enjoying a very extensive traffic. From Golconda he struck northward through the Deccan till he reached Burhampoor, the capital of Candeish. He represents the country as surprisingly fertile and populous, though the houses were built only of earth and thatch;

and in the rainy season, which now prevailed, the streets were rendered almost impassable by streams of water. He viewed with much surprise the matrimonial arrangements of the Hindoos, seeing boys of eight or ten married to girls of five or six; and these unseemly unions being celebrated with extraordinary pomp, the two parties riding through the streets "very trimly decked, with great piping and playing." He passed next through Mandoo, the former capital of Malwa, which he describes as a very strong town built on a high rock, which it had cost Akbar twelve years to reduce. Thence he proceeded to Agra, a great and populous city, superior to London, well built of stone, and having fair and large streets. The emperor, however, then resided at Fatepoor, which, according to him, was still larger though less handsome than the other. Being a place of decidedly inferior importance, it must have derived this temporary greatness from being the residence of the court and camp of Akbar. The whole way between these great cities resembled a market, "as full as though a man were still in a town." He was struck by seeing the grandees conveyed in little carts, carved and gilded, covered with silk or very fine cloth, and drawn by two little bulls of the size of dogs. On the banks of the Jumna he had an opportunity of witnessing the various ceremonies and ablutions performed by the Bramins. "They come to the water, and have a string about their necks made with great ceremonies, and lave up water with both their hands. Though it be never so cold, they will wash themselves in cold water. They pray in the water naked, and dress their meat and eat it naked, and for their penance they lie flat upon the earth, and rise up and turn themselves about thirty or forty times, and use to heave up their hands to the sun, and to kiss the earth with their arms and legs stretched along out. Their wives do come by ten, twenty, and thirty together, to the water-side singing, and there do wash themselves, and then use their ceremonies." He saw also a number of naked beggars, of whom great account was made. One in particular appeared "a monster among the rest;"—his beard of enormous growth, his hair hanging

more than half down his body, his nails two inches long; "he would cut nothing from him, neither would he speak; he would not speak to the king." The Bramins are represented by Fitch, as also indeed by modern writers, to be "a crafty people, worse than the Jews."

On the departure of the fugitives from Agra, William Leader, the jeweller of the party, remained in the service of Akbar, who allowed him a house, a horse, five slaves, and a regular pension. There must, therefore, have been some communication held with that great monarch, of which it is to be regretted the narrator has omitted all the particulars.

From Agra the traveller went to Allahabad, which he calls Praga, a corruption of the name Prayaga, signifying the junction of rivers, and therefore specially applied to the union of the Ganges and Jumna. He descended the former of these streams to Benares, and viewed with wonder that grand seat of Hindoo commerce and superstition, and the numerous and splendid temples with which it was filled. He beheld the idolatries of this country on a still greater scale than before; almost every place was filled with idols of various shapes and sizes, but none worthy of admiration. "Many of them are black and have claws of brass with long nails, and some ride upon peacocks and other fowls which be evil favoured, with long hawk's bills, some with one thing and some with another, but none with a good face. They be black and evil favoured, their mouths monstrous, their ears gilded and full of jewels; their teeth and eyes of gold, silver, and glass." The observances in honour of these uncouth deities were also very various and fantastic,—particularly the modes of ablution in the Ganges. "They never pray but in the water, and they wash themselves over-head, and lave up water with both their hands. Some of them will make their ceremonies with fifteen or sixteen pots, little and great, and ring a little bell when they make their mixtures; and they say divers things over their pots many times, and when they have done they go to their gods, and strowe their sacrifices, which they think are very holy." He

was witness also to the burning of women on the death of their husbands, in failure of which "their heads be shaven, and never any account is made of them afterwards." When a person is sick, they are said to lay him all night before the idol, and if next morning there be no signs of recovery, "his friends will come and sit a little with him and cry, and afterwards will carry him to the water's side, and set him upon a little raft made of reeds, and so let him go down the river." A very odd picture is also drawn of some marriage-ceremonies to which the traveller was witness. The two parties are represented going into the water along with a priest, a cow, and a calf; "and the man doth hold his hand by the old man's hand, and the wife's hand by her husband's, and all have the cow by the tail, and they pour water out of a brass pot upon the cow's tail, and then the old man doth tie him and her together by their clothes. Then they give somewhat to the poor, and to the Bramane or priest they give the cow and calf, and afterwards go to divers of their idols and offer money, and lie down flat upon the ground, and kiss it divers times, and then go their way."

From Benares he proceeded to Patna, once the capital of a kingdom, but at that time subject to Akbar; and though a large city, it contained only houses of earth and straw. The country was much infested by robbers, wandering like the Arabians from place to place; whence we may conclude, that the system of *decoit*-gangs was already in full force. The people were greatly imposed upon by idle persons assuming the appearance of sanctity. One of these sat asleep on horseback in the market-place, while the crowd came and reverentially touched his feet. "They thought him a great man, but sure he was a lazy lubber,—I left him there sleeping." Fitch went next to Tanda in Bengal, also belonging to Akbar, and thence made an excursion northward to Couche, which appears to be the country situated along the foot of the mountains of Bootan; being described as so moist, that every district could be easily inundated knee-deep, and rendered impassable. The people, who appear attached to the religion of

Boodh, showed the usual fantastic reverence for animal life, keeping hospitals for lame or aged creatures, and giving food to ants. Four days' journey beyond was the country now called Bootan, said to be of great extent, and filled with mountains so lofty that they could be seen at the distance of six days' travel,—a report which was so far correct; but imagination only could have induced the inhabitants to assert that from the top of those eminences the sea could be descried. It was frequented by merchants from cold regions in the north, dressed in woollen cloths, hats, white hose, and boots (the Tartars); and by others without beards from a warm land in the east (Chinese). The former reported that their country contains a numerous breed of small but active horses, whose long tails, covered with a luxuriant growth of hair, formed an article of import into India, where they were greatly valued.

Fitch now went southward to Hoogley, "the chief keep of the Portuguese," and then undertook a journey through Orissa, the borders of which he found almost a wilderness, with few villages, "grass longer than a man, and very many tygers." The haven of Angeli, which we know not how to identify, was found the seat of a very great trade, frequented by vessels from Sumatra, Malacca, and various quarters of India. Returning to the Ganges, he made an excursion also into the eastern district of Tippara, whose inhabitants were engaged in almost continual warfare with the Mogen (Mugs), occupying the kingdom of Arracan. Again reaching the banks of the river, he notices Serampore, and several other towns situated on its lower branches. The people of this part of India, he observes, were in a state of regular rebellion against the Emperor Akbar, being favoured by the numerous islands and river-channels, and especially by the facility of retreat from one to another. He justly characterizes the cotton fabrics in this district as of superior quality to those made in any other part of the empire.

From Serampore our traveller obtained a passage in a vessel to Negrais in the kingdom of Pegu, and had an opportunity of visiting that capital as well as Malacca, then a great Portuguese

emporium, where he learned some particulars respecting China and Japan. Returning to Bengal, he "shipped himself" for Cochin, and in his way touched at Ceylon, which he found "a brave island, very fruitful and fair." The Portuguese also held a fort at Columbo, which the king often attacked with a hundred thousand men, "but naked people all of them," though partially armed with muskets. Having doubled Cape Comorin, and observed the extensive pearl-fishery upon this coast, he passed by Coulan, and reached Cochin, which he found by no means a desirable residence; the water was bad, and victuals very scarce. the surrounding country producing neither corn nor rice; yet the want of a conveyance obliged him to remain there for eight months. The Zamorin of Calicut, he understood continued still hostile to the Portuguese, and carried on a species of piratical war, sending out numerous proas with fifty or sixty men in each, which swept the whole coast, boarding and plundering every vessel which they encountered.

Leaving Cochin, Mr. Fitch sailed successively to Goa and Chaul, whence he obtained a passage to Ormuz, after having achieved the most extensive journey that had yet been performed in India by any European.\*

Although this expedition was executed in a manner creditable to the adventurers, and much information collected respecting the trade and commodities of the country, still it was evident that commerce, carried on by a tract so circuitous, and exposed to so many perils, could neither be safe nor profitable. It was in fact one of the channels by which that traffic had been conducted by the Venetians, who were much better situated for it than the English, and who had yet been unable, ever since the discovery of the passage by the Cape, to sustain the rivalry of the Portuguese. The mercantile interest began now to contemplate the

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\* An ingenious writer, *Maritime and Inland Discovery*, vol. iii. p. 191, expresses a doubt, as to the authenticity of this statement. I cannot perceive on what his scepticism is founded. The voyage is inserted in the standard collection of Hakluyt, and the narrative appears to me to bear every mark of truth.

last-mentioned route, as alone affording the prospect of a secure and advantageous intercourse. It was guarded, however, with the most jealous care by the Spaniards and Portuguese; and the government of Elizabeth, though then at war with these nations, hesitated to sanction arrangements which would shut the door against accommodation. Mr. Bruce found in the State-paper office a petition, presented in 1589 from sundry merchants, requesting to be allowed to send to India three ships and three pinnaces. The answer does not appear; but in 1591 three ships were actually sent out under Captains Raymond, Kendal, and Lancaster, who sailed from Plymouth on the 10th April. In August, when they reached the Cape, the crews had already suffered so much from sickness that it was found necessary to send Captain Kendal home with the invalids. The two others proceeded on their voyage; but near Cape Corrientes they were overtaken by a most tremendous tempest, in which the Raymond, the admiral's ship, was separated from its companion, and appears to have perished. Lancaster's vessel alone remained; but a few days after there occurred such a dreadful thunder-storm, that four men were killed on the spot, and all the others either struck blind, severely bruised, or stretched out as on the rack. Having in some degree recovered, they sailed onwards, and reached the island of Comoro, where they took in a supply of water. The natives at first gave them no annoyance; but, after confidence had been fully established, two parties of sixteen each, when busily employed on shore, were suddenly surrounded by a vast troop of these treacherous people; and Lancaster had the distress of seeing his men almost entirely cut in pieces, without the possibility of affording them any aid. Sailing thence with a heavy heart, he touched at Zanzibar, where he found good anchorage, and put his vessel into tolerable repair; but though not openly opposed by the Portuguese, he learned that they had formed a scheme to attack his boat. Adverse gales now carried him out of his course, till he approached the island of Socotora, when the wind becoming favourable he stood directly for Cape Comorin.

He doubled it in May 1592, and having missed the Nicobar group, proceeded to Sumatra, and thence to the uninhabited islands of Pulo Penang, where he spent what he calls the winter, being the season distinguished by the heavy storms to which those seas are exposed in July and August. Sailing along the coast of Malacca he fell in with three vessels of sixty-five or seventy tons, one of which struck to his boat alone; and, as it was found to belong to a certain body of Jesuits, he felt no scruple in making it a prize. Determined to persevere in this practice, he stationed himself off the Straits of Malacca, through which the Portuguese vessels were obliged to pass in their way to China and the Moluccas. He soon took one of 250 tons, from Negapatnam, laden with rice. A fine ship of 400 tons from St. Thomas escaped; but a short time afterwards he fell in with a splendid galleon of 700 tons from Goa, which almost immediately surrendered. She was found richly laden with all the commodities fitted for the Indian market. The captain and crew contrived by a stratagem to effect their escape, when Lancaster, displeased with the disorderly conduct of his own men, took out the most valuable articles, and allowed her to drive to sea. He then sailed for the Bay of Junkseylon, where he obtained some pitch to refit his vessels, and from thence he made for the Point de Galle in Ceylon. There he took his station to wait for the Bengal and Pegu fleets, which were under the necessity of passing this way; but the seamen, satisfied with their previous success, and fatigued with so hard a voyage, insisted upon forthwith returning home. They reached the Cape in the beginning of 1593, and, after a tedious passage round Africa, were obliged by the scarcity of provisions, especially of bread, to make for Trinidad. They entered by mistake the Gulf of Paria; whence they found their way through the whole group of the West Indies, till they reached the Bermudas. In this quarter they were assailed by a violent tempest, and driven back. The ship was finally carried out to sea, leaving the captain and crew on a desolate island, where they must have perished but for some

French vessels, which took them up and conveyed them to Dieppe. They arrived there on the 19th May 1594, after a voyage of three years and two months, being double the time usually spent by the Portuguese in this navigation.

The ardour of the English seems to have been for some time chilled by the unfortunate issue of this expedition. On learning, however, that the Dutch, in 1595, had sent out four vessels, they were inspired with a sentiment of emulation; and an association, formed in 1599, subscribed £30,000, to be employed in fitting out three ships for the Indian trade. The queen not only gave full sanction to the undertaking, but even sent out John Mildenhall as ambassador to the Great Mogul, to solicit the necessary privileges. Of this mission some account will be given in treating of the reign of the celebrated Akbar, who at that time occupied the throne of Hindostan; but the envoy having died in Persia on his way home, his journey led to no practical result. Before, however, he could have returned, the adventurers had entered on their project. The first association merged, in 1600, into one on a greater scale, having at its head George, Earl of Cumberland, with 215 knights, aldermen, and merchants, who were constituted the "Governor and Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies." They were invested with the too ample privileges which it was then customary to bestow on mercantile corporations, being not only allowed to export bullion to the amount of £30,000, and English goods for the four first voyages without duty, but obtaining the right of exclusive trade in all the countries beyond the Cape. The charter was granted for fifteen years, but liable to be annulled at any time on two years' notice. They began on the footing of a joint-stock company; though, as the subscribers were slow in paying up their shares, a certain number of the more zealous took the concern altogether into their own hands, supplying the funds on condition of reaping the profits. They expended £75,373, of which £39,771 was invested in shipping, £28,742 in bullion, and £6860 in goods. It was the wish of the court that Sir Edward

Michelborne should be nominated to a command; but the merchants expressed their resolution not to employ *gentlemen*, "but to sort their business with men of their own quality." They therefore appointed Lancaster, whose conduct in his former bold though unfortunate expedition was considered highly creditable to his spirit and talents.

On the 2d of April 1601, this navigator sailed, having the command of five ships, varying from 600 to 130 tons. He passed the Cape of Good Hope without encountering any unusual difficulty. The almost exclusive objects of the Indian trade, at that era, were spices, pepper, cloves, and nutmegs; commodities found in Sumatra, Java, the Molucca and Banda Islands, without landing on any part of the continent. These first voyages, therefore, do not come within the proper limits of our present subject, and will demand only a cursory notice. After touching at Madagascar and the Nicobar Islands, merely for the purpose of taking in refreshments, the commodore proceeded direct to Acheen, the principal port of Sumatra. Notwithstanding the intrigues of the Portuguese, he concluded a commercial treaty with the king on favourable terms, and proceeded to lade his ships with pepper; which, however, proved so scarce and dear, that he became apprehensive of incurring the loss, and, what he seems to have dreaded still more, the disgrace of returning home without a cargo. From this anxiety he was relieved by meeting a Portuguese vessel of 900 tons, of which he made a prize, and found it so richly laden with calicoes and other valuable goods, that he not only occupied all his tonnage, but could have filled more ships if he had had them. He did not, however, return immediately, but sailed to Bantam, where also he found the utmost facility in negotiating a commercial treaty on satisfactory terms. Having sent forward a pinnace of forty tons to the Moluccas, with instructions to prepare a lading of spices for a future expedition, he sailed for England.

The next fleet, equipped in 1604, was commanded by Captain Middleton, who afterwards, under the title of Sir Henry, acquired the reputation of being one of the most enterprising and successful of eastern navigators. He sailed on the 25th March from Graves-

end, with the Red Dragon and three other ships, and an invested capital of £60,450. After a favourable voyage, having stopped nowhere but at Saldanha, near the Cape, he arrived in the end of December in the road of Bantam. Here the vessels separated; two remaining to take in a cargo of pepper, one going to Banda, while Middleton himself proceeded to the Moluccas. He found these islands the seat of a most furious war, which the Dutch, in conjunction with the King of Ternate, were waging against the Portuguese and the King of Tidore. The former nation, from whom the English commander considered himself entitled to expect a friendly reception, afforded subject, on the contrary, for his most bitter complaints. They represented our countrymen as a band of mere pirates, and boasted that the King of Holland was more powerful at sea than all Europe besides. Thus, partly by fear, partly by persuasion, they dissuaded his majesty of Ternate from allowing any commercial intercourse; and the Portuguese being masters at Tidore, Middleton does not appear to have attempted any trade there, though he received a letter from the king imploring his aid and that of the English monarch against the Dutch. Captain Colthurst, who commanded the other ship, reached Banda, where he spent twenty-two weeks, without suffering any inconvenience except from the difficult navigation of those seas.

The Company were now threatened with a formidable rivalry. Sir Edward Michelborne, whom they had rejected as the commander of their first expedition, obtained a licence from government to undertake a voyage to various parts of the East. He carried with him only a ship and a pinnace, called the Tiger and the Tiger's Whelp. This navigator, however, did not confer any distinction upon his voyage, either by discovery or commercial transactions of the slightest importance. He did not even reach the Moluccas; but while in the Indian Seas employed himself chiefly in piratical practices, not against the Portuguese, for which the hostility between the two nations might have afforded some pretext, but against all native vessels. He captured a Japanese junk, the crew of which first lulled the suspicions of the visitors

by courtesy and apparent cordiality, then suddenly rose and made a most desperate attempt to possess themselves of the vessel. Captain Davis was killed, and Michelborne escaped only by leaping into the hold, where, with his boatswain, carpenter, and a few seamen, he kept the assailants at bay, till he opened upon them such a fire as killed a part, and compelled the rest to retreat. Their leader was taken; and being asked his reason for making this furious onset, replied, he wished to take the ship and cut all their throats; then coolly desired them to hew him in pieces. Michelborne afterwards captured two Chinese vessels laden with silk, and returned to England with his ill-gotten spoil.

Meantime the Company sent out another expedition of three ships and 310 men, commanded by Captains Keeling, Hawkins, and David Middleton. The first two sailed in April 1607, entered Bantam road on the 18th October, and immediately pushed forward to the Molucca and Banda Islands. A great change had taken place during the few years that had elapsed since the voyage of Henry Middleton. The Portuguese were no longer heard of in those seas, whence they appear to have been expelled by the Dutch, who were now completing the subjection of the native princes. Keeling, on his arrival, found them engaged in hot warfare, which they justified by stating that the natives had ensnared and murdered forty of their countrymen. Notice was therefore given to him, that he should instantly withdraw his ship from the island which they had now conquered by force of arms. Keeling replied, "that till he was commanded otherwise than by words, he would ride there till he was laden;" but finding soon after that a treaty had been concluded between the Dutch and Bandanese, amounting to the entire submission of the latter, he consented to retire. Middleton, who had sailed on the 12th March, did not meet with the two others, but followed nearly the same course without any remarkable adventure.

A fourth expedition, consisting of two large ships, the *Ascension* and the *Union*, was fitted out in 1607, with an invested capital of £33,000, and the command intrusted to Captain Alex-

ander Sharpey. His object appears to have been to reach the coast of Cambay, and particularly Surat, understood at that time to be the most extensive emporium of Western India. He sailed in March, but experienced throughout a series of misfortunes. The two vessels were separated in doubling the Cape of Good Hope, and never met again. The *Ascension* proceeded along the eastern coast of Africa to Pemba, but was twice attacked by the treacherous Moors, and several of the crew cut off. In the prosecution of their voyage the English, when greatly exhausted, fortunately lighted on a cluster of uninhabited islands, which apparently were the Sechelles, where they obtained an abundant supply of turtles and cocoa-nuts. Proceeding to the Red Sea they touched at Aden and Mocha, where they met with a favourable reception. They descended that inlet, and having touched at Socotra and obtained some supplies, steered for India. They reached Diu, and prepared to cross the Gulf of Cambay for Surat, but were warned that a pilot, who could be procured on easy terms, was necessary to conduct the vessel in this dangerous passage. The master, however, full of obstinacy and self-conceit, judged himself, without any such aid, quite competent to guide her course. She was soon entangled in the shoals that abound in that sea, and struck repeatedly with such violence that she became a total wreck. "Thus," says the narrator, "was this tall ship lost, to the great injury of the worshipful Company and the utter undoing of all us the poor mariners." They betook themselves to their boats, and attempted to reach the River Surat, but were compelled to enter that of Gondevee,—a change of direction which proved to be almost providential, for the Portuguese had a force prepared at the former place to intercept and capture them. Some of the crew went up to Agra, where Hawkins then resided as ambassador to the Great Mogul, and contrived to find their way home overland through Persia, while several obtained a passage to Europe from Goa.

The *Union*, meantime, had not, as was supposed by the crew of the *Ascension*, suffered shipwreck. Her mainmast had sprung,

but the men contrived to recover it, and to reach the coast of St. Augustin in Madagascar. Thence they sailed for Zanzibar; but, being involved in a quarrel with the natives, lost several of their number, and were obliged to return to that island; but there, too, fresh disasters were sustained, both from the climate and the treacherous hostility of the people. They then proceeded northwards to Arabia, but being at a loss how to find their way to the Indian coast, determined to steer direct for Sumatra; and having reached Acheen and Priaman, they obtained, on advantageous terms, an abundant cargo of pepper. The voyage homeward is very indistinctly related; but it is clear that it was accompanied with many delays and some damage; and, in February 1611, the vessel was run ashore on the coast of Brittany, near Morlaix, where great depredation was committed by the inhabitants. The Company, on being apprized of her situation, sent a skilful shipwright, with other persons, who reported the vessel to be wholly unserviceable, but saved two hundred tons of pepper, with the anchors, ordnance, and other equipments. Of seventy-five seamen, who went out from England, only nine survived.

In 1609, Captain David Middleton again sailed with only a single ship, the Expedition, which, with its lading, was valued at £13,700. He proceeded directly for the Spice Islands, and found the Dutch, as before, in great force, and claiming the entire sovereignty; yet, by his address and activity, he contrived to obtain a good investment. Hereupon their indignation was such, that they formed several plans for destroying him and his vessel, and he was in a great measure indebted to chance for his escape. However, he was fortunate enough to reach Bantam without encountering any serious disaster.

In 1609-10, the Company sent out a larger expedition than ever, consisting of three vessels, one called the Trade's Increase, of a thousand tons; while a capital of £82,000 was invested in the shipping and cargoes. The commander was Sir Henry Middleton, who, in a former voyage, had obtained a character for courage and enterprise, which in the present he fully maintained.

The Red Sea and Surat, in preference to the Spice Islands, hitherto the favourite object, were the points of his destination. Having effected his passage round the Cape, he proceeded direct to the Arabian Gulf and the port of Mocha, where he at first flattered himself with having obtained a most cordial reception: but being inveigled on shore by the treacherous and bigoted Turks, he was seized, treated with the utmost indignity, and carried a prisoner to Sana, the capital of Yemen. He contrived, however, to obtain his liberation, and afterwards to avenge severely this ungenerous usage.

Middleton now descended the Red Sea, whence he sailed directly to Surat, with the view of opening a mercantile intercourse with that great emporium of India. He arrived on the coast of Cambay in October 1611, though he had considerable difficulty in finding the river on which the city is built. He at length procured a pilot; but soon thereafter learned that his entrance, as well as his scheme of commercial transactions, would be opposed by a still more serious obstacle. A Portuguese squadron, represented by some accounts as amounting to twenty armed vessels, had stationed itself at the mouth of the river, for the express purpose of preventing the entrance of ships belonging to any other European state. The commander, Don Francisco de Soto Mayor, sent a messenger to state that, if the English brought a letter from the King of Spain or the viceroy, authorizing them to trade in these parts, they might depend on every attention; otherwise, his instructions were to interdict the port to the people of all countries except his own. Sir Henry very promptly replied, that he had no letter either from king or viceroy; that he came with credentials and rich presents from his own sovereign, to open a traffic with the Great Mogul, who was under no vassalage to the Portuguese, but whose territory was free to all nations; that he wished no harm to Don Francisco or his countrymen, though he considered himself to have quite as good a title as they had to the commercial advantages of Cambay. The other, however, determined to refuse the slightest concession, immediately began to intercept the supply of provisions from the town—causing thereby

a most serious privation to the English, among whom, from having been so long at sea, symptoms of scurvy began to be severely felt. At the same time, accounts were received that Sharpey, after losing his vessel in the manner already described, was now at Surat. He had received communications from Hawkins, still at the court of the Mogul, and from Fitch at Lahore, by which it appeared that the Indian rulers were so fickle and easily swayed by opposite influences, while the Portuguese and native merchants were so closely combined against him, that there could be little or no hope of establishing any secure or beneficial intercourse. Middleton now paused, and was advised to try his fortune on another division of the coast; but having obtained from some of the higher authorities in the city an assurance that, were it not for their fear of the Portuguese, they would be very willing to trade with him, he resolved that nothing on his part should be wanting to fulfil the views of his employers. The Trade's Increase was too large to approach the shore; but the Peppercorn, with two smaller vessels, began to move towards the harbour. During their progress, the Portuguese armada kept abreast of them, between their line and the land, in order of battle, with colours flying, and raising loud shouts, yet without showing any disposition to an actual engagement. At length, one of Middleton's boats having been sent forward to take soundings, two of the enemy's barks rowed out, and openly attempted to capture it. A brisk fire, however, being directed against them, they lost no time in commencing their retreat; and one was so hotly pursued, that the crew leaped overboard, and struggled through the deep mud to the shore. The vessel became a prize to the English, which proved of some value, as it contained a tolerable assortment of Indian goods. The rest of the fleet made a movement in aid of their distressed comrades, but received such entertainment as induced them quickly to retire. The two merchantmen were then anchored in seven fathoms water, at the mouth of the river; and every subsequent attempt which the Portuguese made to annoy them, or prevent their landing, was defeated with great loss.

The authorities of Surat, on seeing such determined resolution displayed by the English, no longer hesitated to enter into treaty with them. Mocrib Khan, the governor, with sixteen leading mercantile characters, spent a night on board, accepting with readiness the viands and delicacies presented to them, as well as various little ornamental articles which they were allowed to select as presents. At last the strangers landed, and the parties began to negotiate about the exchange of their respective commodities. Khojah Nassan and the other merchants produced an ample assortment of calicoes; but Downton complains that they both bought and sold at rates most unsatisfactory, expecting very exorbitant profits, not less than fifty per cent. on merchandise purchased at their own doors, while for the goods which had been brought from a great distance, they would scarcely allow enough to pay the freight. We cannot, however, forbear taking some exceptions to the mode in which our countrymen, according to their own report, conducted their transactions. The native merchants very reasonably wished to select commodities suited to their trade, and for which they could find a demand; but the English, having burdened themselves with other articles, particularly a large stock of lead, which proved exceedingly unsaleable in this market, insisted on forcing these upon the reluctant purchasers. At length the Indians, seeing they could do no better, agreed to take the lead along with the other goods; but, after these had been landed, Sir Henry learned that Khojah Nassan was expressing the utmost discontent at the assortment thus obtruded on him, raving like a madman, and even countermanding the waggons which were to carry away the obnoxious article. It was added that, according to the custom of the country, any bargain could be annulled, on notice to that effect being given within twenty-four hours. To avert this peril, Middleton had recourse to a step, the expediency of which appears exceedingly questionable. The governor and several other official persons happening to be on board his vessel, he placed them under arrest, to be liberated only when the transactions should be closed by the

delivery of the Indian goods. The option, however, was given to the merchant to relieve the governor by supplying his place,—a proposal to which, with many wry faces, he was at last induced to consent. By this step the English gained, indeed, their immediate object; yet it probably contributed, in no small degree, to the resolution which was soon afterwards made known to them, that they must forthwith depart from Surat, without establishing a factory or even collecting their debts. This inhospitable proceeding was imputed to the intrigues of the Portuguese and Jesuits; but, whether it were so or not, Sir Henry was obliged to retire with a very unsatisfactory cargo, and no favourable prospect as to the future reception of his countrymen.

From Surat he sailed along the coast, and touched at Dabul, where he was at first very heartily welcomed, but soon found or suspected that the governor secretly counteracted all his measures, so that he could form no advantageous arrangement. He returned to the Red Sea, and extorted from the citizens of Mocha farther compensation for the wrongs he had formerly suffered there. He moreover stopped every Indian vessel he met, and obliged her to agree to an exchange of goods, the conditions of which he himself dictated,—a course which he justifies on grounds that seem rather untenable. He next sailed across the Indian Ocean for Bantam; but in the course of the voyage the *Trade's Increase* struck upon a rock, and sustained considerable damage. While it was under repair he sent Downton home in the *Peppercorn*, intending himself to follow; but he was seized with a violent illness, and died in Java.

In 1611, the Company sent out the *Globe*, under Captain Hippon, to endeavour to open a trade on the Coromandel coast; and Floris, a Dutchman, accompanied him as factor. They departed in January, and at the end of July doubled the Point de Galle in Ceylon, whence they ran along the coast to Negapatam. Without stopping there, they proceeded to Pulicat, where they hoped to traffic with some advantage. The day after their arrival, however, Van Wersicke, president of the Dutch settlements on

this coast, waited upon them, and gave notice that his countrymen had obtained a *kau* from the King of Narsinga, in whose territory that city stood, prohibiting all Europeans from trading, unless under patent from Prince Maurice. The captain replied that he held the patent of the King of England, which he deemed quite sufficient; and high words arose. But the Shah Bandur, or governor, persuaded them to suspend the dispute till the expected arrival of the Princess Konda Maa, who held the sovereignty of the city. Her royal highness came; but when Hippon applied for an audience, she returned for answer that she was not then at leisure, promising, however, to send for him next day. Considering this reply evasive, he went to the minister, and was assured that the Dutch had in fact obtained the exclusive right which they asserted; and he was advised to apply to them for permission to trade. But Hippon, calculating that this expedient would occupy two months, and being almost certain, besides, that he would be refused, proceeded to Petapoli, where he left a small factory, and then to Masulipatam, the great market for the beautiful fabrics produced upon this coast. The governor there readily entered into treaty, but pursued, at the same time, a complete system of fraud and chicanery. He told the most palpable lies, and insisted that he, as a Mir, or descendant of Mohammed, was to be believed before Christians. The English, therefore, had determined upon "foul means" to obtain redress; but, through some of the merchants, an accommodation was effected. They sailed next to Bantam, and thence to Patane, where, in June 1612, they landed in great state, with minstrels playing and flags flying, bearing the king's letter in a golden basin on the back of an elephant. This they presented to the queen, who received them graciously, and finally gave the desired permission to erect a warehouse. At Patane the captain died, upon which the others proceeded to Siam. Floris, who had visited this part of India four years before, probably in a Dutch vessel, found such a demand for goods as the whole world, it appeared to him, was insufficient to satisfy; but now there had

ensued such a glut, as to leave room only for very limited sales. They afterwards returned to Masulipatam, and met with a better reception, but without being able to carry their transactions to any great extent.

In 1611 also, the Company sent out a much larger expedition, of three ships,—the *Clove*, *Hector*, and *Thomas*,—under Captain John Saris. This was an active and adventurous voyage, but does not come within our immediate sphere; the vessels not having touched at any part of the continent of India. Saris sailed first to the Red Sea, where he met Sir Henry Middleton on his second visit there; and the parties for some time acted in concert both for trade and piracy. In August 1612, he steered for Bantam, still considered as the chief English factory in the East, where he arrived in the end of October, but learned that the number of vessels belonging to different countries, assembled and expected, had caused a very inconvenient rise in the price of cloves, pepper, and the other staple commodities. He sailed, therefore, to the Moluccas, which were found to have been cruelly desolated by civil wars between the native princes, as well as by the contests for pre-eminence between the Dutch and Portuguese, supported by the Spaniards from the Philippines. The Hollanders had now nearly expelled the other nations, and were using their utmost efforts, by threats and misrepresentations, to deter the several chiefs from holding any intercourse with the English. Saris, however, by his activity and address, contrived to collect a suitable cargo of cloves. He then sailed for Firando, in Japan, in the hope of opening a communication with that celebrated empire, where the rigid exclusion of Europeans, which has been since so strictly enforced, did not yet prevail. Being waited on by the governor, who is here called king, they made arrangements for visiting the emperor at Surunga, where they met with a good reception, and entertained hopes of establishing a profitable factory at Firando; which, however, proved ultimately fallacious.

The Company had now sent eight expeditions, the result of

which was judged on the whole to be extremely advantageous. Leaving out of the account the unfortunate voyage of Sharpey, they had derived an average profit of not less than 171 per cent. Mr. Mill hence draws the natural inference, that these had been conducted in a manner decidedly more judicious than subsequent adventures that yielded a very different return. Yet we cannot forbear observing, that many of the cargoes were made up on such very easy terms as their successors could not expect to command. Independently of the fact that whole fleets were sometimes laden with captured goods, trade was often carried on by compulsory means, calculated to ensure a profitable return only to the stronger party. These first voyages, in short, exhibit the profits of trade combined with the produce of piracy.

The commerce of India, according to the original plan, was to be conducted on the principle of a joint-stock company, in which the transactions were to be managed by a governor and directors, and a dividend made to the subscribers in proportion to the number of shares. But as the paying up of the instalments upon this principle proceeded very slowly, another arrangement was made, by which each individual furnished a certain proportion of the outlay, and received the entire profit arising from its investment. Though the affairs of the Company prospered under this system, it was necessarily attended with a good deal of confusion and difficulty, which suggested to the governor and Company the expediency of returning to the old method of conducting affairs on the regular joint-stock system. This plan was accordingly adopted in 1612, and on those terms a capital of £429,000 was subscribed, with which the directors undertook, during the next four years, to build twenty-nine vessels, at an expense of £272,000, and to employ the rest of the sum in the investment.

The commerce of India being considered more and more a national object, King James, in 1614, sent out Sir Thomas Roe as ambassador to the Great Mogul, with the view of obtaining permission to trade on reasonable terms in the principal ports of his dominions. The details of this embassy, which remarkably

illustrate the manners and arrangements of the Mogul court, will be introduced in our account of that dynasty. The result could not be considered as a total failure; yet the influence exercised against the English by the Portuguese and native merchants was so powerful,—the views of this splendid but barbarous court were so vacillating and capricious,—that, though Sir Thomas did at last extract a species of firman in favour of his countrymen, he could give them little encouragement to place any reliance upon it; assuring them that their actual success must ever depend mainly upon arrangements with the local merchants and magistrates.

A regular intercourse being now formed with India, and all the maritime paths to that region fully explored, the particular voyages cease to possess much interest, and have therefore been seldom recorded. The situation of the English was sometimes rendered critical by the rivalry of the other European powers who had formed establishments previously, and continued as long as possible to treat them as interlopers. The Portuguese from the first manifested the loftiest pretensions, aggravated by the most imbibited feelings; but their naval power had now become so feeble in comparison with the fleets of Britain, that they scarcely ever encountered her vessels without signal defeat.

It was much otherwise with the Dutch, whose extensive marine rendered their hostility truly formidable. They had already completely driven the Portuguese from the Molucca and Banda Islands, which they claimed in complete sovereignty. The English did not attempt to interfere with the Hollanders in those settlements where the right of prior occupation could be urged; but the small islands of Pularoon and Rosengin, forming part indeed of a group occupied by that people, though containing no actual settlement, were considered as open territory, and forts were erected on them. This seems sufficiently conformable to Indian practice, where the factories of different nations are often found in the closest contiguity. The Dutch, however, chose to understand it otherwise; and, after having in vain endeavoured to expel their rivals from these strongholds, seized two of their

vessels, announcing their determination not to release them till England should have withdrawn her pretensions to the trade of the Spice Islands. The demand was strenuously resisted, and hostilities ensued, which were attended with disastrous consequences to both nations, and particularly to our countrymen. Pring, when he was on the coast of Coromandel in 1619, heard the doleful tale that four ships, the Dragon, Bear, Expedition, and Rose, were captured near the Isles of Tecoo; that the Star was taken in the Straits of Sunda, and that two other vessels were in great peril. The Companies now presented heavy complaints against each other to their respective governments; negotiations were opened, and in order to prevent these partial hostilities from terminating in a general war, a treaty of a very singular complexion was concluded. The English and Dutch agreed to become, as it were, copartners in the Indian traffic; the former to have half the trade in pepper, and a third of that in the finer spices; and each of the nations to keep ten ships in common for the purpose of protection, as well as for conveying goods from one port of India to another. There was also to be formed a "Council of Defence," consisting of four members of each Company, who were to be intrusted with the duty of enforcing the provisions of this extraordinary treaty.

It was obvious that these stipulations were of such a nature, and involved so constant an interference in private transactions, as could not fail to lead to the most serious differences. The Dutch, who maintained larger fleets among the islands, interpreted every question in their own favour, and refused to admit the others to the stipulated share of the trade, till they had paid their proportion of all the sums which they themselves, with or without necessity, had expended on fortifications. The enmity between the two parties became always more rancorous, till the Hollanders, availing themselves of superior strength, proceeded to that dreadful outrage called the "Massacre of Amboyna." The island of that name is well known as the richest of the group of the Moluccas, and the one which affords the most copious supply of

cloves. The principal settlement of both companies was at the capital, where the Dutch had a strong castle with a garrison of about two hundred men; while the English, eighteen in number, occupied merely a house in the town, where, however, they thought themselves in safety under the faith of treaties. The former, conceiving suspicions of a Japanese soldier who was in their service, arrested and put him to the torture. By that barbarous mode of extracting evidence, they brought him to confess that he and several of his countrymen had entered into a conspiracy to seize the fortress; and upon the information thus obtained, others of the same nation were apprehended and tortured. The English, while this transaction was going on, went back and forward to the castle as business led them, inquiring about it as an ordinary affair, in no shape affecting themselves. Abel Price, the surgeon, however, having been confined in that building on account of some excesses committed through intoxication, was one morning assured that his countrymen also were engaged in this nefarious plot. He professed utter ignorance on the subject; but the rack was applied to him with such severity as made him soon confess whatever his tormentors were pleased to direct. At the same time a message was sent to Captain Towerson, and the other members of the English factory, requesting that they would visit the governor. On their arrival, they were much surprised at being arrested, all their property seized, and themselves called upon to acknowledge their share in the alleged conspiracy. Notwithstanding the most solemn denial, they underwent separate and successive examinations, enforced by the most cruel torture, their cries being heard by their companions without, even at a great distance. Agony, indeed, at length extorted their assent to everything which their accusers chose to suggest. The confessions evidently appear to have been given in a manner which renders it quite manifest that they were wrung from the unhappy victims by the extremity of suffering. On being released, they repeated their denials in the most impressive manner; two, in particular, being adjured by Towerson, retracted altogether the testimony they had borne

against him. But they were impelled by the renewed application of torture to return to their accusation both of themselves and of him. One desired to be told at once what he was required to own; but this being treated as contumacy, torture was again applied till he invented such a story as was likely to satisfy his persecutors. In general, however, leading questions were put, intimating the charges made against the individual; and the judges contented themselves with his passive admission. The issue was, that Captain Towerson and nine others were condemned to die, the remaining eight being pardoned. They were allowed to see each other, and had the sacrament administered by the Dutch clergyman, when they declared in the most solemn manner their perfect innocence. Samuel Colson said aloud:—"O Lord, as I am innocent of this treason, do thou pardon all my other sins; and if in the smallest degree guilty thereof may I never be a partaker of the joys of thy heavenly kingdom." The rest answered, "Amen! amen!" They then earnestly asked and cordially received forgiveness from each other for their mutual accusations,—John Clark saying, "How shall I look to be forgiven of God if I do not forgive you." They were then executed by having their heads cut off with a scimitar. A black pall was provided for the captain, the expense of which his enemies had the effrontery to charge on the English Company. One Portuguese, and nine natives of Japan, who suffered at the same time, made equally strong protestations of innocence.

The indignation of the English people, always easily roused, never mounted to a higher pitch than when tidings arrived of this cruel and bloody transaction. The nation was in a ferment, and a universal cry arose for redress and vengeance. The Court of Directors prepared and distributed a picture, in which the tortures of the unhappy sufferers were represented with every feature of aggravation. The press was actively employed in inflaming still farther the indignation of the multitude, and the excitement was such that the Dutch residents made an application to the Privy Council for the protection of their persons. Mr. Mill, always

studious to guard against national partiality, is willing to suppose that this matter had been viewed at home through a somewhat exaggerating medium. Reluctant to ascribe to the actors the malignant spirit of demons, he thinks it more probable that, biassed and embittered by the violent opposition of interests, they may have believed their rivals really guilty, have rashly brought them to trial, decided with minds too much blinded to discern the truth, and then put them to death without remorse. The torture, however unjustifiable, was still employed in Holland and other European kingdoms as an instrument for extorting evidence. Both nations, he observes, in those distant seas, where they were beyond the reach of regular government and legal restraint, were guilty of many cruel and violent actions. Admitting to a certain extent the force of these observations, we cannot yet refrain from condemning the transaction as one of deliberate and cold-blooded ferocity.

The Dutch, on being called upon for satisfaction, returned at first very evasive answers; but when the English began to detain their vessels, they found the matter assuming a more serious aspect, and authorized an investigation. The negotiations were very long protracted, and no final adjustment took place till 1654, during the government of Cromwell, when eight commissioners, four on each side, awarded a compensation of £3615 to the heirs and representatives of those who had suffered. At the same time, each party brought forward a statement of the amount of injury alleged to have been sustained from the other during the forty years which elapsed from the time they began their abortive attempt at a joint trade, down to 1652. The English raised their estimate to no less than £2,695,999; while the Dutch chose to fix theirs at the still more enormous amount of £2,919,861. These excessively-exaggerated demands were cut down by the commissioners, who in the end awarded the sum of £85,000 to be paid to our countrymen.

The catastrophe of Amboyna broke up entirely that system of united traffic, which indeed from the first might easily have been

foreseen to be impracticable. Yet the English maintained for some time longer their settlement at Bantam, which they had even made the capital of their eastern possessions. But the greater force maintained by the enemy in those islands, and which they always increased, rendered the tenure by which our people held a footing there difficult and precarious; and the greater attractions presented on the continent of India induced them gradually to relinquish their insular stations, with the exception of a few on the coast of Sumatra.

Considerable expectations were at one period entertained from an establishment on the Persian Gulf. An English naval force, as formerly mentioned, co-operating with the army of the Shah of Persia, drove the Portuguese in 1622 from their once opulent settlement at Ormuz, which has since sunk into total insignificance. In return for their services, our adventurers received not only a share of the booty, but also liberty to establish a factory at the fort of Gombroon, the transactions at which appeared at first to wear a promising aspect.

Surat for a considerable time was the principal seat of British settlement in India, and annual investments to a large amount were sent to the factory in that city. Being exposed, however, to the arbitrary exactions of the Mogul and his officers, and also to the incessant incursions of the Mahrattas, the government felt it very desirable to obtain some place entirely their own, and which they could fortify against external aggression. An opportunity was offered in 1662, on occasion of the marriage of the Infanta Catherine to Charles II., when the island of Bombay was ceded as part of her dowry. Some misunderstanding arose as to the extent of this grant, the English conceiving it to include Salsette and other dependencies; while the Portuguese chose to view it as not extending beyond the bare precincts of the island,—in which last interpretation Britain was finally obliged to acquiesce. Thus the crown acquired for the first time a territorial possession in India; which, however, did not yield revenue sufficient to defray its expenses. In 1668, therefore, the entire sovereignty was

made over to the Company, who, in 1687, transferred thither from Surat the presidency over their other settlements; and Bombay has ever since continued the capital of their dominions in Western India.

Meantime, the establishments on the eastern coast were gradually rising into their present importance. For some time, the Coromandel stations were considered secondary, shifted from place to place, and held subordinate to Bantam. In the voyage of Hippon we have traced the first foundation of the important settlements of Masulipatam and Pulicat; but the latter was soon relinquished, in consequence of Dutch rivalry. To escape the hostility of that people and the oppressions of the native government, the English, in 1625, procured a spot of ground at Armegum, a little south of Nellore, where they established a factory. This place, however, viewed as an emporium of the fine cotton manufactures which gave the chief value to that coast, was not found equal to Masulipatam; and accordingly the trade of this last was soon revived. Valuable privileges in its favour were obtained from the King of Golconda; while the Mogul emperor sanctioned an establishment at Pipley in Orissa. It being still considered important to have a place of strength for the security of the Company's trade, permission was obtained, in 1640, from a native chief to erect a fort at Madraspatam. The Directors, actuated by a spirit of economy, objected to this erection, and limited very strictly the sums to be expended on it. However, they called it Fort St. George, and made it afterwards the capital of their settlements on the coast of Coromandel.

The establishment in Bengal, which has since risen to such unrivalled prosperity, was formed somewhat later than either of the others. An English medical gentleman of the name of Boughton, resident at Surat, having visited Agra in 1651, was fortunate enough to remove a dangerous illness which had affected the daughter of the Emperor Shah Jehan. The gratitude felt by the monarch was, with a laudable patriotism, employed by the physician to obtain for his countrymen some important commercial

privileges. The merchants of Surat, on payment of 3000 rupees, procured full freedom of trade, exempt from customs; and in 1656 they erected a factory at Hooghly, situated on that branch of the river which has always been considered the principal channel for the trade of the Ganges. From this time ships and investments were sent to Bengal every year. Several other factories were subsequently formed; but its commerce was still considered secondary to that of Coromandel, and made subject to the superintendence of the authorities at Fort St. George.

It was in Bengal, however, that the English first attempted to establish political and military power. The agents of the Company transmitted a detail of various wrongs sustained from the native rulers, and suggested the expediency of seeking redress by force of arms. The Directors sent out, in 1686, Captain Nicholson, with ten armed vessels and six companies of soldiers, destined to a service of no less magnitude than that of levying war against the Great Mogul and the Nabob of Bengal. The plan of the campaign was in the first instance to seize and fortify Chittagong, a point rather remote from the scene of commercial activity, but which they meant to make the centre of their military movements. Hence they were not fortunate in the execution of this grand scheme; the different parts of the armament arriving separately, and acting, too, with little concert. The fleet sailed up to Hooghly, and commenced a cannonade, but being completely repulsed, was obliged to seek shelter in a port which occupied the present site of Calcutta. Factories that had been formed at Patna and Cossimbazar were taken and plundered. The nabob, after a deceitful truce, assembled his whole army to attack the discomfited English, who at that crisis, however, under the command of the Company's agent, made a brilliant display of valour. They not only checked the Mogul forces, but entered the harbour of Bala-sore, and burnt forty sail of their ships. An accommodation was then agreed to, by which they were permitted to re-establish their factory at Hooghly; and affairs were on the point of being replaced on their former footing, when two British ships of war, under an

officer named Heath, entered the river. That commander immediately disallowed the treaty, and commenced warlike operations, which he conducted very unfortunately; and the invaders were soon obliged to evacuate Bengal. Aurangzebe, at that time seated on the Mogul throne, was so exasperated at these proceedings, and other violent steps taken by Sir John Child, governor of Bombay, that he ordered a general attack on the Company's factories. Those at Surat, Masulipatam, and Visigapatam, were reduced, the last not without some bloodshed; and Bombay was very closely pressed. Our countrymen were compelled to have recourse to the most humble submission; when that politic sovereign, weighing the benefit which his people derived from foreign commerce, gradually relaxed, and allowed the traffic to resume its usual channels.

From this time, however, the Company began openly to aspire to independent authority in the East. In 1689, as Mr. Mill observes, "it was laid down as a determinate object of policy, that independence was to be established in India, and dominion acquired." At that date they wrote to their agents,—*"The increase of our revenue is the subject of our care, as much as our trade."* Henceforth, then, the English may be considered as having commenced their system of political ascendancy in that part of Asia; but before following them through the various steps of this arduous undertaking, it will be advantageous to turn back and take a survey of the fortunes of that great empire, whose place they were destined to occupy.

## CHAPTER VI.

## EARLY MOHAMMEDAN CONQUESTS IN INDIA.

Rise of the Mohammedan Power—Conquests in Central Asia—The Samanid Dynasty—  
 Al-Buhārī—Subuktigī—Mahmūd the Ghiznevide—His Twelve Expeditions into India—  
 Victory in Lahore—Successive Conquests of Bimē; Tanassar; Kanouge; Muttra; Sumnāt—  
 His Death—Character—Anecdotes—Literature of the Court of Ghizni—Ferdous—  
 Oonsuri—Abu Rihan—Decline of the Ghiznian House—Subverted by that of Ghori—  
 Mohammed Ghori—His Conquests in India—Cuttub conquers Delhi and makes it his  
 Capital.

THE Arabs or Saracens, in spreading by their arms the religion of Mohammed, effected a most astonishing revolution in the eastern world, and penetrated to more remote parts of Asia than were ever reached by the Roman eagle. After the death of their prophet, a short interval only had elapsed when their victorious cavalry drank at once the waters of the Tagus, the Niger, and the Jaxartes. Bagdad became the capital of the greatest empire then on the face of the earth; its court was the most splendid and the most polished, and the seat of all the learning by which that dark age was illumined.

No region derived such advantages from this triumph of the Moslem arms and faith as the country called Mavar-ul-Nahar, being that extensive tract of Independent Tartary which is watered by the great rivers Oxus and Jaxartes. Though blessed with a fertile soil, and one of the finest climates of Asia, it is represented in all the ancient records as entirely Scythian, covered with roaming hordes of shepherds and warriors, who lived in tents, and subsisted on the milk of their flocks. Under the Arab sway, it acquired and has ever since retained regular government, improved cultivation, large and populous cities; and yet this province was one of the first which were severed from the Caliphate. Its governors, distant from the seat of empire, began gradually to assume the character of independent princes; they extended their power first over Khorasan; then over the interior provinces of

Persia; and finally hemmed in Bagdad itself more and more closely, till the name of Caliph, which had caused the extremities of the earth to tremble, became little more than an empty sound.

It was in the year 873, the 258th of the Hegira, that Ismael Samani of Bokhara assumed the title of king; and his posterity in the family of Samania reigned nearly a hundred years over those vast regions, with a high reputation for justice and beneficence. At length his house felt that decline to which despotic power in all countries is ultimately liable. Its weakness was further increased by a disputed succession; while Abistagi, governor of the vast semi-Tartar province of Khorasan, successfully raised the standard of insurrection. Having become an independent sovereign, he added to his domain the high mountain territory of Cabul and Candahar. Situated at the foot of the Indian Caucasus, this region is inhabited by the Afghans, a race of hardy husbandmen, shepherds, and warriors, who have often extended the authority of their princes over the surrounding countries. Here Abistagi selected Ghizni as the capital of an empire which long ruled over Asia.

In the year 977 he was succeeded, not by his son, who died young, but by Subuktagi his general, who had been saluted sovereign by the voice of the troops. This prince consolidated the new kingdom, and became the real founder of a mighty dynasty. He bears a high reputation for probity, simplicity, and mildness. The Orientals fondly relate a little incident that at least expresses their ideas respecting his temper, and forms a pleasing contrast with the hardihood of his character and the rough scenes in which he acted. Hunting one day in the forest, he espied a fawn with its mother bounding over the plain. He caught the animal, tied its feet, and threw it over his saddle; but on looking back, he beheld the mother following with so piteous an aspect that his soul was melted. He released the fawn, and allowed it to rejoin its parent, who, as she turned into the wilderness, looked back with eyes streaming tears of gratitude. Subuktagi's pleasing reflections upon this scene, and his own share in it, suggested at

night a dream or vision, where, in reward for his humanity, a kingdom was promised to him. As a proof of his simplicity of taste, we are informed that, on being introduced to a splendid pavilion erected by his son Mahmoud, he told the prince that this object was to be despised as a perishing bauble, and that he ought to make it his study to obtain a good name, which would last for ever.

This youth, after a short usurpation by his brother Ishmael, whom, after vanquishing, he merely imprisoned for life, succeeded in the year 997 to Subuktagi, and proved one of the greatest princes that ever ruled in Asia. Being attacked by the Emperor of Bokhara, he felt or professed great reluctance to engage in war with the representative of the venerated dynasty of Samania; but his scruples were overcome when that prince was murdered, and his throne seized by two of his generals. Mahmoud then joined the King of the Uzbecks in extinguishing the empire of Bokhara; and the fine territory of Mavar-ul-Nahar was added to his dominion, which then comprehended all Asia from the Caspian to the Indus.

There is not a more chequered fame in oriental history than that of Mahmoud. His justice has been so much celebrated that, according to eastern writers, the wolf and the lamb in his reign drank at the same fountain; yet instances are not wanting in which his conduct appears marked by the grossest iniquity and extortion. His piety, which is as much celebrated, is equally problematical. According to Ferishta, he was in early life prone to scepticism. His mind was agitated with doubt on two very different points,—whether there be a future world, and whether he was the son of Subuktagi; for the general deportment of his mother, it seems, left this last question open to controversy. A vision appeared to him, when the Prophet in person removed both these subjects of inquietude; and the emperor then commenced a high religious profession. His zeal, however, brought such an accession of power and wealth, as made it be doubted whether his devotions to heaven were not chiefly valued as they tended to make him lord of the earth. His fervour was

especially inflamed by reports of the boundless wealth accumulated in the holy shrines of Hindostan, and his conscience incessantly reproached him, till he used means to have these profane treasures transported to adorn the palaces of Ghizni.

The rise of the Mohammedan power was pregnant with events to India, over which its princes were destined to rule for ages; yet their dominion had endured four centuries without finding its way into that extensive region. But this security was necessarily impaired, when so formidable a kingdom was erected on its frontier. Subuktagi had already made two inroads into Moulton and Lahore, in which he was successful, having in both completely defeated Jeipal, prince of the latter country. He annexed to his dominions the fine province of Peshawur, and extended his authority to the Indus. Mahmoud, who, in these invasions, had given early proofs of personal bravery, soon made the country beyond that river the grand theatre of his military exploits, from which he was diverted only by some insurrections in his more distant dependencies, and by occasional alarms of Tartar invasion. Historians record twelve expeditions by this great potentate, from all of which he returned triumphant, and laden with booty.

In the first he merely crossed the Indus; but the second was against Jeipal of Lahore, who had again reared the standard of independence. This country, in which mountains and deserts are intermingled with tracts of luxuriant fertility, has, from the days of Alexander to the present, nurtured a warlike people, who have formed a bulwark against western invasion. Jeipal had mustered another formidable army, but was vanquished and made prisoner; his neck, as well as those of fifteen chiefs, being encircled with jewels of immense value. This unfortunate prince, after being twice a captive, considered his honour as irretrievably tarnished: for which reason, and actuated by the barbarous pride of his countrymen, he prepared a funeral-pile, and threw himself into the flames. Annindpal, his son, acknowledged his kingdom tributary to Ghizni.

The three next expeditions of Mahmoud were made with the

view of collecting imposts and suppressing partial rebellions. The fifth, in 1009, commenced by an attack on the part of Annindpal. Having formed alliances with all the great kings of the interior,—Delhi, Kanouge, Ougein, Gwalior, Callinger, and Ajmere,—he assembled the largest army that had been seen in that region for hundreds of years. They crossed the Indus, and entered the Plains of Peshawur, where the Moslems, afraid to encounter in the open field an enemy so immensely superior, began to intrench their forces. The two armies remained forty days in presence of each other, when at length a battle was begun on the side of the natives by the Gickers or Gwickwars, a race almost entirely savage, inhabiting the mountainous tracts north of Lahore. Their arrows did considerable execution; yet the main body were unable to make any impression on the brave and strongly intrenched army of Mahmoud. Many fell on the part of the assailants, when at length the elephant on which the Prince of Lahore rode, frightened by a fire-ball, ran off, and carried his master out of the field. At that moment the troops, thinking themselves deserted by their commander, were struck with panic; and the whole of that mighty host fled in complete and irretrievable confusion. An alarm so sudden and so slightly raised, may lead us to conclude that, instead of hardy and veteran warriors, Mahmoud had encountered only an effeminate and tumultuary militia, like that which Xerxes led into Greece. Twenty thousand were slain in the pursuit; and numerous elephants laden with treasure were captured. The conqueror, finding no longer an army to oppose him, marched directly upon the fort of Bimé, or Bheemghur, considered almost impregnable, and which had therefore been made a general depository for all the sacred wealth of the surrounding temples. The Indian princes having marched forward with a full assurance of victory, and without ever dreading attack, had withdrawn the garrison to reinforce their ranks, leaving only priests to guard the shrine and treasures. These defenders soon opened the gates and fell flat on their faces before the victorious prince. The gold, silver, and precious stones found

in Bimé are declared by Ferishta to have exceeded all similar possessions of any other prince on earth; yet Major Price's authorities, and even his own, when carefully analyzed by Colonel Briggs, fix the amount at little more than £300,000 in specie, with perhaps a somewhat larger value in diamonds and other jewels. These acquisitions, on Mahmoud's return, were displayed several days to the admiring gaze of the Ghizni mountaineers; and the exhibition was closed by liberal donations to the poor and the ministers of religion.

The sovereigns of India, by this abortive expedition, had revealed to Mahmoud the fatal secret of their weakness and the valuable treasures which their kingdoms contained,—lessons by which he was not slow to profit. He had obtained intelligence respecting Tanassar, a shrine of singular opulence and sanctity, situated near the theatre of the great war recorded in the *Mahabarat*. As he passed on his march the territories of Lahore, Anindpal addressed an earnest supplication that he would remain content with having swept away at Bimé the riches of so many temples, and would spare this peculiar object of Hindoo veneration; but Mahmoud announced his firm purpose to obliterate from India every vestige of idolatry. He reached the place before it could receive even the feeble aid of the King of Delhi, and became possessed, without resistance, of the accumulated treasure of ages. All the idols were broken in pieces and thrown on the highway, except one of stupendous dimensions, called Jug Soom, which was carried to Ghizni and reduced to fragments. The conqueror took possession of Delhi, and even formed the design of annexing this fine region to his dominions; but on farther reflection he considered it impossible, so long as the brave and well defended province of Lahore intervened, that a regular communication could be maintained between that capital and Ghizni. To subdue Anindpal would therefore have been a requisite preliminary; but that prince acted with such prudence, and so carefully avoided all occasion of offence, that Mahmoud found neither pretext nor temptation to renew the war. He therefore never attempted to conquer

India ; he merely pounced, from time to time, like an eagle, from his tremendous eyry amid the snows of Caucasus, snatched his prey, and flew back to his mountain-domain.

This prince spent a summer in conquering the beautiful Valley of Cashmere, the possession of which opened to him a way into the interior of Hindostan, without the reluctant consent of the Prince of Lahore. In the year 1017 he assembled all his troops from the Tartar provinces, and at the head of a hundred thousand horse and thirty thousand foot, marched along the sources of the great rivers against Kanouge, the proudest of all the Indian capitals. The oriental writers represent, in the most magnificent terms, its pomp and greatness. The towers are described as reaching the skies ; while the city is said at one time to have contained 30,000 shops for the sale of betel, and 60,000 performers on musical instruments. A state thus dissolved in ease and luxury was ill prepared to encounter the hardy bands who poured down from Afghanistan. The king did not even attempt resistance ; he advanced and tendered his submission to the invader. Kanouge was consequently treated with lenity, and the conqueror remained only three days. After reducing several other places, he received intelligence of a city which afforded the means of gratifying to the utmost his rapacious piety. Muttra or Mathura, sacred to Krishna, contained shrines eclipsing all others even in this most wealthy region. The Mohammedan prince entered it with little opposition, and found its temples the most splendid he had yet seen, filled with gigantic idols of pure gold, having eyes of rubies ; in one was stuck a sapphire of extraordinary magnitude. The conqueror lost no time in decomposing these rich objects of pagan homage, and, having reduced them to their constituent elements of gold and jewels, loaded with them a long train of camels. He is said to have once formed the design of demolishing the temples ; but being dazzled with their beauty, he desisted, and left that task to the bigoted zeal of Aurengzebe. The reduction of some other cities was attended with hard fighting and comparatively little spoil. He marched by way of

Lahore to Ghizni, and made a display of booty eclipsing even that brought from the plunder of Tanassar. It has been estimated at half a million in specie, with jewels and pearls beyond all calculation; to which were added fifty-three thousand captives, whose price, however, was so much reduced by the immense supply, that they scarcely brought five shillings a-head. The wealth obtained by the private chiefs and soldiers was supposed to equal that of the sovereign.

Ghizni hitherto, notwithstanding the riches conveyed to it, had been little more in itself than an encampment of migratory shepherds; but Mahmoud, smitten with the magnificence of Kanouge and Mathura, determined now to erect edifices which might render his capital an object of admiration to the world. A mosque was built of granite and marble, on which the richest materials were profusely lavished, and new ornaments continually added, till it became celebrated over Asia under the title of the "Celestial Bride." The nobles, imitating the taste of their sovereign, vied with each other in costly structures, till Ghizni acquired a magnificence surpassing that of the greatest cities of India.

Meantime Mahmoud received the mortifying intelligence that the submission and alliance of the King of Kanouge had proved fatal to that prince. Indignant at his desertion of the general cause, Nunda, king of Callinger, seconded by the neighbouring monarchs, commenced a furious war, which ended in his defeat and death, and the surrender of his capital. The Ghiznian ruler made all the despatch which his distance admitted. After forcing the passage of the Jumna, he advanced and found the victor strongly intrenched, and apparently waiting his attack; but, after due consideration, the Indian prince retreated, leaving the country to be laid waste by the invader. The kingdom and city of Kanouge, however, were never able to regain their ancient splendour.

Lahore, though so closely contiguous to the Ghiznian territory, had continued independent during thirty years of Mahmoud's

reign; but on the death of Annindpal, he determined upon a vigorous effort to obtain possession of this important key of India. Accordingly, having assembled an immense force, he marched towards the metropolis; when the young prince, unable to face so great an armament, abandoned the city and neighbouring territory, and sought refuge in Ajmere. Lahore was thus attached to the Ghiznian monarchy.

After some minor inroads, the conqueror, in the year 1024, undertook his last and greatest expedition into India; his arms being then turned somewhat in a new direction. In the province of Guzerat, on the shore of the Indian Ocean, stood Somnaut, a shrine higher and holier than any yet devoted to spoliation. Two thousand villages were assigned for its support, besides presents poured in from all the surrounding regions. Somnaut himself was esteemed the general judge of the dead, and his statue of pure gold was washed every morning with water brought from the Ganges, a thousand miles distant. The attendants consisted of two thousand Brahmins, five hundred dancing-girls, three hundred musicians, and three hundred barbers. The king was farther incited by learning that the priests of Somnaut considered themselves secure from his utmost power. According to them, the sins of Delhi and Kanouge had been the sole cause of the downfall of those cities; while they themselves, high in purity and sanctity, might bid defiance to the impious fury of the Moslem invader. Eager to undeceive them, this monarch, having mustered his troops, led them into Moultan; employing twenty thousand camels to convey provisions across the great western desert. The city of Ajmere was found abandoned, and its fort too strong to be attacked. Nahrwalla, capital of Guzerat, had been left in the same state. After passing another desert, the Ghiznevide sovereign came in view of Somnaut, a lofty castle on a peninsula completely enclosed by the sea, except at one point, which was defended by strong walls, on whose battlements stood an innumerable multitude of combatants. They announced by a herald that their great god had drawn the Moslems hither, in order that the

destruction of so many divinities, who had fallen under their axe, might now be avenged. The invaders, however, advanced with a despatch which amazed the Hindoos, and caused them to fall down in tears before their idol; though, on seeing the scaling-ladders applied, they drew strength from despair, and rushed forward to the defence with the utmost fury. The dreadful contest was prolonged a whole day, at the end of which the assailants, overpowered with fatigue, were obliged to retire. On the following morning the attack was renewed, but with no better success.

On the third day, an immense army was seen advancing to the relief of Somnaut. Mahmoud instantly led his troops to battle; but, as this quarter of India has always supplied a race of brave and hardy warriors, the contest was severe. Fortune still wavered, when the Indian host was strengthened by a powerful reinforcement under Byram Deo and Dabissalima, two of the principal chiefs of Guzerat. The battle then became more doubtful and truly terrible, and Mahmoud, for the first time on the soil of India, saw himself in danger of being vanquished. He appealed to the religious zeal of his troops; he prostrated himself on the ground, imploring the aid of Heaven in this holy conflict, and earnestly called on his chiefs to advance either to conquest or the crown of martyrdom. He at length gained a complete victory; and the garrison, on seeing the flight of the great army to which they had trusted for deliverance, were seized with panic, and abandoned the place. The conqueror entered, and was led to the temple, a spacious and antique structure, the interior of which consisted of a majestic hall supported by fifty-six columns, and entirely encircled with golden images of Hindoo deities. Somnaut himself, whose gigantic dimensions are variously reported, towered high over all. On first beholding this idol, Mahmoud, fired with wrathful zeal, struck off its nose, and gave orders that the whole figure should forthwith be reduced into fragments. When the attendant Brahmins saw the downfall of this object of their profoundest veneration, they fell on their knees, and offered an immense sum to save what remained; and

the omrahs advised, even as a matter of prudence, the acceptance of the ransom: but the king indignantly rejected the idea of becoming a "seller of idols." The work of demolition proceeded; and, on its reaching the interior of the image, there was disclosed a treasure in perils, rubies, and diamonds, almost beyond conception, and far surpassing the immense sum tendered for its redemption. It is somewhat difficult to ascertain the amount; but it is generally admitted to have greatly exceeded that of any of the former captures.

Mahmoud was so much pleased with Guzerat, that he deliberated whether he should not make it the principal seat of his government, or at least annex it permanently to his dominions; but he became satisfied that the distance from Ghizni was too great, and the communications too difficult. He attempted, however, to retain a control over this fine country by raising to the sovereignty a Brahmin of humble birth; but he had not long departed when the people again transferred their allegiance to their ancient race of kings. Some romantic and rather absurd details are given with relation to this occurrence, which we pass by, as they were probably invented to supply an excuse to Mahmoud for superseding the sovereign whom he had chosen to impose upon Guzerat.

The victor, while on his return to Ghizni, suffered considerably in passing through the vast deserts, and was greatly annoyed also by the Jauts, a tribe inhabiting Moultan, who, by their strong force of war-boats, commanded the navigation of the Indus. The indignant monarch undertook next year an expedition against this people; and having prepared a vast number of small vessels fortified with iron spikes, encountered, and, after an obstinate conflict, defeated them so completely, that almost the whole nation were slain or taken prisoners.

The following season he was employed in an expedition into Khorasan, on his return from which, in 1030, he was taken ill, and died at the age of sixty-three.

There are few characters, we have remarked, in oriental history

more doubtful than that of this great conqueror. By some he is extolled as the model of a perfect prince, while others brand him as a monster of avarice, injustice, and rapacity. There seems to have been in his nature a strange combination of opposite qualities, his best actions being alloyed by a mixture of wild caprice. He carefully discharged many of his duties as a sovereign, and made great exertions to secure the husbandman and merchant against the inroad of the predatory bands who occupied the mountain-fastnesses. He was accessible to complaints from every quarter. A woman from a remote Persian province came to his audience, and complained that her son had been killed and her property carried off by a gang of plunderers. The king replied that this was a distant conquest, in which it was impossible for him to prevent some disorders. The woman warmly rejoined, "Why, then, do you conquer kingdoms which you cannot protect, and for which you will not be able to answer in the day of judgment?" That this rebuke could be addressed to the king was no small honour to his character, and still more when we find that it roused him to establish order in those remote parts of his dominions. A still more signal act of justice is recorded. A citizen of Ghizni represented that a powerful lord of the court, having become enamoured of his wife, arrived nightly, thrust him out of his own dwelling, and forcibly supplied his place. Mahmud, with the deepest indignation, desired that information should be given to him the first time that this outrage was repeated. The injured person came three nights after with the expected notice, and the monarch, attended by a guard of soldiers, hastened to the house. Having ordered all the lights to be extinguished, he advanced in the dark with a weapon, and, seizing the offender, with one blow severed his head from his body. He then caused a light to be brought, and, having seen the victim, fell on his knees and uttered a prayer. Being asked the meaning of all this, he replied that he had extinguished the light lest the guilty person should prove to have been a favourite—perhaps one of his own sons—the view of whom might have shaken his just resolution; but, on

being relieved from this apprehension, he had returned thanks to Heaven.\*

The people of Ghizni were thus well secured by Mahmoud against the injustice of their fellow-subjects; but their lot was different in regard to the deeds of extortion and iniquity which were too often committed by himself. Mention is made of a wealthy citizen of Nishapour, against whom he chose to make a charge of impiety and heresy. The accused person came to him and said, "O king, I am neither idolater nor apostate, but I am possessed of wealth; take it, therefore, but do me not a double injustice, by robbing me of my money and of my good name." The rapacious ruler, it is said, unblushingly closed with the proposal, and, after having stripped the man of his property, gave him a certificate testifying the soundness of his faith.

Religious zeal was not only avowed by Mahmoud, but under a certain shape supplied the main impulse to all his actions. Yet its exercise, as already observed, was productive of earthly gains so immense as to involve its purity in some suspicion. Still a religious profession is not always insincere, because it is somewhat alloyed in the mind of him who admits a mixture of worldly motives. That the Moslem faith, as the exclusive path to salvation, ought to be propagated by the sword, is one of its fundamental dogmas; and by a monarch whose ambition and avarice this tenet so greatly favoured, we cannot wonder that it should have been zealously embraced. Yet one incident, related as having occurred at the end of his mortal career, shows that the vanities of earth still held full possession of his heart. Two days before his death, he caused all his jewels, pearls, and golden ornaments, collected from so many different regions, to be spread out before him, that he might satiate his eyes by a display of riches, from which he was about to be separated for ever. We can more easily sympathize with his taking a last review of his

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\* This anecdote is given with considerable variations by the different authorities: the above version (which is that of D'Herbelot, *Bibliothèque Orientale*, art. Mahmoud) appears the most probable and consistent.

troops, including the long array of his elephants, and with the deep emotion which this spectacle excited in the breast of the dying warrior.

Mahmoud, as soon as the rays of wealth and prosperity began to illumine his throne, stood forth as the distinguished patron of letters and poetry; and Ghizni, under him, became the most literary and classical city of the East. It shone indeed at first by a borrowed light from Bagdad, which, even amid the complete overthrow of its political greatness, still retained an intellectual empire over all the nations speaking Arabic and studying the Koran. Yet the splendour of Mahmoud's court, and the great events of his reign, called forth poetical talents more brilliant than had adorned even the celebrated courts of Haroun and Almamon. Ferdusi, who, in the Shah Nameh, celebrated the exploits of his patron, ranks as the second poet in Asia. The materials for the literary history of Ghizni are indeed exceedingly scanty; yet enough transpires to warrant the suspicion, that this great author, though attracted by the pomp and patronage of a court, shared the evils which appear inseparable from high endowments, and only passed a life of splendid misery. It is related, that having completed his great work, he sought the due reward, which he estimated at 60,000 *dinars*; but the king, taking advantage of a verbal resemblance, paid only the same number of *dirhems*, not exceeding a tenth of the sum demanded. This was a miserable pun upon which to deprive the greatest genius of the age of the hard-earned fruits of his labour. The indignant poet quitted the court where he had been so unworthily treated, and, retiring to a distance, sent forth various satirical effusions against his former patron, of which D'Herbelot gives the following specimen:—"The magnificent court of Ghizni is a sea, but a sea without bottom and without shore; I have fished in it long, but have not found any pearl." Mahmoud, it is said, was mortified, and endeavoured by flattering offers to induce him to return, but could never prevail with the offended bard.

The presiding star in the literary circles of Ghizni was Oonsuri,

equally celebrated as a philosopher and a poet. Mahmoud placed him at the head of the university which he had founded, and gave him such a complete jurisdiction over a body of four hundred learned men, that no work was to be submitted to the sovereign, which had not been stamped with his approbation. We have not as yet in the West the means of duly estimating the actual merit of this personage; but on considering that with posterity his name stands in such deep eclipse behind that of Ferdusi, above whom he was so highly honoured in life, a doubt must arise, whether his reputation was not partly earned by the arts of a courtier, and the absence of the troublesome pride incident to elevated genius. One channel to favour seems to have consisted in the permission which was allowed him to share the convivial hours of the sovereign. The Orientals relate an occasion, when, to sooth his master's grief for having the night before, when overcome with wine, cut off the long tresses of his beloved, Oonsuri composed some extemporary verses, which conveyed such delight, that in return the mouth of the fortunate minstrel was three times filled with jewels.

Among the men of science resident at Ghizni, the most eminent was Abu Rihan, sent by Almamon from Bagdad, where he was venerated almost as the rival of Avicenna. But, besides metaphysics and dialectics, he studied and appears to have drawn his chief lustre from attainments in the magical art. Of this, D'Herbelot relates a remarkable instance. One day Mahmoud sent for him, and ordered him to deposit with a third person a statement of the precise manner in which the monarch would quit the hall where he was then sitting. The paper being lodged, the king, instead of going out by one of the numerous doors, caused a breach to be made in the wall, by which he effected his exit;—but how was he amazed, when, on the paper being examined, there was found in it a minute specification of the precise spot through which he penetrated! Hereupon the prince with horror denounced this learned man as a sorcerer, and commanded him to be instantly thrown out of the window. The barbarous sentence was presently executed; but care had been taken to prepare beneath a soft and

silken cushion, into which the body of the sage sunk without sustaining any injury. Abu Rihan was then called before the monarch, and required to say, whether by his boasted art he had been able to foresee these events, and the treatment through which he had that day passed. The learned man immediately desired his tablets to be sent for, in which were found regularly predicted the whole of these singular transactions. This incident does not, it must be owned, inspire a very lofty idea, either of the wisdom or the wit of the imperial court of the Ghiznevide.

Mahmoud, after a short interval, was succeeded by Musaood, who nearly equalled him in bravery and enterprise, but who had to struggle against a series of adverse fortune. There poured forth from the interior regions of Asia one of those great tides of conquest and migration, which have so often changed the face of that continent. It consisted of the Turks or Toorks, under the dynasty called, from Seljuk its founder, Seljukian, which overran Khorasan. Under the successors of the chief just named, the Turkish empire rose to such a height of power as to eclipse that of all the other Asiatic kingdoms. Togrul, who subverted the imperial throne of Bagdad, and shook that of Constantinople,—Alp Arslan, who wrote on his tomb at Meru, "Ye who have seen the glory of Alp Arslan exalted to the heavens, come and see it buried under the dust,"—these were warriors with whom even the most gallant of the lineage of Mahmoud sought in vain to contend. These last saw wrested from them the fine plains of Khorasan and Iran, even that of Balkh, and their dominions confined within the mountain-barrier of Caucasus. On the eastern side they still held Lahore, and made some vigorous attempts, but only with partial and temporary success, to extend their sway over the Indian territory.

The house of Ghizni, during two centuries, continued still, though thus reduced by Turkish invasion, to maintain the boundaries above described. Family alliances were even formed between Ibrahim the First and Malek Shah, son of Alp Arslan. The downfall of this dynasty arose from an internal cause. Ghori

or Ghoor forms a rude district, situated on the loftiest branch of Caucasus, or Hindoo Koosh, where it borders on Thibet and Turkestan. Its princes, commanding a race of hardy mountaineers, gradually made themselves nearly independent of the Ghiznian government, and even obtained possessions in Tartary and Khorasan. This excited so strongly the jealousy of Byram, who about the year 1115 had ascended the throne, that having drawn into his power Mohammed, prince of Ghor, he put him to death; a step which he had ample cause to repent. Sief-ul-Dien, brother to the latter, soon mustered a large array of his followers, eager to avenge the loss of their chief. Byram, unable to oppose him, evacuated his capital; but, having re-assembled his forces, he soon afterwards recovered Ghizni, and took his enemy prisoner, whom he subjected to the most dreadful insult and cruelty. Mounted on a bullock, he was led through Ghizni, amid the derision of the mob; then tortured and beheaded, and his vizier impaled alive. This barbarity on the part of a ruler otherwise mild and respectable, set the seal to the fate of his house. Allah, brother to the sufferer, soon summoned round him all the warriors of the tribe of Ghor to chastise the author of their wrongs. Byram marched to meet him; and the superior numbers of his troops enabled them to maintain a vigorous struggle against the rude courage of the mountaineers. But at length he yielded, and fled with his scattered army towards Hindostan, where he soon after died of grief. The victor, in 1152, marched upon Ghizni, and, according to the too common practice of eastern conquerors, sought to surpass the cruelty which he came to punish. That magnificent city was given up to a general pillage, and to the sword of the enraged Ghorians. In seven days it was no more; and its palaces, so profusely embellished with the spoils of conquered India, were raised to the ground. A few tombs, spared by eastern piety, stood alone amid this appalling solitude. It revived indeed, and became for a short time the capital of the Ghorian chiefs; but it again sunk, and now only a few scattered ruins, with the spacious tomb of Mahmoud, at which a few priests

perpetually read the Koran, are all that remain of this once proud seat of the conqueror of Asia.

The Ghiznevide dynasty continued for some time to retain their diminished authority; but it was finally extinguished by Mohammed Ghori, the successor of Allah-ul-Dien. He pursued into Lahore the last of this mighty race, whose name was Chusero; but the unfortunate prince made a resistance so desperate in that strong retreat, that the invader was twice obliged to retire. At last, by a feigned alliance, he induced his unwary victim to come out to meet him; then, by a circuitous march, cut him off from Lahore, surrounded his little camp, and obliged him to surrender. He at first showed a disposition to mercy, and only confined him in a strong castle; but at length, in the year 1186, alleging the predictions of some astrologer, secured his safety by putting all the family to death.

Mohammed Ghori or Ghoor obtained the government of Ghizni in 1174, and held it in his brother's right and his own thirty-two years, with a valour and fortune similar to those of his great ancestors whom he resembled in name. Commencing his career with the occupation of the frontier territory of Lahore, he made it his principal object to extend his dominion over India. Collecting all his forces, he advanced against Ajmere, which at first submitted; but the king of Delhi, having formed an alliance with several neighbouring princes, hastened to its relief with two hundred thousand infantry, and three thousand elephants. Mohammed, trusting to the courage of his mountain-tribes, rushed fearlessly to the attack; but the view of this immense host wheeling round to enclose them, and the mighty array of its elephants, seems to have struck with panic these undisciplined warriors. Many of the chiefs with their followers fled, leaving the king surrounded by the enemy, whose superiority in numbers was now greatly increased. The Moslem on horseback encountered hand to hand the King of Delhi, seated on his war-elephant. The Ghorian prince, after a desperate struggle, was pierced in the arm, fell to the ground, and was with difficulty carried off by a trusty band of

his adherents. The rout was complete, and the pursuit was continued forty miles.

The emperor spent a year in repairing the effects of this dreadful disaster, and organizing the means of a new invasion. He at first degraded the omrahs who had fled, subjecting them to the humiliation of marching round the city with bags of barley suspended from their necks, and of feeding out of them; but, when proceeding on his next expedition, it was represented to him that he thereby deprived himself of the services of many of his choicest warriors, upon which he allowed them to resume their stations, and obtain an opportunity of redeeming their fame.

Mohammed, having mustered all his forces, marched into India, where he met troops still more numerous than those who had vanquished him in the preceding year; all of whom had now bound themselves by the water of the Ganges to conquer or die. The Indian princes advanced with boundless confidence; sending at the same time a friendly remonstrance, that if Mohammed was weary of his own life, he should at least pity the men whom he was leading to so cruel a destiny. Retreat was still open to him; but if urged on by his evil genius, "we have sworn," said they, "by our gods to advance upon you with our rank-breaking elephants, war-treading horses, and blood-thirsty soldiers, early in the morning, to crush your unfortunate army." The wary commander returned an answer seemingly inspired by alarm; stating, that he carried on the war only in obedience to his brother, without whose orders he could not retreat, but would gladly arrange the terms of a truce till he should receive further instructions. The Indians, lulled by this submissive tone, gave themselves up to security, and spent the following night in merriment. Mohammed, watching the moment when they were completely off their guard, made an attack during the darkness, defeating and putting to flight several large bodies; yet so immense was the circuit of their camp, that there were rallied next morning numbers which seemed more than enough to crush the whole host of the invaders. The Mussulman then adopted the old Scythian war-

fare; with his squadrons of cavalry he alternately attacked and retreated, till towards evening, seeing the enemy completely exhausted, he charged them at the head of his chosen band of mailed horsemen, who bore down all opposition, and drove the whole of their army into a tumultuary flight. The King of Delhi fell, and immense spoil came into the hands of the conqueror. Having advanced to the capital, the victor was prevailed upon by a high ransom to spare it, but left a strong force under his lieutenant, Cuttub, to maintain his authority in that quarter. This officer soon after assembled a large body of followers, subverted the throne of Delhi, and reigned there as viceroy. Thus a Moslem dominion was for the first time established in the heart of India, and in one of its greatest cities.

After a lapse of a short period, Mohammed made another expedition into Hindostan. Being joined by Cuttub, he totally defeated the Prince of Kanouge, then marched against Benares, broke the idols of its thousand shrines, and loaded four thousand camels with the wealth of that sacred city. Following a career similar to that of the Ghiznevide, he made nine expeditions into India, and accumulated treasures which almost rivalled those of his great predecessor. But this splendid light of conquest was in one moment extinguished; for on his way from Lahore to Ghizni, he pitched his tent for the night on the banks of the Indus or one of its tributaries; where a band of the mountain-tribe of Gwiekwars, many of whose relations had perished in war with Mohammed, had vowed, at whatever cost, to purchase revenge. The season being extremely hot, the *canats* or screens enclosing the imperial tents had been thrown open for the admission of air. Twenty conspirators, availing themselves of this circumstance, stole in unperceived, stabbed the sentry on guard, and, having drawn off the attention of the others, penetrated to the chamber of the king, who was lying asleep with two slaves fanning him. All their daggers were instantly plunged in his breast, and he sunk under their hands, pierced by twenty-two wounds.

Thus perished this great conqueror, whose dominion was almost

as extensive as that of Mahmoud of Ghizni. Like him, according to Ferishta, he was not devoid of virtues, yet has left behind a darker reputation, redeemed by fewer traits of refinement and humanity. With him the dynasty of Ghori rose and fell, for he left no descendants possessed of energy sufficient to support the weight of his ill-balanced empire. His lieutenants, Ildecuz in the mountain-territory, and Cuttub in India, soon erected for themselves independent sovereignties.

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## CHAPTER VII.

## THE PATAN OR AFGHAN DYNASTY.

Cuttub-ul-Dien founds this Dynasty—Altumsh—Sultana Rizia—Mahmoud II.—His ascetic Severity—Balln—Brilliant Patronage of the Arts and Sciences—Kel Kobad and Kara—Allah I.—His brave and fierce Reign—Conquest of Southern India—Adventures of the Princesses Cumladè and Dewildè—Anarchy—Several short Reigns—Mohammed III.—His cruelty—Feroze III.—Short Reigns and general Disorder—Timur—His Character—Invasion of India—Capture of Delhi, and dreadful Massacre—His Return—Succession of Emperors—Conquest by Baber—Close of the Patan Dynasty.

CUTTUB-UL-DIEN, the founder of the first Mohammedan, or what was called the Patan race of emperors, who ruled in India, was of the humblest birth; it was even made the reproach of his dynasty that it originated with a slave. Brought as a captive from Turkestan, he had been purchased by a citizen of Nishapour, who, finding his talents good, instructed him in various arts and sciences. Upon the death of his master, he was sold with the rest of the property, and came into the possession of Mohammed. His abilities and address soon raised him to the rank of principal page; whence he was promoted to a military command, and soon rose to the first station in the army. The high confidence reposed in him by the emperor, pointed him out as the fittest person to remain as viceroy of the conquered territories in India, when he himself retired to his native mountains. Cuttub remained faithful to his superior; yet, from his distant position, he reigned almost uncontrolled during that monarch's life, whom he survived four years, and whose successor publicly owned him as king. He is celebrated as brave, just, and humane; and his liberality was so unbounded as to make it become proverbial in India to say of any one,—“He is as generous as Cuttub-ul-Dien.” He waged war with the neighbouring potentates generally with success, though in a campaign against the Rajpoots he sustained a single defeat. Sinking, however, towards the close of his reign, into indolence and luxury, he allowed his rival Ildecuz to seize upon Ghizni and several of the frontier territories. He died in the year 1210.

Altumsh, though a Tartar of noble birth, had, like Cuttub, been sold as a slave, and purchased by that prince. Having raised himself by his valour to be captain-general and son-in-law to the emperor, he mounted the throne, having overcome Aram, the rightful heir. He redressed all the evils caused by the weaknesses of his aged predecessor. He defeated Ildecuz, and took him prisoner; he extended the empire on every side; making Bengal and Bahar first tributary and then subject provinces, over which his sons were placed as viceroys. He reduced, after a long siege, Gwalior, considered the principal bulwark of Hindoo power. Seated on a lofty hill with perpendicular sides, defended by extensive works, and supplied with abundance of water, it was viewed as nearly impregnable. He distinguished himself also by the conquest of Malwa, the capture of Ougein, and the demolition of the revered statue of Vicramaditya. He is celebrated, on the whole, as a good and wise prince.

About this time a mighty tempest swept along the borders of India, happily without touching her rich provinces. Zengis, after ravaging Asia from the Pacific to the Caspian, and reducing numberless kingdoms under his dominion, attacked the Prince of the Afghans, whom he drove before him, and compelled to take refuge beyond the Indus. Altumsh refused to shelter him, and hence the arms of Zengis were turned aside from the wealthy regions which stretch towards the south. Perhaps his horsemen, accustomed only to scour the plains of Tartary and Persia, felt themselves unable to act with vigour in the rugged steeps of the Caucasus.

After the death of Altumsh, which took place in 1236, there followed a succession of princes, most of whom occupied, during a very short period, a disputed throne, but without any material alteration of boundaries or relations in regard to the neighbouring states. A few, however, were so remarkable as to deserve notice.

Rizia Begum stood perhaps alone among Mohammedans as a reigning queen. In her earliest youth she displayed such talents for administration that Altumsh, her father, when departing on

his expedition against Gwalior, left her sole regent, regarding her as better fitted than any of his sons to sustain the weight of government; and Ferose, one of the princes, having been afterwards deposed for incapacity, the chiefs unanimously vested the empire in this accomplished lady. She assumed the imperial robes, took her seat on the musnud, administered the laws strictly and impartially, and suppressed with vigour all attempts to take advantage of the supposed weakness of a female reign. Yet Rizia stooped at length to the frailty of her sex; she became doatingly attached to an Abyssinian slave named Jammal, whose sudden elevation to the highest dignities was ill brooked by the great lords and omrahs of the empire. Their discontent was soon matured into insurrection, which, though it was at first successfully resisted, became truly formidable when it was headed by Byram, her brother, who had a more natural right to the throne. The fair ruler of India was finally defeated, imprisoned, and, by a consequence too common in that part of the world, afterwards put to death.

Mahmoud II., a younger son of Altumsh, had been oppressed by the jealousy of his sister and brother, and kept in long confinement. In his adversity he acquired virtues which afterwards eminently fitted him to adorn a throne. Disdaining the subsistence allowed by his ungenerous relatives, he earned his own livelihood by writing or rather copying books. Released from prison by a more humane prince, and intrusted with a small government, he obtained such a reputation for justice and wisdom that his accession to the throne was hailed with universal satisfaction. Nor was this high expectation in any degree disappointed. According to Ferishta, he was the patron of learning, the protector of the people, and the friend of the poor. Without embroiling himself in unnecessary war, he defended his territories with vigour against numerous and formidable enemies. Yet these elevated virtues were somewhat alloyed by a pedantic and fantastic ostentation of simplicity. Seated on the most splendid throne of the East, he practised the austerity of a hermit.

Applying all his revenues to the exigencies of the state, he continued to earn by the pen his own support, which was limited to a supply of the humblest necessities. He not only rejected the vain and culpable privilege of a numerous seraglio and confined himself to one wife, but he compelled that lady to discharge the most menial functions. Even when her majesty complained that she burned her fingers in the process of cooking, and asked for a maiden to aid her in that humble task, he rejected the request. This was very extravagant; yet there appears a fine and amiable feeling in the following anecdote. He had shown part of his daily task of copying the Koran to an omrah whom he much respected, and who pointed out an erroneous word. The emperor immediately erased it; but as soon as the chief departed, he restored the characters; and being asked the reason, answered, that the word was right; but that he did not wish to give pain to a worthy man by telling him he was mistaken.

The good government of Mahmoud had been in a great measure due to the happy choice of his prime minister, Balin or Baleen, who made himself universally popular; so that when the emperor died without posterity, the vizier, not being much attached to a family who had treated his master so ill, stepped into his place almost without a struggle. It is scarcely possible, however, for a usurper to ascend a throne without being drawn into crime. Balin was one of forty Turkish chiefs who had associated to divide the empire among them on the monarch's decease. Mutual jealousy had already dissolved this bond; but the minister, notwithstanding, determined to consult his own security by making the whole of them perish either by poison or by the sword. This crime having quieted his fears, he did not again dip his hands in blood, but began a career which, for justice, mildness, and popularity, has scarcely an equal even among the many illustrious sovereigns who have ruled Hindostan. Balin was another of the *slave-emperors*. Having been captured by the Moguls, he was carried to Bagdad, and sold to a merchant of Bassora, who, learning that he was a relation of Altumsh, brought

him to Delhi, and disposed of him with great advantage to that ruler. His talents soon raised him to a military command; and having openly attached himself to the cause of Byram, he was one of the most active instruments in the fall of the Empress Rizia. On succeeding to Mahmoud, he made an entire change in the outward aspect of the court, restoring all those gay appendages of which it had been so closely shorn by his predecessor. He appeared in public with a blaze of pomp unwonted even in the East, which, however, he professed to exhibit solely in order to conciliate the respect of his people. He found ample scope for the exercise and perhaps the ostentation of kindness and generosity in the vast number of princes, some of them the greatest in Asia, who had been dethroned and forced to flee before the warlike hordes of Zengis and his successors. Upwards of fifteen of these fallen sovereigns, including two sons of the caliph, were accommodated with spacious apartments, and with everything which could make them forget the miseries of their lot; and on occasions of state they were ranged round his throne in the order of their respective dignities. They brought with them a multitude of bards and ingenious men, who had constituted the ornament of their courts; to all of whom the emperor extended a patronage the most liberal and humane perhaps that has ever been bestowed by any monarch. Learned men, poets, and artists, were invited from the remotest extremities of Asia; and every effort was made, though without success, to induce Sadi, the pride of Persia, to quit the delights of Shiraz. The king's two sons, Shehid and Kera, vied with him in rendering the court of India the most refined and polite in the world. The former held at his palace a nightly assembly of divines, philosophers, and poets, at the head of whom was the bard Chusero; while Kera, the younger prince, in another apartment, convened musicians, players, story-tellers, and such as were possessed of the lighter talents. Amid these elegant pursuits, Balin did not aim at the glory of a conqueror; he even rejected opportunities that were presented for extending his dominions, though he vigorously defended his

people against every aggression. He defeated with great slaughter the Rajpoots of Mewar, who, by their predatory inroads, had rendered a great extent of country almost uninhabitable ; and though he could not altogether subdue these hardy sons of the desert, he cut down an extensive forest in which they were accustomed to find shelter, and by a line of forts so secured the district, that it was soon brought under full cultivation.

On the death of Balin, in 1286, his eldest and most accomplished son Shehid, being dead, and Kera absent in Bengal, Kei Kobad, son to the latter, was raised to the throne, which could not safely be left vacant even for a short interval. This prince was considered a youth of great promise, being imbued with the elegant tastes of his family ; but, on mounting the throne, he soon allowed these qualities to degenerate into license and voluptuousness. He abandoned the reigns of government to the nizam, an unworthy favourite, who oppressed the people, and put to death all who endeavoured to oppose his tyranny. Meantime Kera, who had remained at first content with the government of Bengal, distressed by the accounts of his son's conduct, and not unwilling perhaps to take into his own hand the reins of empire, assembled a large army, and marched into Bahar. The emperor met him with his whole force on the banks of the Gogra ; but Kera, moved by parental tenderness, sent a message, earnestly entreating that, before affairs should come to extremities, he might obtain a conference with his child. An interview was accordingly arranged ; but the latter, swollen with pride, seated himself on the imperial throne in the highest pomp, while the father, in approaching, was obliged at three different stages to do obeisance to him by kissing the ground, the mace-bearers exclaiming—"The noble Kera to the king of the world sends health." The aged sovereign, seeing himself exposed to this indignity, burst into tears. Suddenly at this spectacle the soul of the young monarch was moved ; he sprung from his throne, threw himself at his parent's feet, and sought forgiveness. Kera raised him up, and the father and son mingled tears and embraces. An intimate communication was

opened, and continued for twenty days, during which they agreed each to rest satisfied with his actual possessions. But the former most earnestly entreated his son to change his conduct, to distrust the nizam, to renounce his dissolute habits, and apply himself to the good government of his empire. Kei Kobad made the fairest promises, and set out for Delhi with the resolution of performing them. For some short period he persevered; but the vizier, having assembled from every quarter the most seductive sirens, particularly one described as of almost supernatural beauty, caused the emperor soon to relapse into his former pleasures. His health was ruined, and he became an object of contempt to his people, till at length he was murdered, together with his infant son, by Feroze, an Afghan chief, who mounted the throne in his stead. This usurper, though he had in the usual manner stepped through blood to power, was afterwards rather blamed for too great lenity in its exercise.

Allah, who murdered and succeeded his uncle Feroze in the year 1295, was perhaps of all the sovereigns of Hindostan the most energetic and terrible. The people sympathized deeply in the fate of the late monarch, whose head he caused to be fixed on a pole, and carried through camp and city. To pave the way to the throne by the death of its possessor had become indeed an established practice, of which Feroze himself had set the example. But there was something peculiarly barbarous in the manner in which the new emperor perpetrated this murder, and subsequently that of all the imperial family. He not only, as Ferishta observes, began in cruelty, but waded through blood to the end. He abandoned himself at the same time to the most unbridled voluptuousness, and courted the favour of the omrahs by leaving them also at full liberty to indulge their licentious propensities. Yet the fame of Allah as a warrior stood in the foremost rank. Before mounting the throne, he had begun his military career by marching with a corps of 8000 men against Deoghire or Dowlatabad, capital of the great kingdom of Aurungabad. Causing it to be believed that this force was only the vanguard of the

main army, he intimidated the city into a surrender, put to flight a vast body of troops assembled for its defence, and returned laden with a treasure which had been accumulating for ages. He afterwards sent his vizier, Kafoor, to conquer the Carnatic and other southern kingdoms,—an undertaking which proved completely successful, and produced a plunder that has been estimated, doubtless extravagantly high, at £100,000,000 sterling.

Allah found a more legitimate occasion of triumph in repelling the invasion of the Mongols (whom the historians of India call Moguls), successors to Zengis, who had formed a kingdom in Mavar-ul-Nahar. Their first army was met in Lahore, and completely defeated by Elich, the emperor's brother. Two years after, they poured in a force of two hundred thousand men, which they loudly boasted would effect the conquest of all India. Everything gave way before them as far as Delhi, which was crowded to excess with multitudes seeking refuge from this barbarous invader. Allah, having mustered his forces, marched out to battle. Ziffer, the greatest of his generals, at the head of the right wing and of the elephants, charged with such impetuosity, that the enemy were completely broken and pursued for many miles. Not being duly supported, however, he fell into an ambuscade, where he was surrounded and killed; yet the Moguls had suffered so severely that they did not resume the attack, but immediately retreated westward. It was suspected, as being not at all inconsistent with the character of Allah, that he was instrumental in this desertion of his own brave commander, and considered his fall almost as great an advantage as the defeat of the enemy.

The emperor, intoxicated with success, began to conceive the most extravagant projects. Two in particular were deeply and fondly cherished. He hoped to emulate at once the glory of Mohammed and Alexander, names which in the East stand above those of all other men. Although so ignorant that he could neither read nor write, he undertook to prepare for the human race a new religion, which was to unite the Moslem and the disciple of Brahma in one common worship. Next, he was to leave

a viceroy to rule over India, and to set out himself, like a second Macedonian, to conquer the world. His flatterers applauded, and men of sense, overawed by his furious temper, withdrew and were silent. At length Alla-ul-Mulluck, the aged and venerable magistrate of Delhi, determined at all hazards that the truth should for once be heard by this formidable despot. Being summoned to the palace, he entered on a full discussion of these two insane projects; beginning with the theological scheme, whereby, as a Mohammedan, he had been struck with the deepest horror. He did not dwell on Allah's utter incapacity for the task, but urged the impossibility of commanding the minds of men on such a subject,—the alienation which this attempt would produce among the Moslems, on whom alone he could rely, and the hopelessness of converting the Hindoos, who had resisted so many successive invaders. As to the plan of conquest, he reminded him that his possession of India itself was by no means secure,—that many districts were still unsubdued,—and that even in his immediate dominions there were various elements of dissension;—nay, that the empire, in his absence, would probably pass from him either by revolt or invasion, while he would have a very doubtful chance of gaining another in its place. Allah, who did not want strong natural sense, meditated on this remonstrance; and instead, as was expected, of cutting off the head of his sage adviser, acknowledged the justice of his observations, and dismissed from his mind for ever these two chimerical designs. Although the emperor had thus shown a certain portion of wisdom, his mode of governing was still very loose and irregular; giving rise to repeated insurrections, to one of which he had very nearly fallen a sacrifice. This event so strongly affected his mind, that he determined upon completely reforming his method of rule. He suppressed the license of the grandees, and introduced so rigid an administration of justice, that the merchant, formerly exposed to every species of spoliation, now travelled in safety from Bengal to Cabul, and from Cape Comorin to Cashmere. He renounced the use of wine, emptied his cellars into the street, and compelled

his omrahs to imitate his example; so that Delhi for several days streamed with that precious liquor. The collectors of the revenue, who had been amassing large fortunes, were reduced to a bare subsistence. Yet this improved system was accompanied with many relics of a blind and violent despotism. He employed spies to give information of the most secret incidents in the interior of families, and in the remotest provinces. The omrahs were not permitted to marry, or even to entertain a company of friends, without a written authority from him; and by fines and confiscations, levied on various pretences, he ruined a number of the overgrown nobles. He reduced the pay of the army; but that the soldiers might not suffer, he undertook to lower the prices of grain and other necessaries in the same proportion; and for this purpose issued edicts, and adopted the most violent measures, which, though of course abortive, must have occasioned great inconvenience and oppression. To diminish the value of horses, he prohibited every one from keeping them beyond a certain time; and many poor dealers, accused of contravening this arbitrary statute, were whipped or put to death. In spite of all this, the strict administration of justice, and the check put on the licentious domination of the omrahs, made his reign at this period be regarded as a blessing by the great body of the people. Allah even showed a desire for that higher species of glory which is derived from letters. He invited to his court the most eminent men; and the presence of Casi Molana, Corami, and Cuzi Biana, with other sages, was considered as rendering this one of the most brilliant eras of Mohammedan literature. The emperor himself, ashamed of his profound ignorance, applied with such zeal to acquire the first elements of knowledge, that he was soon able to read the Persian language. Still it was a very delicate affair for these sages to hold conversation with the monarch without making him sensible of his own extreme deficiency. Nicer still was the duty of expounding to him the Mohammedan law, to which his practice formed in many respects a complete contrast; yet this is said to have been done faithfully, though not without fear and trembling.

The history of Allah contains some record of love-adventures, which may afford an idea how this branch of the imperial economy was conducted:—On taking Nahrwalla, the capital of Guzerat, he became possessed of the wives as well as of the treasure of its unfortunate prince. Among the former was Cumladè, universally esteemed the flower of India, and who, by her beauty, wit, and accomplishments, so charmed the conqueror, that, regardless of all other ties, he made her his queen. She does not seem to have felt her situation very irksome, since she afterwards expressed an earnest wish to be joined by her daughter, Dewildè, then thirteen years of age, and who had succeeded her mother in the reputation of being the greatest beauty in the East. Allah readily undertook to satisfy her, and sent his general, Alip, with a strong army to bring the young princess to Delhi, without any reference to her own or her father's inclinations. These, it seems, happened to point in a different direction; for Dewildè was found already on her journey to be united to Singeldeo, prince of the Deccan. Alip, aware that he had to deal with one who accepted no excuse, pushed on with such speed, that he overtook and completely defeated the escort. They fled into the mountains, but were met by a party of the imperial troops. A combat ensued, the fair object of which, being herself in the field, had her horse pierced by an arrow; and she might have fallen, had not her women by their screams made known who she was, when the assailants paused, and received her with the utmost respect. The beautiful captive was immediately conveyed to her mother at Delhi, where Chizer, the emperor's son, became enamoured of her; their loves are said to have been happy, and to have inspired one of the most elegant effusions of the poet Chusero.

Another attempt which Allah made to gratify a similar passion had a less fortunate issue. Having defeated and taken captive the Rajah of Chittore, one of the greatest Rajpoot princes, he offered him liberty on the condition of adding to the imperial seraglio his daughter, reputed one of the most beautiful and accomplished princesses of the age. The rajah, overcome by his

distress, gave a reluctant consent; but the young lady, regarding this proposal as full of the deepest dishonour, obtained leave to make trial of a plan which she had contrived for saving her father. She announced her readiness to accede to the marriage, and having procured a passport from the imperial court, fitted out a long train of close travelling-chairs, in the most splendid of which she herself was understood to take her seat. The procession advanced to Delhi, and on its arrival an earnest request was made on the part of the princess that she should without delay be allowed an interview with her parent. A petition so natural was readily granted; and the whole train was admitted into his prison. The chairs being then opened, presented, not a fair retinue of female attendants, but, like the Trojan horse, a band of hardy warriors clad in full armour, who instantly cut in pieces the guards, snatched up the monarch, and having placed him on a swift horse, soon eluded pursuit.

Allah, towards the end of his life, abandoned himself again to dissolute habits, and is suspected to have been poisoned by Kafoor, his profligate favourite, who immediately put out the eyes of his sons Chizer and Shadi, and undertook to reign himself in the name of Omar, an infant. But he was soon assassinated; and in the year 1316 the crown was placed on the head of Mubarick I., one of the emperor's sons.

There seem to have existed hitherto in the Patan dynasty certain hereditary rules of good government, to which even bad men, after the first crimes that raised them to the throne, seldom failed to conform. Allah broke the series, and his wicked example was but too faithfully followed. Mubarick, during a reign of three years, disgraced himself by plunging into all those excesses of debauchery which have consigned to infamy the names of Nero and Heliogabalus. At length Chusero, an abandoned courtier, hired a band of ruffians, and having entered his sleeping-apartment, seized him by the hair, and engaged in a desperate struggle, the issue of which his extraordinary strength would have rendered doubtful, had not one of the conspirators cut off his head with a sabre. The murderer now attempted to reign, but India was not

yet sunk so low as to endure his usurpation. An insurrection was raised, and the wretch, deserted by all his adherents, fled into a tomb, where he was put to death. Amid this confusion, Tuglick, a slave belonging to the warlike border-tribe of the Jats, seized the opportunity of ascending the throne. Like all the sovereigns derived from this low origin, he ruled well and wisely; and it was a misfortune to the empire when, at the end of four years, he was killed by the accidental fall of a pavilion.

Tuglick was succeeded by his son Jonah, who assumed the title of Mohammed III.; but instead of following his father's example, his crimes surpassed those of his most guilty predecessors, and made him, during a reign of twenty-seven years, the execration of the East. Mubarick was a monster of debauchery, Mohammed of cruelty. His actions exceeded in atrocity the greatest enormities of the worst of the Cæsars. On conceiving umbrage at any class of the inhabitants, he assembled his warriors as for a hunt, then told them that men, not animals, were to be the objects of chase. The devoted district was subjected to military execution; the people were massacred, their eyes were put out, or their heads were carried to Delhi and suspended in rows along the walls. Among his minor oppressions were those of grinding the cultivator with enormous taxes, and debasing the coin; and when by these proceedings he had driven the farmers in large bodies to abandon the fields, he became enraged, and set out on one of his bloody hunts. Notwithstanding, he professed himself a friend to religion and a patron of learned men; he was besides energetic, temperate, attentive to business, suppressed vigorously the rebellions which his cruelty excited, and continued during his life to tyrannize over India.

This prince seems, in many respects, to have followed the evil example of Allah. The conquest of the world, which the one only meditated and wisely renounced, the other actually attempted. He began by sending a hundred thousand men against China; but in advancing through the steeps and defiles of the Himalayah, for which they seem to have been entirely unprepared, they

suffered so severely that the greater part of them perished, and only a handful returned to Delhi. He had prepared also an immense force for the conquest of Khorasan and Mavar-ul-Nahar, comprehending the territories of Samarcand and Bokhara; but the alarm of insurrection at home deterred him from this wild expedition. Rebellion stalked round him on every side, and shook almost all his provinces; yet his energy, military skill, and barbarity, enabled him to suppress it, and to maintain his reign of terror. Only the noble and distant kingdom of the Deccan, the conquest of Allah, finally defied all his efforts. Such was his eagerness for its preservation, that he at one time relinquished the grandeur of imperial Delhi, and removed his court and residence to Deoghire, the tributary capital, which he named Dowlatabad, or the Fortunate City. The pressure of circumstances, however, compelled him to resume his wonted seat of government, and he ultimately saw the Deccan formed into an independent monarchy. Hassen Caco, a Mogul chieftain, assumed the title of Allah I., and became the founder of a mighty dynasty. Mohammed, it appears, had at length resolved to adopt a milder system; but death interrupted him before he could realize his intentions, and delivered India from the dreadful scourge of his government in the year 1351.

This monarch was succeeded by his cousin, Ferose III., a prince happily of a very different temper. Under him the arts of peace flourished and the rights of humanity were respected. He is said to have built thirty reservoirs for irrigation, a hundred bridges, forty mosques, thirty colleges, with many other works of splendour and utility. He has been accused of being unwarlike, yet he showed no want of vigour in suppressing the few insurrections which arose under his government. In a particular case he was even charged with an excess of severity. That he did not attempt to reconquer the Deccan, a great kingdom, now firmly established under a powerful sovereign, was probably a resolution as wise and beneficial for his people as it was for himself. India, during his reign of thirty-eight years, enjoyed a

respite from her many calamities; industry reared its head; but after his removal the empire was involved in fresh disasters.

The short reigns of Tuglick II., Abu Bicker, and Mohammed IV., exemplified the precarious nature of oriental power. Mahmud III. was a minor; the crown was disputed by Nuserit, grandson to Ferose III., and almost all the provinces were setting up for independence, when, in the year 1397, India was assailed by an enemy whom her utmost strength, guided by her ablest monarchs, would scarcely have been able to resist.

Timur was certainly one of the most remarkable among the conquerors of Asia. If his career of invasion did not, like that of Zengis, include China and Muscovy, his successes in India, Persia, and the Turkish empire, which he almost totally subverted, brought him more conspicuously into the view of the western world. High panegyrics have been pronounced in the East on his justice and humanity; and these have been studiously repeated by the long line of princes who derived their lineage from his house. Timur, it is true, in the Book of Institutes written at least with his sanction, shows some correct ideas as to the duties of a sovereign, which, in a formal dissertation, he endeavours to prove that he himself had signally fulfilled. Yet he numbers among them extensive conquest, the spreading of Islamism by dint of arms, and the most rigid enforcement of his own despotic principles. He even applauds the maxim, that when a prince has commanded anything, though he become sensible that it is wrong, he ought not the less to urge the mandate, lest his authority should be in any degree compromised. His partisans boast of his humanity to a submissive enemy; but this submission he required to be at once instant and entire, such as could scarcely ever be expected from a country wantonly invaded. His mercy seldom availed to protect a people from the horrors of conquest; and his triumph usually appeared in indiscriminate massacre and huge pyramids of heads reared as proofs of victory. To go round the world exterminating nations with the words of humanity in his mouth, seems more odious than even the blind

and barbarous ravages of Genseric and Attila. That Timur, in the countries subjected to his sway, might secure a regular administration of justice, and study to promote the public prosperity, may be believed, since this, in oriental history, is often combined with the most boundless and savage ambition. Yet the narrative of Clavijo the Spanish ambassador, who visited his court at Samarcand and describes its rude pomp, shows that his system of rule was thoroughly despotic. For example, he sent one day for the governor of the city, and, charging him with having abused his trust, caused him to be beheaded without a moment's delay; and two chiefs who had ventured to intercede for the sufferer shared the same fate. Having once ordered a broad street to be formed in twenty days, the workmen began with such furious haste, demolishing every house that stood in their way, that the owners had scarcely time to remove with their most precious effects. They humbly requested some small compensation; but he sternly replied that all Samarcand belonged to him. When his couriers halted at any stage, they immediately began to apply the whip in every direction till relays were furnished; and if they met a horse on the road which appeared to answer their purpose, they instantly seized it, striking off the owner's head if he offered any resistance.

Timur seems to have had no pretext for the invasion of India, except the desire of possessing it, and the hope of success afforded by its distracted condition. He set out from his capital in 1397, and advanced without difficulty along the immense plains of Bactria; after which he had to scale the tremendous barrier of the Indian Caucasus, whose steep and rugged passes were peculiarly unfit for the march of the Scythian horsemen. He scornfully disdained to use any means for conciliating the fierce and warlike natives; they accordingly opposed him at every step, and, though they could not arrest his progress, they inflicted upon him extensive losses. Yet it appears an exaggeration to say, that there were certain points where he could not advance without being lowered down from the cliffs by means of ropes.

His cavalry, it is obvious, could not proceed in such a country, or be aided by any such expedients; and if there was a road for them, he might follow on foot. At length having crossed the Indus, he marched towards Moultan, already occupied by his nephew, Peer Mohammed, who had, however, been hard pressed by the Patan omrahs, especially the governor of Batneir; and by joining his forces to those of his relative, he became superior in the field. It was determined to begin with the capture of Batneir, a fortress considered almost impregnable, yet he went against it with only 10,000 of his chosen veterans. The troops within the walls, encouraged by the smallness of his numbers, marched out and gave battle; but they could not withstand the shock of the Mogul cavalry, who pursued them to the city, entered it along with them, and were soon masters of all except the citadel. He then ordered the execution of five hundred of those who had shown the greatest enmity to his nephew; a barbarous deed, which drove the Hindoos, who still held the fort, into a phrensy of desperation. They immediately set fire to the place, killed their wives and children, then rushed wildly forth to sell their lives as dearly as possible. Every individual perished, yet not before several thousands of the Moguls had fallen,—a loss by which their leader was so exasperated, that he gave orders for an indiscriminate massacre.

The conqueror, collecting all his forces, now advanced upon Delhi, ravaging the country as he passed; and whatever good might have been displayed by him elsewhere, India knew him only in crime and terror. Finding himself encumbered with an enormous multitude of captives, and alarmed lest they should rise against him, he issued the horrid mandate for a general butchery; and a hundred thousand are said to have been forthwith put to death.

Mahmoud having shut himself up in Delhi with 40,000 foot and 10,000 horse, the invader became apprehensive that if his opponent should resolve to remain with this large force in a strongly fortified position, the siege might be arduous, or at least

ruinously protracted. To allure him into the field, he directed that only small parties should present themselves in front, with a studied display of weakness and timidity, as if only waiting a serious attack to commence their retreat. The Mohammedan fell into the snare, marched out, and presented his whole army, with a numerous body of elephants, drawn up in battle array. The fortune of the field was then in the hands of the Tartar; his troops, rendered hardy and skilful by a life of warfare, were opposed only to an effeminate and tumultuary crowd, who were instantly broken and pursued to the gates of the city. The emperor fled into Guzerat, while his capital submitted and received a foreign garrison. Historians vary as to the extent of Timur's guilt in the fatal scene which ensued. The adherents of the Mogul dynasty assert, that while the victor was celebrating a great festival in his camp, he was surprised by the view of the flames ascending from the town. Ferishta, however, gives more credit, and seemingly with reason, to the report, that some of his troops having acted with violence towards the citizens, the latter killed several of their number, upon which the barbarian gave up this immense metropolis to an unrestrained pillage. The unhappy Hindoos, in a state of distraction, slew their females, then rushed out upon the enemy; but the efforts of this undisciplined crowd availed nothing against the warlike array of the Moguls; the streets soon streamed with blood; and, after a short contest, the natives were led captive by hundreds from the desolate walls.

Timur, under what impulse does not appear, instead of advancing into the rich countries of Oude and Bengal, directed his march towards the Upper Ganges, and reached that river near Hurdwar. He then suddenly formed the resolution of retracing his steps, and proceeded along the lower borders of the Himalayah range, maintaining severe combats with its brave inhabitants, and everywhere marking his path with blood. Having suppressed an insurrection at Lahore, he recrossed the Indus, and entered without delay upon the grand expedition in which he vanquished Bajazet, and laid prostrate for a time the rising empire of the Ottomans.

After his departure, he exercised scarcely any authority over India. Money was indeed coined in his name, and its princes owned themselves nominally his vassals; but in other respects his inroad served only to aggravate the anarchy under which that hapless empire was doomed to groan. The governor of each province asserted a temporary independence; while Delhi, for some time abandoned, began to be repeople, and passed from one hand to another. Mahmoud sometimes resigned himself to a private station, and then renewed his efforts to resume the rank of emperor; nor was it till 1413, when he died, and Kaizer, viceroy of Moulton, seized the throne, and held it as the representative of Timur, that any amelioration was felt. This governor conducted affairs with vigour and wisdom, and the empire began to recover its wonted form and strength. There was no longer indeed any attempt to comprehend in it Bengal, Guzerat, or the Deccan; but it still comprised Delhi, Agra, with the other provinces of Hindostan Proper, and even held by a precarious tenure those of Moulton and Lahore.

There are few remarkable features in the race of princes who now succeeded. Mubarick, after a mild and rather enlightened administration of thirteen years, was assassinated by his vizier. The weak reigns of Mohammed V. and Allah II. had nearly dissolved the empire, when it was seized and held for thirty-eight years by the firm hand of Bheloli. His son, Secunder I., supported his reputation; but Ibrahim II., who followed, though vigorous and brave, was unpopular. He was therefore very ill prepared for the great crisis which impended over the country.

After the death of Timur and his accomplished son, Shah Rokh, his vast dominion fell to pieces. Not only were its distant provinces severed, but its original domain of Transoxiana was split into portions, for which the different branches of his family eagerly contended. The territory of Kokaun, or Ferghana, a fine valley nearly enclosed by mountains, and extending along the Upper Jaxartes, was inherited by a son of a great-grandson of Timur, aged only twelve, named Baber.

This youth proved perhaps the most singular personage in oriental history. He was the knight-errant of Asia, and spent his whole life in losing or winning kingdoms. The adventures which the romance-writers of the Middle Ages ascribe to their heroes were realized in him. At one moment he was ruler of a great empire, in the next he had scarcely a hut to shelter him; now he was at the head of a numerous army, and now he was scarcely able to muster a hundred adherents. Once, when ejected from his native land, and seeing his followers reduced to two hundred and forty, he determined to attack Samarcand, the military capital of Asia, and defended by a strong army. He approached at midnight, scaled the walls, was joined by a number of friends, made the city resound with shouts of victory, and produced such an alarm, that Shubiani the sovereign fled, abandoning his metropolis and dominions to Baber, who held them for a considerable time. Driven afterwards from this and other possessions, and having no longer any district which owned his power, he resolved to carry war into Cabul. The state of anarchy in which that country was involved made the people eagerly welcome a chief of vigorous character and high reputation, who might suppress the rival claims by which it was distracted. On the same grounds he was invited to Candahar. A formidable insurrection was raised against him; but challenging successively five omrahs, he slew them in single combat, when the hostile army was moved with such admiration that they at once submitted.

Baber having established himself in Cabul, undertook several expeditions to the borders of Hindostan, and the countries on the Indus. A considerable time, however, elapsed, ere, in his own figurative language, he finally "placed his footstep in the stirrup of resolution," and stood forth as a candidate for the imperial throne. He marched upon Delhi with only 13,000 horse, while Ibrahim came to meet him with a hundred thousand cavalry and a thousand elephants; but the bravery and experience of the hardy sons of the mountains more than compensated the inequality of numbers. The Moslems, ignorant of the military art, drew up

their army in one extended line, which the active charge of the Moguls soon threw into confusion. The emperor, however, gallantly advancing in person with his chosen troops, attacked the enemy's centre, where the combat was almost confined to the two competitors for the sovereignty. But he fell in the midst of the fight; all his army fled; and Baber, in the year 1526, seated himself on the throne of Delhi.

This closed the dynasty, or rather the successive dynasties, of the Patan sovereigns. During the three hundred years that they occupied the throne of India, there was scarcely one family which swayed the sceptre for three generations. Not a few were slaves purchased from the regions of Afghanistan and Tartary, raised to high office by imperial favour, and to the empire by crime and treason. No country could be in a more humbled state than India during this long period; the slave of slaves, trampled upon by a foreign soldiery bigotedly hostile to all her creeds and institutions; and yet so mysteriously are human things ordered, that with the exception of a few partial shocks, and some short intervals of misrule, she was, throughout this era, well governed, prosperous, and happy.

## CHAPTER VIII.

## THE MOGUL DYNASTY TO AURENGZEBE.

**Baber—His Death and Character—Humaloon—His Exploits—Driven from the Empire—Misfortunes—Reign of Shere—Humaloon returns, and again mounts the Throne—Akbar succeeds—His daring Achievements—Mode of governing—Ayeen Akberry—Portuguese Missions from Goa—Reign of Jehangire—Visit of Hawkins—Embassy of Sir Thomas Roe—The Mogul Court—Rebellions against Jehangire—His Death—Reign of Shah Jehan—Rebellion of Lodi—Sons of Shah Jehan—Their Contests for the Sovereignty—Success of Aurengzebe—Dethrones his Father and becomes Emperor.**

BABER was now seated on the throne of India; but it was not as yet either secure or firmly established. The Patan omrahs, holding sway each in his separate province, detested the Mogul rule as a foreign usurpation, while they had gained to their interest the leading Rajpoot princes, the bravest part of the Hindoo population. An army of 100,000 men was mustered in the west, headed by Mahmoud, brother to the late emperor. The young ruler, surrounded on all sides by open enemies or false allies, and having none on whom he could repose confidence except the small band whom he had brought down from the mountains, was in a truly critical position. His troops were struck with panic; some even of his boldest captains advised him to retreat into Cabul, or at least to the provinces on the Indus. But his lofty spirit indignantly repelled the idea of renouncing without a struggle so great an empire. He proclaimed that the voice of honour was loud in his ear, and with an enthusiasm which communicated itself to his adherents, exclaimed, "Since death is inevitable, it is glorious to meet him with courage, face to face, rather than to shrink back, to gain a few years of a miserable and ignominious existence; since what can we inherit but fame beyond the limits of the grave;"—quoting to the same effect some verses from the Shah Nameh. Availing himself of the circumstance that a great proportion of the enemy professed the Hindoo faith, he appealed to the religious zeal of his troops, and made them swear on the

Koran to conquer or die. There were some particulars in his own life which ill fitted him for acting the part of a Moslem champion; but he made a vow henceforth to renounce the use of wine, in which he had profusely indulged; and the golden goblets which had graced the imperial banquets were broken in pieces and given to the poor.

Baber, having thus duly seasoned the minds of his troops, proceeded to the military arrangements, which he conducted with singular ability. The enemy had an immense superiority in brave though not highly disciplined cavalry; while he had only bands of light horse, fitted rather for pursuit and plunder than for the duties of a regular field. His chief strength consisted in a body of musketeers and a train of artillery; forces hitherto little employed in the wars of India. The cannon, ranged in front, and chained together, presented a kind of wall to the enemy. Behind were the infantry, while squadrons of horsemen filled the intervals. Early in the morning the Patan army advanced, spread their wings, and enveloped the little phalanx opposed to them. But, by means of his fire-arms and guns, he repelled the attacks which they continued to make during a great part of the day. At length, when he saw them exhausted and dispirited by repeated repulses, he collected two brigades of chosen troops, and led them on to a grand charge, before which the whole adverse army gave way, and many of its most distinguished chiefs remained dead on the field of battle.

Although this powerful confederacy against him was thus entirely broken, the descendant of Timur did not yet hold peaceful possession of the great throne which he had ascended. He was disturbed by insurrections both in India and in Cabul; and at length, after reigning as emperor only five years, he died in 1530.

Baber may be ranked as the most accomplished prince that ever ruled over Hindostan, although not perhaps either the greatest or the best. His valour was brilliant; and several of his exploits are considered as surpassing even the most heroic of those achieved

by his renowned ancestor. Yet his talents are observed to have been rather those of a daring partisan than of a skilful leader. He was almost as often defeated as victorious, and for a long period lost kingdoms as fast as he won them. But in the latter part of his reign his military policy seems to have assumed a more fixed character, and in the great battles on the plains of Hindostan he showed no want of the most consummate generalship. His bodily strength and dexterity both in sports and warlike exercises are described as almost preternatural. He was a master in the arts of poetry and music; and the Commentaries in which he has related the events of his own life, and of which Doctor Leyden and Mr. Erskine have furnished an excellent translation, though they display not any profound habits of philosophical reflection, manifest much strong sense, combined with an active spirit of observation, as applied to the various scenes which passed before him. They exhibit also an interesting view of the manners of oriental courts and camps. The high moral qualities which have been ascribed to him appear somewhat more problematical. His disposition was amiable, generous, and open; and though his conduct in the field was stained by some examples of the barbarity incident to his nation, clemency and humanity were often signally displayed even towards his most inveterate enemies. His protection of mercantile caravans, on occasions when the laws of war would have authorized him to plunder them, and thus to supply his most urgent wants, marks an equitable and liberal disposition. Yet we nowhere see in him the pleasing picture of a monarch devoting himself in peace to the improvement of his country and the happiness of his people,—a spectacle so repeatedly exhibited even by the slave-sovereigns of the Patan dynasty. It is true the unsettled state of his fortunes left him little leisure for these tranquil and benignant cares; yet this also was owing in no small degree to his restless temper, which impelled him continually to new schemes of conquest and personal aggrandizement. Although, at one period of his life, he rigidly abstained from wine, he afterwards indulged to great excess, and even gives a disgust-

ing account of the orgies celebrated with his jovial comrades; irregularities which appear to have shortened his life, though they never diverted his attention from affairs of state.

Baber bequeathed his troubled empire to his son Humaioon, an amiable and accomplished prince, possessed of refined though somewhat fantastic tastes. He was particularly devoted to the study of the heavenly bodies, which in that age and country was much tinged with judicial astrology. He fitted up seven halls of reception, and dedicated one to each of the planets. Military commanders were received in the hall of Mars, judges and secretaries in that of Mercury, ambassadors, poets, and travellers, in the hall of the Moon. From these recreations he was roused by the urgent cares of empire, to which he showed himself fully equal. He was soon involved in war with Bahadur, who had obtained the sovereignty of Guzerat. A mistaken religious zeal induced him to leave that prince unmolested while engaged in hostilities against the Pagan prince of Chittore; but he now advanced with so great a force, and conducted operations so ably, that the other was obliged to retreat into Guzerat, unable to meet his antagonist in the field. He next fled to Ahmedabad, having deposited his treasures in Chupanni, which was then considered an almost impregnable fortress. The young emperor, however, at the head of a chosen band, mounted the face of the perpendicular rock by fixing in it iron spikes, and carried the place by surprise,—an exploit still celebrated as equal to any achieved either by Timur or Baber. After this glorious termination of his first war, he might have expected a peaceful and prosperous reign; but it was speedily disturbed by his brothers, Kamran and Hindal, who were emboldened in their criminal designs by his excessive mildness and lenity. Having divisions of the army placed under their command, they successively laid claim to the supreme power. These dissensions encouraged Shere Khan, a Patan chief, still in possession of Bengal, to advance with a powerful host against Humaioon, who, unable, from the distracted state of his affairs, to muster a sufficient force, was worsted, and returned in a discom-

fited condition to Agra. The brothers, seeing that their disunion was about to produce the ruin of their house, rallied round the emperor, though not with the requisite cordiality. This last, having recruited his ranks, marched against Shere Khan, but was again completely defeated, obliged to abandon his capital, and to seek refuge among the minor princes on the border. Few, however, remained faithful to the fallen monarch. After being obliged to flee from several courts, he sought protection in that of Maldeo, who had been the most urgent in his proffers of amity and alliance; but finding that this base chief had resolved to seize and deliver him to the enemy, he felt himself compelled to remove instantly with his few remaining adherents across the Western Desert to the banks of the Indus. In this march he experienced a pressure of calamity, such as scarcely ever befell even the most unfortunate princes of the East. His horse having dropped down dead with fatigue and thirst, the lord of the world could not procure another, till a common trooper desired his own mother to quit that on which she rode, and give it to him. After suffering dreadful agonies for want of water, the party came to a well in which there was abundance; but they had only one bucket, and when it was drawn up, such crowds rushed forward, that, the rope breaking, it fell to the bottom, and several were precipitated after it. Meantime the rearguard was repeatedly obliged to turn and repulse the enemy, who pursued close behind. Many of them perished ere they reached Amercot, on the opposite boundary of the desert. In the depth of this calamity, it was announced to the emperor that his sultana had given birth to a son, the celebrated Akbar, afterwards the greatest prince of the East; but meantime he was obliged to pursue his flight, leaving his infant child to fall into the hands of a treacherous chief, by whom he was delivered over to Kamran, his brother and mortal enemy.

Humaioon sought refuge in Persia, and was received with the most magnificent hospitality by Shah Tamasp, who enabled him even to maintain the outward forms of imperial rank. Having

agreed to embrace the Shiah creed or heresy, which in that country is held the only true faith, he was furnished with ten thousand men, to be employed in the recovery of his lost empire. He marched first into Cabul, where he was again encountered by fraternal rivalry, that province having been usurped by Kamran. He next advanced and laid siege to Candahar, which soon surrendered to him, when he proceeded with a superior force against Cabul. There his brother awaited his approach, and, on his arrival, exhibited on the walls his boy Akbar bound to a funeral pile, intimating that he would forthwith put the child to death if the father should proceed to an attack upon the city. The latter, unmoved by this painful spectacle, expressed his determination to persevere, only adding the most dreadful threats if the horrid deed were perpetrated. The barbarian renounced his meditated crime, and, with his adherents, commenced a retreat. Humaioun entered the gates, embraced the young prince, and found himself again a king. He reigned nine years in that city, though constantly harassed by his relative, who, after reducing him repeatedly to great distress, was at last completely vanquished.

Meantime Shere Khan had become undisputed master of the empire, and extended its limits on every side. He swayed the sceptre wisely and well, at which the Mogul historians are astonished, considering the treason by which he gained it; but, as a Patan, he owed only a very slight allegiance to the house of Baber. His arrangements for the accommodation of travellers, which, in the East, devolve generally upon the sovereign, were on a scale of which no former reign afforded an example. Across the entire breadth of Hindostan, from the Ganges to the Indus, there was formed a high-road bordered with fruit-trees, with a well every two miles, and caravanseras at every stage, where the traveller was accommodated at the public expense. Justice was maintained inviolate, general security reigned; and his death, at the end of five years, was considered a national calamity. His son Selim supplied his place nine years, though neither with equal wisdom nor ability; but when he died, leaving his heir a minor,

the empire, during the short reigns of Mohammed and Ibrahim, was distracted by dissensions among the royal family, and by the revolt of numerous omrahs and viceroys. The friends of Humaioon then assured him, that his appearance with an army in any degree formidable would at once lay in the dust this ill-cemented dominion. Not being yet very firmly seated on the throne of Cabul, he felt considerable hesitation in answering this call; but at length he mustered 15,000 horse, and marched to the Indus, where Byram, his best general, joined him with a body of veterans from Candahar.

The army having crossed the river, first encountered Tartar Khan, governor of Lahore, whom Byram surprised and defeated. Meantime the Patan omrahs had placed on the throne Secunder, nephew to Shere Khan, a prince qualified to lead them with vigour and talent. Having assembled 80,000 men, he proceeded to meet the invader; and the battle was fought with an obstinacy suitable to the great prize for which the parties contended. On the side of the Moguls, it was conducted with energy and prudence by Humaioon and Byram; but it was chiefly distinguished for the splendid heroism exhibited by the young Akbar, then scarcely thirteen, whose example inspired the troops with almost supernatural ardour. The Patan host was at length completely routed and dispersed, and Secunder fled into the mountains of the north, leaving all the fine plain of Hindostan open to the conqueror.

Humaioon advanced to Delhi, and seated himself on his father's throne, from which he had been thirteen years excluded. He mounted it, however, only that he might die in possession; for in less than a year after, descending the marble stairs of the palace, he fell, and was so severely bruised that he expired in a few days. He was a prince, brave, amiable, and learned, and his life was diversified with greater vicissitudes than that perhaps of any other eastern monarch. These are imputed in a great measure to his excessive lenity, especially towards brothers who ill deserved it; Ferishta even decides, that had he been a worse man, he would have been a greater ruler. No example, indeed, can afford a

stronger apology for that cruelty which deforms the history of oriental kings. The principle of primogeniture, so firmly established in Europe, has there scarcely any hold on the feelings of the people; and any prince of the blood-royal, who can form a party, or become popular, may cherish the hope of expelling the reigning sovereign, and investing himself with the imperial purple.

In 1556, Akbar began his reign of fifty-one years, during which he proved himself perhaps the greatest and wisest of all the monarchs who have swayed the sceptre of India. Seated, while yet a boy of thirteen, on the throne of so great an empire, he could not find his position very secure. The country teemed with rebellion, raised often by noblemen who had a better right than himself to the provinces for which they contended,—the Patan omrahs, the Rajpoot princes, and sometimes by his own discontented officers. These enemies he encountered with a display of talent and heroism somewhat better suited indeed to a knight-errant than to the commander of a great army. Marching to encounter the rebel chiefs of Bengal, he was impatient at finding himself separated from them by the Ganges, without any means of transporting his army across that river. He suddenly conveyed to the other side a hundred chosen horse, and having collected a few adherents in the adjoining district, advanced directly to the attack. The enemy, considering themselves completely secured in their camp by the broad stream, had been indulging in mirth and festivity; so that the sound of the drums beating the imperial march struck them with amazement and panic, which, as usual in the undisciplined armies of the East, were soon followed by confusion. Akbar immediately rushed against the tents of the insurgent commander Zeman, who fell after a gallant resistance; and then the whole of his immense host, deprived of its head, fled in irretrievable rout before a handful of assailants.

At another time, he received intelligence that some Mogul chiefs had raised a rebellion in Guzerat, and besieged Ahmedabad, the capital. He instantly despatched from Agra two thousand cavalry, whom he himself followed with a chosen troop, and

marching at the rate of eighty miles daily, reached in little more than a week the scene of action. When the enemy's scouts, inquiring whose army it was, were informed that it was led by the king of kings, and brought the news to their camp, the rebels, struck with this event as almost miraculous, were with difficulty withheld from immediate flight. They were, however, compelled into the field; but after a brisk action, were completely defeated, and their commander taken. Akbar, while his soldiers were engaged in the pursuit, remained with 200 men on the top of a hill, where he saw advancing against him a body of 5000 horse, whom the enemy had not been able to bring forward to the main battle. His officers urged the necessity of instant retreat; but, rejecting this ignoble counsel, he caused the imperial drums to beat, and led on his small detachment as if it had been the van of a great army. The others, thus deceived, fled, and were pursued for several miles. On the same day the emperor entered Ahmedabad, and the insurrection was finally suppressed. On a different occasion, with not more than 150 horse, he attacked the rear of a large detachment, and gained some advantage, which struck the whole host with such astonishment that they dispersed in every direction. Having afterwards to contend with Daood, the subahdar of Bengal, he challenged him to single combat in so daring a manner, that the latter slunk off without venturing to face the emperor in the field.

These proceedings were much out of military rule, and unsuitable to the monarch of fifty millions of men, and the commander of a mighty army. Yet the Hindoos, and the Orientals in general, are wonderfully acted on by impressions of the marvellous, and are prone to exaggerate whatever has any tincture of that quality. The daring exploits of Akbar, therefore, invested him in their eyes with a mysterious and preternatural character, which withered the hearts of his enemies, and secured victory better than the most ably-conducted operations of a regular campaign. Thus he not only preserved the central provinces in complete tranquillity, but reduced Guzerat, Bengal, part of the Deccan,

and nearly all that had ever been included under the Mohammedan dominion.

One of his most valuable performances was the work called the *Ayeeen Akberry*, which contains a complete survey of the empire, executed under his own direction and that of Abul Fazel, his able and enlightened minister. It comprises a full account of everything connected with his dominions, government, and occupations, from the highest affairs of state down to the catching of partridges and the training and feeding of hawks; for even the games which served for the emperor's recreation afforded him, as he boasts, the opportunity of studying the temper of the officers whom he employed. The statistical details, describing the extent and productions of the different provinces, are of the greatest value. They seem to have been collected chiefly with a view to the regulation of the revenue, in which respect Akbar represents himself as having relieved the people from a great part of the taxes levied from them by his predecessors. Yet the portion which he himself exacted was by no means light, amounting to no less than a third of the whole produce of the land. He admits that under the ancient Hindoo administration the proportion was only a sixth, and in Iran or Persia only a tenth; but these governments, he maintains, imposed a number of other burdens, which pressed on the people with much greater severity. He, on the contrary, took off all the imposts except this one on the produce of land. Among those abolished, he enumerates a capitation-tax, poll-taxes on labourers and on fishermen, a tax on every kind of tree, on oxen, on the sale of cattle, with others either bearing hard on the poor, or obstructing the regular course of commerce. His system of finance, therefore, notwithstanding the large amount extorted by it, afforded probably a considerable relief to the great body of his subjects.

During Akbar's reign, the first European mission of a religious nature arrived at the Mogul court. He appears not indeed to have attached himself to any particular faith, but to have felt an ardent curiosity respecting the different classes into which mankind

were divided, and their respective forms of worship and belief. Having heard, therefore, of a new people from a distant region of the earth, professing a religion altogether different from any held in India, he expressed a desire to see and converse with them. A letter was sent to the Portuguese at Goa, requesting that certain missionaries would come with all the books of their law and gospel, assuring them of the most honourable reception. The name of the Mogul conveyed to European ears some impressions of terror; but the pious individuals selected for this duty determined that no such motives should induce them to decline an opening which might lead to important results. On the 3d December 1568, accordingly, three,—Aquaviva, Monserrate, and Enriques,—took their departure for Surat.

Having reached that capital, the missionaries, under the escort of a body of horse, crossed first the Tuptee and then the Nerbudda; after which they passed Mandoo, which they concluded must have been one of the greatest cities in the world, as its ruins covered a space sixteen leagues in circumference. They next came to the large town of Ougein. On their way they had an opportunity of observing the superstitious practices of the Bani-ans, who would neither kill nor witness the death of any living thing, and who, while they neglected the sick and infirm among their brethren, maintained highly-endowed hospitals for various species of birds and beasts. A Portuguese captain contrived to extort money by merely collecting a number of dogs, and threatening to kill them if a ransom were not paid. There were seen also in every town pyramids of various form and size, reared in memory of ladies who had burned themselves on the tombs of their husbands. The missionaries, from the peculiarity of their appearance and dress, were sometimes exposed to insult, and sometimes excited immoderate bursts of laughter; but the Mogul guard protected them from any serious annoyance. Bands of pilgrims were met coming from the ceremony of holy ablution in the Ganges, to obtain the full benefit of which they had been shaven all over. At length, on the 19th February, the Christians were

received by a large body of troops mounted on horses, camels, and dromedaries, by whom they were honourably escorted to Futtypore, where the emperor then resided.

Immediately upon their arrival they were admitted into the presence of Akbar, whom they describe as a man about fifty, of European complexion, and bearing on his countenance strong marks of intelligence. He gave them the most gracious reception; offering them everything, even money, though he was greatly edified by their refusing it. When an image of the crucifixion was exhibited, he testified a respectful impartiality, by successively bowing, kneeling, and falling prostrate; conforming thus to the respective modes of Moslem, Christian, and Gentoo worship. He is described as having been dazzled, more than his character would lead us to expect, by a richly ornamented image of the Virgin, which he declared to be indeed a worthy representation of the Queen of Heaven. Being presented with a Bible in four languages, he kissed it and placed it on his head. They then solicited the favour of a public controversy with the moollahs, or Mohammedan doctors. It was soon granted, and they are pleased to state that their arguments were completely triumphant; though they are compelled to admit that they made no impression on their blinded antagonists. The emperor, however, declared his satisfaction, and expressed himself so as to afford hope that he would ultimately prove a convert. But time passed on, and though he retained all his complaisance, he evaded, on various pretexts, taking any decisive step. At length one of the courtiers privately assured the missionaries that they were fed with vain hopes; that his majesty was merely gratified by having at his court persons of various characters and opinions, especially such as were odd and uncommon, without having the slightest idea of adopting their tenets. Indeed, from some circumstances mentioned by themselves, it may be suspected that he was not unwilling to find amusement at their expense. He informed them that a great Mohammedan doctor had undertaken to leap into a furnace with the Koran in his hand, and by sustaining this awful

trial with impunity, to prove the superior excellence of his faith: he invited them to do the same with the Bible. The friars, who were not without some pretensions to supernatural power, were considerably embarrassed by this proposal. They urged, however, that after having so triumphantly supported the truth in successive conferences, which they were ready to repeat, it could not be justly expected that they should expose themselves to such an irrational and perilous test. Another disputation was held, which had the same issue as the foregoing; but Akbar returned to his proposal, undertaking that the moollah should leap in first, provided one of the friars would engage to follow; and hinting that he merely wished to see how the other would extricate himself from his daring pretensions; but, after deliberation, they wisely determined not to appeal to such a questionable criterion of religious faith. The emperor having been disappointed of this exhibition, and the attractions of novelty having worn off, he saw them more and more rarely; and his attention being finally distracted by insurrections which had broken out in Cabul and Bengal, he seemed wholly to forget his pious visitors; who, finding no longer any motive to protract their stay, returned to Goa in May 1583.

In 1591, he sent to request another mission, the members of which went through the same round as their predecessors, being well received, and finally neglected. Their stay was not of very long duration. Four years after he was again seized with a similar desire, and despatched a letter, with so many promises and kind expressions, that the government could not refuse to gratify him a third time. The court being then at Lahore, the Portuguese were obliged to proceed by Damaun to Cambay, and thence to cross the great Western Desert. Near the city just mentioned, they saw 20,000 persons setting out on a pilgrimage to the Ganges, and were considerably edified by their solemn and serious deportment. The wilderness was crossed in company with a large caravan, comprising 400 camels, a great body of horsemen, and multitudes on foot. After a dreary march of 220

leagues, the mission came to the banks of a fine stream, and on journeying ten leagues farther, reached Lahore, described as a delightful city. They were conducted to the imperial residence, situated on an island in the river, and were most graciously received. An image of the Virgin, studiously and splendidly adorned, and still more beautiful than that formerly presented, drew forth expressions of the deepest admiration. The hopes of the missionaries were raised still higher when they observed that Akbar showed so little partiality for the Mohammedan religion, that, when in want of money, he made no scruple to plunder the mosques. Yet they were discouraged by observing the assiduous worship which he paid to the sun; they even accuse him of the folly of aspiring to a species of divinity in his own person. He presented himself every morning at a window, and saw the multitude fall prostrate before him; sick infants were also brought to receive his benediction; but perhaps they mistook for worship the profound testimonies of oriental homage. Finding no prospect of gaining their object, they took advantage of his departure for the seat of war in the Deccan, to accompany the army part of their way to Goa.

Akbar died in 1605, after a reign of fifty-one years. He left only one son, named Selim, a prince of distinguished promise, who somewhat boastfully assumed the title of Jehangire, or Conqueror of the World. A powerful party intended to raise against him Chusero, his own son; but their intrigues were defeated, the prince was compelled to submit, and was forgiven. Soon after, however, having gained fresh adherents, he was encouraged to attempt the same object by force; though he still retained enough of good feeling to reject indignantly a plan for the assassination of the emperor, declaring that he would try the fortune of the field, but never ascend a throne stained with a father's blood. He had at first some success, laying waste the country between Delhi and Agra; but being overtaken by a superior army, retreated upon Lahore, near which he was totally routed, and made prisoner in attempting to pass the Indus. Chusero was led before

his parent and confessed his guilt; but, with those sentiments of honour which seem to have been always strong in his mind, he refused to give any information which might lead to the detection of his accomplices. Being, however, placed in close confinement, he had the agony of being led out day after day to see his dearest friends and most devoted adherents put to death amid the most cruel tortures. He was released ten years after, though only to be assassinated by his brother, Shah Jehan.

Jehangire began his reign with a crime, to which he was impelled by an unhappy combination of circumstances. A young Tartar lady, born in the Desert, of poor though noble parents, was brought to Delhi, where she grew up, and was considered the most beautiful and accomplished woman in India. She received the title of Mher-ul-Nissa, or the Sun of Women, but was afterwards called Noor Jehan, and sometimes Noor Mahal. The emperor, before mounting the throne, saw and was dazzled with her charms; the passion was mutual, but she had been betrothed to Shere Afkun, a Turkoman of distinguished merit, and a tie was thus formed, which, according to Indian ideas, was indissoluble. Akbar honourably, though perhaps not wisely, insisted that his son's passion should not interfere to prevent the completion of the union. But the latter no sooner became the ruler of India, than he discovered the means of gratifying his guilty inclination. Shere Afkun, however, was so brave and so popular that he durst not openly put him to death, but found it necessary to have recourse to the meanest stratagems. He contrived to involve him in combats with an elephant and a tiger, under such circumstances as seemed to ensure his fate; but Shere, in both instances, extricated himself by exertions of almost preternatural strength. At length a nobleman, whose name was Kuttub, received the high office of Subahdar of Bengal on the base condition of ridding his master of this hated rival. Yet forty assassins employed for this purpose were beaten off, and it was necessary to make the attack with a little army. Even then Afkun performed prodigies of valour, slew Kuttub himself, his worthless enemy, as he sat on

an elephant, together with several of his principal lords, and was overpowered only by clouds of darts. The fair but ambitious object of this execrable policy submitted meekly to her fate; but her royal lover, to whose temper crime so atrocious seems not to have been congenial, was struck with such horror, that during four years he refused to see her, and she lived neglected in a corner of the palace. At length she contrived to rekindle his passion, and became his favourite queen. All her relations were raised to the highest offices, her father becoming grand vizier. Happily he possessed every quality which could adorn that exalted rank; his elevation excited no envy, and though Jehangire gave himself up to ease and luxury, India is described as having been well governed.

The reign of this prince was distinguished by the arrival of two English missions; from the narratives of which we may derive somewhat more precise ideas respecting his court, than from the vague and pompous language of the oriental historians. In 1607, Captain William Hawkins was sent out by the Company, along with Captain Keeling, to endeavour to open a commercial intercourse with India, and especially with the dominions of the Mogul. Hawkins, who, separating from Keeling at Socotra, arrived at Surat on the 24th August 1608, immediately waited on the governor; but was informed that no permission could be granted to land his goods till a communication were held with Mocrib Khan, the viceroy, who resided at Cambay. A messenger was presently despatched thither; though, in consequence of the heavy rains and inundation of the rivers, an answer did not arrive for twenty days. At the end of this period permission was granted to land, and to buy and sell for the present voyage; but intimation was given at the same time that no factory could be established, nor permanent settlement made, without the sanction of the monarch, which might probably be obtained by proceeding to Agra, a journey of not less than two months. As soon, however, as the goods began to be disposed of, the utmost uneasiness was observable among the native merchants, who, in their conferences

with each other, anticipated the most alarming effects from this new rivalry. They were seconded by a Portuguese Jesuit, whose antipathy, both religious and political, led him to make the utmost efforts to ruin the English. One day, Hawkins received the disagreeable intelligence, that two of his boats, on their way between the ship and the shore, had been seized by the Portuguese; whose commander, on having a remonstrance addressed to him respecting this outrage, did not deign an answer, but spoke to the messenger in the most contemptuous terms of the British monarch, whom he described as a king of fishermen, and master only of an insignificant little island. Hawkins having afterwards met an officer of that nation, and represented to him the impropriety of this conduct, was told that those seas belonged to the King of Portugal, and none were entitled to trade in them without his license. The British captain requested him to convey to his superior a retort at once most indignant and scornful, accompanied with a challenge to single combat, which was not accepted. The boats, meantime, with their captured crews and cargoes, were sent to Goa; and the Englishman, instead of seeing any hope of redress from the Hindoo authorities, found reason to believe that the delays which he had endured were contrived solely to enable the enemy to collect their vessels, and accomplish their outrageous designs. They now laid wait for him, and attempted to break into his house; nor could he go about his affairs in the city without the danger of being murdered. Lastly, Mocrib himself arrived; but, instead of affording to him either relief or compensation, only amused himself with picking out from among his goods whatever appeared desirable, and taking them at his own price, which was always most inadequate and very ill paid.

Under these accumulated grievances, Hawkins determined to follow the advice, early given to him, of visiting the Mogul himself at Agra; but Mocrib, the author of this suggestion, conscious of the just complaints which might now be urged against himself, had become anxious to prevent the journey. He furnished only a very slender escort, with the intention, it was suspected, of in-

tercepting it on the road ; but the other hired soldiers at his own expense, and applied to a captain of the Viceroy of the Deccan, who gave him a body of brave Afghan horsemen. His coachman, however, having got drunk on the road, confessed that he had entered into a covenant to assassinate him,—an engagement in which it was found that the interpreter had also concurred. The former being apprehended, Hawkins arrived at Burhanpoor, the residence of the viceroy, who courteously received and forwarded him to Agra, where he arrived on the 16th April 1609. As he was inquiring for lodgings, the emperor sent for him in such haste that he had scarcely time to dress. On repairing to the palace, he found Jehangire elevated on his “seat royal,” and presented his letter, which, as well as the king’s seal, the monarch for some time carefully examined. He then desired it to be read by an old Jesuit who happened to be present. That personage gave a very unfavourable report, saying “it was basely penned ;” but the sovereign, finding his visiter could speak Turkish, had begun a conversation which pleased him highly. Hawkins was invited to visit the palace daily, and his majesty held long discourses with him, making inquiry respecting the different countries of Europe, and also the West Indies, the existence of which, it seems, he had been taught to doubt. He mentioned his conviction that the English had been ill treated by Mocrib Khan, to whom the most positive orders were now sent to supply them with everything necessary for their trade. Jehangire then earnestly requested the captain to remain in India till he himself could send an embassy to Europe, assuring him of an income of upwards of £3000 a-year, to be derived, according to their usage, from a command of four hundred horse, and a district of which he was to receive the revenues. Hawkins, considering with himself that he might thus benefit his masters, the Company, and also “feather his own nest,” allowed himself to be persuaded. He was then urged, in addition to so many other donations, to accept a wife. After what had passed, he thought it unseasonable to refuse the offer. though it was much against his inclination ; yet he hoped

to escape by saying that his conscience would not allow him to marry any but a Christian, trusting that none such would be found in this quarter of the world. However, the emperor's search was so diligent that he produced a young Armenian maiden, with whom the captain could not refuse to join his fates; and to this union, though he afterwards found that it was not legal in England, he honourably adhered, and declares that he was thereby made extremely happy.

Hawkins being now in the full stream of favour, and learning that another vessel, the *Ascension*, was coming to Surat, had no difficulty in obtaining an imperial commission, under the great seal with golden letters, authorizing his countrymen to trade. His satisfaction was complete when, in consequence of accumulated complaints from other quarters, his arch-enemy Mocrib was summoned to court, and punished with the confiscation of all his effects. These were so exceedingly numerous, that it afforded for two months a daily task to the emperor to examine them, and select the best for his own use. The captain had the satisfaction of pointing out several articles which he himself had lodged as presents for his majesty, though they had never reached their destination.

The tide of royal kindness, which had now reached its height, from this moment began to ebb. Mocrib, after being stripped of his most valuable property, was restored again to favour, and allowed to resume his government, being simply exhorted to conduct himself with greater circumspection; but, before his departure, he took care to do the English every ill office in his power. All those who were about the emperor—the omrahs, the officers of state, and more especially the Jesuits—united with him in their endeavours to undermine the influence enjoyed by strangers and infidels. It was represented to Jehangire that, by opening his trade to this strange people, he would altogether disgust the Portuguese, a much more opulent and powerful nation, who would not only themselves desert his ports, but were able to prevent others from entering them. These arguments, enforced by a balass ruby of uncommon size and brilliancy, so wrought upon

the prince, that he exclaimed, "Let the English come no more!" and Mocrib departed with the instruction never again to allow them to touch his shores. Hawkins did not directly venture to face this tempest. He allowed his enemy to leave; and when the suspicions of the unfriendly cabal had been somewhat lulled, watched his opportunity, presented himself before the emperor with a splendid *toy*, as he terms it, and urging the great advantages which his kingdom might derive from the proposed commercial intercourse, obtained an order for the vizier to prepare a decree, in terms as ample as the former, in favour of the British. These tidings were immediately circulated throughout the hostile faction; an express was despatched to Mocrib, and such activity exerted, that, after the decree had been sealed and was ready to be delivered, the sovereign was persuaded to withdraw it. The succeeding transactions continued to present the same woful picture of imbecility and vacillation. When the captain could find a friend at court, or seize a favourable moment, or present some valuable gift, he appeared again on the eve of having all his wishes accomplished; but the activity of his adversaries always produced a speedy reverse. During the whole of this time he suffered much annoyance from Abdul Hassan, the prime minister and his mortal enemy, who at court carefully excluded him from the space within the red rails, the scene of honour, and the spot where opportunities of conversing with the monarch usually occurred: And though he could not altogether withhold the grant of territory made for Hawkins' subsistence, he contrived to allot it in a district so disturbed by insurrection, that little or no revenue could be drawn from it. After two years and a half, therefore, of sickening and fruitless attendance, the English captain determined to take his leave. On the 2d November 1611, he departed, not only without obtaining any confirmation of commercial privileges, but even without a letter to his own king,—having some time before, with the deepest indignation, heard from Abdul Hassan, that it was unsuitable to the greatness of the Mogul emperor to write to so petty a prince.

A few years after, it was determined to make an attempt to place the British affairs in India on a more satisfactory footing, by sending out an embassy direct from the king, with ample presents and all such circumstances of pomp as might produce an impression on the proud oriental potentate. Sir Thomas Roe accordingly sailed from Gravesend on the 24th January 1615, with the *Lion* and *Peppercorn*, commanded by Captains Peyton and Boughton. After passing along the eastern coast of Africa, and touching at Socotra, he arrived in September at Surat, where he was landed in great pomp, with eighty men-at-arms. By asserting his privileges as ambassador of a powerful monarch, he escaped in a great measure the "barbarous search," as well as various exactions usually practised on merchants. On the 15th of November he reached Burhanpoor, and had a splendid audience of Prince Purvez, second son to the sultan, who in this place represented the Mogul sovereignty, though the real power rested with Khan Channa, commander of the forces. The young viceroy is described as mounted on a species of stage, like the mock-kings at a theatre; and the ambassador expressing a wish to go up, was told that neither the Grand Turk nor the King of Persia could be so honoured. On his requesting a seat, he was told no man ever sate in that place. The prince, however, promised to admit Sir Thomas presently to a more private audience; but unluckily, among other gifts, his highness had received a case of bottles, of which he made such diligent use as to be soon wholly out of a condition to fulfil his engagement.

As the Mogul sovereign was then resident at Ajmere, Roe proceeded thither through the country of the Rajpoots. On his way he admired the situation of Chittore, which he compares to a tomb of wonderful magnificence. Above a hundred temples, many lofty towers, and houses innumerable, were seen crowning the lofty rock on which it stood; but it was at this time entirely deserted. On the 23d December, Sir Thomas arrived at Ajmere, but did not go to court till the 10th January 1616, when he waited on the emperor at the *darbar*, or place of public audience.

He delivered the royal letter and presents, and met a reception so cordial, that he was assured no other ambassador, either Turk or Persian, had ever obtained the like. At the next interview he was allowed, and ever afterwards retained, a place higher than that of all the courtiers; and being permitted to state the grievances which the English trade suffered at Surat and Ahmedabad, was assured that these should be fully redressed. Many other conferences followed, and much familiar and even jocular conversation passed between the ambassador and the monarch. Sir Thomas for some time fondly hoped to obtain all his requests, but soon found himself opposed by the same hostile cabal that had caused so many reverses to Hawkins. Mocrib Khan, the rooted enemy of England, was at court, where he was supported by Asoph Khan, who had now succeeded as prime minister, and by Churram, afterwards Shah Jehan, then the favourite son of Jehangire. It was surprising how he could at all maintain his ground against such powerful adversaries, who produced continual fluctuations in the mind of this inconstant prince; but the ambassador's address and perseverance at last enabled him to procure a firman, though not to the full extent which had been promised and expected. He even received a letter to the British sovereign, addressed, "Unto a king rightly descended from his ancestors, bred in military affairs, and clothed with honour and justice."

During his stay, Sir Thomas had a good opportunity of observing the pomp and ceremonies of this court, the most splendid perhaps that ever dazzled the eyes of mankind, though scarcely possessing a corresponding share of polish and refinement. A remarkable degree of publicity, and even popularity, seems to have distinguished all its proceedings. The emperor spent as it were his whole life in public. In the morning he came to a window overlooking a wide plain, and exhibited himself to a numerous crowd there assembled. At noon he returned to the same place, where he was entertained with combats of wild beasts, particularly of elephants; and in the afternoon he seated himself in the darbar, the regular place of audience for all who presented them-

selves on business. At eight in the evening he once more appeared in an open court, called the Guzel Khana, where he spent the time chiefly in gay and easy conversation with his favourites. In the durbar, the royal throne was surrounded by two successive railings, the innermost of which enclosed a place for the ambassadors, officers of state, and persons of the first distinction. The outer space was filled with chiefs of secondary dignity; while a wide open area at a greater distance was assigned to the multitude; all of whom, however, enjoyed a full view of his majesty's person. To this routine the emperor was completely enslaved, and could not be excused for a single day, unless he were sick or drunk, which it was necessary to explain; but "two days no reason can excuse." All the state-proceedings and ordinances were equally public, being daily written down, and allowed to be perused for a trifling fee. Thus every event and resolution was immediately known to all the people; and even Sir Thomas' English feelings were scandalized by seeing the most secret councils of the prince, and his changeful purposes, "tossed and censured by every rascal."

Our traveller, on several occasions of gaiety and festival, had other opportunities of beholding the pomp of the Mogul court. It consisted chiefly in the immense profusion of precious stones, which this sovereign made it his aim, by presents, purchase, or plunder, to collect from every quarter. The person of the emperor on high anniversaries was not only covered, but completely laden with diamonds, pearls, and rubies. Even the elephants, when they went in procession, besides having all their trappings richly gilded, had their heads adorned with valuable jewels. The ambassador was particularly dazzled, after the monarch had taken the field, with the range of the royal tents surrounded by a wall half a mile in circuit. Those of the nobles exhibited the most elegant shapes and brilliant variety of colours. He declares it "one of the greatest rarities and magnificences" he ever saw, the whole vale resembling a beautiful city. But amid all this show we see few or no traces of any refined or intellectual tastes. On

the sovereign's birth-day, his chief amusement was to take two boxes, one full of rubies, and the other of gold and silver almonds, and scatter them on the ground in presence of his omrahs; when these mighty lords of the greatest court in the world threw themselves on the floor and scrambled for them as children do for sugar-plums. On another occasion, much delight was afforded by the "royal weighing," at which time the emperor's person, arrayed in full pomp, was put into the scales, first against rupees, then against gold and jewels, next against rich cloths and spices, and, lastly, against corn, meal, and butter. Intoxication, carried to the utmost excess, completed the circle of court gaieties.

The view given by both these travellers of the character of Jehangire scarcely accords with the high panegyrics pronounced by the oriental writers. His facility and kindness of temper appear combined with so much of weakness and vacillation as nearly to have unfitted him for conducting the concerns of so great an empire. Sir Thomas seems to describe him accurately, by saying:—"He is of so good a disposition, that he suffers all men to govern, which is worse than being ill." His justice, and more particularly his hatred of injustice, which Dow so highly extols, becomes somewhat equivocal, when we find it chiefly displayed in confiscating to his own use the goods of suspected individuals. After having pronounced Mocrif Khan guilty, and seized his most valuable possessions, there was a strange inconsistency in restoring him to his government and to full confidence, and being swayed by his advice on the most important occasions. It is difficult to know whether we should ascribe to superstition or policy the absurd caresses which he was seen to bestow on a miserable fakir or beggar, whom he conversed with for an hour, took in his arms and assisted to rise, and into whose lap he finally poured a hundred rupees.

The last years of this sovereign's life were spent in much misery; and it was still his fatal passion for Noor Jehan by which they were embittered. This fair but haughty favourite governed him entirely, misled his easy temper, and alienated him from his

best friends. The belief prevailed, apparently not without foundation, that she was studying to raise to the throne Shariar, her own son, to the prejudice of the elder branches of her husband's family; and this was at least the alleged motive of the formidable rebellion raised against the emperor by Shah Jehan, the ablest of his children, who had gained great reputation and influence by a successful war in the Deccan. That prince, by another crime, paved his way to the throne. Chusero, his elder brother, whose rebellion had chequered the opening of Jehangire's reign, was released from his long confinement, and placed under the shah's care; but one morning his favourite wife entered his tent and found him weltering in his blood, shed by an assassin. She filled the camp and city with her cries: Jehan repaired to the spot, and by the deep concern he expressed, escaped at first all suspicion; yet his father and the public became afterwards convinced that the guilt of this murder rested upon his head.

The emperor, in the dangerous situation in which he was now placed, had, however, a faithful friend and servant, Mohabet Khan, who supported his crown with devoted zeal, and whose valour gained for him repeated victories over the rebellious Shah Jehan. Even when that prince repaired successively to Guzerat and Bengal, where he succeeded in raising several new armies, Mohabet still pursued him, and at last reduced his affairs to a desperate condition. When this commander, however, had returned to court, expecting the gratitude due for such signal services, he found a complete change in the sentiments of his sovereign. Noor Jehan, never ceasing to be the evil genius of Jehangire, joined with other enemies in making him believe that this virtuous guardian of his throne had entered into a conspiracy for his deposition. Mohabet, soon learning how affairs stood at court, determined not to sacrifice himself by obeying the order to repair thither, but withdrew to his castle at Rintimpour. At length, after repeated calls, he proceeded to the seat of government, accompanied, however, by 5000 brave Rajpoot cavalry, whom he deemed sufficient to secure his personal safety. He found the

emperor encamped near Lahore; but on approaching the tents, met the most unworthy reception, being ordered to advance no farther till he had accounted for the revenues and the plunder which had come into his possession. Mohabet, though virtuous, was proud; hence his indignation was raised to the highest pitch, and he contrived, and immediately executed a truly bold scheme. The army, now on its march to Cabul, crossed next day the bridge over the Jelum, while the monarch, who dreaded nothing, lingered behind with a small party of courtiers. The general then pushed forward with his Rajpoots, caused one detachment to secure the bridge, while with another he dashed on to the tent of his master. Surrounded by five hundred of these troops, who had alighted in full armour, he entered with a countenance pale but determined. The omrahs at first made some show of resistance, but yielded as soon as they saw the amount of the force which assailed them. The chief, after some search, found Jehangire in the bathing-tent, when the latter immediately exclaimed, "What dost thou mean, Mohabet Khan?" The other replied, "Forced by the machinations of my enemies, who plot against my life, I throw myself under the protection of my sovereign." Being asked the object of the armed men behind him, he answered, "They want full security for me and my family, and without it they will not retire." Jehangire denied having entertained any design against his life, and endeavoured to sooth him; when the other observed that this was his usual hour of hunting, and that a horse was in waiting. The emperor saw the necessity under which he was placed, and went, accompanied by a guard of valiant Rajpoots.

Meantime Noor Jehan, with her brother, Asoph Khan, the prime minister, had passed with the main body of the army to the opposite side of the river; and it is easy to imagine the consternation and rage of that proud princess on learning the disaster which had befallen her husband. After consultation, it was determined, at whatever peril, to attack Mohabet, and make a desperate effort for the release of their sovereign. The broad stream, however, was to be crossed in the face of the hostile Rajpoots; but the

empress, to encourage her troops, rode into the current, exposing herself in the thickest of the conflict, and emptying four quivers of arrows with her own hand. Three of her elephant-drivers were killed; and her youthful daughter, who accompanied her, was wounded in the arm. The Rajpoots, however, attacked the several parties as they reached the shore, and successively defeated them. At length a large body, headed by the most gallant of the omrahs, crossed at a different point, and came upon the enemy's rear. They penetrated nearly to the emperor's tent, which was pierced with numerous arrows, and his person was only secured by being carefully covered with shields. But Mohabet finally restored the battle, and gained a complete victory. Noor Jehan fled to Lahore; whence, by letters from Jehangire, she was induced to repair to his camp. Under these circumstances, we know not how to justify the resolution formed by the conqueror of putting her to death. He even extorted the imperial warrant to that effect; when the artful princess, pretending to submit to her fate, solicited one interview with her lord,—a request which the general granted, on condition that it should take place in his own presence. She entered and stood before her husband in deep silence, "her beauty shining with additional lustre through her sorrow." He instantly burst into tears, and entreated so earnestly for the life of his beloved queen, that the victorious chief was overcome, and acceded to his wishes.

Mohabet now carried his sovereign into Cabul, treating him with the highest respect, maintaining the full pomp of his court, and allowing him to transact all the ordinary affairs of state. At length, having obtained the most ample promises of indemnity and future favour, he proved his disinterestedness by resigning his power, setting the monarch at full liberty, and retiring into a private station. But he had gone too far to recede with safety. The emperor, indeed, was capable of forgiving, and even of forgetting; but the deepest resentment rankled in the mind of his lady, who soon began to demand the life of the general, though the former had sufficient sense of justice to repel her proposal with

indignation. She then proceeded to form plots for effecting her object by treachery. Jehangire, on learning these designs, gave information to the intended victim, at the same time owning his inability to afford him the protection to which he had so just a claim. It was evident, therefore, that no choice was left him but to flee; and the man who had so lately been the real master of this great empire became a solitary fugitive, after abandoning all his property. Noor Jehan immediately seized it, and in his absence obtained an entire sway over the mind of the weak sovereign; the other was declared a rebel; a price set upon his head; and a diligent search was ordered to be made for him through all the provinces.

Asoph, the reigning minister, disapproved of his sister's violence, and of the questionable measures into which she urged the government, but knew not how to resist. One evening after dark he was informed that a man in a mean dress besought an audience. With wonder and sympathy, he saw before him the chief who had so lately been the ruler of India. They withdrew into a secret cabinet; and Asoph having acknowledged the empress's violence and the miserable weakness of Jehangire, Mohabet urged, that the only chance for having the empire governed with a firm hand would be obtained by raising to the throne Shah Jehan, the same man of whom he himself had so long been the determined enemy. The other, after some consideration, concurred in his views, and a communication with the royal youth was immediately opened; but several circumstances suspended the execution of this project till it was rendered unnecessary by the illness of the emperor. An asthmatic complaint under which he laboured being severely aggravated by a residence in the cold climate of Cashmere, he expired on the 9th November 1627, leaving behind him a very doubtful reputation.

Jehangire left only two sons, Shah Jehan and Shariar, to the latter of whom he had bequeathed his crown; but Mohabet and Asoph took immediate steps for the elevation of the former, and before that prince could arrive from the Deccan, his competitor

was defeated, taken prisoner, and deprived of sight. The new emperor, on reaching the capital, immediately adopted the most dreadful expedients to secure himself against a rival. He caused not only his brother, but all his nephews who were alive, to be put to death; and there remained not a drop of the blood of Timur, except what flowed in his own and his children's veins. This horrible tragedy has been palliated as founded on oriental precedent; yet though in Eastern courts fraternal enmities have usually been fatal, Hindostan had afforded no instance of such a fearful proscription. Nor could Jehan fail to foresee that this guilty example was likely to be followed, if not against himself, as it actually was in some degree, at least against those in whose welfare he was most deeply interested.

He did not even escape the danger of an immediate claimant for the empire. Lodi, an omrah of distinguished spirit and valour, and who boasted a descent from the Patan emperors of India, had been employed as commander of the army in the Deccan. In this capacity he was opposed to Shah Jehan, and having, when the throne became vacant, attached himself to Shariar, obstructed and even insulted the new sovereign on his way to Agra. The prince sent an army against him, but with liberal offers in case of submission. Lodi laid down his arms, and was appointed to the government of Malwa; whence, on a mandate from the imperial court, he repaired to the capital. At the first audience, however, he was received with such marked disrespect, as showed that some hostile purpose was meditated. Azmut his son even drew his sword; a tumult ensued, and the omrah hastened to his own house, which was capable of defence, where he shut himself up with three hundred followers. Thus enclosed, however, in the midst of enemies, his situation seemed desperate, and he was agitated with the most perplexing emotions. Suddenly a scream was heard from the apartment of the females,—he rushed in, and saw them weltering in their blood. In the prospect of captivity and dishonour, with that desperate fidelity not unfrequently displayed by Hindoo females, they had

plunged the sword into their own breasts. At the sight his mind was worked up almost to phrensy. He sprang on horseback with his two sons, caused his men to follow him sounding trumpets, while he himself called aloud, "I will awaken the tyrant with the sound of my departure, but he shall tremble at my return." A hot pursuit was immediately commenced; yet he would have distanced his pursuers, had not the stream of the Chumbul, then flowing rapidly and swollen by heavy rains, arrested his progress. Overtaken by a greatly superior force he was obliged to plunge into the stream, and reached the opposite shore, but not without losing the greater number of his followers, among whom was Azmut, his favourite son. He pushed onward, however, to the Deccan, where he openly raised the standard of rebellion, and, besides collecting his own adherents, engaged the kings of Golconda and Visiapour to enter into a league against the Mogul, by whose overwhelming power they had long been oppressed. Shah Jehan was so deeply alarmed that he hastened to the theatre of war; but not being disposed to take the field in person, yet afraid to intrust the command to any single chief, he sent detached corps under Eradut Khan and other generals to attack the combined forces at different points. Lodi being nominated generalissimo, conducted his operations with such valour and skill that he baffled all the efforts of the invader. Shah Jehan, greatly mortified, at length committed the entire conduct of the war to Asoph, who brought to it talents and a reputation of the first order. His very name struck the confederates with such terror that they immediately retreated. The insurgent chief, with only the troops personally attached to himself, determined to try the fortune of battle; but it proved adverse. The King of Golconda instantly began to treat with the emperor; and Lodi, well aware that the first article would be the delivery of his own person, lost no time in withdrawing from his territory. Shah Jehan endeavoured to shut against him all the passes leading into Hindostan; yet the fugitive chief evaded all his precautions, and with a chosen band, who remained faithful in every extremity, found his way into the

high country of Malwa. The emperor immediately directed Abdallah, one of his officers, to pursue him with ten thousand horse. Lodi, weakened by the attacks which he encountered in his march, at length found this powerful body pressing close behind; while Mohammed Azâz, his eldest son, had fallen in endeavouring to cover his retreat. His troop was reduced to thirty, so closely hemmed in as to exclude all hope. Seeing a strong detachment of the enemy advance, he called together these faithful followers, and after expressing the warmest gratitude for their adherence to him amid so many calamities, begged as a last favour that they would no longer cling to a cause devoted to ruin, but each seek his own safety. They burst into tears, and declared their determination to share his fate to the last. He silently gave the signal to follow, and spurred his horse against the enemy. A ball pierced his breast, and his thirty gallant companions fell around him. Shah Jehan received the tidings with unbounded exultation, not tempered with the generous sympathy which was due to the valour and misfortunes of his fallen rival.

The emperor, thus secured in the possession of the sceptre, added another to the list of princes who, after seizing it by crimes and violence, wielded it with firmness and justice. The sternness of his temper was now employed in overawing the haughty viceroys, and guarding the people against oppression. He derived, doubtless, much aid from the wise counsels of Asoph Khan and Mohabet, whom, notwithstanding some fits of jealousy, he continued to employ. Sometimes their intercession softened the extreme rigour of his justice, particularly in the case of the Rajah of Bundelcund, whom he had ordered for execution. When Mohabet pleaded for the life of the guilty chief, the monarch not only granted it, but restored him to his full dignity. At one time, though wholly indifferent to the Mohammedan religion, he was so provoked by the manifold absurdities of the Hindoo worship, that he began to make it an object of persecution; but, seeing the eagerness with which the people clung to their proscribed ritual, he became sensible of his error, and resumed the system of

toleration which his family had been accustomed to extend to both creeds.

Had there been a theatre open for foreign conquest, Shah Jehan would probably have been ambitious of that glory; but the empire was now so extensive, and all its enemies at so great a distance, that such projects must have been carried on under many disadvantages. He led armies, however, into the Deccan, and reduced its princes to a humbler state of vassalage than before. He also sent expeditions against Candahar and Balkh, on the western and north-western frontiers; but the war was waged with difficulty in those remote and mountainous regions, while the vigorous rule of the Persian princes, Abbas and Sefi, rendered it impossible to make any permanent impression in that quarter. On the east, indeed, he added to the empire the rude province of Assam,—a precarious acquisition of no very great value.

To this prince India is indebted for the most splendid and elegant monuments of architecture with which it is anywhere adorned. At New Delhi, which he made his residence, and called, from himself, Shah Jehanpoor, he erected a palace of red granite, considered by Bishop Heber one of the noblest he ever saw, and far superior to the Kremlin at Moscow. The gateway in particular is finely ornamented. The Jumma Musjed, too, in the same city, is a magnificent mosque, not excelled by any other in India. But all his erections were surpassed by the mausoleum called the Taj Mahal, raised at Agra in honour of Noor Jehan, his favourite queen. It is built of white marble, inlaid with precious stones, and forms a quadrangle of a hundred and ninety yards, with a lofty dome seventy feet in diameter rising from the centre. It stands on an elevated terrace, surrounded by a highly-cultivated garden. The construction is said to have cost the immense sum of £750,000; and it is generally esteemed the finest edifice in the empire.

This reign flowed on for more than twenty years in the most smooth and prosperous tenor. The emperor lost his valuable ministers Asoph and Mohabet; but this only induced him to

apply more closely to public business, which he continued to administer to the entire satisfaction of the nation. His felicity seemed crowned by possessing four sons, whose accomplishments, and even virtues, fitted them to adorn the throne of the greatest of empires, and to be the idols of the people. As the most perfect cordiality reigned between them and him, he placed them in all conspicuous situations, which they filled both honourably and ably. But when they grew to manhood it was impossible to prevent mutual jealousies from arising. Each began to contemplate, in the event of his parent's death, a struggle for the vacant sovereignty; and each anticipated on that occurrence either a throne or a grave. Dara, the favourite of the aged monarch, was kept near his person, and for him the succession was destined. He was, perhaps, the most amiable of the family, shunning the licentious indulgences incident to a court, and employing his leisure in the cultivation of letters; but in action he was hasty and impetuous. Sujah, voluptuous, yet mild and also brave, held the government of Bengal. Morad, magnificent, proud, daring, delighting in war and danger, commanded in Guzerat. There was yet a fourth, of a character very different from that of any of his brothers, or from what is usually found in the bosom of royalty. Aurengzebe maintained a reserved deportment, rejecting pleasure, and devoting himself to business and public affairs with an intensity like that of one who was to raise himself from a low condition by his own exertions. Another circumstance gave a peculiar stamp to his pursuits and destiny. The princes of the house of Akbar had scarcely made even a profession of the Mohammedan faith, though it was zealously maintained by their armies and great lords. They seem to have viewed religion itself with a careless indifference, chiefly as a subject of philosophical speculation, and studiously avoided making it any ground of distinction among the various classes of their subjects. He, on the contrary, had adopted the Arabian creed in all its rigour; conforming strictly to its observances, and professing himself more ambitious of the reputation of a saint and fakir than of a great monarch. He thereby made