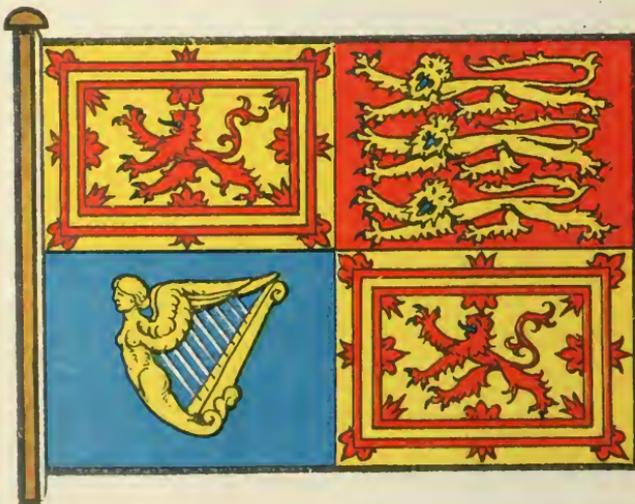


THE ROYAL BANNER (OR STANDARD) OF SCOTLAND
THE LION RAMPANT WITH DOUBLE TRESSURE



THE ROYAL BANNER (OR STANDARD) OF THE UNITED KINGDOM
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SCOTLAND'S WORK AND WORTH

An Epitome of Scotland's Story from Early Times to the Twentieth Century, with a Survey of the Contributions of Scotsmen in Peace and in War to the Growth of the British Empire and the Progress of the World ^{4.13.} Scotland

BY

CHARLES W. THOMSON

M.A., F.E.I.S.

RECTOR OF LARKHALL ACADEMY

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VOLUME II



ROYAL ARMS AS USED IN SCOTLAND

PUBLISHED BY
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EDINBURGH AND LONDON

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ERRATA IN VOL. II

Page 453, line 16, *for* "25th" *read* "5th."

Page 539, line 9, *for* "Lord Hamilton of Dalzell" *read* "A. J. Hamilton, Younger of Dalzell."

Page 745, line 8 from foot, delete "also a native of Wigtownshire."
[Sir James was born in London].

ADDENDUM

In the roll of living historians must be included Dr. David Hay Fleming (*b.* St. Andrews, 1849), who is noted for his vivid and accurate presentation of various periods of our national history, notably of the Reformation and the Covenanting periods. His passion for correctness and his intimate knowledge provide very necessary and very thorough checks upon the vagaries of certain other modern historical writers.

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CHAPTER XXX

NINETEENTH CENTURY TO DEATH OF KING WILLIAM.

“Does haughty Gaul invasion threat?
Then let the loons beware, sir.
There's wooden walls upon our seas,
And volunteers on shore, sir.”

BURNS.

THE end of the eighteenth century presented a gloomy outlook to the British nation. Harvests were bad, and in trade and social life a period of depression prevailed. Worst of all, the Napoleonic wars were in full course. But the darkest hour is usually just before the dawn, and within fifteen years of the opening of the nineteenth century, whatever might be the misery still prevailing at home, the nation had pulled itself together for a desperate struggle with the arrogance of France, a struggle which gave origin to many of the brightest pages in our naval and military annals, including in each sphere one crowded day of glorious life—Trafalgar and Waterloo.

In the fiery trials of that cruel period Scotsmen acted their part nobly. We have already referred to the victories of Duncan and Baird in the end of the eighteenth century.

At the end of the year 1800, Sir Ralph Abercromby (born at Menstrie, in Clackmannanshire, in 1734), who had already performed valuable services in the West

Indies and in Holland, was placed in command of the Mediterranean Expedition, whose object was to foil the French attempt to conquer Egypt, preparatory to a descent on India. In March 1801 he effected a landing at Aboukir Bay, a dozen miles north-east of Alexandria, and on the 21st of that month he gained the decisive victory of Alexandria over the French, the 42nd Highlanders doing great service with their bayonets. Unfortunately, the brave general was mortally wounded by a musket-ball during the engagement, and died a week later on board his flagship. Abercromby had done much to remodel and reorganise the British Army, as had also one of his juniors in this campaign, his own compatriot Sir John Moore. As a result of this battle, and of the opportune arrival of Sir David Baird from India, over 20,000 Frenchmen surrendered on condition of being taken home to France, and Egypt was freed once and for all from Napoleon's unwelcome attentions. The House of Commons voted a pension of £2000 a year to Lady Abercromby, and a monument to the deceased general was erected in St. Paul's Cathedral.

The Peace of Amiens was signed in the following year, but was soon to be broken almost by mutual consent. Napoleon planned a great invasion of Britain, and made preparations for conveying a force of 150,000 men across the Channel from Boulogne in flat-bottomed boats. This alarming prospect raised the warlike enthusiasm of Britain to fever-pitch, and volunteers were forthcoming as fast as they could be enrolled. While the great sea-struggle was still impending, Sir Robert Calder (1745-1818), a native of Elgin, who had been knighted for his services as captain of the fleet under Admiral Jervis at Cape St. Vincent in 1797, was put in charge of a squadron

of ships to watch the movements of the French and Spanish fleets. Having kept in check superior numbers to his own for five months, he encountered Admiral Villeneuve off Cape Finisterre in July 1805, and after a severe engagement lasting for four hours he compelled the French admiral to take refuge in Ferrol. In August he baffled another attempt of Villeneuve to sail northwards, and the latter betook himself to Cadiz. These actions of Sir Robert frustrated Napoleon's Boulogne preparations, and in great chagrin the emperor abandoned his proposed invasion of Britain, and directed his attention to attacking Prussia and Austria instead.

On 21st October 1805 the most glorious event in the annals of the British Navy took place, when Nelson, having previously outwitted his enemies in regard to their feigned West Indian Expedition, crushed at Trafalgar the combined naval power of France and Spain, converted the proud boast that "Britannia rules the waves" into a literal fact, and freed Britain from the nightmare dread of invasion. In spite of the wording of his famous signal, "*England* expects every man to do his duty," there were Scotsmen to the front as usual, not only among the personnel of the seamen, but in positions of trust and responsibility. Shortly before the engagement of Trafalgar, Nelson had written in his diary: "May the great God, whom I worship, grant to my country a great and glorious victory; and may humanity after victory be the predominant feature in the *British* fleet."

The *Britannia* was commanded by Admiral the Earl of Northesk, who was next in command to Nelson and Collingwood; Nelson's own physician was a Scot; and one of his most trusted subordinates was George Keith-Elphinstone (1746-1823), a native of Stirling-

shire, who had been raised to the peerage as Baron Keith in 1797, chiefly for his services against the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope. Lord Keith had received further advancement in 1801, being placed in charge of the fleet in which Abercromby sailed to Egypt. Later he commanded the Channel fleet, and in that capacity he made the arrangements which ended in the capture of Napoleon by the *Bellerophon* after his flight from Waterloo.

No account of this stirring period of brave naval deeds would be complete without some mention of Thomas, Lord Cochrane, afterwards Earl of Dundonald, the greatest admiral that Scotland has produced, and "the last of the old sea-kings," as Justin M'Carthy has called him. Born at Hamilton in 1775, he entered the navy at the age of eighteen, and at once became conspicuous for reckless gallantry in naval conflicts. In spite of poor equipment he performed almost incredible feats against heavy odds, including the boarding and taking of a Spanish vessel of 32 guns and a crew of 319 men, while only in command of a miserable ship, the *Speedy*, with 54 hands. In thirteen months he captured 33 vessels from the Spaniards. His most notable achievement was the crippling of a French fleet of fourteen vessels by means of fire-ships, on the night of 11th April 1809, in Aix Roads (or the Basque Roads) off the west coast of France, after his superior in command, Lord Gambier, had decided that the French position was unassailable. Coming only three and a half years after Trafalgar, Cochrane's achievement effectively ruined French sea-power, and during the rest of the Napoleonic wars the French fleet had no longer to be considered. As member of Parliament for Westminster, Cochrane earned the displeasure of his superiors by his fearless tirades against

abuses in naval administration, and at last in 1814 he was arrested on what was afterwards found to be a false charge of complicity in the stock-jobbing frauds of that year. He was expelled from the House, degraded from the navy, fined £1000, and imprisoned for a year. The public raised enough by penny subscriptions to pay his fine. After his release he became chief admiral of the navy of Chili, which country was then throwing off the yoke of Spain, and later he served the Government of Brazil in a similar capacity. In 1827 he was an admiral in the Greek fleet, and fought against the Turks at Navarino. In 1832 he was declared innocent of the old charge by the usual fiction of a "free pardon," and was made a rear-admiral in the British Navy. His other honours were one by one restored to him, and at the end of his long life in 1860 he was buried in Westminster Abbey.

It is more than probable that, if Cochrane's promotion in the service had come a little earlier, or, in other words, if he had been presented with opportunities similar to those which came to Nelson, he would have outrivalled even that most famous of our British admirals, possessed as he was of courage, promptitude, and resource at least equal to those of Nelson, combined with a power of scientific calculation, and a consequent certainty of results, to which even Nelson could not lay claim. Cochrane, in fact, like his father, Archibald (also of the Royal Navy), was really a distinguished man of science, and, as might be expected, his scientific researches took a practical turn. He suggested important improvements in boilers, engines, and propellers, and invented the method of tunnelling under water by compressed air. The first-fruits of this invention consisted in the construction of the Blackwall Tunnel under the Thames.

To revert to the land engagements of the period, in July 1806, Sir John Stuart, with a raw British force of 5000 men, utterly defeated a French force of 7000 at Maida in Italy, and freed the Italians from their almost superstitious belief in the invincibility of the French. He received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament for his "brilliant and important victory."

In 1805, Sir David Baird (1757-1829), a native of Haddingtonshire, was put in command of a South African Expedition, which, in January 1806, succeeded in reducing Cape Colony to the position of a British dependency. Baird also played a prominent part at Copenhagen in 1807, when the Danes were punished for coquetting with Napoleon. Baird had charge of a division of the land forces, which were under the supreme command of another Scotsman, Lord Cathcart. Two of the latter general's sons became distinguished soldiers, his eldest son, Charles, gaining high distinction in the Peninsula and at Waterloo, while Sir George Cathcart, a younger son, was aide-de-camp to Wellington at Quatre-Bras and Waterloo, and, after useful colonial services, fell at last at Inkermann.

In passing it may be mentioned that the theory of warfare on which the practice of Wellington and other British generals of the Napoleonic period was based, was worked out by Sir David Dundas (1735-1820), a native of Edinburgh. In 1792 his *Rules and Regulations for His Majesty's Forces*, and *Rules and Regulations for the Cavalry*, had been adopted by the British Government as manuals for the army.

From 1808 till 1814 there was waged the long and arduous Peninsular War, brought about by Napoleon's action in placing his brother Joseph on the Spanish

throne. Britain championed the cause of Spain against the French, but found the Spaniards of little help in opposing the forces of Napoleon.

In October 1808 the supreme command of the British forces in the Peninsula was given to Sir John Moore. Sir John (1761–1809) was a native of Glasgow, his father being a doctor in that city. For a short time Moore had sat in Parliament as member for the Lanark burghs, and as an officer he had already won high distinction in Corsica, the West Indies, and Egypt. On taking command of the forces, Sir John found himself in a desperate position. He had at Lisbon about 20,000 men, and the only other British force in the Peninsula was Sir David Baird's 10,000 men at Corunna, 350 miles distant as the crow flies. In opposition to such scanty forces, Napoleon was steadily pouring men into Spain, until the French force numbered between 300,000 and 400,000 men. In order to effect a junction with Baird, Moore had to strike north-eastwards with his infantry for about 300 miles across a mountainous district, while the artillery, in charge of Sir John Hope, was sent round by Talavera, and covered about 420 miles. Baird's march extended to about 250 miles. The junction was safely effected in December in the neighbourhood of Salamanca. Meanwhile the Spanish forces had melted away after one or two defeats, and Moore found that the promised Spanish army of 70,000 men was non-existent. Madrid had fallen into the hands of the French, and as the only means of striking an effective blow at the enemy, Moore marched towards the north of Spain.

Finding that a force of 70,000 infantry and 10,000 horse was prepared to operate against his comparatively small numbers, Moore decided to retreat

westwards upon Corunna, where British transports were expected to be in waiting. The retreat was made in great haste, lest Marshal Soult, who had been dispatched in pursuit of the British, should be enabled to effect a junction with Marshal Ney before attacking Moore's force. On 16th January 1809, Moore, with an effective force of only 16,000 men, had to face the vastly superior force of Soult, and in spite of all odds in numbers, equipment, and position, he decided to fight. Moore's right wing was commanded by Sir David Baird, and his left by Sir John Hope. The battle was one of the fiercest on record. The result was a complete victory for the British, Soult's force being shattered and driven off. Moore, however, who had been the very soul of the fight, was cut down by a grape-shot in the hour of victory, and was buried on his field of glory next morning.

General Maurice, the editor of Moore's *Diary*, describes the retreat on Corunna, and the battle itself, as "the boldest, the most successful, the most brilliant stroke of war of all time." Some authorities have even represented Corunna as the turning-point in Napoleon's career. At any rate it completely upset his calculations, and he quitted Spain in disgust, leaving his subordinates to bring order out of the chaos of his plans.

Parliament ordered a monument to be erected to Moore's memory in St. Paul's Cathedral, and his fellow-citizens placed a bronze statue of him in George Square, Glasgow; but perhaps the most striking tribute to his worth was the monument erected over his grave at Corunna by the French officers. The engagement at Corunna ended also the active career of Sir David Baird, who was next in command to Moore. His left arm was shattered, and had to be amputated. Baird received for the fourth time in his life the thanks of



Flaxman, Sculptor.

Photo by Annan & Sons.

SIR JOHN MOORE'S STATUE, GLASGOW.

Parliament, and was given the command of the forces in Ireland.

After Baird's wound at Corunna, the command of the final stages of the battle devolved upon Sir John Hope, afterwards Earl of Hopetoun (1765-1823), a native of Linlithgowshire. After the battle, Hope superintended the successful embarkation of the British troops.

In the subsequent stages of the war, Sir Arthur Wellesley took supreme command. He had already learned the value of Highland regiments in his brilliant victory of Assaye over the Mahrattas in 1803, and he again found his Scottish soldiers to be in the front rank for dash and reliability. A reference to the chapter on the Scottish regiments (XXXVII.) will show that in the brilliant series of victories which followed his marvellous generalship, our northern heroes had their full share of work and of glory.

In connection with this same war, mention must be made of that gallant Scottish soldier, Sir Thomas Graham, afterwards Lord Lynedoch. Graham was forty-three years of age before he joined the army, a step which he took in order to seek refuge in action from his deep sorrow at his wife's death. In 1800 he recovered Malta for the British after a prolonged blockade, and he acted as aide-de-camp to Moore in Sweden and at Corunna. At a later stage of the Peninsular War he was put in charge of the British and Portuguese troops at Cadiz. It was while holding this post that he gained, in March 1811, his greatest success in storming the heights of Barossa at the point of the bayonet in face of Marshal Victor's troops. The fierceness of the combat is shown by the fact that Graham lost 1200 men out of 4000, while Victor lost 3000 out of 8000. For this victory he received

the thanks of Parliament. He was present at most of the subsequent Peninsular battles, and commanded the left wing at Vittoria, besides successfully conducting the siege of San Sebastian. In 1814 he was raised to the peerage, with a pension of £2000. He died in 1843 at the advanced age of ninety-four.

During Napoleon's disastrous invasion of Russia (1812), the Russian general who earned most fame in opposing the French inroad was Prince Michael Barclay de Tolly (1761-1818), a Scot by descent, "Tolly" being originally "Towie." He led the Russian forces at the victory of Leipzig in the following year.

By April 1814, Wellesley had succeeded in expelling the French from the Peninsula, and following them into France he inflicted a final defeat at Toulouse.

In the same month Napoleon, who had for ten years borne the title of Emperor of the French, abdicated the throne, and retired to Elba. One of Napoleon's most trusted officers up to this point in his career had been Etienne MacDonald (1765-1840), who, though of French birth, was the son of a Scottish Jacobite teacher, and a close relation of Flora MacDonald. His most famous feat had been that of crossing the Waal estuary on the ice, and so capturing the Dutch fleet (1795). For his success against the Austrians at Wagram in 1809, Napoleon appointed him marshal. He again gained distinction at Leipzig in 1813.

It was thought that Europe was now to be at rest, but in March of the next year Napoleon entered France, and the glamour of his name soon gathered around him a powerful army. Britain and Prussia alone had the heart left to oppose him, and in order to prevent a junction of the British force in Belgium

under Wellington with the Prussian forces approaching from the Rhine under Blücher, Napoleon entered Belgium in June 1815. On the 16th he defeated Blücher at Ligny, but on the same day at Quatre-Bras (the "four cross-roads," ten miles south of Waterloo), a surprise attack on the British by Marshal Ney was foiled, chiefly by the constancy of the Highland regiments.

Two days later, at Waterloo, eleven miles south of the Belgian capital, one of the world's greatest battles was fought, a battle memorable not only for the magnitude of the forces engaged, but for the desperate bravery of the troops on both sides, the consummate skill and world-wide reputation of the generals, and the momentous issues which were decided by the day's work. The leading episodes of the battle are well known: the dread struggle around the main British position at the Château of Hougomont, the repeated charges of the French cavalry, wave upon wave wasting itself upon the stubborn British infantry, until Wellington "wished that night or the Prussians would come." Then followed Napoleon's final charge with his old veterans when he learned that the Prussians were approaching. At last the British, till now acting chiefly on the defensive, were let loose upon the wavering hosts of the enemy, and disaster overtook Napoleon's grand army, a disaster rendered complete and irretrievable by the opportune arrival of the Prussians, who pursued the fleeing squadrons when the British were too far exhausted to push home their advantage.

In every part of the day's work Scotsmen made themselves felt. It was a Scot, Lieutenant-Colonel Macdonnell, who commanded the Guards in their defence of Hougomont, and who, by his presence of mind, combined with giant-like bodily strength, succeeded in

closing the great gates with the help of a brother Scot, Sergeant Graham of the Scots Guards, when these had been burst open at a critical moment by the French attacking party. Wellington is reported to have declared, "The success of the battle turned upon the closing of the gates of Hougomont. This feat was achieved in the most gallant manner in the very nick of time by Sir James Macdonnell." Years afterwards a sum of £500 was bequeathed to the soldier whom Wellington should adjudge to have been the bravest man at Waterloo. The duke nominated Macdonnell, but the latter gave the money to the sergeant who had assisted him in his momentous task. The part played by the Scots Greys and the 92nd Highlanders is referred to in the brief sketch of these regiments in Chapter XXXVII. Blücher, in his official dispatch, wrote as follows: "The repeated charges of the Old Guard were baffled by the intrepidity of the Scottish regiments."

Byron, in his famous description of the battle, devotes a stirring stanza to the Scots:

"And wild and high the 'Cameron's gathering' rose!
The war-note of Lochiel, which Albyn's hills
Have heard—and heard, too, have her Saxon foes:
How in the noon of night that pibroch thrills,
Savage and shrill! But with the breath which fills
Their mountain pipe, so fill the mountaineers
With the fierce native daring which instils
The stirring memory of a thousand years;
And Evan's, Donald's fame rings in each clansman's ears."

Not less truly, though in less pretentious verse, a humbler bard has sung:

"And on the plains of Waterloo,
The world confessed the bravest few
Were kilted men frae Scotland!"

This great victory ended Napoleon's career, and

warlike affairs, which for over twenty years had almost monopolised the interest of the country, gradually gave way to no less necessary combats in social and political reform.

The wars with the French, as we have seen, had well-nigh silenced every whisper of the possibility of better conditions in political life and in social affairs. Yet, however silently, the spirit of Liberalism had been making headway in Scotland, and had enlisted in its service such talented legal men as Henry Erskine (deposed in 1796 from the post of Dean of Faculty of Advocates in Edinburgh on account of his Whiggery), and Lords Jeffrey, Cockburn, and Brougham.

On the death of Pitt, in 1806, the short-lived "Ministry of all the Talents," with Lord Grenville as Prime Minister, Henry Erskine as Lord Advocate, and his brother Thomas as Lord Chancellor, came into office, and is memorable as being the first Government to tackle the thorny question of the slave-trade. In the various steps towards the liberation of slaves, Scotsmen played a prominent part. In the agitation headed by William Wilberforce, one of the leading spirits was Zachary Macaulay, father of Lord Macaulay. The Bill of 1807 made the traffic in slaves illegal for British subjects. In 1811 a Bill, introduced by Lord Brougham, pronounced the slave-trade felony; by 1824 it was accounted as piracy, and punishable by death. Finally, the Act of 1833 freed all slaves throughout the British colonies at a cost of twenty million pounds, paid as compensation to the owners. The Rev. Ralph Wardlaw (1779-1853) and Thomas Pringle the poet (Chapter XLIII.) were among the foremost Scottish advocates of emancipation.

During the years 1808-13 the harvests had been almost uniformly bad, and when, after Waterloo,

prosperous years returned and foreign markets were opened to British buyers, the poorer classes were prevented from sharing in the advancing prosperity of the country by the importing price of grain being artificially raised from 66s. to 80s. per quarter. As Sir Henry Craik says: "An inflated agricultural prosperity was bolstered up by artificial legislative restrictions, already condemned by the most enlightened thinkers of the day." Thus the seeds of Radicalism were being unconsciously but surely sown by unenlightened rulers such as Lord Liverpool, who now reigned as Tory Prime Minister. The oppressed weavers and others began to combine to secure better wages and more favourable conditions of work. This was regarded as rebellion, and in 1817 the Habeas Corpus Act was suspended, while Government spies were employed to hunt out any existing germs of sedition.

Unconscious of the gathering discontent throughout his domains, the old king, who had long since ceased to take any intelligent interest in the affairs of his people, and who, in fact, had been insane for the last ten years of his life, passed away in January 1820.

He was succeeded by his son, who was crowned as George IV. The new king, who had acted as regent during his father's insanity, was already notorious on account of his flagrant immorality and general unworthiness for his high position. It might have been expected that on actually attaining the throne, and that in his fifty-eighth year, he should have shown signs of improvement; but there was no trace of any such tendency, and it was universally recognised that his attempts to divorce his queen on the ground of unfaithfulness constituted a glaring instance of "the pot calling the kettle black." The cause of Queen Caroline was championed by Lord Brougham with a whole-

heartedness and fearlessness which made him throughout this reign a popular idol. The death of the unhappy woman ended the scandalous story in 1821; yet in August 1822, when the king condescended to visit Scotland—the first royal visit for well-nigh two centuries—the fulsome displays of “loyalty” in his honour served to show how short is the public memory in its judgment of royal sinners. Leaving the “first gentleman in Europe” as unworthy of further attention, we return to his humble but intelligent subjects.

In 1820 excited meetings took place in Glasgow in sympathy with the riots of the Manchester working classes. Sixty thousand workers went out on strike, and a serious rising was kept under simply by a display of force in the shape of yeomanry and hussars. On 25th April 1820 a small body of Glasgow Radical weavers, numbering from thirty to fifty, and armed with pikes and other rude implements of warfare, set out towards Carron. They were under the command of Andrew Hardie, who had been led to believe, by Government agents such as King and Richmond, that a force of some hundreds was to join the “insurgents” at Condorrat on the way, and that the workmen at Carron were prepared, on their arrival, to seize the works and provide the weavers with arms and ammunition. At Condorrat the little force was joined only by a villager named John Baird, King giving a plausible story to explain away the non-appearance of the expected contingent. Arriving at Bonnymuir, a bleak district to the west of Falkirk, the small band was met by a detachment of yeomanry and hussars. Taking their post behind a dyke, the Radicals kept the enemy at bay for some time, until the horsemen came round in their rear. A few of the combatants on each side were wounded, and nineteen of the “rebels” were

captured. In July the prisoners were tried on the charge of "levying war, and compassing to levy war against the king, in order to compel him to change his measures." All were condemned; and while the others escaped with transportation for life, Baird and Hardie were sentenced to be hanged at Stirling on 8th September, and to be afterwards beheaded. They behaved like heroes, singing shortly before their death Addison's hymn, "The hour of my departure's come." Hardie prayed for "a speedy deliverance to his afflicted country," and hailed the scaffold as a "harbinger of eternal rest." Riots took place in the same year at Stirling, Paisley, Ayr, and Dumbarton, and twenty-four death sentences in all were pronounced, although the only man actually executed besides Baird and Hardie was a Strathaven weaver named James Wilson, hanged at Glasgow in August. Wilson, like the two others executed, had been trapped by spies into an appearance of taking part in rebellion. Numerous Radicals suffered imprisonment and transportation, and the despair of the common people in regard to reform found vent in such effusions as the "Bonnymuir" ballad by a weaver of Haggis, near Kilsyth:

"How long shall these Tyrants usurp over Freedom?
 How long shall we groan in their vile, servile chains?
 Rise up indignant, and sink them like Sodom,
 Ere sad desolation reigns over our plains.
 Muse on the days when great Wallace was rearing
 The broadsword of Scotland, when Tyrants were fearing:
 At the blast of his trumpet were thousands appearing,
 To die or to conquer on dark Bonnymuir."

Regarding this "Battle of Bonnymuir," John Bright, in 1868, wrote as follows: "A darker page in our history is scarcely to be found. The ministers who sent Hardie and Baird to the scaffold, and

Richmond who betrayed them to their death, were infinitely more guilty than the men they legally murdered." He proceeds to say: "Scotland is now the surest home of freedom in the three kingdoms. If England, Wales, and Ireland were as intelligent and incorrupt as Scotland, we might have the best Government in the world."

In 1827, Lord Liverpool was struck down with apoplexy, and the old Toryism which he so fitly represented gave way to the saner Conservatism of Canning, who unfortunately was cut off by death after a few months of office.

A new ministry was formed by Sir Robert Peel and the Duke of Wellington, who in 1829 passed the Catholic Emancipation Act, for which justice had so long waited. Roman Catholics were now admitted to both Houses of Parliament, and by 1858 the House of Commons was opened to Jews, while in 1886 an atheist was for the first time admitted. One of the most strenuous advocates of Catholic Emancipation had been Joseph Hume (1777-1855), a native of Montrose, at that time member for Aberdeen, and one of the foremost of the "Philosophic Radicals." Throughout his parliamentary career, Hume by constant vigilance prevented the wasting of public money on anything savouring of political bribery.

The reign of George IV. saw an end of the mercenary practices of the "Resurrectionists," who disinterred recently buried bodies in order to sell them as anatomical subjects for surgeons. This gruesome trade had gone on sporadically for about half a century, and it has left its record to the present day in the iron grave-cages and the watch-houses still to be seen in many old churchyards. A climax came in 1829, when it was discovered that two Irishmen, William

Burke and William Hare, resident in Edinburgh, had not only "resurrected" bodies, but had for two years at least carried out a series of systematic murders, selling the bodies to Dr. Robert Knox. Hare turned king's evidence; and while Burke was hanged, his partner is believed to have died, a blind beggar, in London about a generation later. In 1832 a "British Anatomy Act" provided for the necessary supply of bodies for scientific purposes without the unholy accompaniments of the former practice.

Before leaving the reign we may remark that 1826 was long remembered as the year of the "short corn," a phenomenon due to a long and unusually dry summer.

George IV. died in January 1830, and was succeeded by his brother William, who, in spite of his early looseness of life, was generally welcomed for his bluff manners and hailed as the "sailor-king."

From the Scottish point of view William is notable as the first monarch who affixed an erroneous numeral to his title. It will be remembered that William of Orange was crowned as William III. of England and II. of Scotland. Had the two kingdoms remained apart, the new king ought to have been termed IV. of England and III. of Scotland, but as both kingdoms had been merged in the new Kingdom of Great Britain his proper designation should have been William I. The error in the title of William IV. passed almost unchallenged in Scotland, as the monarchy in those days of apparently impending revolution throughout Europe seemed scarcely worth ten years' purchase.

As to the tone of William's court it is enough to say that it was not essentially better than that of his brother George. The fourth son of George III., the Duke of Kent, had died in 1819, and his little daughter,

afterwards Queen Victoria, was wisely brought up by her mother in seclusion from the court. Justin M'Carthy says: "There was enough in the court of the two sovereigns who went before Queen Victoria to justify any strictness of seclusion which the Duchess of Kent might desire for her daughter. No one can read even the most favourable descriptions given by contemporaries of the manners of those two courts without feeling grateful to the Duchess of Kent for resolving that her daughter should see as little as possible of their ways and their company."

Such was the home-life, and such the character, of the "sailor-king"; yet it was in his reign that the most momentous steps in the direction of political reform were successfully taken.

A Whig ministry under Earl Grey, with Brougham as Lord Chancellor, Francis Jeffrey as Lord Advocate, and Henry Thomas Cockburn (afterwards Lord Cockburn, 1779-1854) as Solicitor-General, came into power in 1830, and set itself to take up the question of reform where Muir and others had left it well-nigh forty years before. The state of corruption in political affairs up to this period baffles description. The people of Britain had no influence in the Government of the country, which was well described by a Kilmarnock weaver as "a usurped oligarchy, who pretend to be our guardians and representatives, while in fact they are nothing but our inflexible and determined enemies." In England 300 of the members of Parliament were returned by 160 persons, while Leeds, Birmingham, and Manchester had no representative at all. Some of the seats were openly sold to the highest bidder. In Scotland matters were not much better. Tradition tells how Buteshire had only a single voter, who at the election took the chair, proposed his own

return, voted for himself, and announced that he had been unanimously elected. Out of a population of two and a half millions there were scarcely more than 3000 voters in Scotland. Edinburgh had one member, elected by about thirty voters out of a population of 150,000. Glasgow, Rutherglen, Renfrew, and Dumbarton had one member among them! There is little wonder that Scotland was emphatically in favour of reform.

The first Reform Bill, drafted by Cockburn, and introduced by Lord John Russell in 1831, was wrecked on matters of detail. A new election gave a safe majority for reform, but now the Lords practised obstructive tactics, and only after the fourth introduction of the Bill, followed by a threat from Earl Grey to create enough new peers to outvote the obscurantists, did the measure become law. A hundred Tory peers, among them the Duke of Wellington, absented themselves from the House to allow of the inevitable triumph of their opponents. The English Bill passed in June 1832. The Scotch Bill, drafted by Lords Jeffrey and Cockburn, followed in July. The real occasion of these measures was the rise of the commercial class, with its powerful interests.

The Bill gave the middle classes, and the great new towns, for the first time a real voice and weight in Parliament. The county franchise was greatly liberalised, while the burgh vote was obtainable by a yearly rental of £10. Glasgow and Edinburgh got two members each, while Aberdeen, Dundee, Greenock, Paisley, and Perth were each accorded one representative. The total number of Scottish members was raised to fifty-three (an increase of eight). In 1868 this number was further raised to sixty, and in 1885 to seventy-two, the present number. Most subsequent franchise reforms

have been in the direction of lowering the necessary money qualification in order that the working classes, as well as the middle and commercial class, might gradually acquire a voice more in keeping with their numbers and importance.

The autumn elections of 1832 on the new franchise basis sent the Reform party back to power with a majority still referred to as a record. Scotland sent forty-four Whigs and nine Tories.

In 1833 town councils were thrown open to popular election, and the old corrupt burgh government immediately disappeared. In the same year a beginning was made with police organisation.

In 1832, Scotland suffered, like the rest of Britain, from the dread scourge of cholera, now, thanks to improved sanitation, an unknown visitant.

William died in June 1837, and as he left no legitimate offspring, the next heir to the throne was his niece Victoria.

We cannot close the review of this period without a reference to the Highland "clearances." We have already (Chap. XXV.) referred to the formation of sheep-farms in the Highlands owing to the development of the wool industry. This began about 1763, and in itself was a laudable enough enterprise if it had been carried out with a just regard for the feelings and interests of the inhabitants. But a fatal revolution had taken place in the character of the landlords and in their attitude towards the Highland peasants.

Until the Jacobite wars a Highland chief was not regarded as a proprietor of land. He was simply the tribal head of the population which occupied a certain district, and to which the land in the last resort belonged. After 1746, however, the chieftain came to be reckoned

as a landed proprietor, and Government confirmed him in his possession as the price of his loyalty. In most cases he learned to cultivate town society, and ceased to act as the father of his clan. Hence sprang the indifference with which these newly endowed potentates began to regard the populace of the Highlands, and the callousness with which they acted towards their humble countrymen when opportunities arose to make heavy profits out of their land by removing the inhabitants. We have seen the beginnings of this displacement of population in the end of the eighteenth century owing to the high prices offered by sheep-farmers. The movement assumed more serious proportions in the nineteenth century, and it became no unusual thing in the Highlands and islands to see a deserted village, with the houses ruthlessly ruined beyond the possibility of habitation, and with perhaps one or two aged people, too old and frail to be removed, dragging out their last days,—the sole survivors of a once happy community now deported across the seas to make room for sheep.

The most notorious case was that of the "Sutherland Clearances," where hundreds and hundreds of houses, built by their sturdy occupiers, were burned, and whole districts were depleted of inhabitants. Towards the end of George III.'s reign, within a period of nine years, some 15,000 people were removed from the interior of Sutherland to the coasts, or had emigrated to America. For a time seaweed provided a living for those who had taken refuge in the coast-villages. "Kelp," the calcined ash of seaweed, was much in demand, as soda could be extracted from it and used in the manufacture of glass and soap. Potash and iodine were also obtained from kelp. But in 1822, owing to the repeal of the duty on salt, and the con-

sequent cheapening of salt-made soda, the demand for kelp declined, and ruin fell once more upon Ross and Sutherland.

Professor Blackie puts the saddle on the right horse when he says: "The government of large Highland estates by absentee landlords, English commissioners, and Lowland factors, utterly ignorant of the language, the feelings, and the consuetudinary rights of the people from whom they draw their rents, is the form of economical administration naturally the best calculated to produce those harsh, inhuman, and impolitic agrarian changes commonly called the Sutherland Clearances."

Even a stout Tory like Sir Walter Scott protested against the insensate folly of depleting the Highlands of such excellent human stock. He declares that the policy "will one day be found to have been as short-sighted as it is unjust and selfish. Meantime the Highlands may become the fairy-ground for romance and poetry, or the subject of experiment for the professors of speculation, political and economical. But if the hour of need should come—and it may not perhaps be far distant—the pibroch may sound through the deserted region, and the summons will remain unanswered."

But two more generations had yet to pass ere the national conscience was aroused, and meanwhile many a Highland heart had to feel what Principal Shairp of St. Andrews (1819–85) so eloquently expressed:

"The milking's a' dune, high and low, thro' the Hielans,
The hills of the wild goats now ken them no more;
Hands that milked them are cauld, and the bonny blithe shielings
Are bourocks o' stanes, wi' rank nettles grown o'er.

The auld life is gone, root and branch; Saxon strangers
Hold a' the hill hirsels we ance ca'd our ain,

And the dun herds of deer, and the few forest rangers
On the Gael's noblest mountains are all that remain.

Brave hearts now are naught, gold is chieftain and master ;
What room in the land for puir bodies like me ?
It's time I were safe beyond dool and disaster,
Wi' the lave o' my clan, 'neath the auld rowan-tree."

CHAPTER XXXI

QUEEN VICTORIA'S REIGN TO THE CRIMEAN WAR.

“HER court was pure; her life serene;
God gave her peace; her land reposed;
A thousand claims to reverence closed
In her as mother, wife, and queen.”

TENNYSON.

ON the death of King William the crown passed to his niece, the Princess Alexandrina Victoria, the only daughter of the Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III. The young princess was now eighteen years of age, having been born at Kensington Palace on 24th May 1819. Her father had died when she was eight months old, but her mother had nurtured her with true German homeliness, while training her at the same time for the great task which was one day to devolve upon her, and taking care that she should be “bred a Briton.”

The accession of Victoria led to the severance of the thrones of Britain and Hanover, the laws of the latter kingdom forbidding a woman to reign. The Hanoverian crown fell to the lot of the queen's uncle, the Duke of Cumberland. It was in the end fortunate for Britain that her connection with the internal affairs of Germany was thus automatically severed, as the stirring of the national pulse in that country led in the course of Victoria's reign to one of the most striking examples of rapid imperial development that the world has ever seen. The young and growing power of Prussia was

in turn brought into sharp and successful conflicts with Denmark and Austria. Finally came the desperate struggle with France, in which Prussia was joined by the other German kingdoms, and in the course of which the essential unity of the German race came out so clearly as to bring about the union of Prussia, Saxony, Bavaria, and the minor states in the new and energetic German Empire (1871). Had the British royal family been directly interested in these eruptions, our country would almost certainly have been involved in the struggle in one form or another. As it was, the friendship of the French and British monarchs on the one hand, and the general sympathy of our nation with the Germans on the other, rendered our position during the Franco-German war one of considerable delicacy and difficulty.

The young queen's first public act was that of meeting the Privy Council and reading a declaration in which the following sentiments occurred: "This awful responsibility is imposed upon me so suddenly, and at so early a period of my life, that I should feel myself utterly oppressed by the burden were I not sustained by the hope that Divine Providence, which has called me to this work, will give me strength for the performance of it, and that I shall find in the purity of my intentions, and in my zeal for the public welfare, that support and those resources which usually belong to a more mature age and to long experience. . . . I shall steadily protect the rights, and promote to the utmost of my power the happiness and welfare, of all classes of my subjects."

She was proclaimed on 21st June 1837, and crowned in June of the following year. To the noble ideals expressed in her address the queen remained faithful throughout her long and eventful life. To

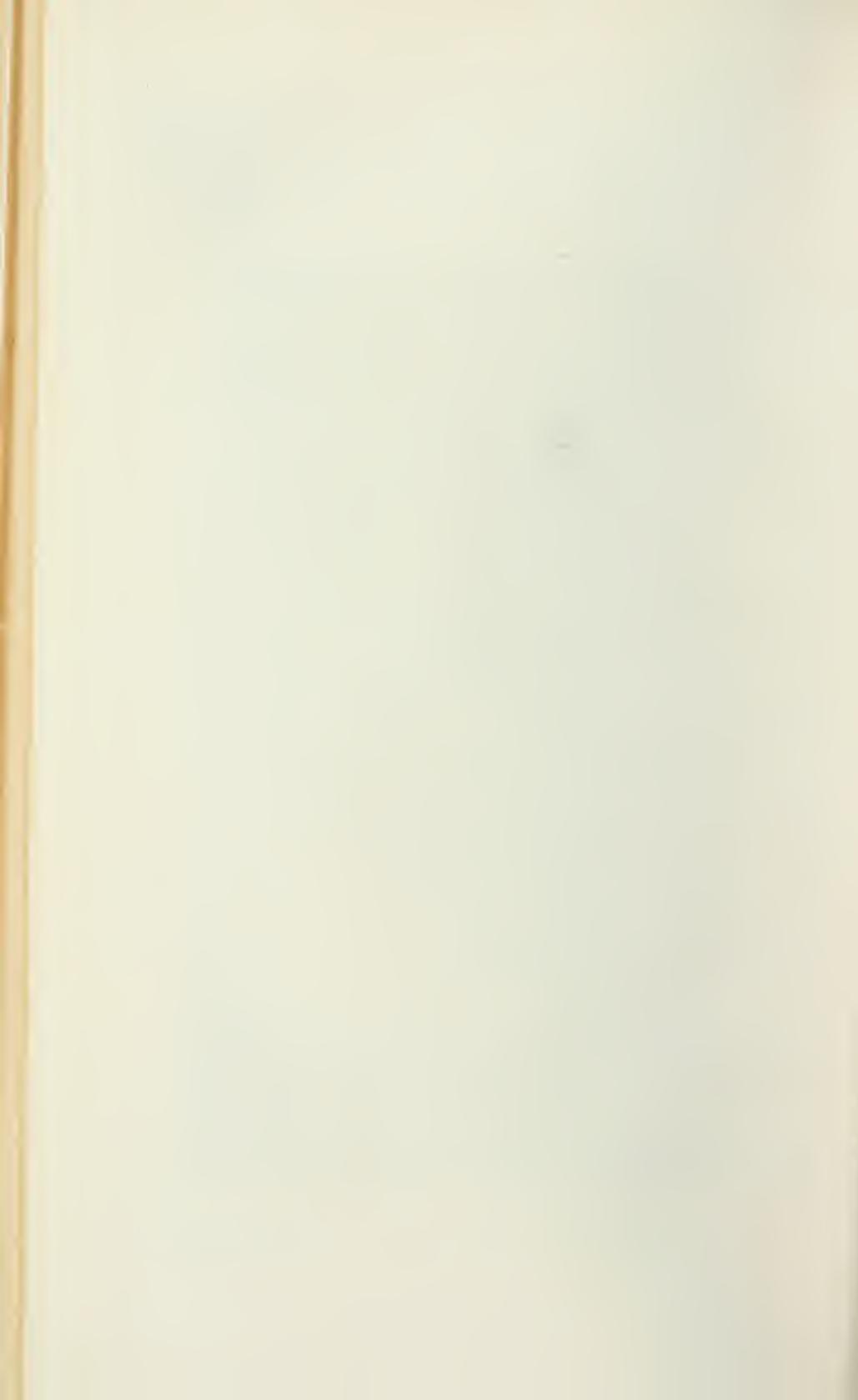


See *David White, Esq.*

THE FIRST COUNCIL OF QUEEN VICTORIA AT KESSINGTON PALACE, 20TH JUNE 1837.

P. 404.





describe her as "the most constitutional monarch Britain has ever seen," is but faint praise. She struck out a new ideal of monarchy, which the crowned heads of many other lands have striven to imitate, to the great comfort of their respective peoples. Grounded in religious piety, and centring in the practice of the domestic virtues, her character and conduct served as an ensample to her people and to the world of all that was best in womanhood, and of a devotion to public duty such as few monarchs in any country had ever shown. The result was to give a new lease of life to the monarchical principle in these islands. That principle, at her accession, seemed to have well-nigh reached its final term of existence; but her life and work, infusing new meaning and potentiality into the very idea of monarchy, surrounded the throne with a halo which will probably cling around her descendants for some generations to come.

The early years of the reign constituted a period of great political activity, and nothing but repeated measures of fiscal and electoral reform could have carried Britain safely and peacefully over an era during which almost every European country was in the throes of revolution. For about ten years onwards from 1838 the Chartist agitation flourished, and nowhere did it receive greater support than in Scotland, particularly among the weavers, who were at that time a strong political force. The six points of the People's Charter, visionary as they then seemed, have been in great measure adopted. Vote by ballot was secured in 1872. Suffrage is within measurable distance of being universal, while the case of women, unchampioned even by the Chartists, now receives serious consideration. "Equal electoral districts" have not yet been arranged, but many of the worst anomalies

have been removed. The property qualification for membership of Parliament has disappeared. Payment of members in some shape or form is probably only a question of time. The demand for "annual parliaments" has been universally abandoned as absurd.

The agitation against the corn laws, which artificially kept up the price of bread by taxing foreign grain in the interests of the British landlord, began at this same time to gather strength, and in 1838 seven Manchester merchants, chief among whom was Richard Cobden, founded the Anti-Corn-Law League, and henceforth Cobden and John Bright, as the leading exponents of the "Manchester School" of fiscal policy, exerted their powerful advocacy on behalf of Free Trade in food stuffs.

The Prime Minister at Victoria's accession was Lord Melbourne, to whom the queen was vastly indebted for excellent guidance in her new and difficult position. In the Opposition one of the most prominent members was the Duke of Wellington, whose high-toned patriotism put country above party, and helped to smooth over the rather awkward period of the first years of Victoria's reign.

In February 1840 the queen married Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, on whom the title of Consort was formally conferred in 1842, and that of Prince Consort in 1857. The marriage was founded on genuine affection, and, till his death in 1861, the prince showed rare tact in using the influence of his high position in the interests of all that makes for the betterment of a nation, while never presuming upon his power in any way calculated to offend the most jealous defenders of constitutionalism. Music and the fine arts found in him a warm friend, and the Great

Exhibition of 1851 was largely due to his initiative. To his influence is chiefly due the abolition of duelling in the army, while the numerous social reforms of the reign, especially those advocated by Lord Shaftesbury, met with his cordial approval and help.

In September 1842 the queen and Prince Albert paid their first visit to Scotland, and that part of her realms was henceforth regarded by Her Majesty with an unfeigned affection which had its full counterpart in the responsive loyalty of her Scottish subjects. She described her "beloved Scotland" as "the proudest, finest country in the world," and for the first time since the Union of the Crowns, Scotland now enjoyed the privilege of frequently having her monarch in friendly residence within her borders. Balmoral estate was purchased in 1852, by advice of Sir James Clark, the queen's Scottish physician; and between 1853 and 1856 the queen's Highland home, the new castle of Balmoral, was erected.

In the Deeside district the queen loved to visit the peasantry, and she and her husband indulged in healthful outdoor enjoyments. The respect she gained through her happy and kindly intercourse with the humble folks of the locality was added to by her attendance at the little parish church of Crathie. Here it was that she first met, in October 1854, Dr. Norman Macleod, who became in later years so valued a friend and adviser.

The queen's visit to France in 1843 was the first official visit of a British sovereign to that country since the days of Henry VIII. of England and of Mary, Queen of Scots, while the return visit of Louis Philippe in the following year was the first of its kind.

At the General Election of 1841, the Chartists helped to throw Melbourne out of power as a protest against the refusal of the Liberal party to proceed with

any drastic reforms. Sir Robert Peel came into power at the head of a Protectionist Government, the Tory majority at the General Election being seventy-six. In the following year Peel tried to stave off Free Trade by making reductions in the tariffs, which were imposed according to the "sliding scale." To make up for the consequent loss of revenue, he instituted an income tax of sevenpence a pound, the queen subjecting her own income to the tax. Where the arguments of reformers had failed, however, the logic of events proved conclusive. The potato failure of 1845, and the consequent famine, particularly in Ireland, and in the Highlands of Scotland, added new impetus to the demand for cheap grain, and Peel now (in January 1846) confessed himself to be convinced of the necessity for that reform. With the help of Lord Aberdeen and Mr. Gladstone he carried the Repeal of the Corn Laws through the House of Commons in May, and next month, under the influence of the Duke of Wellington, the House of Lords allowed the measure to pass. Peel was soon afterwards driven from power by the opposition of his own party, and went out of office declaring: "I shall leave a name execrated by every monopolist; but it will be remembered perhaps with expressions of gratitude by the poor, to whom I have given untaxed food." When a Whig ministry under Lord John Russell succeeded to power in 1846, Peel patriotically supported their Free Trade policy till his death in June 1850.

Referring to the political effects of the potato disease, which proclaimed its presence in the form of iron-tinted specks, Hugh Miller says: "The old soothsayers professed to read the distress of the future on very unlikely pages, in the meteoric appearances of the heavens and the stars, in the flight and chirp-

ing of birds, in the entrails of animals. But who could ever have been so shrewd as to have seen in the grouping of the iron-shot specks of these spotted tubers Lord John Russell's renunciation of the fixed duty, the conversion to Free Trade principles of Sir Robert Peel, the breaking up of the old Protectionist party, and in the remote distance the abolition in Scotland of the law of entail?"

In the end of July 1846 the Irish potato crop was hopelessly blighted within a week. Relief works were started, chiefly in road-making; but these unfortunately, instead of permanently helping to raise the country, encouraged half the population to depend on charity or on public grants, which were lavishly doled out. Before matters resumed their normal course, Ireland had lost two millions of her population through famine, disease, and emigration.

In the Highlands and islands of Scotland, where the potato at this time was a staple article of food, distress was also widely prevalent, in some districts to a degree scarcely less severe than in Ireland; but the sufferers were there dealt with less generously in proportion as their clamour was less loud.

In 1845 poor laws were passed for Scotland, which made more ample provision for the destitute poor, who had hitherto depended mainly on charity and on the efforts of the Church. The passing of the Poor Law was in a sense an indirect result of the Disruption (Chapter XXXV.), as the division of responsibility between the two great Presbyterian Churches in Scotland rendered State intervention advisable. While the non-able-bodied poor have thus to some extent been provided for, it remains the duty of the State to remove the stigma of disgrace which still attaches to the poorhouse system. The honest poor, who even by industry have failed to

make provision for old age, merit better consideration than that which they have hitherto shared with the shiftless and the thriftless pauper. The scheme of old-age pensions, which has come into force in 1909, will remedy this grievance to a great extent, and will doubtless be followed by further measures for the relief of deserving aged people.

The years 1847-49 were a time of political ferment throughout the whole of Europe; and thousands of foreign political refugees found a home in Britain. In France the Orleans family was driven out, and a Republic proclaimed, which, however, was upset by the plot of Louis Napoleon, culminating in the massacres of December 1851, and his assumption of the title of Emperor Napoleon III. in the following year. The Emperor of Austria had to resign his throne in favour of his nephew; the King of Bavaria suffered a similar fate; the King of Prussia reigned at the dictate of his subjects, while the Pope fled from Rome. Spain and Hungary were in a state of turmoil. It was scarcely to be expected that Britain would come through such a period entirely without disturbance, yet her trials were of a comparatively trifling kind.

In March 1848, Glasgow was the scene of riots involving some 10,000 men. These were professedly "bread-riots," but were in reality carried out chiefly by rogues and loafers, who mustered on the Green, and proceeded to ransack shops, and to attempt to wreck factories and to empty the jails. A force of 2000 soldiers, hurriedly marched into the city by Sheriff Sir Archibald Alison, soon suppressed the rising, two or three lives being lost in the course of the proceedings.

A monster Chartist procession was announced to take place in London on 10th April, but proved a fiasco owing to the skilful dispositions of the Duke

of Wellington as commander-in-chief of the army. Threatened risings in Ireland came to nothing, the death of Daniel O'Connell in May 1847 having left the Repeal Association without an efficient leader.

In 1848 and 1849, Scotland suffered severely from cholera, thousands of deaths occurring; and the calamity was the more keenly felt, following as it did on the destitution experienced in the two previous years owing to the potato failure. The Scottish Churches, on their appeal for a public humiliation, received from Government a wholesome lecture, pointing out that such visitations should not be regarded as a scourge from Heaven except in so far as they were the natural retribution for neglect of God's laws of nature in such matters as sanitation. "When man has done his utmost for his own safety," wrote Lord Palmerston, "then is the time to invoke the blessing of Heaven to give effect to his exertions."

On Saturday, 17th July 1849, owing to an alarm of fire, a panic occurred in Alexander's Theatre in Dunlop Street, Glasgow, and in the stampede that followed sixty-five persons lost their lives.

The long-promised visit of the queen with her husband and family to Ireland was paid in the autumn of 1849, Cork, Waterford, Dublin, and Belfast each receiving the royal party with displays of enthusiasm which, as the queen herself wrote, "made a never-to-be-forgotten scene, when one reflected how lately the country had been in open revolt and under martial law." Her second visit to Ireland took place in August 1853, on the occasion of the Dublin Exhibition, and her third in 1861; but from that time till her visit when nearing the end of her long life, Ireland suffered a most inexplicable neglect in this regard. Out of her reign of sixty-three years the queen spent in the aggregate

about a fortnight in Ireland! The Irish are essentially a chivalrous people, admiring and loving those who trust them in their wildest moments of lip-rebellion. Scotland's loyalty to the empire is more deeply rooted in logic and in self-interest than that of Ireland, and since even the hard-headed Scots so fully appreciated their queen's frequent visits, a similar royal treatment of the Irish people, with their childlike extremes of petulance and of sentimental regard, would doubtless have done much to remove from political life the ever-present spectre of the Irish Question.

In August 1850 the queen lodged for a time in the home of her Scottish ancestors at Holyrood Palace, Edinburgh. This year witnessed the completion of the railway between London and Edinburgh; and to mark the importance of this event, the queen ceremonially opened the railway bridge over the Tweed at Berwick.

In September 1850 the Pope established a hierarchy of bishops in England, dividing the country into dioceses, with an archbishop and twelve suffragans. This bold step was probably due to his exaggerated estimate of the influence of the Tractarian movement, whose baleful effects on the Protestantism of England are still so potent. The Pope's action was the occasion of much exaggerated panic, and of violent speeches at public meetings throughout England and Scotland. In 1878 the Pope extended his attentions to Scotland, and re-established a hierarchy there.

In May 1851 the Great Exhibition, projected by the Prince Consort, was opened at Hyde Park. It was visited by six million people, and realised a surplus of £250,000. For the rest, it neither justified the gloomy anticipations of those croakers who had predicted all sorts of evil results from the influx of foreigners, nor

introduced the era of universal peace, as some of its promoters had fondly hoped.

In the end of 1852, Lord Derby's short-lived ministry (February to December) fell, and the queen sent for Lord Aberdeen, who formed a coalition Government of Whigs and Peelites, including Russell, Palmerston, Gladstone, and the Duke of Argyll. George Hamilton Gordon, fourth Earl of Aberdeen (1784-1860), was the first Scotsman to hold the high office of Premier since Lord Bute's short tenure of office ninety years before.

The Temperance cause was now making headway in Scotland, the first associations for this purpose being those of Maryhill and Greenock. In 1844 the Scottish Temperance League had been founded at Falkirk, and in 1853 an effort was made to apply some check to Scotland's greatest curse, the drink traffic. The Forbes Mackenzie Act closed the public-houses on Sundays, and restricted the hours of business to the period from 8 a.m. to 11 p.m. daily. This Act was the work of William Forbes Mackenzie (1807-62), member of Parliament for Peeblesshire. Public opinion in general has gradually become more sane in regard to drinking customs. The blatant conviviality of former days has been banished from the more respectable strata of society, and the drink habit has come to be regarded as a badge of degradation. The public opinion of Scotland has now long been ripe for further reform in the licensing laws and in the regulation of this scandalous traffic, but so far her desires have been thwarted by English and Irish votes at Westminster.

We are now brought to the beginning of the great wars of the Victorian period, the first of which occurred in that vexed corner of Europe known as the "Near East." In October 1853 jealousies, quarrels, and re-

criminations between Turkey and Russia, and in particular the Russian claim to the protectorate of the Greek Church in Turkey, ended in a mutual declaration of war.

Since his seizure of the reins of power in France in 1851, Napoleon III. had coquetted with Britain, and by April 1854, France and Britain became the allies of Turkey in repelling what was then believed by both peoples to be the unwarranted aggression of Russia against a weaker Power. The subsequent conduct of Turkey has seriously shaken our confidence in the justice of the Crimean War, even Lord Salisbury declaring that we "put our money on the wrong horse." The theatre of the war was the Crimea, the great peninsula projecting into the northern part of the Black Sea, the main object of attack being the strongly fortified Russian port of Sebastopol.

In two respects the war was inglorious to Britain. The vacillating policy of the Government, with Lord Aberdeen as Premier and Lord John Russell as Foreign Secretary, disgusted the country, while the inaction of the leading British generals, headed by Lord Raglan, and the breakdown of the transport and commissariat arrangements for the troops, reflected adversely on army administration, and caused much unnecessary hardship and suffering to the soldiers.

In two other respects there is some cause to look back upon this desperate war with pride. The noble services of Miss Florence Nightingale on behalf of sick and wounded soldiers heralded the more humane spirit that has been infused into modern warfare, and gave decided impetus to the nursing of the sick in general, while the bravery of the common soldiers, and their patience in privation, carried the war to a successful issue, and showed that the hardy qualities of the

race had not deteriorated during a generation of comparative peace. In both respects Scotland fully did her part.

Among the ladies who nobly supported Miss Nightingale in her work of mercy were Miss Shaw Stewart, who had charge of the nurses in the general hospital at Balaklava, and Mrs. Mackenzie (daughter of Dr. Chalmers), and later Miss Erskine, in the naval hospital at Therapia. In the military sphere no battle was fought without adding laurels to the Scottish regiments, while the British officer who undoubtedly carried off the honours of the campaign was the gallant commander of the Highland Brigade.

Colin Campbell (1792-1863) was born in Glasgow. On enlisting, he assumed his mother's name, his father's name being Macliver. He had seen service in his teens in the Peninsula, being present at Vimiera, Corunna, Barossa, Vittoria, and San Sebastian. He had thereafter served at various times in United States, Demerara, China, Afghanistan, and India. His first great opportunity in the present war occurred at the battle of the Alma, on 20th September 1854. The allied forces, marching south towards Sebastopol, found their progress barred by a strong Russian force of nearly 40,000 men posted on the heights overlooking the southern bank of the river Alma, thirty miles from Sebastopol. The allied force numbered fully 60,000 men. The attack was begun by the French, who occupied the right flank of the allied army, nearest the sea. They soon called for support, and the allied centre, consisting of British regiments, now advanced across the river, and pushing their way uphill bravely stormed the Russian redoubt. They were, however, forced to retire owing to the deadly nature of the fire poured upon them by the part of the enemy's force

further up the hill. The British left was now brought into action as a last resort. The Grenadier Guards and Coldstream Guards regained the lost redoubt, and meanwhile the 42nd, 93rd, and 79th Highlanders, under Sir Colin Campbell, were steadily advancing uphill,—three battalions, and these only in line formation, marching to attack twelve Russian battalions massed on the slopes above! The calm order, "Forward, 42nd!" soon launched that regiment at the opposing Russians. The enemy tried to turn the left flank of the regiment, but at the critical moment the 93rd entered the conflict. When their left flank was similarly threatened, the 79th saved the situation, and the Russians were ere long in full retreat, having lost 6000 men as compared with 2000 British killed and wounded.

Kinglake, the historian of the Crimean War, gives the Highlanders their full meed of credit for this stirring victory: "The Highlanders being men of great stature, and in strange garb, their plumes being tall, and the view of them being broken and distorted by the wreaths of smoke, and there being, too, an ominous silence in the ranks, there were men among the Russians who began to conceive a vague terror—the terror of things unearthly, and some, they say, imagined that they were charged by horsemen, strange, silent, monstrous, bestriding giant chargers." He vividly narrates how the 79th crumpled up the Russian regiment that crossed its path: "Above the crest or swell of ground on the left rear of the 93rd yet another array of the tall bending plumes began to rise up in a long ceaseless line stretching far into the east, and presently, with all the grace and beauty that marks a Highland regiment when it springs up the side of a hill, the 79th came bounding forward. Without a halt, or



Robert Gibb, R. S. A.

THE TMS RED LINE.

By kind permission of Mr Archibald Ramsden, Proprietor of the Original Picture.

Photo by Emery Walter.

with only the halt that was needed for dressing the ranks, it sprang at the flank of the right Soudal column, and caught it in its sin,—caught it daring to march across the front of a battalion advancing in line!”

Well had the Highlanders answered Sir Colin's appeal, “Make me proud of my Highland Brigade!” As a token of their national pride in their general the Highlanders presented a bonnet to the hero, who in the hottest of the conflict had exclaimed, “We'll hae nane but Highland bonnets here!”

The victory of the Alma enabled the allies to march to the south-east of Sebastopol, and to take up a position near the port of Balaklava. The Russians, however, were so strongly placed that in October they were able to become for a time the attacking force, and on the 25th of that month the battle of Balaklava was fought. This engagement was fruitful in episodes which have impressed the imagination of subsequent generations.

The first of these was the stirring engagement between the Russian cavalry and the Highland infantry, so admirably depicted in Gibb's well-known battle-picture of “The Thin Red Line.” The Turkish outposts were scattered by four Russian squadrons, and fled helter-skelter towards the British lines. Sir Colin Campbell's quick eye perceived that a Russian charge by 1500 horsemen was about to fall upon his 93rd Highlanders, the only British infantry regiment on the field. “Now, men,” he exclaimed, “there is no retreat from here. You must die where you stand!” “Ay, ay, Sir Colin,” was the grim but ready response; “we'll dae that!” Two deep the Scotsmen held their ground, awaiting the furious onslaught of the cavalry.

Dr. Russell, the *Times* correspondent, relates how “with breathless suspense every one awaits the bursting

of the wave upon the line of Gaelic rock. But ere they came within two hundred yards a deadly volley flashes out from the levelled rifle and carries terror into the Russians. They wheel about, open files right and left, and fly back faster than they came. 'Brave Highlanders, well done!' shout the spectators."

When questioned later as to his reasons for not altering the formation of his men, Sir Colin replied that, knowing the qualities of his Highlanders, he "had not thought it worth while."

The second episode was the irresistible charge of the British Heavy Brigade, when little over 300 Scots Greys and Enniskillen Dragoons charged uphill and dislodged nearly 2000 Russians, who had paused to reconnoitre before attacking the British. Victory was already assured to the Greys and their comrades when the arrival of other regiments completed the discomfiture of the Russians. It was now that Sir Colin, ever keenly observant of his countrymen's achievements, rode up to the Greys and, uncovering, exclaimed, "Greys, gallant Greys! I am sixty-one years old, and if I were young again, I should be proud to be in your ranks!"

Less important, though still more picturesque, was the famous charge of the Light Brigade, immortalised by Tennyson. The Russian army had drawn back after the two checks above mentioned, when, owing to a mistaken order, the British Light Cavalry Brigade charged down the valley against the whole Russian army, cutting down the Russian gunners, scattering several squadrons of cavalry, and then riding back, 198 men returning out of a total of 670. This brilliant but fruitless movement drew from General Bosquet the memorable criticism: "It is magnificent, but it is not war!"

In the battle of Inkermann (to the north of Sebastopol) on 5th November, the British force included the Coldstream Guards and the Scots Fusiliers. This was one of the hardest contested battles in our history, involving nine hours of close fighting, with so little manœuvring that it is known as "the Soldiers' Battle." Sixty thousand Russians had been successfully held at bay by about 7500 British and 6000 Frenchmen. In this engagement perished General Sir George Cathcart, who was to have succeeded Lord Raglan as commander-in-chief in case of emergency. The queen wrote to his widow: "Sir George died as he had lived, in the service of his sovereign and his country,—an example to all who follow him."

The troops suffered fearfully from the climate, from cholera, and from want of proper food and clothing, contractors in many cases having perpetrated most atrocious frauds at the expense of the poor soldiers. The medical staff was hopelessly insufficient. Out of our total loss of 20,656 men in this war, only 2598 perished in battle, the rest dying in camp or hospital. In January 1855, Lord Aberdeen's Government was forced to resign, a motion for the appointment of a commission of inquiry into the conduct of the war being carried by 305 votes to 148. Full investigation subsequently showed that the mismanagement of the war was more directly due to faulty military organisation and to inefficient subordinate officials than to any serious neglect on the part of the Aberdeen ministry. Meanwhile a Patriotic Fund was started by public subscription on behalf of sufferers by the war, and ere long it reached the figure of one and a half million pounds.

The new Premier was Lord Palmerston, Lords Derby and Russell having both failed to form a Cabinet.

His War Secretary was a Scot, Lord Panmure (Fox Maule), who had served twelve years in the Cameron Highlanders, and under whose direction the great Military Hospital at Netley was established, and other drastic measures were taken for the comfort and well-being of the national defenders.

Czar Nicholas died in March 1855, being succeeded by Alexander II. Lord Raglan succumbed to dysentery in June. He was succeeded by General Simpson, whose age and infirmity unsuited him for his heavy task, which by right of fitness should have fallen to Sir Colin Campbell.

Early in September 1855, Sebastopol fell.

In the same month, on the first anniversary of the Alma, Sir Colin assembled his men to receive the medals already awarded them. His speech to his troops should be studied by those who scoff at Scottish sentiment as "provincial" or "parochial," and deride it as if it were in some way inconsistent with loyalty to the empire. "Remember never to lose sight of the circumstance that you are natives of Scotland; that your country admires you for your bravery; that it still expects much from you; in short, let every one consider himself a hero of Scotland. . . . The fatigues and hardships of the past year are well known, and have greatly thinned our ranks since the day we scaled the Alma heights together. To that day Scotchmen can look with pride. For your deeds on that day you have received the marked encomiums of Lord Raglan, the thanks of the queen, and the admiration of all. Scotchmen are proud of you. I too am a Scotchman, and proud of the honour of commanding so distinguished a brigade."

General Simpson soon resigned, and once more Campbell was passed over, Sir William Codrington

being appointed to the supreme command in November 1855. Sir Colin paid a visit to Britain, and called on the queen, at whose request he returned to the seat of war, declaring that "if the queen wished it, he was ready to serve under a corporal."

Terms of peace were arrived at in March 1856. By the Treaty of Paris, the integrity of Turkey was guaranteed, the Black Sea neutralised, and the Danube opened to international trade. Britain had lost over 20,000 men; the French lost 60,000, while the Russians are believed to have lost close on half a million. Forty-one million pounds had been added to the British National Debt.

Before quitting the Crimea, Sir Colin assembled his three grand regiments for a last farewell, as he "was now old, and would not be called on to serve any more." Once more he was "parochial" as ever. "Our native land will never forget the name of the Highland Brigade. . . . A pipe will never sound near me without carrying me back to the bright days when I was at your head, and wore the bonnet which you gained for me, and the honourable decorations on my breast, many of which I owe to your conduct. Brave soldiers, kind comrades, farewell!"

Among the honours which were now bestowed on Sir Colin not the least valued was a sword of honour from his native city, which has seldom been slow to recognise genuine merit, even when, as in his case, passed over officially with very scant recognition.

Than the career of Campbell and his brigade in the Crimea no better illustration could be desired of the truths addressed by Sir E. Bulwer Lytton in January 1854 to the Edinburgh students: "It is not because Scotland is united with England that the Scotchman should forget the glories of his annals, or relax one jot

of his love for his native soil. I say this not to flatter you—I say it not for Scotland alone. I say it for the sake of the empire. For sure I am that if ever the step of the invader lands upon these kindred shores—there, wherever the national spirit is the most strongly felt—there, where the local affections most animate the heart—there will our defenders be the bravest.”

During the Crimean War, Admiral Sir Charles Napier (1786-1860), a native of Stirlingshire, and cousin of the conqueror of Scinde, was sent to the Baltic in charge of a British fleet. Although Napier had formerly won distinction in Portugal, and at the capture of Acre in Syria in 1840, he did nothing of note in Russian waters.

In June 1857 the Victoria Cross was instituted as a reward “for valour.” In the queen’s reign there was also instituted the Albert Medal for heroic actions at sea. Bravery at fires, mine explosions, and like catastrophes were included later as qualifying for the same award.

In 1857 the romantic marriages for which Gretna Green had long been famous were abolished, irregular marriages of the kind being henceforth possible only after twenty-one days’ residence in Scotland. As widespread misunderstanding prevails in regard to Scottish marriage laws, a word may here be said on the subject. It is quite true that in Scotland, even since 1857, an “irregular” marriage may take place, in theory at least, without the presence of either a minister or a registrar, and that this is not legally possible in any other European country, although a similar arrangement obtains in certain parts of the United States. But it must be remembered that the same condition of affairs prevailed in England until the passing of the Marriage Act of 1757. That Act insisted on the consent of the





FIELD MARSHAL LORD CLYDE
C. C. B. K. S. L.
DIED IN GLASGOW 28. OCTOBER 1862
THIS MEMORIAL
TO HIS DISTINGUISHED MILITARY SERVICES
IS ERECTED BY
HIS FELLOW CITIZENS
1862

Foley, Sculptor.

Photo by Annan & Sons.

LORD CLYDE'S STATUE, GLASGOW.

parents or guardians of the parties, the proclamation of banns, and the observance of a religious ceremony ; but as these restrictions have since then been so modified that a "regular" marriage can take place in England before a registrar, and without the presence of a clergyman, the difference between Scottish and English law is now mainly a question of nomenclature.

Much ignorant abuse or ill-informed ridicule has been aimed at the Scottish system, notably by Wilkie Collins in his story *Man and Wife*, which leads his readers to believe that in Scotland a marriage may be almost accidentally contracted, and that no escape from the married state remains to the innocent victims of the laxity of Scottish marriage forms. He and other writers conveniently ignore the essential fact that an "irregular marriage" cannot be constituted without the deliberate intention and unconditional assent of both parties to the nuptial union. Once constituted, the marriage binds the parties beyond recall, and legitimises any issue of the union. So seldom is the system abused that Royal Commissions have twice reported against any alteration of the Scottish law.

Even in the Gretna Green marriages, both parties usually signed a document declaring their acknowledgment of each other as husband and wife. This was done in the presence of two witnesses. The officiating individual—blacksmith, or whatever else he might be—then granted the lovers a certificate differing in no great measure from the regular "marriage lines."

CHAPTER XXXII

FROM THE INDIAN MUTINY TO THE SOUDAN WAR.

“PIPES of the misty moorland,
Voice of the glens and hills :
The droning of the torrents,
The treble of the rills !

Dear to the corn-land reaper
And plaided mountaineer—
To the cottage and the castle,
The piper's song is dear.
Sweet sounds the Gaelic pibroch
O'er mountain, glen, and glade ;
But the sweetest of all music
The pipes at Lucknow made.”

J. G. WHITTIER.

SIR COLIN CAMPBELL had returned from the Crimea believing that his life-work was done, but on 11th July 1857 the news of the Indian Mutiny reached Britain. Lord Palmerston sent for the veteran general (now sixty-five years of age) and appointed him commander-in-chief of the forces in India. On being asked when he could start, Sir Colin replied, “To-morrow” ; and he kept his word.

The causes of the mutiny were various, and Eastern affairs can never quite be explained by such matter-of-fact considerations as those which appeal to the Western mind. Vague and incorrect rumours as to the Crimean War had reached India, and to those natives who had imbibed the idea that a hundred years

from Plassey (1757) would see the end of British rule in India, it was natural that Britain's time of difficulty should appear to be India's opportunity. The greased cartridges supplied to the native troops for the Enfield rifle were regarded as an insult to Hindu and Mahomedan alike, and constituted a serious sentimental grievance. In the arrangement of natives into regiments, no account had been taken of the all-pervading Indian ideas of caste. Annexation had proceeded at a rapid rate for some years, and many districts had not had time to settle down under British rule or to learn any of its benefits.

But the prime reason for the mutiny was the culpable folly of keeping up a native army so many times more numerous than the white soldiers, outnumbering the latter by about seven to one. If opportunity makes the thief, it in this case made the rebel. Suddenly the white population in India was confronted with the fact that 100,000 square miles of country were in revolt, and that they had to face some 80,000 mutineers, a large proportion of whom were equipped with British arms. In all Northern India there were only some 20,000 white troops to restore the position in face of about two hundred millions of a population of varied races and religions. The task seemed obviously impossible, yet British pluck and determination, combined with certain fortunate circumstances, enabled the whites to emerge in the end with renewed prestige.

The commander-in-chief in India at this time was Sir Patrick Grant (1804-95), an Inverness-shire man, and to him fell the heavy task of directing the campaign against the rebels until the arrival of Sir Colin Campbell should transfer the work to still more capable hands. Grant was subsequently (in 1883) raised to the dignity of a field-marshal.

Lord Elgin, who had previously gained a high reputation as Governor-General of Canada, was on his way to China in 1857 as British plenipotentiary, but hearing at Singapore the dreadful news of the mutiny in India, he generously decided to waive his own interests in face of this greater crisis, and diverted his troops to India. It is gratifying to know that this noble scion of the Bruces successfully completed his Chinese task in the following year, and became Governor-General of India in 1861.

A rebellious spirit had been noticed among some of the native troops as early as March 1857, and three regiments had been quietly disbanded.

Open mutiny broke out on 10th May at Meerut, the largest military station in Northern India. The white officers, with their wives and children, were murdered, and when the mutineers marched to Delhi and proclaimed the old King of Delhi as emperor, that important city became one of the main centres of rebellion. At various military stations Europeans were slain, and but for the attitude of the Sikhs, who remained loyal, matters in the north-west would have been desperate indeed. In August, Brigadier-General John Nicholson (a native of Dublin, but of Scottish descent) arrived at Delhi from the Punjab, and after a week's hard fighting in the streets, the city was regained for the British on 20th September, and the Mogul (or emperor) himself was captured. Nicholson, to whose courage and spirit the capture of the city was due, received his death-wound in the struggle.

The principal British general within striking distance at the outbreak of the mutiny was Sir Henry Havelock, who had returned to Bombay from Persia, where with the 78th Highlanders he had conducted a successful expedition. Sailing at once for Calcutta, he

hurried inland to Allahabad, which Colonel James G. Neill (a native of Ayr) had managed to hold as a solitary British outpost. There Havelock was able to muster a thousand men, his right-hand supporters being the 78th, who had now to endure a July campaign in India in the same heavy kilted garb as had served them through a Persian winter.

Leaving Allahabad on 7th July, the little force pushed on through bitterly hostile country towards Cawnpore, which they reached, after hard fighting, in little over a week. There they found that the gallant garrison had been forced, after a three weeks' defence, to surrender to Nana Sahib on terms which he at once brutally violated. Of the four hundred and fifty who surrendered, all had been massacred with the exception of four men, who escaped by swimming the river. The irony of the situation was that Nana Sahib had been summoned to Cawnpore by General Wheeler's appeal to him for help! The scene that now met the soldiers' eyes at the well of Cawnpore, the mutilated bodies of women and children cast into one ghastly heap, made those men of iron weep "like bearded babes."

But there was little time to waste on tears; they must push on to Lucknow, through fifty miles of hostile country, lest its defenders should have met a similar fate. Sir Henry Lawrence, the British commander at Lucknow, had been killed by a shell on 4th July, and the garrison was now in charge of Sir John Inglis. Havelock advanced down the Ganges valley in the beginning of August; but although he fought in all eight successful battles, the smallness of his force, and the want of cavalry, compelled him reluctantly to fall back once and again, until at last he was joined by Sir James Outram, his superior in rank, who generously

allowed Havelock to retain the supreme command, that the glory of the relief might be his.

The joint commanders again advanced, and on 25th September, at the end of four days of constant fighting, in which the Highlanders lost a third of their number, together with Colonel Neill, they succeeded in effecting an entrance to the town. Well might the brave garrison rejoice—

“Saved by the valour of Havelock : saved by the blessing of Heaven!
‘Hold it for fifteen days!’ We have held it for eighty-seven!”

The gallant 78th, the “Ross-shire Buffs,” had earned for themselves the title “Saviours of India.” Their valour had been such that from among the many who had deserved the Victoria Cross the regiment had to select by their votes a limited number to receive the coveted reward!

But while the situation at Lucknow was thus momentarily saved, the relief could not be considered complete. In fact the relievers, though they had meanwhile saved British prestige, simply swelled the numbers of the besieged. By the middle of November, however, Sir Colin Campbell himself arrived before Lucknow with a force of infantry, cavalry, and artillery, numbering 3000 men. Opposed to these, 100,000 rebels, mostly our own trained Sepoys, are calculated to have been now massed. In the operations that took place before his successful entry into the city, and in the savage hand-to-hand fighting through street after street, the 93rd Highlanders bore the brunt of the strife. Having joined the garrison on 17th November, Sir Colin still had to face the task of withdrawing the whole of the white population from Lucknow. Under cover of a skilful feigned attack on the city itself he succeeded, between 19th and 22nd November, in removing the

whole garrison, together with the women and children. The national joy at this triumph of British skill and endurance was tempered by the news of the brave Havelock's death from dysentery on 24th November.

Early next month Sir Colin, along with Sir Hope Grant, pushed on to Cawnpore, and arrived just in time to extricate General Windham from an almost hopeless position.

Dr. W. H. Russell, the famous *Times* correspondent (knighted in 1895), tells how Sir Colin remarked, at a review of his Highlanders: "The difficulty with these troops, Dr. Russell, is to keep them back: that's the danger with them. They *will* get too far forward."

In January 1858 the queen wrote a long letter of congratulation to Sir Colin, declaring that "the manner in which he has conducted all these operations, and his rescue of that devoted band of heroes and heroines at Lucknow, which brought comfort and relief to so many, many anxious hearts, is beyond all praise. . . . But Sir Colin must bear one reproof from his queen, and that is, that he exposes himself too much; his life is most precious, and she entreats that he will neither put himself where his noble spirit would urge him to be, foremost in danger, nor fatigue himself so as to injure his health."

Mr. Cromb, in *The Highland Brigade: Its Battles and Its Heroes*, commenting on the fact that the Highland officers never refused to share the dangers which the rank and file were called on to endure, proceeds to say: "It is this quality which gains the Highland soldier's heart, and makes him the obedient slave of the man he follows. It was this feature of Sir Colin Campbell's leadership that endeared him to all ranks—and notably the Highlanders. With them he could lie down on the bare ground, his cloak for his covering, his saddle

for his pillow. With them he could go into battle unbreakfasted, and with them brave the storm of the enemy's fire. And when the severe tension of duty was for the day or the hour relaxed, he could pass a joke, not only with the aspiring subaltern, but with the humblest in the ranks."

During the subsequent operations of the war, while Sir Colin was engaged in other districts, Lucknow became a gathering-ground for the disaffected from all parts. In March 1858, Sir Colin returned to the attack, and after successfully storming the city he gave full permission to the Sikhs and Gurkhas to ransack its wealth at will. Before the end of 1858 he was able to announce that "the resistance of 150,000 armed men had been subdued with a very moderate loss to Her Majesty's troops, and the most merciful forbearance towards the misguided enemy." Towards the close of the mutiny, much brilliant military work was done in Central India by Sir Hugh Rose (1801-85, afterwards Lord Strathnairn), who had practically to reconquer all that vast district, and who later succeeded Sir Colin as commander-in-chief in India. This notable general was born in Berlin, but was of Highland lineage.

At the close of the campaign, Sir Colin was made a peer, and having no land to call his own, he chose the title Baron Clyde of Clydesdale. Next year he received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament, with a pension of £2000. In 1862 he was honoured with the rank of field-marshal, and in the following year the remains of this most gallant of modern Scottish warriors were laid to rest in Westminster Abbey. His career is the most outstanding example in the annals of the British Army of a soldier rising absolutely from the ranks to the highest position by sheer talent and force of character,

without the help of money or friends, and in spite of aristocratic intrigue and opposition.

The Indian Mutiny cost the Government of India about forty million pounds, and it is estimated that rebels to the number of 100,000 must have perished from war and hardship. The proportion of coloured to white troops was now made three to one, and has since been still further reduced. Our Indian Army now consists of about 70,000 British troops, and 150,000 natives, the latter being selected for the most part from the more warlike strains of the population. The government of India was in September 1858 removed from the control of "John Company," and placed under a viceroy representing the Crown. The viceroy must reside in India, and he has the assistance of an executive and legislative council. Madras and Bombay have each a governor sent from Britain, together with a council, while Bengal has a lieutenant-general besides the viceroy or governor-general.

In 1857 a financial disaster occurred in Scotland in the failure of the Western Bank. In spite of this event, and the failure of the City of Glasgow Bank fully twenty years later, Scottish banking is still regarded as a model of business capacity and rectitude, and Scotsmen are to be found in the highest positions in banking establishments in England and the Colonies.

In October 1859 the Glasgow water-works were opened by the queen, and constituted an object-lesson to the whole United Kingdom. The water was brought from Loch Katrine, thirty-five miles distant—thirteen miles of tunnelling, and ten miles of aqueducts, being involved. The water is of a purity that puts to shame the best devices of filter-mongers. The scheme was carried through at a prime cost of well over a million

pounds, and this sum may now be multiplied at least by seven to cover all the outlay on subsequent improvements. The average amount of water now supplied to Glasgow is over sixty million gallons per day.

In 1859, owing to the blustering tone of the French, or at least of their emperor, the Volunteer force, which had been first raised for a similar reason in 1852, was embodied on a permanent footing. Its motto was, "Defence, not defiance." Within a year 200,000 men had been enrolled. Great reviews were held by the queen in person at Hyde Park and in the Queen's Park, Edinburgh. The former took place in June 1860, and the latter, attended by 22,000 volunteers, on 7th August of the same year. Regarding the Scottish review Her Majesty wrote: "It was magnificent—finer decidedly than in London. There were more men, and the scenery here is so splendid. That fine mountain, Arthur's Seat, was crowded with people to the very top, and the Scotch are very demonstrative in their loyalty." Scotland thus early took a leading part in the national Volunteer enthusiasm, and until the merging of the Volunteer force in the Territorial Army in 1908, she continued to furnish more than double her quota of citizen-soldiers in proportion to her population. It is regrettable that here again Ireland remained the skeleton in the national cupboard, no Government considering it safe to embody a Volunteer force in that part of our realms.

In March 1861 the queen's mother (the Duchess of Kent) died, and in December of the same year the queen lost her beloved husband at the early age of forty-two. He had well earned the title of "Albert the Good," and is with good reason believed to have cut short his life by an all too zealous devotion to the nation's welfare,—

“Not making his high place the lawless perch
 Of wing'd ambition, nor a vantage-ground
 For pleasure, but thro' all this tract of years
 Wearing the white flower of a blameless life.”

For some years the queen secluded herself almost entirely from public life; and when she lived down her great sorrow, and began once more to take a prominent part in national affairs, it was with a mellowed character that gained her not only the sympathy but the personal affection of the great body of her subjects. Her first public appearance after her bereavement was on the occasion of her unveiling the monument to Prince Albert at Aberdeen in October 1863.

During the American Civil War (1861–65), owing to the blockade of the southern ports and the general disorganisation of production, cotton was scarce; and Glasgow and Paisley, like Lancashire, suffered in consequence. Incidentally, however, an enormous impetus was given to the cotton industry in India. From three million pounds' worth in 1860, the export of raw cotton from India in 1866 rose to thirty-seven millions. At a time when our country in general gave no clear indication of any sympathy with the abolitionists in America, the Duke of Argyll was one of the most outspoken advocates of the cause of the North.

Lord Palmerston died in his eighty-first year in October 1865, being succeeded in the premiership by Earl Russell. In February 1866 the queen opened Parliament in person. In that year Fenianism became rampant in Ireland, and exercised a retarding influence on peaceful reform. In June 1866, Earl Russell was defeated on a new Reform Bill, and resigned, giving place to a Tory ministry under the Earl of Derby, who in 1868 resigned the premiership in favour of Mr. Disraeli.

In 1867 the ministry of Lord Derby and Mr.

Disraeli decided, in the expressive words of the latter, to "dish the Whigs," by introducing a Reform Bill, more liberal than that which the Whigs had failed to pass. The Bill granted household suffrage in burghs and a £12 franchise in counties. This measure did for the working class what the Act of 1832 had done for the middle class, by placing in its power some modicum of control over parliamentary affairs. In 1868 a Scottish Franchise Act gave the burgh franchise on the same terms as in England, namely, to all male householders who paid poor-rates. The county qualification was now £5 a year of clear annual value for proprietors, and £14 a year for occupiers. Seven extra members were given to Scotland by the disfranchisement of some small English boroughs. This raised the Scottish representation to sixty.

In December 1868, as the result of a General Election, the Liberals returned to power with a majority of about one hundred and twenty, and Mr. Gladstone now entered upon his first term of office as Prime Minister. William Ewart Gladstone (1809-98), though born in Liverpool, was the son of a Scottish merchant, Sir John Gladstone, who founded a large business in Liverpool. Sir John's father was a native of Biggar, who became a corn-merchant in Leith. Entering Parliament in 1832 as a Conservative, Mr. Gladstone gradually veered towards the opposite side of the House, and in Lord Aberdeen's coalition ministry of 1852 he served as Chancellor of the Exchequer. Three years later, under Lord John Russell, he became leader of the House of Commons.

His premiership (1868-74) was signalised by the disestablishment of the Episcopal Church in Ireland, and by the organisation of a national system of education in Great Britain.

The rapid advancement of Germany, together with other current events, had called the attention of the nation at large to the necessity for making systematic provision for the education of the young. England was in a deplorable state educationally. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, there were under 3400 schools, public or private, in the whole of England. By the middle of the century there were twelve times that number. In 1841, forty-one per cent. of persons undergoing the marriage ceremony were unable to sign their names. In 1849, instead of about three million children, only half a million attended school, and most of these for two years only.

In 1870 was passed the English Education Act, which provided for the establishment of School Boards in such places as were entirely unprovided for in educational matters. Unfortunately the English Church did not see fit to join the national system, and her insistence on dogmatic religious teaching has perpetuated in England the denominational spirit to such a degree as finally to give a Conservative Government a plausible excuse to declare the Board School system a failure, and to abolish School Boards. The future of English education is thus placed in a precarious position, and nothing could be more lamentable than the ticketing of children as belonging to this or that denomination at an age when the most elementary religious ideas have scarcely developed.

Scotland was by no means in such evil case as England. Knox's ideal of an education for every child had always remained an aspiration in Scotland, and the Revolution Settlement did much to convert his ideal into a reality. An Act of 1696 had imposed on heritors the duty of providing a school and a master for every parish. Though this duty was frequently

eluded, and though the schoolmasters were often the failures of other callings, and were wretchedly paid, the usual salary at the beginning of the nineteenth century being about £20 a year, yet the country had steadily aimed at a good-going national system, and as Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman once said: "The Scotch schoolmaster has done much to make the Scotch people what they are—even more than minister, laird, or farmer." In 1803 a statute provided for education in remote Highland districts. In 1826, David Stow set up a model school in Glasgow, and ten years later there was opened at Dundas Vale, Glasgow, the first Normal School and Training College in the United Kingdom. Stow's enthusiasm communicated itself to an ever-growing band of devoted teachers, and there are now eight training colleges in Scotland and thirty in England.

In 1839 the principle of giving government grants on the basis of inspection was instituted. In 1869 the Duke of Argyll endeavoured to establish a Scottish Education Board of ten members,—two representing the counties, two the burghs, two the universities, one the teachers, and three the Crown, but as usual Scotland had to wait, and in the end to fare worse. Her Education Act was framed in 1872 by Lord Advocate Young. It established School Boards, leaving to each Board the thorny question of religious instruction. To their lasting credit, the great Presbyterian Churches of Scotland loyally accepted the new system, and handed over their schools to the new bodies. Religious instruction was made as simple and undenominational as possible, although the use of the Shorter Catechism by many Boards still leaves it open for the opponents of a national system to assert (with how little truth they themselves are doubtless well aware) that our Scottish system is "denominational."

No fair-minded person can deny that the School Board system in Scotland has been a conspicuous success, and no government is likely, for a long time to come, to propose the abolition of the *ad hoc* School Boards, although the question of larger areas ought to have been dealt with ere now for the sake of secondary education. In Scotland at least, public opinion demands that education be treated apart from road-making and drainage. The blemish in our present system (which Argyll's proposals would have obviated) is the location of the Scotch Education Department (instituted in 1885) in London, and the unrestrained power placed in its hands. The fiction of "My Lords" no longer deceives any one, and changes of the most momentous kind are introduced at the fiat of the Departmental Secretary. Only the fact that the despotic power thus placed in the hands of one man has so far been used more or less benevolently has made the situation tolerable at all, and two reforms are urgently called for,—some measure of popular restraint on the "Department" which administers so much public money, and the abolition of the degrading arrangement by which every detail in the administration of Scottish education is dealt with in London.

The Act of 1872 rendered elementary education compulsory, and in 1889 it was made free. The more than princely gifts of Mr. Andrew Carnegie have rendered university education practically free to students of good ability, but much remains to be done in two branches of our national system. Firstly, the universities must be modernised, especially on the Arts side; and the present arrangement by which the more progressive universities are forbidden to reform themselves without the unanimous action of all four universities calls for abolition. The subsidising of

Greek in the bursary competitions, while not so benighted as the "compulsory Greek" of the older English universities, is un-Scottish and irrational. It is unworthy of universities which have so frankly and freely opened their classes and degrees to women students, in honourable contrast to the English universities where a woman may do the same work as a man without reaping the reward of a degree. At the time of writing (January 1909) it seems as if some hope may well be entertained of an early reform in the arrangements for the Arts Degree. In the second place, our secondary education sadly needs systematising; but here the schools, and strange to say the Education Department, which in this respect deserves much credit for its genuine efforts at reform, are nailed to the ground until such time as the universities receive and use greater freedom to reform their regulations and curricula. It seems as if some body truly national and truly representative ought to be appointed, which, while leaving the Department and the universities such freedom as is called for in their respective spheres, would exercise a genuine control over both, and thus render apparent the essential unity of all phases of Scottish education. What that body should be is a question for statesmen, but the need for it is only one aspect of the general need for national devolution, which will claim our attention in a later chapter.

In March 1871 the queen's daughter, Princess Louise, was married to the Marquess of Lorne,—an excellent and popular step in the direction of abolishing the foolish restrictions which were imposed on the royal family by George III. with such disastrous results on the morality of his own sons. This example was followed in the case of the marriage of the Duke of Fife to a daughter of the present king.

In 1872 the Ballot Act put an end to the old absurd system of nominating parliamentary candidates on the hustings, and protected voters from undue influence in the exercise of the franchise.

In 1873 affairs in West Africa called for action on the part of the British Government. The hinterland of our Gold Coast territory was invaded by three native armies from the interior, and in January 1874, Sir Garnet Wolseley landed at Cape Coast Castle with a force commissioned to punish King Coffee of Ashanti for attacking the British coast strip, and to put an end to the inhuman cruelties practised by the sable monarch upon his own subjects. Sir Garnet at once set out towards Kumasi, the native capital. The right wing of the British force, under the direction of Sir Archibald Alison, consisted primarily of the Black Watch. Sir Archibald (1826-1907) was born at Edinburgh, and was the son of Sheriff Sir Archibald Alison, the historian of Europe. He had served in the Crimea, and was Military Secretary to Sir Colin Campbell in the Indian Mutiny, losing his left arm at the relief of Lucknow.

At Amoaful, twenty miles from Kumasi, occurred on 30th January a combat lasting from 6 a.m. to 3 p.m., the British being outnumbered in the proportion of ten to one by an enemy ambushed in the thick tropical jungle. The British troops had to charge across the open, exposed to their invisible enemies, and in this nerve-trying contest the Black Watch gained new honours at the expense of one hundred killed and wounded. Sir Garnet reported: "Nothing could have exceeded the admirable conduct of the 42nd Highlanders, on whom fell the hardest share of the work."

In the operations of 4th February, leading up to the capture of Kumasi, the Black Watch so acted as to

draw from H. M. Stanley the most enthusiastic praise. "The conduct of the 42nd Highlanders on many fields has been considerably belauded, but mere laudation is not enough for the gallantry which has distinguished this regiment while in action. . . . The conduct of all other white regiments on this day pales before that of the 42nd." Kumasi was entered in the evening, King Coffee having meanwhile fled, and next month saw the British force home with its work accomplished.

In 1874, Mr. Gladstone, having been defeated on his Irish University Bill, appealed to the country, and a Conservative Government came into power with a majority of fifty. The Premier was Benjamin Disraeli (1804-81), who had succeeded Lord Derby in February 1868, and had held office till the Liberal victory of that year. He now remained in power for six years, being created Earl of Beaconsfield in 1876.

The year 1874 was signalised by the first appearance of two Labour members in Parliament, Thomas Burt and Alexander Macdonald (1821-81). Macdonald, who took his seat as M.P. for Stafford, was born near Airdrie, and was of Highland descent. He entered the mine at the age of eight, and became a miners' leader before attaining his majority. By 1848 he had saved sufficient money to enable him to study for two sessions at Glasgow University, after which he was for some years a teacher. To Macdonald, in his capacity as a Labour leader, is due the foundation of the Miners' Union in Scotland, and also of the Miners' National Union. It was largely owing to his efforts that the principle of arbitration in Labour disputes first came into practical operation.

In 1876 it was decided to add the title of Empress of India to the queen's designation. The formal proclamation of the title in India was made by Lord



W. Birnie Rhind, R.S.A.

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THE BLACK WATCH MEMORIAL, ABERFELDY.

Lytton at the great durbar held at Delhi on New Year's Day, 1877. From that year onwards a "forward" policy was entered upon in Indian matters generally, the guiding principle of the home Government, under Disraeli, being jealousy of Russia. Among other innovations a demand was made in 1878 that Afghanistan should receive a British Resident as a check upon any possible Russian intrigues; but the demand was not agreed to until May 1879, after a British expedition, including the 72nd Highlanders, had been sent into the country to enforce the British request.

In September of the same year Sir Louis Cavagnari, the British Resident, together with most of his officers, was murdered by the Afghans, and General Roberts at once set out for Kabul, with a force which included the 72nd and 92nd (Gordon) Highlanders.

Roberts reduced the Kabul district to quietude, but the disaster of the Maiwand Pass in southern Afghanistan in July 1880, and the investment of General Primrose's small force in Kandahar by Ayoob Khan, called for immediate action by Roberts in that district. He selected the 72nd and 92nd Highlanders and 60th Rifles, together with various Indian troops, his whole force numbering 10,000, and set out upon the arduous task of covering sixteen miles per day through a mountainous country swarming with brave enemies. His task was successfully performed after severe and almost continuous fighting lasting for three weeks. The duty of "rushing" the enemy's guns at Kandahar was assigned to the 92nd. In distributing medals at the close of the campaign the general remarked: "You may be assured that the very last troops the Afghans ever want to meet in the field are Scottish Highlanders and Gurkhas. You have indeed made a name for yourselves in this country,

and, as you will not be forgotten in Afghanistan, so, you may rest assured, you will never be forgotten by me."

These operations by Roberts were performed under the direction of General Sir Donald M. Stewart (1824-1900), a Scottish soldier of distinction, born at Forres, who now received the thanks of Parliament, and later (1880-5) became commander-in-chief of our forces in India. In the campaign of 1878-79, Stewart had personally conducted the force which captured Kandahar, while Roberts and Browne entered Afghanistan by other routes. He was made a field-marshal in 1894.

At home, three disasters of different kinds fall to be recorded.

The first of these brought home to the hearts of the nation the dangerous conditions under which our brave miners pursue their cheerless calling. On 22nd October 1877 occurred the dreadful Blantyre Colliery explosion, in which 218 men and boys lost their lives, leaving behind 106 widows and 300 orphans. Twenty-two lives were lost by another explosion in the same colliery in July 1879, and some years later, at Udston, near Blantyre, 73 lives were lost from a similar cause.

In October 1878 the City of Glasgow Bank suddenly stopped payment, its failure being due to reckless investments, especially in colonial speculations. Six directors and the managers were sentenced to terms of imprisonment, and ruin fell upon many shareholders. The loss to the country was reckoned at six millions sterling.

On the evening of Sunday, 28th December 1879, a heavy gale swept over the country. A portion of the Tay Bridge gave way, and a train was precipitated into the Firth, with the loss of over eighty lives. The bridge had been opened only in the previous year. In

1887 it was replaced by a new structure erected by Sir William Arrol.

In April 1880 the Liberals returned to power with a majority of 120, under Mr. Gladstone as Premier and Chancellor of the Exchequer. Serious trouble awaited them in South Africa. The Transvaal had been formally annexed to Britain in 1878, but in December 1880 the Boers proclaimed their independence, and war ensued.

The Boer War of 1881 is rendered memorable by one of the least creditable pages in our military records,—a page, like so many others, which tells of disaster invited by the criminal unfitness of our generals, and cleared of disgrace only by the dauntless bravery of our rank and file. On 27th February of that year the infatuation of Sir George Colley in attempting to hold a position with insufficient forces, and without even the glimmerings of common sense in his arrangements, left the shame of Majuba to be blotted out nearly a generation later. A detachment of the Gordon Highlanders shared in the general disaster, their position after the battle being marked by “a mass of blood and brains.” Among their officers were Hector Macdonald, who had just received a commission for his services in Afghanistan, and Ian Hamilton, who, after vainly suggesting sensible counsels to the general, was so severely wounded that his Boer captors let him go, on the ground that he “would probably die”!

In August 1881 the Government restored autonomy to the Transvaal, retaining only a vague right of suzerainty,—a right which was still further modified by the Treaty of London in 1884. The restoration of power to the Boer State shortly after a British defeat, and at the moment when a sufficient military force was at hand to reassert British power, was an act of

magnanimity which did more credit to the heart than to the head of the Government. It was generally regarded even then as a tactical blunder, giving occasion as it did to an empty feeling of triumph on the part of the Boers. From and after 1886 the discovery of gold, which, of course, could not have been foreseen, rendered a further conflict with the Boers almost inevitable. Nothing could have averted it but a federation of South Africa, based on a mutual sympathy and respect, which unfortunately the two main white races had not as yet developed.

The year 1882 found Britain involved in military operations in north-eastern Africa. Britain and France had since 1879 made themselves responsible for the government of Egypt. When, however, a native military revolt broke out in September 1881, and by July 1882 developed into a "holy war" under Arabi Pasha, the French refused to interfere, and Britain was left to act alone in restoring tranquillity. On 11th July, Alexandria was bombarded by British ships, and within a month 31,000 British troops had been sent to Egypt. Part of this force consisted of a Highland Brigade, commanded by General Sir Archibald Alison, and comprising the 74th Highland Light Infantry, the Camerons, the Gordons, and the Black Watch. On the night of 12th September, Sir Garnet Wolseley prescribed for his army a task of the most trying kind. His force, numbering in all about 13,000, was to march five miles in complete silence and in darkness in order to surprise the strong camp of Arabi with his 25,000 Egyptians at Tel-el-kebir, thirty miles north-east of Cairo. Setting out at half-past one, with rifles unloaded and bayonets unfixed, and with no light but that of the stars, they sighted the enemy's camp with the first streaks of dawn. After its nerve-trying march,

the British force had now to cover some two hundred yards of bullet-swept ground before reaching the enemy's strong intrenchments and redoubts, and at this point the centre of the Highland Brigade became, in Sir Archibald Alison's words, "the apex of a wedge thrust into the enemy's line." He proceeds: "It was a noble sight to see the Gordon and Cameron Highlanders now mingled together in the confusion of the fight, their young officers leading with waving swords, their pipes screaming, and that proud smile on the lips, and that bright gleam in the eyes of the men which you see only in the hour of successful battle. At length the summit of the slope was reached, and we looked down upon the camp of Arabi lying defenceless before us."

General Hamley, who commanded the division of which the Highland Brigade formed the mainstay, wrote: "The Scottish people may be satisfied with the bearing of those who represented them in the land of the Pharaohs. No doubt any very good troops would have accomplished the final advance; but what appeared to me exceptional are—firstly, the order and discipline which marked that march by night through the desert; and, secondly, the readiness with which the men sprang forward to storm the works. . . . Even very good troops at the end of that march might have paused when suddenly greeted by that burst of fire, and none but exceptionally good ones could have accomplished the feats I have mentioned."

The enemy's fortifications were found to have consisted of solid earthworks with a front of four miles, and flanking faces of two miles each. The Egyptian loss was calculated at 5000 men, while the British had 60 killed and 350 wounded.

Such was the battle of Tel-el-kebir, and for his

share in the work the commander of the Highland Brigade was awarded a sword of honour by the city of Glasgow in October 1883. Relating how his old friend Lord Clyde had bequeathed him his sword when on his death-bed, Sir Archibald proceeded to say, "I do feel proud this day to think that I can now lay down beside it this sword which you have just conferred on me, as the officer in charge of the Highland Brigade in Egypt, without feeling that the reputation of our national regiments has been tarnished in my hands, or the glory they won under him dimmed."

Arabi Pasha was captured the day after the battle, and banished to Ceylon; but the troubles of Egypt were not yet at an end. A second insurrection, under the "Mahdi," or False Prophet, involved in its scope the whole of the Soudan, that vast district extending southwards from Egypt to the sources of the Nile. In November 1883 the Mahdi inflicted a crushing defeat on a large Egyptian force under General Hicks ("Hicks Pasha") of our Indian Army. This was followed in February by the defeat of a second Egyptian force under General Baker, the Mahdist general on this occasion being Osman Digna. A British force was now sent to the front under Sir Gerald Graham, and included the Black Watch and a battalion of Gordons, together with one Irish and two English infantry regiments, and details of other forces. In the engagement of El Teb on 29th February 1884, the Arabs learned to appreciate the difference between Egyptian troops and a first-class regiment such as the Black Watch, on which fell the brunt of the battle. Nevertheless, under their intrepid general, Osman Digna, the Mahdi's forces again met our troops on 13th March, and in the Battle of Tamai or Tamaniéb the swarthy warriors actually broke the British square. Only the

steady valour of our men, particularly of the Black Watch, turned the tide of battle at last, after which the dusky ranks were decimated by the "triumphant Scottish Gordons, Royal Irish, and English Rifles."

In recent times the post of war correspondent has attained to great importance, and demands a combination of intrepidity, tact, and literary ability which few men possess in full degree.

One of the first and most famous of special correspondents was William Simpson (born at Glasgow in 1823, died 1899), who acted as a war artist during the Crimean campaigns, earning the name of "Crimean Simpson." The most famous British war correspondent during the Franco-German War was Archibald Forbes (born at Keith in 1838, died 1900). He subsequently attended the Russo-Turkish and Zulu Wars; and as a writer and lecturer he brought home vividly to the public mind the splendours and the horrors of war.

But of all the Scotsmen who have adorned the post no one is more worthy of admiration than Bennet Burleigh, a native of Glasgow, whose career reads more like a romance than like the solid fact of which it consists. He is mentioned here because it is generally recognised that his gallant conduct in this Soudan campaign would have earned him the Victoria Cross had he been a soldier instead of a civilian.

The British Government had now practically constituted itself the guardian of Egypt; but it was a period at which colonisation and expansion, with their increased responsibilities, were not in favour, and Gladstone's ministry resolved to evacuate the Soudan.

General Gordon was sent early in 1884 to withdraw the Egyptian garrison from Khartoum. Charles George Gordon (1833-85), though born at Woolwich, was of Scottish descent, being connected with the

Huntly family. He had earned the name of "Chinese Gordon" for brilliant services rendered to the Chinese Government. He had done important work in the exploration of the head-waters of the Nile, and his deeply religious character was and has remained proverbial. In order to fulfil Mr. Gladstone's commission he had to refuse the offer, shortly before made to him by the King of the Belgians, of the Governor-Generalship of the Congo Free State.

As Gordon had previously governed the Soudan from 1877 till 1880 on behalf of the Khedive, it seems to have been too readily assumed that his strong personality would enable him to accomplish almost single-handed a task which probably no other man would have attempted without powerful military support. Reaching Khartoum in February, he found himself invested within two months by a strong Arab force; but his appeals for help were neglected by the home Government until the autumn, when a force under General Wolseley was organised for his relief. It was 28th January of the following year (1885) before this expedition reached Khartoum, when it was found that Gordon and his scanty garrison had been cut to pieces by the Mahdi's troops two days before. It is not easy to apportion the blame for this disaster between the remissness of the home Government on the one hand, and on the other the optimism of Gordon's dispatches and the advice of British officials in Egypt. At any rate, the Government tamely acquiesced in the state of things, and the Egyptian frontier was withdrawn to the second cataract of the Nile at Wady-Halfa. The Soudan was left to the anarchy of the Arabs, and for twelve years Britain lay under the disgrace of having grossly mismanaged her rôle of protectress of Egypt.

The Mahdi died in June 1885, but a new dervish tyrant arose in the person of the Khalifa, who will come under our notice in connection with the events of 1898. One circumstance of hopeful omen relieves the gloom of British affairs in Egypt in 1884-85, namely, that General Wolseley's force included volunteers from Canada and New South Wales,—the first instance of that loyal colonial help which has proved so welcome in later years.

Having thus recounted the African troubles of the Liberal Government, we may briefly survey the course of home affairs during Gladstone's second term of office as Premier (1880-85).

On 25th August 1881 the queen held at Edinburgh a second great review of Scottish Volunteers, in which 40,000 men took part. The day happened to be one of the worst on record for rain, and the want of proper precautions, joined to the exposure to which men were subjected who had in many cases travelled during the whole of the previous night, and who were now huddled into trains, soaked and cold, was the cause of numerous deaths, while many of the citizen-soldiers were left with constitutions ruined for life.

The winter of 1882-83 was signalled by various outrages in Scotland on the part of Irish dynamitards, including the blowing up of a large gasometer on the south side of Glasgow, combined with an attempt on the same evening to flood the city by letting out the waters of the canal at Port-Dundas.

On 3rd July 1883 occurred a disaster of a type from which the Clyde has been otherwise notably free. In the course of being launched a vessel called the *Daphne* heeled over and fully 120 lives were lost.

In 1884, Mr. Gladstone passed a third Reform Bill,

practically granting household suffrage both in towns and in counties, and adding two million voters to the electorate.

During the years 1884-88 much excitement prevailed in the Highlands owing to agitation on behalf of reforms in the land laws. In the western isles this was accompanied by a certain amount of rioting and cattle-driving.

In July 1885 the post of Secretary for Scotland was again brought into being after the lapse of nearly 140 years. The last holder of the office had been the Marquess of Tweeddale, who resigned after the "Forty-Five" rising. The duties pertaining to the position had, during the long period of abeyance, fallen chiefly into the hands of a series of able Lord Advocates. The first holder of the office, as now reconstituted, was the Duke of Richmond and Gordon.

In the same year the number of Scottish representatives in Parliament was raised to seventy-two, and in order to allow of this the total number of members in the House of Commons was increased by twelve.

Misfortune seemed to dog Mr. Gladstone during this spell of office. The inglorious African wars, the disturbed state of Ireland, practically unrelieved by the Irish Land Act of 1881, the Phoenix Park murder, and the outrages of dynamitards, all combined to render his Government unpopular, and at last a catch vote by a combination of Conservatives and Irishmen threw him out of power, and Lord Salisbury became Prime Minister in June 1885.

CHAPTER XXXIII

VICTORIA'S CLOSING YEARS.

“MAY children of our children say,
‘She wrought her people lasting good.’”

TENNYSON.

LORD SALISBURY'S term of office was of short duration, and a General Election sent Mr. Gladstone back to power early in 1886.

Mr. Gladstone had now come to be recognised even by his opponents as a brilliant financier and statesman, and as a man of the highest moral purpose. Lord Salisbury said of him later that Mr. Gladstone “would long be remembered not so much for the causes in which he was engaged, but as a great example, of which history hardly furnished a parallel, of a great Christian man.” He possessed a magnificent voice, combined with unique fluency of language, and time will leave him the secure reputation of having been the greatest debater, and one of the foremost orators, in the annals of the British Parliament.

In this, his third premiership, Mr. Gladstone early subjected the loyalty of his followers to a strain that proved too great even for the attachment inspired by his powerful personality and character. In April 1886 the political world was thrown into a ferment of excitement by his introduction of a Home Rule Bill for Ireland. Its proposals seemed so revolutionary

that the Liberal party was rent in twain by the secession of a strong body of "Liberal Unionists," including such prominent Liberals as John Bright, Joseph Chamberlain, the Duke of Argyll, G. J. Goschen, and Lord Hartington (afterwards Duke of Devonshire). At the Second Reading division in June, 313 voted for the Bill and 343 against.

After a General Election in August 1886 the Liberal Government was thrown out, and a strong Unionist Government under Lord Salisbury came into power with a majority of 118, and held office till 1892. So great was the blow to the Liberal party caused by Mr. Gladstone's proposals, that for seventeen years out of the next twenty the Conservatives held power with the help of the seceding Liberals.

Mr. Gladstone's methods of dealing with the thorny Irish Question are now seen to have erred in two main respects. In the first place, he dealt only with one portion of the British kingdom, and that the least progressive, worst educated, and most disturbed,—in a word, the least able to govern itself of any portion of our realms.

This mistake led inevitably to the second difficulty, which consisted in the dilemma of separation on the one hand, or double representation on the other. Ireland was to have its own Parliament, and either it must be excluded from all representation in the Parliament at Westminster, or it must have representatives there who would have a say in imperial matters and in matters affecting England, Scotland, and Wales. The former alternative meant practically the disruption of the United Kingdom, and implied the taxation of Ireland without representation; the latter was obviously unjust to the more law-abiding members of the British Union. The first alternative was the ruin of Gladstone's

first Home Rule Bill, and the second proved equally fatal to his second Bill.

Only by dealing with all the constituent parts of the United Kingdom at once on the federal principle can the Home Rule question be logically solved.

About the same time as the question of Irish Government came prominently forward, the condition of the Highlands was seen to call for action on the part of Government. At the end of Chapter XXX. we have referred to the "clearances" of Highland districts owing to the growth of large sheep-farms.

The latter half of the nineteenth century saw little or no improvement in this respect, and there was added as a new motive for clearing the land the new-found love of sport on the part of landowners, aristocrats, and merchant-princes. The Highlands came to be regarded as the holiday-ground of Britain,—a view of things not altogether unconnected with the queen's sincere admiration for the Highlands and their people. Hence arose the demand for deer forests, grouse moors, and salmon streams, for which irresistible prices were offered by the leisured and moneyed classes with their distorted ideas of "sport" in all those heartless forms so much affected by monarchs and noblemen. Something like three million acres of Scottish land are now devoted to such purposes. It is idle to affirm that these districts could not support a population. They *have* supported in the past a hardy race who have won renown for Britain on many a hard-won field, but who are now driven abroad or herded into our great cities, where they are often as much out of place as a lark in the midst of prize canaries. The "crofter" areas thus became seriously restricted, as landlords whose native heath was Piccadilly cared nothing for the fate of the hapless people displaced by their cupidity.

Alfred Russell Wallace wrote as follows in 1882 regarding this abuse: "For a parallel to this monstrous power of the landowner, under which life and property are entirely at his mercy, we must go back to mediæval times, while the more pitiful results of this landlord tyranny, the wide devastation of cultivated lands, the heartless burning of houses, the reckless creation of pauperism and misery out of well-being and contentment, could only be expected under the rule of Turkish Sultans, or greedy and cruel Pashas. Yet these cruel deeds have been perpetrated in one of the most beautiful portions of our native land; and, notwithstanding that they have been repeatedly made known for at least sixty years past, no steps have been taken by the Legislature to prevent them for the future!" He also resents the way in which people "are shut out from many of the grandest and most interesting scenes of their native land, gamekeepers and watchers forbidding the tourist or naturalist to trespass on some of the wildest Scottish mountains."

The rush to the cities and large towns, which already contained nearly three-quarters of the population of Scotland, caused serious alarm for the future of the country, and a Royal Commission investigated the Highland question during 1883 and 1884, the results of its work taking form in the Crofters' Holdings Act on behalf of the crofters passed in 1886. This measure afforded these poor people some degree of security of tenure, and compensation for such improvements as they themselves made on the land, while commissioners were appointed to fix fair rents. In spite of much unnecessary official expense in the working out of these reforms, the Act has been of immense value to the crofters, but they are not yet beyond the need of being further encouraged to exert their energies with a

guarantee that they will reap the deserved reward. The Act of 1886 was in 1897 supplemented by the Congested Districts Act.

As some proof of the necessity that existed prior to such attempts to assist the Highland peasants, it may here be mentioned that the Congested Districts Board has constituted 500 new holdings in Scotland, while the Crofters Commission by the end of 1906 had fixed fair rents in over 20,000 cases. The Deer Forests Commission, instituted in 1892, resulted in the scheduling of over three-quarters of a million acres of old pasture and tillable land as available for the creation of new holdings, and of over half a million acres as suitable for the formation of farms of moderate size.

The Vatersay "Raid" of 1908 brought home to the public conscience the need for still further land reform in the interests of the crofters.

In August 1886 the queen visited the Edinburgh International Exhibition of Industry, Science, and Art, and received an exuberant welcome in the Scottish capital. A second exhibition was held in Edinburgh four years later.

On 20th June 1887 occurred the fiftieth anniversary of the queen's accession. On 21st June, Jubilee celebrations were held on an extensive scale in London. A procession which included the queen and her family, attended by a cavalcade of princes, among them twenty-four sons, sons-in-law, or grandsons of the queen, the Crown Prince of Germany being of their number, went in state from Buckingham Palace to Westminster Abbey. Here a special thanksgiving service was held, the queen occupying the throne of her ancestors. Edinburgh and Glasgow were not backward in their demonstrations of joy, 15,000 poor children from the latter city being treated by a

generous citizen to a trip to Rothesay, and throughout Scotland each town and village took such part in the general rejoicing as circumstances allowed.

On 9th July a review of 58,000 men was held at Aldershot, and on 23rd a great naval review in the Spithead was taken part in by 135 vessels. Jubilee nursing establishments were instituted in many parts of Britain. But perhaps the most pleasing and important feature of the Jubilee celebration, as of that of ten years later, was the drawing together of the colonies and the mother-country in closer sympathy,—a movement in which great credit is due to Mr. Joseph Chamberlain. A Colonial Conference, attended by premiers or other delegates from Canada, Newfoundland, Australia, New Zealand, Cape Colony, Natal, and the West Indies, began its sittings in April, and foreshadowed a time when all the British dominions should be duly represented in an Imperial Council or Parliament. In July the queen laid the foundation stone of the Imperial Institute in London, whose object is the furtherance of the mutual interests of the homeland and the colonies. In a letter written at the time she expresses the hope that it will “bring before the minds of men the vast and varied resources of the empire over which Providence has willed that I should reign during fifty prosperous years.” (The Institute was opened in 1893.)

In August 1888 the queen visited the great Glasgow Exhibition, and opened the splendid Municipal Buildings of that city, the foundation stone of which had been laid five years earlier. The attendance at the Glasgow Exhibition of this year amounted to five and three-quarter millions, and a surplus of over £40,000 was realised.

The general need for arousing a healthy public

interest in district and local affairs was recognised by the Unionist Government in the institution of county councils in 1888, parish councils being established six years afterwards. In 1889-90 a Local Government Act was passed for Scotland. On no fewer than twelve of its clauses a majority of Scottish members in favour of more liberal provisions was overridden by the votes of English members. In 1894 a Scottish Local Government Board was set up, with its headquarters in Edinburgh.

In 1892, at the expiry of six years of office, the Unionist Government was defeated, and Gladstone's fourth ministry came into power. The veteran statesman, now eighty-three years of age, had to face the House with a slender majority of forty or fifty, including the Irish Nationalists, although Scotland, Wales, and Ireland each showed a majority in favour of Home Rule. In February 1893, Mr. Gladstone produced his second Home Rule Bill for Ireland. This time he provided for eighty Irish representatives at Westminster. The Bill passed the Commons by 301 votes to 267, but was thrown out by the Lords in September by 419 votes to 41.

In March 1894, Mr. Gladstone retired, after more than sixty years of public life, and for the third time in British parliamentary history the premiership fell to a Scottish peer, Lord Rosebery. Archibald Philip Primrose, fifth Earl of Rosebery, was born in 1847 of an ancient Scottish family. He had been Foreign Secretary in Gladstone's Government, and had distinguished himself in public affairs both in and out of Parliament. His premiership was of short duration, as his Government was defeated on the army estimates in 1895. In the following year he withdrew from the leadership of the Liberal party, which, after a short

tenure by Sir William Harcourt, fell in 1899 to a Scot of admittedly less brilliant intellect than Lord Rosebery, but of greater pertinacity in politics, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman. Lord Salisbury took office in 1885 with a majority of 152, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain holding the position of Colonial Secretary. The Liberal party was in a condition of almost total eclipse, and only the most determined courage could have enabled its leader to tide over the long period that lay between the party and office. Meanwhile, Lord Rosebery devoted himself, with characteristic versatility, to literature and other pursuits. In 1894 and 1895 he had achieved his ambition of winning the Derby. At intervals since his retiral he has come forward at critical junctures to offer advice to his countrymen on questions of imperial importance. In the great imperialistic movement of recent years he and Mr. Chamberlain are the recognised pioneers, while his frequent intervention in questions of Scottish interest has earned for him the designation of the "buttonhole of Scottish patriotism." It is probably no exaggeration to describe Lord Rosebery as the most popular man in the British Isles.

The return of the Unionist Government to power was followed by a "forward movement" in Egyptian and Indian affairs. Lord Cromer had been Consul-General in Egypt since 1883, and in 1892 he had chosen, as Sirdar of the Egyptian army, Sir H. H. Kitchener, who had proceeded to make steady preparations for the reconquest of the lost Nile districts. In the training of the black forces he had the inestimable help of Hector Macdonald (1852-1903), a Dingwall Highlander who had risen from the ranks with no influence but that of his own bravery, military skill, and hard work.



Photo by Elliot & Fry.

THE EARL OF ROSEBERY.

The British Government now decided to remedy the mismanagement of Egyptian affairs by Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet of ten years earlier. After a successful expedition to Dongola in 1896, a general advance was made up the Nile in 1897. Four British regiments, including the Camerons and Seaforths, were embodied in the Sirdar's force, while the black troops were now commanded by General Sir Archibald Hunter (b. 1856), a popular Scottish soldier, with Macdonald as one of his brigadier-generals. Abu-Hamed was seized by a clever and rapid movement of Hunter and his Egyptians. In the attack on the enemy's zariba or fortified camp, on 8th April 1898, at the Battle of the Atbara, the honours of the day rested mainly with the Camerons, whose piper fell riddled with wounds while playing his comrades on to victory.

In the various episodes of this campaign General Hunter displayed that almost reckless bravery which has made him conspicuous among our generals. G. W. Steevens, in his *With Kitchener to Khartoum*, wrote of him: "If the Sirdar is the brain of the Egyptian army, General Hunter is its sword-arm. From the feather in his helmet to the spurs on his heels he is all energy and dancing triumph. Reconnoitring almost alone up to the muzzles of the enemy's rifles, charging bare-headed and leading on his blacks, going without his rest to watch over the comfort of the wounded, he is always the same,—always the same impossible hero of a book of chivalry. 'General Archie' is the wonder and the darling of all the Egyptian army."

In the autumn of 1898, Kitchener advanced upon Omdurman, near Khartoum, the headquarters of the Dervish insurrection. The decisive battle of the

campaign took place on 2nd September, and consisted of three attacks by the Dervish hordes. The first two were repelled with mechanical precision by the white troops with their excellent modern equipment, and the British were withdrawing from the field, when unexpectedly a third and fiercer onslaught was made by the enemy. The full force of the attack fell upon Hector Macdonald's black troops, and only his unexampled coolness, in changing the formation of his force in face of a charging enemy, saved the day from disaster. Stevens describes how "beneath the strong, square-hewn face you could tell that the brain was working as if packed in ice. He saw everything: knew what to do: knew how to do it: did it. All saw him, and knew that they were being nursed to triumph."

But he had won the battle by disobeying orders; and while the Sirdar deservedly became Lord Kitchener of Khartoum, with a grant of £30,000, Macdonald was simply made an aide-de-camp to the queen. Even the credit due him for his achievement seemed likely to be withheld, but at the presentation of a sword of honour to Macdonald at Glasgow, Bennet Burleigh announced that there stood before his countrymen "the real victor and the real hero of Omdurman." G. W. Steevens' publication confirmed the announcement, and "Hector" was taken to the public heart as a true hero, however much he might be under the cloud of official neglect.

On the Sunday after the battle of Omdurman, the British and Egyptian flags were hoisted over the ruins of Gordon's palace, and on his return home the Sirdar asked for, and promptly received from the British public, the sum of £100,000 to erect at Khartoum a "Gordon College" for the education of the Soudanese.

Major-General Sir Francis Reginald Wingate, a Scotsman whose knowledge of Arabic and of the

customs of the desert tribes had proved of incalculable service to the army on its advance, is characterised by Steevens as "the type of the learned soldier. He is the intellectual compendium of British dealings with the Soudan. His rise in the army has been almost startlingly rapid; yet there is not a man in it but, so far from envying, rejoices in a success earned by rare gifts and unstinted labour, and borne with an inviolable modesty." Sir Francis was born in Renfrewshire in 1861. He has witnessed every phase of Egyptian affairs since the Nile Expedition of 1884. After Omdurman he annihilated the Khalifa's force in November at Gedid, the Khalifa himself being among the slain. Osman Digna was captured a few months later. In December 1899, Wingate succeeded Lord Kitchener as Sirdar of the Egyptian army, having previously been accorded the thanks of both Houses of Parliament for his distinguished services.

The later years of the reign witnessed one or two of those petty wars so frequent on the north-west frontier of India. In the Chitral campaign of 1895, the Gordons and Scottish Borderers displayed much bravery in the taking of the Malakand Pass.

In 1897 numerous warlike tribes, resenting the "forward" policy of the Conservative Government in occupying Chitral, rose against the British, and the largest force ever employed in any of these frontier wars had to be embodied. The duty of reducing the Afridis was entrusted to Sir William Lockhart, a Lanarkshire man. The operations lasted from October till April of the following year. The chief episode of the campaign, the clearing of the Pass of Dargai, occurred on 20th October. The enemy had occupied the ridges in thousands. A force of Gurkhas managed to make their way to comparatively safe cover across

an open space literally swept by the enemy's bullets ; but what they had achieved the Dorsets and Derbys failed to imitate, both these regiments being driven back. The Gordons, along with a Sikh regiment, were now ordered forward, and Colonel Mathias led his men into action with the words, "Highlanders! The general says the position must be taken at all costs. The Gordons will take it!" With reckless valour they made their way across the death-zone, and at last their bayonets glittered so close to the enemy that the latter turned and fled, and Dargai was won. Sir William not only performed the necessary military operations with complete success, but his conciliatory and chivalrous attitude gained the confidence of his dusky enemies, and the Afridis may now be classed with the Sikhs and Gurkhas as brave foes converted into brave friends of the British. In 1898, Sir William was made commander-in-chief in India. He died two years later in his sixtieth year.

In June 1897 the whole nation again found cause for rejoicing and thanksgiving in the completion of the sixtieth year of Queen Victoria's reign. The Diamond Jubilee was given a truly imperial turn by the reception at Buckingham Palace on 21st June of eleven colonial premiers,—seven Australasian, and one each from Canada, Newfoundland, Cape Colony, and Natal.

On 22nd June a heart-stirring procession took place in London, the royal carriage being attended by a splendid cavalcade, including troops from all the British Colonies and from India. Before leaving her palace, the queen sent to her subjects the message: "From my heart I thank my beloved people. May God bless them." Thereafter she drove in state to St. Paul's Cathedral, and at the steps of that noble pile a thanksgiving service was held. The whole route

of the great procession through London extended to six miles. Throughout the British Isles some 2500 bonfires celebrated the attainment by the queen of the record reign in British history. The British fleet was reviewed by the Prince of Wales at Spithead on 26th June, when 170 war vessels were gathered together, and the queen in person held reviews of British troops at Aldershot, and of colonials at Windsor, where the colonial premiers were also entertained. The idea of Imperial Federation received considerable impetus through the mutual intercourse of the colonial premiers and members of the home Government. Apart from the imperial and colonial interest of the celebration, perhaps the most striking feature was the encouragement given throughout the land to hospital and nursing work, the Prince of Wales' fund for hospitals being a noteworthy instance of this movement.

Our attention must now be directed to a less pleasing series of events, extending from the year prior to the Diamond Jubilee onwards into the next reign. The scene of these events was once more that vexed region—South Africa.

During the last two days of 1895 and the first two of 1896 occurred the ill-considered "Jameson Raid," led, it is to be regretted, by a Scotsman. Dissatisfaction with the reactionary policy of the Boer Government was rife among the British and other settlers in the Transvaal, whom the Boers slumped in one great mass as "Uitlanders." These Uitlanders outnumbered the Boers, yet were allowed practically no rights of citizenship, and the conflict between their hustling modern civilisation and the primitive and unprogressive ideas of the Boers had reached an acute stage. Dr. Jameson, Civil Administrator under the South African

Chartered Company, perhaps over-estimating the extent of this discontent, and certainly under-estimating the watchfulness of the Boer Government, determined to raid the Transvaal by entering Johannesburg, the great Uitlander centre, preparatory to deposing the Government of President Kruger. The expedition, which started from the Imperial Crown Colony of Bechuanaland, failed ignominiously, Jameson and his men being overwhelmed by the Boers at Doornkop (near Krugersdorp) on 2nd January. The raid was disclaimed, though in much too half-hearted a way, by the British Government, and Dr. Jameson and his officers escaped with more or less trivial sentences. The ultimate responsibility for this regrettable episode rested with Mr. Cecil J. Rhodes, the managing director of the South African Company.

From the date of the Jameson Raid, if not earlier, the Boers were obviously preparing for some great *coup*. Munitions of war were now smuggled into the country under the very eyes of the British Government, who, with the raid so recent in the world's memory, felt scarcely entitled to ask the Boer president, "What doest thou?" After a series of negotiations, in which each side endeavoured to "bluff" the other, Kruger launched in October 1899 his insolent ultimatum, with the only possible result of precipitating a war which to all appearance had become inevitable.

The Boer tactics consisted in a bold endeavour to "sweep the British into the sea," and they at once poured into northern Natal. Sir George Stewart White opportunely arrived in that district with five British battalions, including the 2nd Gordons. At the battle of Elandslaagte on 21st October the Boers received their first check, the honours of the day falling to General French, who throughout this war continued to

build up a unique reputation, and to General Sir Ian Hamilton, one of our foremost living Scottish soldiers. At the end of the month the British suffered misfortune at Nicholson's Nek, and from 2nd November onwards there followed one of the most famous sieges in the annals of war, Ladysmith being beleaguered for four months by the Boers, but defended with the utmost gallantry by that ex-Gordon Highlander, Sir George Stewart White, V.C., a native of the north of Ireland, and one of the most chivalrous and honourable men who ever rejoiced in the rank of general. With him were Sir Ian Hamilton and Sir Archibald Hunter, whose daring bravery and imperturbable presence of mind are among the brightest spots in all this unfortunate war. Especially noteworthy was Hunter's brilliant feat of destroying the Boer guns on Lombard's Kop by a daring night attack on 7th December at the head of 600 Natal volunteers. The most desperate attack on Ladysmith by the Boers occurred early in January 1900, when two days' fierce fighting took place at Waggon Hill and Cæsar's Camp. In the defence of both positions the Highlanders played a conspicuous part.

The various failures of General Buller, who had utterly miscalculated the Boer strength and the seriousness of the campaign, do not concern us here. Suffice it to say that, being faced by the refusal of Sir George White to surrender Ladysmith, he made a final and successful effort to relieve the sorely bestead town, and on 28th February 1900, Lord Dundonald at the head of the advance guard of cavalry, joined hands with General White, and British prestige was safe at last in the troubled colony of Natal. The siege of Ladysmith had lasted for 119 days.

Lord Dundonald (b. 1852) is a scion of the

same Cochrane family as gave Admiral Cochrane to the British Navy. In 1902 he became commander-in-chief of the Canadian militia, but in June 1904 a speech, in which he condemned political corruption in military appointments, led to his retiral from active military life.

Meanwhile stirring events were happening to the westward of the Boer states. Kimberley had been besieged by the Boers, and Lord Methuen was dispatched from Cape Town to cope with them in that district. After two slight victories at Belmont and Graspan he gained on 28th November the battle of the Modder River, in which the Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders formed the British centre. These victories, somewhat over-estimated by the general, lured him on to further efforts, but ere long his career of success was rudely interrupted. The Boers had retreated to a strong position on the heights at Magersfontein, and intrenched themselves in such a way as to render the task of attacking them a matter not to be lightly undertaken. Methuen waited until reinforcements arrived, in the shape of the Seaforths, 1st Gordons, 2nd Black Watch, and Highland Light Infantry, which, with the Argylls, were massed as the Highland Brigade, and commanded by that excellent soldier and gentleman, Major-General Andrew Wauchope of Midlothian.

On Sunday, 10th December, the British force advanced to within three miles of the fatal semicircle of hills which constituted the Boer position. Starting shortly after midnight the Highland Brigade was marched forward in the darkness, massed in quarter column, "uncertain," says Sir A. Conan Doyle, "where they were going, and uncertain what it was they were meant to do." When they arrived within 200

yards of the trenches, the Boer fire burst upon them. Among the first to fall dead was brave Wauchope, thus led to the slaughter along with his men in one of those foolhardy and ill-considered engagements which earned for our army in this war the designation of "lions led by asses." The day that followed was one of the most pathetic in the story of British warfare. With their officers falling in scores, and with murderous fire poured forth by an unseen foe, the Highlanders lay in the clutches of death with the added bitterness of hopeless defeat. Methuen himself admitted: "The men in the Highland Brigade were ready enough to rally, but the paucity of officers and N.C.O.'s rendered this no easy matter. I attach no blame to this splendid brigade." The *Daily News* correspondent gave similar testimony: "All that mortal man could do the Scots did. They tried, they failed, they fell, and there is nothing left now but to mourn for them and avenge them." The casualties in the brigade amounted to 700, and of these 200 were from the Black Watch. Four of the five commanding officers of the Highland regiments had died with Wauchope.

At this juncture the opportunity may be taken of mentioning the gallantry and devotion shown on this sad occasion by Rev. James Robertson (b. 1855), the chaplain of the Highland Brigade, a man perhaps unique in the records of the army for his unassuming character joined to a reckless bravery which has gained him the Distinguished Service Order, and has time and again more than merited the Victoria Cross.

The home Government, realising at length the true nature of their task, acted with most commendable spirit, and hurried out every available man to South Africa. Volunteers offered their services from every part of the British dominions, and judicious selections

from these were willingly accepted. Apart from the loyal and enthusiastic help given by the colonial governments, various individuals earned the undying gratitude of their country by their generous actions. Most prominent among these was Lord Strathcona, who raised a troop of over 400 Canadian rough-riders, chiefly from the North-Western Territories, equipped them at his own cost, and conveyed them to South Africa without a shilling of expense to the Government.

Among the other services of Scotsmen in this war must be mentioned the raising of Tullibardine's Horse, and of Lovat's Scouts. The former consisted of two bodies of irregulars raised and commanded by John G. S. Murray, Marquess of Tullibardine (b. 1871), son of the Duke of Atholl. They were officially known as the 1st and 2nd Scottish Horse. Simon Fraser, Lord Lovat (b. 1871), volunteered to raise a body of scouts, composed of Highland gillies. Throughout the war this corps proved of the greatest service, receiving high commendation from Lords Roberts and Kitchener. Lord Lovat himself received various military distinctions for his services. Unlike most of the Highland lairds of to-day, both of these young lords are thoroughly conversant with the Gaelic tongue.

Lord Roberts was appointed to the supreme command in South Africa, with Lord Kitchener as his right hand support, while Hector Macdonald was hurried across from India to assume command of the Highland Brigade. Lord Roberts arrived at Cape Town in January 1900, and after careful preparations a general advance was made in February. The subsequent stages of the war can only be very briefly referred to. Kimberley was relieved on 15th February, and on 18th February the Boer general Cronje, who



Photo by Laurentin d. Souza.

MONUMENT AT DINGWALL TO MAJOR GENERAL SIR HECTOR A. MACDONALD,
K.C.B., D.S.O., A.D.C.

had commanded at Magersfontein, was enclosed with over 4000 men by the British at Paardeberg, the Highland Brigade completing the investment. On 27th February, the anniversary of Majuba, after some gallant work by the Canadians and Gordons, Cronje surrendered. On that date General Macdonald, who had himself been wounded, wrote home to a friend: "We are sadly in need of officers and of men. In the Highland Brigade we have left fit for work 24 officers and about 1600 men out of 87 officers and over 3000 men. Such is war!"

In the middle of March, Lord Roberts entered Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange Free State, the keys being handed over by Mr. (now Sir) John G. Fraser (see Chapter XLIII.). Mafeking, which had endured a protracted siege, and had been skilfully defended by that versatile and gallant Welshman, General Baden-Powell, was at last relieved on 18th May.

On 5th June the British occupied Pretoria, the Transvaal capital, and in November, Lord Roberts returned to Britain, leaving Lord Kitchener in charge of those protracted and thankless operations which still remained ere the war could be brought to an end. One of the most striking episodes in this latter part of the Boer campaigns was the capture in August of Commandant Prinsloo with 5000 men by Sir Archibald Hunter.

In his farewell to the volunteer contingents of the Highland Brigade, General Macdonald paid a fitting tribute to the gallantry with which these citizen-soldiers had borne their "baptism of fire," and the endurance with which they had so worthily worked alongside of the regulars. He added: "Your native land will never forget your patriotic response to her

appeal and the sacrifices you have made for her," and he foretold for them "a Highland welcome home," ending his address with words reminiscent of those of Lord Clyde, "Gallant volunteers, true Highlanders, farewell!"

At home a General Election took place in October 1900, and the majority of 134 by which the Unionists were returned served as an emphatic mandate to see the war through to a successful issue. For the first time since the Reform Bill of 1832, Scotland sent a majority to support a Conservative (or more strictly speaking, Unionist) Government.

Lord Roberts arrived in Britain in December, and on 2nd January he was admitted to an audience by the queen, who bestowed on him an earldom, together with the Order of the Garter. The national heart was soon to be touched to its depths by the knowledge that the last official act of the venerable lady was her interview with the trusted veteran whose only son had fallen in the heat of action in the fight at Colenso. The queen herself had lost a grandson, Prince Christian Victor, who died of enteric fever at Pretoria.

The affecting circumstances of her meeting with Lord Roberts and of a subsequent interview a fortnight later, together with her deep sorrow at the whole course of the war, with its accompaniments of humiliation and pathos, may well have hastened the end of that beautiful life which her subjects had almost come to look upon as a permanent possession of the nation.

The last year of the queen's life had been gladdened by two occurrences. In April 1900 she paid a final visit to Ireland, and was received with many demonstrations of affection. The federation of Australia into a Commonwealth gave her sincere pleasure, and

the reference to this in the Queen's Speech was no mere formality: "I have watched with cordial satisfaction the gradual development of my greater colonies into self-governing communities."

In the early days of 1901 the mournful truth leaked out that Her Majesty was sick unto death, and after a short period of tense apprehension on the part of her subjects throughout the empire, she breathed her last on 22nd January. She had reigned for 63 years and 216 days, having thus completed considerably the longest reign in British history, and the second longest within the memory of civilised man. Louis XIV. of France had reigned for 72 years; but as he succeeded to the throne at the age of five, a considerable deduction falls to be made from the effective period of his reign.

Queen Victoria, throughout her reign, proved herself a truly intelligent woman. She was proficient in music, art, and literature, and she did not allow her talents to rust. In her last years she devoted herself to the study of Hindustani,—a striking instance of her zeal for duty, and of her interest in all ranks and conditions of her subjects.

So much has been said of the noble example furnished by her domestic life that we are apt to be blinded to the sterling services which she performed in the wider sphere of politics. Mr. Gladstone wrote in 1875: "Although the admirable arrangements of the Constitution have now shielded the sovereign from personal responsibility, they have left ample scope for the exercise of direct and personal influence in the whole work of government." In international affairs especially, the queen, by her long intercourse with foreign rulers, and even by her blood relationship to many of these, had acquired an enormous influence,

which at many critical junctures proved to be a valuable national asset.

Her principal claim to enduring honour is the fact that in a period which witnessed such tremendous material progress, such wonderful transitions in science and industry, such alterations in the status of Parliament and of democracy, she remained consistent to her high ideals as a ruler, adapting herself to every change, and acting as a steadying force amid all the vicissitudes of two-thirds of a century. Further, as Lord Rosebery has said, "she was an animating, not a resisting force, for her ruling passion was patriotism, an absorbing devotion to her country, its needs and its glory."

For the reign of Victoria as a whole we may well accept the cheerful summary by the late Professor Edward Caird: "On the whole we can look back upon the queen's reign as a period of growth and expansion in almost every direction—a time in which wealth has increased and has also become more equally distributed; in which science has made advances paralleled in no previous era of the world's history; in which additions have been made to the stores of English literature, rivalling even those of the Elizabethan era; and in which great activity of literary, historical, and philosophical criticism, while it has brought about a freedom of thought and speech such as hardly existed in any previous age, has not weakened but rather strengthened the moral consciousness of the nation, and I think also, in spite of appearances to the contrary, has not undermined but rather deepened and widened its religious life."



CHAPTER XXXIV

SOME PHILANTHROPIC MOVEMENTS OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

“THE young lambs are bleating in the meadows,
The young birds are chirping in the nest,
The young fawns are playing with the shadows,
The young flowers are blowing toward the west—
But the young, young children, O my brothers,
They are weeping bitterly!
They are weeping in the playtime of the others,
In the country of the free.”

ELIZABETH BARRETT BROWNING.

THE two most striking features of the nineteenth century, and of Queen Victoria's reign in particular, are on the one hand the increase of material prosperity and the improvements in the means of communication, and on the other the development of a philanthropic spirit both in state legislation and in individual effort.

The former of these matters need not long detain us here, as the part played by Scotsmen in the inventions and improvements of the century is referred to in a separate chapter (XL.); nevertheless, a few supplementary facts may be mentioned.

At the beginning of Victoria's reign, Sir Rowland Hill advocated a uniform low rate of postage. His suggestions were enthusiastically taken up by Mr. Wallace, M.P. for Greenock, and by January 1840 penny postage was an accomplished fact. The Book Post was instituted in 1848. In 1870 halfpenny

postage (including postcards) came into operation, and the telegraph was nationalised in the same year. In 1883 the Parcels Post was begun. It is impossible to estimate the interest and fulness added to modern life by these thoroughly practical reforms.

The humble but useful postcard owes its origin to Sir J. H. A. Macdonald, now Lord Kingsburgh (Lord Justice-Clerk of Scotland). Born at Edinburgh in 1836, his lordship is a man of many interests. His enthusiasm for Volunteering is proverbial. For his many life-saving inventions and electrical discoveries he has not only received honour in his own country, but has been awarded decorations by Belgium and the United States.

The idea of the adhesive stamp as a means of "franking" letters was first proposed in 1835 by a Dundee bookseller named James Chalmers.

In the opening years of the nineteenth century the conditions of life for the working classes were almost unbearably hard. Napoleon's Berlin Decrees (1806), which forbade the continental nations of Europe to trade with Britain, were intended to starve our country into impotence, and only the improvements which had shortly before been introduced in agriculture and cattle-rearing defeated his object. Of the later advances in farming, one of the most fruitful in results was the system of deep drainage, introduced in 1823 by Mr. Smith of Deanston. His methods are said to have increased the productivity of grain and grass crops to an extent varying from thirty to forty-five per cent.

The Napoleonic wars had raised the National Debt from 268 millions to 800 million pounds, while the annual British expenditure rose from 20 to 107 millions. To make matters worse for the labouring classes, the legislation of the year 1815 kept up the

price of grain in the interests of the farmer and the landlord. The indirect taxation thus laid upon the working classes, together with heavy direct imposts, amounted in many cases to a full half of their scanty earnings.

Nor could their discontent make itself articulately heard. The mediæval laws against combinations of workmen were still in force, and only in secret conclaves could the oppressed men meet for sympathy or for common action. In 1824, however, these antiquated restrictions were withdrawn, and the freedom of speech thus allowed resulted very soon in a substantial improvement in wages and in the conditions of labour. The working classes, freed from a condition of practical slavery, steadily advanced in power during the remainder of the century, and through their trades unions and other organisations they now wield an influence in some degree commensurate with their numbers and importance. At the present day it is scarcely an exaggeration to say that on the use made by the working classes of the enormous power now possessed by them, the future of the kingdom and of the empire will depend.

We may now proceed to a brief survey of a few of the philanthropic movements of the century, legislative and otherwise. Even if these do not in general apply to Scotland to any greater extent than to the other portions of the United Kingdom, they are too important to be passed over without notice.

It will be remembered that slavery in the mines had been abolished only at the close of the preceding century. Though abolished in name, however, it lingered on in stern reality. As late as 1842 the state of matters, as revealed by a Government Commission, was incredibly brutal. Not only were women

employed to trail baskets of coal along the ways, and to carry them up the long spiral wooden stairs to the pithead, but infants of both sexes, sometimes only of five or even four years of age, had to stand ankle-deep in water in the noisome mines, with moisture drenching them from the roofs. Some of them never saw the sun except at the week-ends. Of the English colliers not one in fifty could read. As a result of the inquiry and its revelations, Lord Ashley (afterwards Lord Shaftesbury, 1801-85) succeeded in carrying a Colliery Act in 1843, prohibiting the underground employment of females, or of children under ten, and establishing government supervision of mines. From that date onwards many remedial measures have been passed, though even now the miner's calling is a dangerous and cheerless life, and one which merits every possible consideration. It may here be noted that in the many philanthropic schemes of Lord Shaftesbury and others, a strenuous helper was found in John MacGregor (1825-92), who travelled extensively in Europe and Asia, and wrote an account of his river travels under the name of *A Thousand Miles in the Rob Roy Canoe*.

The hideous hardships of the climbing boys and girls, aged from four years upwards, employed, or rather enslaved, by chimney-sweepers, were exposed by James Montgomery, the Scottish poet, in 1817, and a Bill for their emancipation passed the Commons. The Lords, however, threw it out, and not till 1840 were they persuaded to let through a similar Bill. Even then evasions of the law were not strenuously dealt with until other thirty years had passed.

The condition of matters in factories in the reign of King William clamoured for attention. Children of six to nine years of age were kept working for fifteen

or sixteen hours a day in factories, or as drawboys in weaving-shops, often in an atmosphere of "dust" which made physical degeneracy inevitable. After inquiries made in 1832, there was passed in 1833 an Act to prevent the employment of children under nine years of age, and limiting to forty-eight hours a week the working time of those under thirteen. In 1878 the Act to Consolidate and Amend the Law relating to Factories and Workshops interposed an effective barrier between the avarice of unprincipled employers and the lives or health of their victims. In 1867 the abuses of agricultural child-labour were similarly dealt with. In most of these remedial measures the moving spirit was that noble English statesman Lord Ashley, while the graphic pen-pictures of Charles Dickens awakened the public conscience to a sense of duty.

From 1773 onwards John Howard had called attention to the need for prison reform. In the period now under review many reforms in the direction of leniency took place in the Criminal Laws. The number of crimes punishable by death, which had stood as high as 223, was in 1837 reduced to seven, and in practice the crime of murder alone was henceforth visited with the death sentence.

After Waterloo it was proposed to limit flogging in the army and navy to one hundred lashes for any one offence. This measure was opposed even by Lord Palmerston. In 1846 the maximum punishment was reduced to fifty lashes, and twenty years later flogging was prohibited in time of peace. In 1881 corporal punishment in the army was entirely abolished. The press-gang system, by which seamen and others were compelled to serve in the navy, was abolished in 1835. The practice of duelling in the army was in 1844 formally denounced by the War Office. The interests

of sailors in the merchant service likewise called for attention. Samuel Plimsoll exposed the system by which ships were sent to sea ill-found, under-manned, and overloaded, but heavily insured, so that the owners were indifferent whether they reached their destination or not. As a result the Merchant Shipping Act of 1876 insisted on reasonable precautions being taken on behalf of the lives and welfare of men employed in the mercantile marine.

The Poor Laws of 1845, necessitated in Scotland largely by the rush of country people to the cities, and by the influx of Irish population, together with the new conditions of church matters, have been already referred to.

Public Health Acts were passed in 1848, 1875, 1891, and 1897, and, with the improved attention paid to sanitation and kindred matters, cholera became extinct, while smallpox, which in the early years of the century had accounted for a tenth of the total deaths, has been kept within strict bounds. The death-rate of Glasgow has been reduced by more than half within living memory.

The housing of the poor, wretched enough still, was until a generation or so ago inconceivably bad. Glasgow and Edinburgh were certainly no better than the great cities of England. Co-operative and Building Societies have done much to awaken self-respect in the working classes.

In the early history of co-operation and of socialistic ideas, no small interest attaches to the experiments of Robert Owen (1771-1858). Owen was a Welshman, but settled in Scotland. In 1799 he married the daughter of David Dale (1739-1806), a native of Ayrshire, who in 1785 had established cotton-spinning mills at New Lanark, near the Falls of Clyde. Dale

had endeavoured to conduct these works with the greatest possible consideration for his employees. Owen became part owner of the mills at the time of his marriage, and soon assumed full charge of their management. Until 1828 he further developed Dale's experiments, employing no children under ten years of age, and providing school accommodation for the younger children. In this way the first infant-schools in Britain were originated.

On the invitation of Lord Hamilton of Dalzell, Owen founded a socialistic community at Orbiston, near Bellshill in Lanarkshire.¹ Somewhat extravagant expenditure was lavished on buildings, and the experiment proved a complete failure. To meet their financial loss the Hamiltons had to part with their Orbiston estate, while the buildings, under the nickname of "New Babylon," became a quarry for Bellshill masons.

In facing the still clamant slum problem in our great cities, experiments such as the Glasgow Family Home in St. Andrew's Square, where widowers with young children are housed in moderate comfort at a cheap rate, while a crèche is provided for foundling infants, are worthy of being imitated and multiplied to an almost indefinite extent. A prominent Labour leader has inscribed in the visitors' book of this Home his appreciation of a "corporation with a soul."

Probably no country is better served with organised charitable institutions than Scotland. Excellent infirmaries, homes for the blind, deaf, and dumb, for sick children and cripples, institutions for specific diseases such as cancer and consumption, are supported in commendable degree by charitably disposed subscribers.

¹ Mr Alex. Cullen, F.R.I.B.A., has recently shown that not Owen, but Abram Combe, brother of George Combe the phrenologist, was the real moving spirit in this Orbiston settlement. The "community" reached its zenith in the "year of the short corn" (1826), but the experiment was abandoned in the following year.

But the uneasy consciousness frequently presses itself upon the public mind that, after all, these ought to be Municipal or State concerns quite as much as fever hospitals or schools or jails. In these institutions the poor man receives free of charge the benefits of the highest medical and surgical skill, which the rich can employ at heavy cost in their own homes; but the middle class, the backbone of the country, is denied this skill, and must rest content with inferior treatment. Surely every industrious citizen has a moral claim on the State to the best skill that can be had in times of dire trouble, and this claim can only be met by relieving our infirmaries and like institutions from their present hand-to-mouth dependence upon charity.

This seems equally true of such institutions as Quarrier's Homes, or, to give them their more wistful title, the Orphan Homes of Scotland. To take it on the lowest plane, do these and other such Homes not stay enough the tide of criminality, not save enough in jails and police, to render their support, or at least their subsidising, a matter of State concern? There is money enough in the country for such work, and the specious arguments of sixty years ago are of no avail to-day to stifle the national conscience in such matters. Sir Samuel Chisholm has shown how "thousands of children whose prospects for life were bounded by a horizon of poverty, vice, or crime," have been rescued by these Homes, and he eloquently proceeds: "The children have been saved and blessed, but so has the city. Its embryo criminals, that might have grown up to plague and curse us, have in an enormous proportion grown up to be a blessing to ourselves, or more frequently to other districts or other lands where the English tongue is spoken and the British sovereign reigns."

William Quarrier was born at Greenock in 1829.



Photo by Miss Hood, Glasgow.

THE ORPHAN HOMES OF SCOTLAND, BRIDGE-OF-WEIR (PARTIAL VIEW).

Including the Consumptive Sanatorium and the Colony for Epileptics there are now over seventy buildings in use.



His father was a ship-carpenter, who died of cholera at Quebec while William was but an infant. The widowed mother came to Glasgow to earn a pittance as a shirt-finisher, and the boy became a shoemaker. From 1864 onwards he organised brigades of shoe-blacks, newsboys, and parcel-carriers. In 1871 he founded the James Morrison Street Home, which has sheltered thousands of outcasts. Although he never begged for subscriptions, and sent out no collectors, he carried on his noble work of orphan rescue until his death over thirty years later, and never once had he a balance on the wrong side, although the annual expenditure on the work grew from £1500 to £17,000 ! In 1876 he purchased forty acres of ground at Bridge of Weir, and less than two years afterwards his first Homes there were opened. By 1882 he had to give up business, and devote all his time to the work. The various buildings, with a total colony of over 1300 children, are made as like real "homes" as possible, each being under a married couple, who are known as "father" and "mother." A beautiful church is provided, with accommodation for 1500, and a dry-land ship, the *James Arthur*, enables future sailors to learn the rudiments of their calling. From 1894 onwards till his death in 1903, Mr. Quarrier also busied himself with the erection of consumptive sanatoria. His work was passed on to his wife, and since her demise to his three daughters, Miss Mary Quarrier, Mrs. Findlay, and Mrs. Burges. The annual expenditure is now about £30,000. The west of Scotland has good reason to be at once proud of and grateful for the life-work of the Quarriers.

The spirit of giving has taken a worthy hold on a large proportion of the moneyed class of modern Scotsmen. Even in earlier centuries Scotland was

enriched by the benefactions of such men as George Heriot ("Jingling Geordie," 1563-1624), the goldsmith of James VI., and founder of Heriot's School in Edinburgh, and the brothers Hutcheson of Lambhill (George died 1639 and Thomas died 1641), who endowed Hutchesons' Hospital and School in Glasgow.

Gillespie's School, Edinburgh, was endowed by James Gillespie, a snuff manufacturer, who died in 1797. Donaldson's Hospital, Edinburgh, for deaf and dumb children, was designed by Playfair, and was built and endowed from a sum of £220,000 left by James Donaldson (1751-1830), an Edinburgh newspaper proprietor and bookseller. Other noted educational foundations are Robert Gordon's College, Aberdeen, George Watson's College, Edinburgh, and Allan Glen's School, Glasgow. Fettes College, one of the four Scottish "public schools" on the English model, was founded from the fortune of Sir William Fettes (1750-1836), an Edinburgh merchant and lord provost.

Early in the nineteenth century, James Dick, a native of Forres, left £113,000 which, as the "Dick Bequest," has given such an impetus to education in the counties of Elgin, Banff, and Aberdeen.

James Baird of Gartsherrie (1802-76), mine-owner and ironmaster, presented half a million pounds to the Church of Scotland in 1873, and founded the "Baird Lectures," in connection with that body. Glasgow, Edinburgh, and Aberdeen Universities owe munificent extensions of their premises to the Marquess of Bute, the Right Honourable William M'Ewan, and Mr. Charles Mitchell, LL.D., respectively. Glasgow has received parks from the late Mr. James Dick, of gutta-percha fame, and from Mr. Archibald Cameron Corbett, one of Scotland's most public-spirited men of to-day. Lord Overtoun chose to distribute his great wealth

freely when alive, besides leaving over £60,000 to various philanthropic and religious causes.

From among large employers of labour who have set excellent examples in devoting much of their wealth to increasing the comfort of their workers, and improving the conditions of life in the towns where their fortunes have been made, mention must be made of the Patons of Alloa, and of the Paisley families of Coats and Clark.

For sheer magnitude of benefaction we must of course turn to those Scots who have "been to America," such as Lords Stratheona and Mount Stephen, noticed in Chapter XLIV., and Mr. Andrew Carnegie, whose gifts (including two millions sterling to the Scottish universities and a quarter of a million for the British Hero Fund), total out at some twenty-five million pounds.

Recently the late Sir Donald Currie handed over to London University, per Lord Rosebery as Chancellor and Lord Reay as President (both Scotsmen), the sum of £100,000. Mr. J. Martin White endowed a professorship in the same institution in 1907.

When it is remembered that the benefactions of Scotsmen to institutions in England are never balanced by donations sent northwards by Englishmen, and that the contributions of Scotsmen to charitable objects per head of the population greatly exceed those of the southern kingdom, it is obvious that the time has come when the traditional taunts as to Scottish "meanness" ought to be laid to rest.

Two important moral influences—the Y.M.C.A. movement and the Boys' Brigade—had their origin in the west of Scotland during this period.

The honour of originating the Y.M.C.A. movement is claimed for David Naismith of Glasgow, who visited

fifty-five cities in North America on behalf of this cause before his death in 1839, besides initiating the Glasgow City Mission.

The Boys' Brigade was started in 1883 by Mr. W. A. Smith¹ of Glasgow (a native of Caithness) for the "promotion of habits of obedience, reverence, discipline, self-respect, and all that tends towards a true Christian manliness." The organisation numbers in Great Britain over 66,000 lads from twelve to seventeen years of age, with about 6000 officers; and America and the Colonies have in all a number almost equal to that in the mother-country. The whole organisation is controlled from the Glasgow headquarters. The semi-jubilee of the movement was celebrated by a review of over 10,000 boys at Glasgow on 5th September 1908. Brigades on a similar model have been started by the Episcopal, Roman Catholic, and Jewish Churches.

Savings Banks had been instituted in Germany in the previous century, and they now found a congenial soil in Scotland. The honour of founding the first Scottish Savings Bank has been eagerly claimed by many towns and villages. It may now, however, be regarded as established that the actual pioneer was the Rev. Henry Duncan, D.D. (later a Moderator of the Church of Scotland), who in 1810 founded a small Savings Bank for his parishioners at Ruthwell, near Annan in Dumfriesshire. By his warm and strenuous advocacy of this very practical form of self-help, Dr. Duncan did more than any other man to interest the public and the Government in the movement. Among the earliest Savings Banks were those of West Calder, Hawick and Kelso, while the pioneer establishments on a larger scale were those of Edinburgh, Paisley, Greenock and Glasgow. The Glasgow Savings Bank

¹ Born, 1854; knighted, June 1909.

is to-day the premier institution of the kind in the British Empire, with transactions exceeding those of London, and exceeding those of Manchester and Liverpool combined. Scotland as a whole maintains her reputation for thrift. In 1905, for instance, England and Wales, with a population of thirty-two and a half millions, had thirty-two and a quarter million pounds in the savings banks; Scotland, with four and a half million people, had eighteen and a half million pounds, while Ireland's four and a half millions could only boast two and a half million pounds. The official returns for 1908 show that Scotland's deposits have risen to nearly twenty million pounds, representing the savings of half a million depositors at sixty different Trustee Savings Banks. This figure, of course, does not include the Savings Bank business done at the various Post Offices throughout Scotland.

The co-operative movement has naturally met with much support in Scotland. Bearing in mind the respective populations of Scotland and England, it is a striking fact that the wholesale co-operative societies of the former country manufactured in 1904 nearly two million pounds' worth of staple goods, against three and a quarter millions' worth of output in the case of the sister-country.

CHAPTER XXXV

SCOTTISH RELIGION SINCE THE REVOLUTION SETTLEMENT.

“NEC tamen consumebatur.”—Ex. iii. 2.

“À MON sens, le protestantisme presbytérien est le poème qui convient ici, triste, grandiose, borné, excellent pour reposer l'homme sur lui-même, pour l'attacher au travail et lui faire supporter la vie.”

TAINÉ on Scotland in *Notes sur l'Angleterre*.

FROM the great struggle which at the Protestant Reformation rent so many countries of Europe asunder, Scotland had come out almost unscathed. The Reformation, broad-based upon the people's will, contained elements of thoroughness and endurance which were absent in England, where the more scanty measures of reform had been largely imposed upon the people by their rulers. After the death of Knox, a struggle lasting for 120 years, between the people as representing Presbyterianism, and the kings as representing Episcopacy,—a struggle in which the national power of endurance was tested to the uttermost—ended at last in the complete triumph of Presbyterianism. The Stuarts were driven from the thrones of both England and Scotland, and William of Orange reigned in their stead as the champion of Protestantism. The national form of religion was established by law, and it seemed as if from and after 1690, Scotland were ready to settle down to a time of

peace in political and religious matters. Macaulay declares that at this Revolution period "more than nineteen-twentieths of those Scotchmen whose consciences were interested in the matter were Presbyterians, and that not one Scotchman in twenty was decidedly and on conviction an Episcopalian."

And if the Scottish people had thus triumphed in securing free course for their favourite form of worship, the result showed that they were not unworthy of that victory. In spite of their sufferings for the past thirty years at the hands of Episcopacy there was no revenge in the hour of triumph, no massacre of their opponents in religion, and no shadow of persecution beyond the removal from their charges of some 200 Episcopal ministers who had been forced on Presbyterian charges, and who were now deposed, not on religious grounds, but for refusing to accord allegiance to the new monarch chosen by the two nations. A few of these deposed clergy were treated to some horseplay, an event known as the "rabbling of the curates."

Lord Moncrieff says: "There is little more dignified in history than the attitude of the Scottish people at the accession of William and Mary. The Declaration of Right is a document worthy of that great occasion. Free from enthusiasm, fanaticism, or violence of any kind, it states with gravity and force the rights of the nation which had been so long denied and so recklessly violated." Roughly speaking, the Scottish Church was restored to the position it had held in the days of Knox and Melville, after a hundred years of trial and persecution directly attributable to the Union of the Crowns. The right to appoint ministers now rested with the heritors and kirk-session of each parish, who were to propose to the

congregation a candidate for any vacancy. If the congregation disapproved of the party selected, their reasons were submitted to the Presbytery, whose decision was to be final. Patronage, therefore, was to all intents and purposes abolished; but even this arrangement failed to satisfy many of the Cameronians, or extreme Covenanters, who objected to the Church as now established on the ground that it was Erastian and latitudinarian. From the "Societies" formed by them from 1680 onwards they were now known as "Society Men." They had no minister till 1706, when the Rev. John M'Millan was deposed from the Establishment, and became the first pastor of the "Reformed Presbyterians," or "M'Millanites," as the Cameronians now came to be occasionally named.

Strange to say, hundreds of Episcopal ministers were allowed to occupy parish pulpits, and to enjoy the benefices of the Established Church. The whole spirit of the time was drifting towards toleration,—a principle genuinely fostered by the new king. In his letter to the General Assembly in October 1690 the king declared: "We never could be of the mind that violence was suited to the advancing of true religion, nor do we intend that our authority shall ever be made a tool to the irregular passions of any party. Moderation is what religion enjoins, what neighbouring churches expect from you, and what we recommend to you."

Within the Church itself, hasty decisions of the General Assembly were rendered impossible by the Barrier Act (1697), which provided that no drastic change in worship, doctrine, discipline, or Church government could be made until the point in question had been sent down to the various districts, and had received the sanction of a majority of Presbyteries.

But alas for human hopes ! The bright and peaceful prospect thus spread out before Scottish religion was soon to be clouded by an Act passed by English votes in the British Parliament, in direct violation of the solemn agreement in the Treaty of Union between England and Scotland. In 1707 the two countries were united, and the independence of the Scottish Church was guaranteed by treaty. In 1711, within four years of the Union, an Act for the Restoration of Patronage passed both Houses of Parliament by large majorities. So eager were the Lords to hurry this measure through, that they suspended the Standing Orders of their venerable House in order to take the Second and Third Readings in one day ! From May 1712, when it took effect, this Act proved a veritable apple of discord for all time coming.

As Macaulay puts it : "The British Legislature violated the Articles of Union, and made a change in the constitution of the Church of Scotland. Year after year the General Assembly protested against the violation, but in vain ; and from the Act of 1712 undoubtedly flowed every secession and schism that has taken place in the Church of Scotland."

For a short time the true evils of this iniquitous Act were not felt, and leisure was allowed for a somewhat academic controversy to arise on the relationship of the "covenant of grace" to the "covenant of works." An edition of a book called the *Marrow of Modern Divinity*, originally published in England during the Commonwealth period, was brought out in Scotland. It laid much stress on the doctrine of Justification by Faith, and created a great stir in the country. In 1720 the book was condemned by the Assembly on the score of its "antinomianism," that is, of laying undue stress on faith as a means of salvation as com-

pared with works or obedience. A dozen ministers protested against this decision, and were nicknamed the "Marrowmen." The whole quarrel is memorable chiefly because the twelve protesting ministers included those two remarkable brothers, Ebenezer and Ralph Erskine, who were soon to be the leaders of the first great exodus from the national Church. In the ranks of the Marrowmen was also included Thomas Boston of Ettrick, author of the *Fourfold State*, a book which for generations ranked next to the Bible and the *Pilgrim's Progress* as a favourite with devout Scotsmen.

Ere long the naturally tyrannical and unpopular nature of the principle of patronage made itself felt. The patrons, being landed gentry, were largely Episcopalians and Catholics, and naturally made appointments unpalatable to the taste of the strongly Presbyterian churchgoers. Numerous disputes soon arose, and the General Assembly usually decided these in favour of the patrons. In 1732 the Assembly went so far as to pass an Act which gave the right of election to heritors instead of to congregations in cases where the patron had failed to exercise his legal privileges. This Act, unlike that of 1712, was not imposed by the State, but voluntarily adopted by the ruling part in the Church. For a sermon preached at Stirling in October 1732, disapproving of this Act, Ebenezer Erskine was censured by the Assembly of 1733; and when he and other three ministers protested, they were suspended from the ministry in August, and sentenced in November to deposition. In December of the same year the four ministers constituted themselves into an "Associate Presbytery," with Erskine as Moderator, and declared their decision to make a Secession from "the prevailing party in the

Established Church." It was not till 1740 that the sentence of deposition was formally carried out, and as others, including Ralph Erskine, had now joined the Seceders, we may really date the existence of the Secession as a regular Church from that year. In spite of a certain combativeness in matters of small concern, we must at least concede to these first dissenters the honour of insisting on the inalienable right of the people to elect their own ministers.

There is, however, almost a humorous side to the Secession, lending colour to Matthew Arnold's remark that "Presbyterianism is born unto separation as the sparks fly upward." Small and humble as it was in its origin, we should scarcely have expected this infant Church to subdivide; but in 1747 we find it splitting into two bodies, who came to be called the Burghers and the Antiburghers. The question in dispute was whether it was allowable for a seceder to take the oath required of burgesses, to support "the true religion presently professed within the realm and authorised by the laws thereof." The Burghers, including Erskine, held that as the legal religion was at least Protestant and Presbyterian, it was quite satisfactory enough to be approved of in general terms. In fact, Erskine always argued himself into the belief that he had no quarrel with the Established Church as such, but only with the dominant patronage or moderate party. The Antiburghers, with at least equal logic, declared that if the State religion were satisfactory, they need never have left the Church, and they now proceeded to form for themselves a "General Associate Synod," and actually to excommunicate Erskine and his fellow-burghers.

By the year 1750 patronage was enforced with a disregard for popular opinion which bordered on brutality. Hitherto the General Assembly had con-

tented itself by sending "riding committees" of their number to "override" the objections of presbyteries which held out against unpopular inductions. Now, however, they went so far as to call in the military to help in the induction of undesirable clergymen. In 1752, Thomas Gillespie of Carnock, in the Presbytery of Dunfermline, was deposed by the Assembly, mainly by the influence of Dr. William Robertson, for refusing to take part in or to accede to a forced settlement of this kind; and his deposition caused a second secession, a body being formed known as the Relief Church. This schism is often referred to as the Second Secession.

So far as the General Assembly was concerned, it was little affected by these two secessions, and was really inclined to look upon them with contempt. But the seceding ministers were supported by a strong body of public opinion, and by 1766 the Established Church woke up to the fact that the dissenting churches could muster 100,000 people, while the number of congregations was rapidly approaching 200. Generally speaking, the dissenting ministers stood for freedom of speech and of conscience, and insisted on a severe code of morality and social behaviour; while in the ranks of their followers democracy was finding its strength, and learning to defy the arrogance of the privileged clergy and the privileged classes in general. The Established Church, in the latter half of the eighteenth century, prided itself on its easy-going spirit. It numbered among its clergy several men of outstanding culture and literary ability, such as Dr. William Robertson the historian, Home the author of the tragedy of *Douglas*, Dr. Thomas Reid the philosopher, and Dr. Hugh Blair (1718-1800), whose published sermons were eagerly read throughout Britain, and were translated into most of the continental languages.

The dominant party in the Church were called "the Moderates." They allowed considerable breadth of belief, and in social life they allowed still greater liberty of conduct, counting it no disgrace for a minister to indulge in conviviality to a degree which would nowadays be considered far beyond the bounds of propriety.

The care of souls rested very lightly upon them, and they scorned any appearance of evangelical enthusiasm. The proposal to institute foreign missions was scouted as ridiculous and visionary, while even the idea of Sunday schools was strenuously opposed. In 1799 the Moderates passed an Act which prohibited ministers from "employing to preach upon any occasion, or dispense any of the ordinances of the gospel," any persons not qualified to accept presentation as ministers. This shut the pulpits of the parish churches against evangelical influences from England or elsewhere, and drove men such as the Haldanes (nephews of Admiral Duncan, and grand-uncles of the present Secretary for War) to exert their energies out-with the pale of the national Church. The extent to which men of evangelical tendencies were thus led to look to England for sympathy led to the rise in Scotland of "Congregationalism," based on a similar movement in South Britain. The Congregational Union of Scotland was formed about 1810.

It may be mentioned that nearly a century earlier John Glass (1695-1773) had founded a sect, frequently referred to as the "Glassites," who likewise substituted Independency for Presbyterianism. From Glass's son-in-law, Robert Sandeman, the adherents of this sect are known in America as "Sandemanians."

Robert Haldane (1764-1842) founded in 1797 the Society for Propagating the Gospel at Home. He

erected numerous "tabernacles" for evangelistic meetings, and in twelve years he spent over £70,000 in this cause. In 1796 he had asked the East India Company for permission to found a mission in Bengal, but this was refused. His brother, James A. Haldane (1768-1851), relinquishing a promising maritime career, became in 1799 pastor of an independent church in Edinburgh. Here he preached without salary for fifty years, joining his congregation to the Baptists in 1808. To the Haldanes is due the opening of Sunday schools in Scotland.

The general attitude of the so-called Moderate party being such as we have described, it is odd to find them seriously concerned about anything. But on one point we find them absolutely dogged and determined, namely, in the desire to enforce and support the "rights" of patronage at any cost, and in face of whatever opposition on the part of the bulk of the common people. They surrounded the Established Church with an air of comfortable Toryism of the old school, which clung around it until almost within living memory.

In the end of the century, Europe was shaken by the upheavals of the French Revolution. That movement, however, had very little effect on Scotland. The atheistic ideas of the French Revolutionists repelled the Scottish mind, and one more generation was to pass before our country was fully ripe for political reform. Nevertheless, there was perceptible in many pulpits a widening of ideas and a greater readiness to adapt religion in thought and in practice to the requirements of science and of modern life.

At this same time a further schism occurred in the already divided ranks of the Secession. Burghers and Antiburghers alike, the former in 1799 and the latter

in 1806, became subdivided into New Lights and Auld Lights, making four bodies in all.

The point in dispute in this quarrel concerned the limits of the civil magistrate's power in ecclesiastical affairs. Like the Established Church, the Auld Lights held by a modicum of "Erastianism" in recognising the civil power, while the New Lights foreshadowed the "Voluntaries" of a generation later in their claims for the autonomy of the Church within the State in matters spiritual.¹

In the early part of the nineteenth century we find a stirring of the bones of the Established Church, owing chiefly to the energy and earnestness of Dr. Andrew Thomson, Dr. Thomas Chalmers, and a few men of lesser calibre but of similar spirit, such as Principal Baird and Dr. Inglis. Thomson's periodical, the *Christian Instructor*, warmly advocated and supported missions, Bible societies, and Sabbath schools, and by 1824 it was in full cry against the abuses of patronage.

During his eight years' ministry in Glasgow, from 1815 onwards, Thomas Chalmers (1780-1847), a native of Anstruther in Fife, imported an entirely new ideal into the work of the ministry. He popularised the evangelical side of Christianity, and his preaching was such as to call forth from J. G. Lockhart the statement: "Unquestionably I have never heard, whether in England or Scotland, or in any other country, any preacher whose eloquence is capable of producing an effect so strong and irresistible as his." What was far more important than his preaching was the fact that he imbued so large a section of the Glasgow

¹ Apart from their use in this controversy, the terms "New Lights" and "Auld Lights" are often employed in another relation,—the former to denote persons with a tendency to Broad Churchism, the latter those of strict orthodoxy.

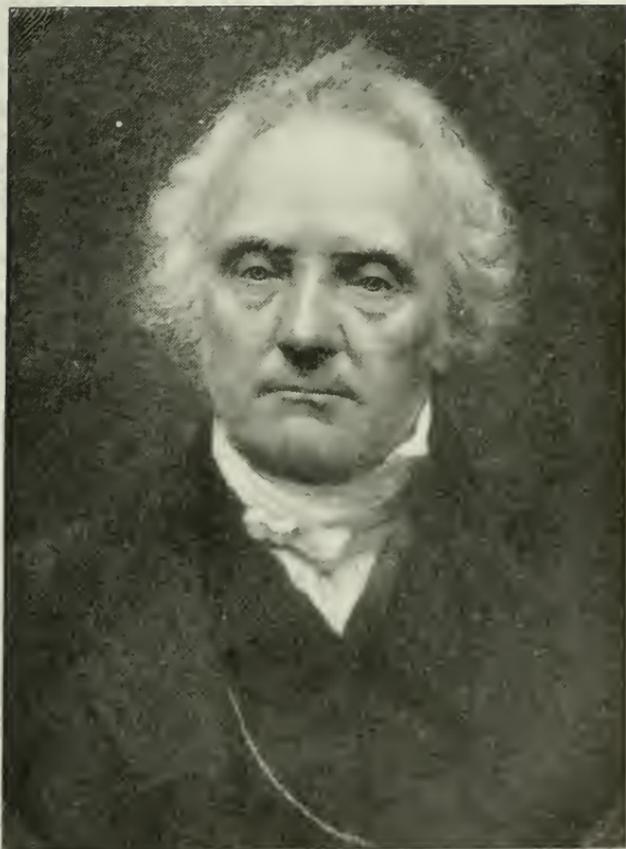
public with the desire to serve their less favoured brethren. He achieved his great object of showing that in a busy city parish the work of poor relief could be successfully carried on without any help from rates or taxes. After leaving Glasgow, Chalmers was for five years Professor of Moral Philosophy at St. Andrews, and thereafter Professor of Divinity at Edinburgh.

In 1829 the Scottish Church entered on a new and important work by sending Dr. Duff to India as its first missionary to that country. At home, owing to the burning zeal of Chalmers, a Church extension scheme was entered upon so energetically that in the four years from 1834 onwards nearly two hundred "chapels of ease" were founded as adjuncts to the Established Church.

While the Established Church was thus bestirring itself, the dissenting Churches had also been making headway. In 1820 the New Licht Burghers and New Licht Antiburghers agreed to drop their paltry differences, and joined in forming the United Secession Church.

The Auld Licht Burghers, satisfied with the new movement within the Church headed by Chalmers, mostly joined the Established Church in 1839. The Auld Licht Antiburghers, one of whose ministers was the scholarly Dr. Thomas M'Crie (1772-1835), still maintained a separate existence as the "Original Seceders," being augmented by wanderers from other folds on the occasion of the above-mentioned unions.

Edward Irving (1792-1834), a native of Annan, is best known to many as the friend of Carlyle. After assisting Dr. Chalmers in St. John's, Glasgow, he preached for some ten years in London. In 1832 he was deposed from the ministry owing to his mystical ideas and his claim to the possession of the gift of



REV. DR THOMAS CHALMERS.

prophecy. He now founded a body of Christians which developed into the so-called Catholic Apostolic Church or Irvingites, holding the usual Christian beliefs, but recognising its officials as prophets, angels, etc.

Gradually the two main dissenting bodies, the Relief and the United Secession, became more hostile to the Establishment, and by 1831 they had set afoot the Voluntary Controversy in deadly earnest. They asserted that the Church of Scotland was bound hand and foot to the State, and declared that not until the bond of State connection should be loosed could the Church enjoy genuine spiritual independence. It was in the attempt to meet this charge that the controversy began within the Established Church which was soon to lead to the Disruption.

The leader of the popular party within the Church was by common consent recognised to be Thomas Chalmers, who became Moderator of the General Assembly in 1832. In 1833 he introduced a measure known as the Veto Bill, which, though rejected at first, was passed by the General Assembly of the following year, the most eminent lawyers, including the law officers of the Crown, declaring that they had no doubt as to the right of the Church to pass the measure. It enacted that in the event of a minister being presented to a charge, but objected to by a majority of the male heads of families who were members of the church, ordination would not be proceeded with.

In the same year, 1834, occurred the famous Auchterarder case which precluded the famous "Ten Years' Conflict." Mr. Robert Young was presented to the charge by the Earl of Kinnoull, but was vetoed by the congregation. Only two heads of families signed his call, while 287 protested against it.

The General Assembly in 1835 very naturally

supported the Presbytery in refusing to proceed with the call, but the Earl of Kinnoull got a decision of the Court of Session in favour of his presentee, and in May 1838 the House of Lords ordered the Presbytery to ignore the decision of the General Assembly and to accept the earl's nominee. The Assembly agreed to allow Mr. Young the temporalities of the parish, but not to induct him. The earl applied once more to the House of Lords, and in August 1842 obtained a decision ordering the Assembly to allow Mr. Young's induction, failing which the latter was to be awarded damages estimated by himself at £10,000. The highest court of appeal in the land thus definitely invaded what was unquestionably the spiritual domain of the Church, and held that the rights of patrons were to have precedence over the clearly expressed convictions of Church and people alike.

Other cases of a similar kind led to open conflict between the Church courts and the Court of Session, the most notable being the Marnoch case, where the presentee procured from the Court of Session a command to the Presbytery of Strathbogie to make trial of his qualifications in spite of the universal opposition of the congregation. The Presbytery chose to obey the Court of Session, and seven members of it were accordingly deposed by the General Assembly.

In 1838 the Court of Session had declared the Veto Act illegal, but the Scottish people were not prepared to submit so tamely to the abuses of patronage. In 1840 a petition against patronage, signed by 180,000 people, was presented to Parliament, and at the General Assembly of 1842 a resolution against the same principle was carried by 216 votes to 147, and an overture was adopted declaring that the Courts of Law "had invaded the jurisdiction of the Courts of

the Church, and illegally attempted to coerce Church courts in the exercise of their purely spiritual functions, —all of this in violation of the Treaty of Union, and in disregard of divers express enactments of the Legislature.”

The Government in London—Whig and Tory alike—had utterly failed to gauge Scottish sentiment in the matter, professing to sneer at the whole question as a mere “parson’s brawl.” In November 1842 a great meeting of ministers was held in Edinburgh to warn the Government of the dangers ahead in Scotland if Church privileges were invaded as they had been; but the only answer of Parliament was a decisive ruling that “the Church could only enjoy the immunities and emoluments of an establishment by submission to the State and obedience to the sentences of the civil tribunal in matters sacred as well as secular.” In Parliament twenty-five Scottish members out of thirty-seven had supported the Scottish Church in its “Claim of Right,” but as usual their opinions were overruled by the English votes.

Thus we are brought to the fateful 18th of May 1843, when the General Assembly met in St. Andrew’s Church, Edinburgh. After his opening prayer the Moderator, Dr. Welsh, instead of constituting the Assembly, declared that the law courts and Government had violated the fundamental terms of union between Church and State in the nation. He next read a protest signed by 203 ministers who were members of Assembly, declaring how they were forced to separate “from an establishment which they loved and prized, through interference with conscience, the dishonour done to Christ’s crown, and the rejection of His sole and supreme authority as King in His Church.” He then bowed to the Royal Commissioner, quitted

the chair, and left the church, followed by Chalmers and most of the talent of the Assembly.

A great concourse of people had gathered outside. Shouts of welcome greeted the ministers as they filed out in procession and were joined by other ministers till their number reached over 450. Proceeding to Tanfield Hall at Canonmills, they constituted the First General Assembly of the Church of Scotland Free, with Dr. Chalmers as Moderator.

In his address as Moderator, Chalmers thus defined the position of the "Free Protestant Church of Scotland": "We now make a higher appeal, from our constitution, which has been disregarded, to our conscience, which tells us that the ecclesiastical ought not to be subjected to the civil power in things spiritual. We are therefore compelled, though with great reluctance and deep sorrow of heart, to quit the advantages of the Scottish Establishment, because she has fallen from her original principles, in the hope that we shall be suffered to prosecute our labours in peace on the grounds of British toleration."

Justin M'Carthy says: "The history of Scotland is illustrated by many great national deeds. No deed it tells of surpasses in dignity and in moral grandeur" this secession from the Establishment.

Four hundred and seventy-four ministers and professors had surrendered their churches, with livings amounting in all to £100,000 a year. Greater sacrifice still, three hundred and sixty teachers followed them.

Lord Cockburn, however, gives the palm for honourable self-sacrifice to the "two hundred probationers who have extinguished all their hopes at the very moment when the vacancies of four hundred and fifty pulpits made their rapid success almost certain."

He proudly adds : " What similar sacrifice has ever been made in the British Empire ? It is the most honourable fact for Scotland that its whole history supplies. The common sneers at the venality of our country, never just, are now absurd."

There were now wanted at once six or seven hundred new churches ; but ministers and people had struggled hand in hand before in Scotland, and they were ready to face their heavy task again. The faith that is bred of past achievements nerved them for the effort. Well might Lord Jeffrey exclaim, " I'm proud of my country ; there is not another country upon earth where such a deed could have been done."

By the month of October the new Church had raised £200,000 for its building fund. In the first year of its existence the Free Church raised in all £366,000, and in the second year £334,000. Within a quarter of a century she had built 920 churches, 719 manses, and 597 schools. In the forty years following the Disruption the Free Church of Scotland raised seventeen million pounds for religious and allied purposes.

All this is the more noteworthy when we remember that as usual the aristocracy opposed the popular movement, with only three outstanding exceptions, Fox Maule (afterwards Earl of Dalhousie), the Duchess of Gordon, and the Marquess of Breadalbane. Chalmers indignantly said on one occasion, " Is it to be endured that the upper classes should tell us that *they* support the Church ? They don't ! The only relation in which they exist to the Church is, that 200 years ago they robbed it, and now they offer to enslave it." In the strenuous attempts to place the new church on a safe financial basis much credit is due to Rev. Thomas Guthrie (1803-73), a native of Brechin, one of the most popular preachers of his time. Apart from

Church work, Guthrie engaged in many philanthropical schemes, notably the opening of Ragged Schools.

Relieved of the drag of the Moderates, the Free Church naturally showed a strong evangelical and missionarising spirit. Every missionary of the Church came out at the Disruption, and the new Church decided to go on with every branch of the former mission work, although the buildings and funds were retained by the Established Church. David Stow's Normal College at Dundas Vale, Glasgow, was held by the Establishment, but another was soon erected in Cowcaddens close at hand. A Theological College was urgently required, and ere long the noble pile of buildings on the Mound formed a fitting home for training ministers for the Free Church. The Highlanders almost as a body went over to the Free Church, and were gladly welcomed, although their landlords refused sites for churches, and even forbade the use of hillsides or churchyards for Free Church services. The Free Church since then has done as much to raise the Highlands morally and intellectually as our antiquated land laws and our deer forests have done to impoverish and depopulate them.

In the same month as the Free Church there was founded the Morisonian body, which later became the Evangelical Union of Scotland. Its members split from the Secession Church on the question of the universality of God's love, a point on which their opinion has now been tacitly adopted by the majority of Presbyterians. They held that man is a free agent, and so they rejected the idea of unconditional election.

Their founder was Rev. James Morison (1816-93), a native of Bathgate, who was expelled in 1841 from the United Secession Church for his views on the Atonement. The Evangelical Union Church has

throughout been a strong force on behalf of temperance, all its ministers being total abstainers. At the end of 1896 it amalgamated with the Congregational Union.

In 1847 the Secession Church, which, as already mentioned, had become reunited in 1820, joined hands with the Relief Church, and there emerged as the result the United Presbyterian Church of Scotland, familiarly known as the U.P. Church. At the time of this union, the Secession numbered 384 congregations, and the Relief 113. Henceforth the United Presbyterian Church, during its 53 years of healthy separate existence, became essentially the Church of the upper middle class in Scotland. It had little support in the country districts, but in the cities and towns it wielded great influence. It did not attempt to rival the work of the Established and the Free Church in the Highlands, but through this very fact it found its hands free for work in the foreign field, and it earned the reputation of being the "Missionary Church" of Scotland. At the time of its union with the Free Church in 1900, the United Presbyterian Church, while it had only about 200,000 members as against 350,000 Free and 600,000 Established communicants, possessed the greatest number of foreign missionaries, and far exceeded the two sister-Churches in its contributions per head to this work. The United Presbyterian Church founded numerous congregations in the north of England, but there gradually grew up a general desire among the English Presbyterians for an organisation independent of the Scottish Churches, and in 1876 the Presbyterian Church of England was constituted, with 98 congregations. The vast majority of these had been United Presbyterian foundations, but their mother-Church generously and cordially agreed to their severance in order to render possible this English union. The

Presbyterian Church of England has now some 300 congregations.

In 1852 the Auld Licht Antiburghers, or Original Seceders, voted among themselves on the question of a union with the Free Church ; and as there was only a majority of one in favour of the step, one-half of the body joined the Free Church, while the remnant remained apart and still preserved the name of the Original Secession Church.

In 1876 the bulk of the Reformed Presbyterians, or Cameronians, saw fit to join the Free Church, although in this case also a small number of congregations stood apart and continued the old name.

And what of the Established Church itself? Numerically it had lost almost half its clergy and members by the Disruption. Intellectually it had lost in even greater measure. When Welsh, Chalmers, Candlish, Cunningham, Guthrie, and other leaders of the people filed out on that 18th of May, there moved into their places a body of clergymen known as "The Forty," who approved of the Disruption principles, but who either lacked the courage of their convictions or hoped to reform the Church from within. The Luthers had gone : these remained as the Erasmuses of Presbyterianism. Yet, puny men as these were alongside of the Disruption giants, they were probably the best that the Establishment could now number in its ranks.

The traveller in Southern Germany may take his stand on the fortress of Ehrenbreitstein, the Gibraltar of the Rhine, and watch the junction of the blue Moselle with the tawny waters of the Rhine. After their junction the two rivers can be separately distinguished for some considerable distance, but at last the muddy Rhine gains the mastery, and the pure water of the Moselle passes into inevitable contamina-

tion. It would be a stupendous miracle of nature to reverse the process, and cause one muddy stream to separate into a pure current and a yellow one. It would be a more striking miracle if the yellow stream, flowing onwards in its course, became blue and limpid as the other. Yet what in the natural sphere is unthinkable really happened in the moral and spiritual sphere at the Disruption. The best of the Church had flowed away in a side current, but what was left gradually cleared itself, gradually came to flow with a purer and sweeter stream, until out of one half-hearted Church, such as the beginning of the nineteenth century had to show, there emerged two hard-working earnest Churches, alike in all that is most essential, worthy rivals in their Master's service. Giants had left the Establishment, but within its walls arose others of like stature, such as Norman Macleod, Principal John Tulloch, Principal John Caird, Professor Flint, and Professor Charteris. The Church extension movement set afoot by Chalmers was worthily carried on by Dr. James Robertson of Ellon, who introduced the principle of endowing *quoad sacra* parishes and giving their ministers a seat in the Church courts. By the time of Robertson's death in 1860, £160,000 had been raised for this purpose, and sixty-one parishes had been endowed. By the end of the century this number rose to about four hundred.

The Foreign Mission work of the Established Church was resumed after a short period of preparation, and colonial work furnished a new outlet of energy.

Even the obnoxious system which had caused the Church to be rent in twain was condemned in a most unexpected quarter, when in 1874 a Conservative Government abolished Patronage, and vested the right of electing ministers in communicants and adherents.

After 162 years the British Government thus admitted its error, an error without which the Church of Scotland would probably have remained a united whole.

Norman Macleod (1812-72), a native of Campbeltown, and minister of the Barony Church in Glasgow, is usually regarded as the most powerful personality in the Established Church ministry since the Disruption. The similar place of honour in the United Presbyterian ministry is usually accorded to John Cairns (1818-92), and in the Free Church to Robert Rainy (1826-1907). It has been said that "Chalmers vitalised the churches; Norman Macleod humanised them; the influence of Cairns was in a more exclusively spiritual region." Rainy's work was largely devoted to the interests of the Highlands, and to the political and administrative aspects of religion. To Dr. Robert Lee is due the tendency in the Established Church, which also spread to the other Churches, to introduce a more dignified and ornate mode of worship, with greater attention to music. Owing to the national distrust of anything savouring of ritualism, Lee's innovations have met with only a modified welcome.

During the nineteenth century all the Churches had their turn of heresy-hunting, issuing in the long-run in a broadening and humanising of the older rigid beliefs. John M'Leod Campbell (1800-72), parish minister of Row, was deposed in 1831 for preaching the universality of the Atonement. Thereafter he preached without salary for two years in the Highlands, and afterwards for twenty-six years in Glasgow, receiving the degree of D.D. from his old University of Glasgow in 1868. In 1879, David Macrae, United Presbyterian minister of Gourock, was ejected from the Church for heretical opinions on the

question of eternal punishment, but he was called to the unattached Gilfillan Memorial Church in Dundee.

Dr. Wm. Robertson Smith (1846-94) was removed from the Chair of Hebrew and Old Testament Exegesis of the Free Church College, Aberdeen, in 1881, owing to his advanced ideas in the direction of the Higher Criticism. He found employment on the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, of which he became chief editor in 1887. He also held the Chairs of Arabic and Hebrew at Cambridge.

The United Presbyterian Church gave more latitude to its officials by the Declaratory Act of 1879, and the Free Church followed its example in 1892. The breadth of view allowed by the latter Church, and subsequently by the United Free Church, was manifested in the toleration extended to Professors Marcus Dods, A. B. Bruce, Henry Drummond (author of *The Ascent of Man* and of *Natural Law in the Spiritual World*), and George Adam Smith, though the "soundness" of their opinions formed matter of dispute at various times between 1890 and 1902. The Free Church, in fact, during the last twenty years of the nineteenth century, was probably foremost among the Churches of the English-speaking world in wealth of scholarship and of literary output. In 1905 the Established Church received from Parliament permission to relax its formula.

It is a generally acknowledged fact that the average level of ability in the pulpits of all the Scottish Churches not only excels that reached in other parts of the British Isles, but can bear favourable comparison with that of America or Germany. It has not been thought advisable to particularise in the present work on individual "stars" in the Scottish clerical firmament. At home in Scotland their names are household words: to other than Scottish readers their names

could be little more than words, without individual descriptions which would expand unduly the considerable proportion of space already devoted to religious questions.

What remains to be told of the story of our Scottish Churches is matter of recent experience. The United Presbyterian Church was from the first voluntary in principle, while the Free Church had left the question open, and it was only natural that negotiations for union with the United Presbyterian Church should have been entered on as early as 1863.

Not, however, till the last year of the nineteenth century, by which time the Free Church had become decidedly voluntary in its ideas, was the union consummated by the institution of the United Free Church of Scotland (31st October 1900). The rest is current history, how in the face of the unanimous verdict of both Outer and Inner Houses of the Court of Session, and in spite of virtually the whole public opinion of Scotland, an obscurantist minority were in August 1904 declared by the House of Lords to be the real heirs of the vast possessions of the Free Church in Scotland; and how, in order to right the wrong perpetrated by a tribunal whose dealing with the question at all violates the very spirit and letter of the Treaty of Union, Parliament found it necessary to appoint, in August 1905, an executive commission, with power to allocate the funds and buildings in a more equitable way, but with a generous consideration for the smaller Church. How generously that Church has been treated will be apparent from a few figures. The Free Church vote in favour of union had been 643 to 27, and of 1104 Free Church and 575 United Presbyterian congregations only 26 Free congregations had refused to unite. To this nucleus of a Church there have been

awarded 170 churches, £648,000, and £18,000 a year. The large capital sum allocated is over a third of all the money belonging to the Church before the union. £25,000 of it is ear-marked for Foreign Missions, though every missionary without exception adhered to the union. To the United Free Church are allocated 900 churches and about a million pounds, the latter sum barely representing the legacies of Free Church members since 1873, when the principle of mutual eligibility between Frees and United Presbyterians rendered the union only a matter of time.

Even this disproportion between the amounts allocated and the power to use them meant justice and equity as compared with the decision of the Lords. And how was that decision arrived at? The sins of the Free Church uniting majority were two.

Firstly, they had departed from the Westminster standards! They had taken account of the march of modern thought! In reference to this Lord Rosebery well said: "It has come as a startling surprise to the whole population of Scotland that it should be possible in this twentieth century of ours to bind, nay, to nail a great community to the exact formulas of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries."

Secondly, they had departed from the establishment principle to which the Disruption fathers had held! Mr. Birrell fitly expressed the absurdity of this ground of spoliation by referring to those ministers who at the Disruption left the Church of their fathers for the sake of spiritual independence as "the 470 ministers who, in May 1843, went out penniless into the wilderness in support, as it now appears, of the establishment principle!" Those English law-lords, however, harped upon a citation from a speech by Dr. Chalmers, and held that his words precluded

the Free Church from holding voluntary principles, although, as Mr. Thomas Shaw (now Lord Shaw) has repeatedly pointed out, Dr. Chalmers had within forty-eight hours repudiated this interpretation, "and explained, amid the approbation of the Church, that he had been misrepresented or misreported, and that he had meant nothing of the kind." In any case, here was again a question of judging a great and progressive Church by the dead shibboleths of the past. Well might Mr. Shaw ask, "Who could blame Scotsmen if, with every deference to the law, they spoke plainly and openly about the gross miscarriage of justice which had apparently occurred?"

As in 1843, so in 1904, the Scottish people calmly faced the blow, and bore the sacrifice in the interests of that Protestantism which means, in the highest sense, Liberalism in religion, the adoption of truth from whatever source it is offered, from science and the Book of God's Works as readily as from the Book of His Word, the frank and fearless admission of reverent and enlightened criticism, and the throwing overboard, however unwillingly, of what has become a mere "painted brod,"—of even that which may have done good service in the past, but has outlived its day.

The small though sincere legal Free Church may be left to its natural fate of disappearing with the advance of modern thought, as may the smaller and equally sincere Free Presbyterian Church, which left the larger Free body owing to the passing of the Declaratory Act of 1892. Our concern is rather with the two larger bodies which now confront each other, practically equal in numbers and resources. Are they destined to unite in the future, so that the breaches of our Presbyterian Church may be healed, and that there may emerge once more a truly national Church in Scotland? The omens

at present are all opposed to such a consummation, however desirable. The question of the desirability of an established and endowed Church is too capable of discussion for an argumentative race like the Scottish people to arrive readily at a unanimous solution. But often a union, however desirable in appearance, is not the best solution of a difficulty. Who will dare to say that the Declaration of Independence by the United States of America was in the end a calamity to Britain or to the world? Who will venture to doubt that Wesley's separation from the Episcopal Church was, apart from the foundation of Methodism, a blessing in disguise to the Church of England itself? And may not, therefore, the attitude of the Established and of the United Free Churches be similar to that of Britain and America? The Established Church may well say, as Britain might say to its offshoot, "You left us on good grounds. You have proved your ability to stand alone. We have actually accepted your main principle. We cannot ask you back, but we take pride in your welfare, and are willing to work along with you." And just as America might reply, so may the United Free Church, "You are our parent stock. Your doctrines and principles were in the main agreeable to us even when we left you. From you we learned them. If our differences seemed to you trivial, you will at least believe that to us they meant much, because we were very much in earnest. We are proud of the past which we shared with you before our separation, and we seize the hand of friendship offered by you, while each proceeding by our own path."

Let those who sneer at the divisions of our Scottish Presbyterianism ask themselves whether, after all, our differences are as great as those that exist within, say, the English Church, with its High, Low, and Broad

Church divisions. Let them consider how, in 1872, on the passing of the School Board Act, Established Church and Free Church alike handed over their schools to the nation, and how in 1907 the Established and United Free Churches again acted in the same spirit as regards their training colleges for teachers, so that to-day we have a system of education as nearly national as is likely to be found anywhere, and let them contrast that state of matters with what obtains in England. Let them remember how entirely similar is the training of our ministers, and how much alike is their work not only in purely religious matters, but in all that concerns the intellectual uplifting and social purity of our nation, and they may realise after all that friendly division may be preferable to artificial union. A union of a very practical kind has already taken place between the two Churches in India. The words of Sir Andrew H. L. Fraser, ex-Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, to the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland in 1907, put the case in a nutshell: "In India they knew no difference between the two Churches. There was no way in which the Scottish character came out more fully in India than the manner in which they as Presbyterians stood together. In front of the natives of India Scotsmen were all Presbyterians. The Scottish missionaries had, by their educational work, earned the gratitude of the people, and made a most favourable impression on the Government. They had taken the leading place in all the Presidency towns with their excellent colleges; and they had so laid hold of the hearts of the simple people in the highlands of the Eastern Himalayas that the Government had handed over the whole of the primary education to the oversight of the Scottish missionaries." This hearty co-operation has at length

led to a united Presbyterian Church in India, constituted at Allahabad in December 1904. Sir Andrew himself was appointed Moderator of this united Church in December 1907.

What a contrast this furnishes to the facts revealed to the General Assembly of 1907, immediately after Sir Andrew's speech, as to the contemptuous treatment of Scottish soldiers by the Anglican authorities in India, who under pressure allow ordinary Presbyterian services in Government churches, but absolutely forbid the desecration of any church under their control by a Presbyterian Communion service! This question has both a national and a religious aspect. From the national point of view Lord Balfour of Burleigh has remarked, regarding this question of Indian churches: "We might return the English quip, and say that it took something more than a surgical operation to get into the head of the average Englishman that Scotland was a nation with national feelings, national pride, and national rights. If the English mind in India would insist on regarding Scotland as a foreign country, they must have an ambassador properly accredited, so that they might have their views put forward by the spoken word." The religious aspect reminds us how much is meant by "denominationalism" in the Episcopal sense, as compared with the Presbyterian.

A word must here be said of the Scottish Episcopal Church. In spite of its antiquity, and in spite of its name, that Church has always been more or less of an alien growth in Scotland. As the late Duke of Argyll said, "It was a fungus growth—an unhealthy parasite, living only under the shadow of despotism." It has represented the forces of aristocracy and officialdom, and to-day it maintains its existence chiefly by the recruits it receives from the ranks of noblemen, legal

functionaries, Government servants and others whose advancing luxury makes them feel with Charles II. that "Presbyterianism is no religion for a gentleman."

As for those ritualistic ministers in the Established Church who hold out, as a deterrent to disestablishment, the threat that if the Church be disestablished they will not unite with their Presbyterian brethren, but will go over to the Episcopal Church, they only tend to make practical Scotsmen say, "If these men are tied to Presbyterianism only by the golden chain of State connection, by all means loose them, and let them go." Better a finger aff than aye waggin'!

Almost every secession from the Scottish Church has been really and professedly in the direction of more thorough Presbyterianism. Scarcely one except that of the Evangelical Union Church has been on matters of doctrine, and on that point of doctrine we have at least claimed an open mind. The divisions in our Presbyterianism at the present day are purely in matters of Church Government, that is to say they are purely political.

This being so, whatever the future may have in store for our various Churches, let us be Scotsmen and Presbyterians first and politicians afterwards; for the things that unite us are the real essentials, and those that divide us, important as they may be in discussion, are in the Christian life of very small moment indeed.

" We are not divided,
All one body we,
One in hope, in doctrine,
One in charity."

Note.—The appointment of Committees in May 1909 by the General Assemblies of the Established and United Free Churches, to confer as to co-operation and perhaps ultimate union, possibly marks a step forward in the direction of a re-united Presbyterianism.

CHAPTER XXXVI

SCOTTISH LITERATURE AND JOURNALISM SINCE SCOTT.

"THERE'S theme enow in Caledonian story
Would show the tragic Muse in a' her glory.—
Is there no daring bard will rise and tell
How glorious Wallace stood, how hapless fell?
Where are the Muses fled that could produce
A drama worthy o' the name o' Bruce?"

BURNS.

THE nineteenth century had begun, so far as Scottish literature was concerned, in a blaze of glory, but with Sir Walter Scott the poetical revival which had begun with Ramsay and Thomson may be regarded as having exhausted itself, though it lingered on in the work of Thomas Campbell (1777-1844), a native of Glasgow. Campbell's longer works, such as *The Pleasures of Hope*, and *Gertrude of Wyoming*, were highly appreciated in his own time, but are now regarded as too rhetorical in style, and they have shared in the general neglect of poetry in recent times. More to the taste of the modern world are his war lyrics, such as *Lochiel's Warning*, *Hohenlinden*, and *The Battle of the Baltic*. His *Exile of Erin*, and *Ye Mariners of England*, form no inconsiderable items in Scotland's contribution to the song literature of her sister-kingdoms. The cause of Poland found in Campbell a warm advocate. He was the principal pleader for

the foundation of London University, and with the able help of Lord Brougham he saw the project through.

James Hogg (1770–1835), the “Ettrick Shepherd,” combined an innate talent for poetic expression, and a fund of native humour, with an exaggerated self-esteem which has been punished by the public with a somewhat unfair neglect of Hogg’s real merits. By those best qualified to judge, Hogg is admitted to be the best exponent of the poetry of fairyland, his “Bonnie Kilmeny” episode, in *The Queen’s Wake*, in itself entitling him to this recognition. When to such work are added his tales, such as the Covenanting story of *The Brownie of Bodsbeck*, his contributions to *Blackwood’s Magazine*, and his services in preserving old ballads, we have no reason to feel ashamed of this, our second greatest peasant-poet.

Among the shortlived and moderately endowed poets whom Scotland, like most other lands, has produced, mention must be made of John Leyden (1775–1811), who assisted Scott in collecting materials for the *Border Minstrelsy*, and who evinced an incredible aptitude for languages during his eight years’ official work in India and the East Indies, of David Gray (1838–61), who sang the praises of the little Luggie stream, near his native Kirkintilloch, and of Robert Pollock (1798–1827), author of *The Course of Time*. It has been claimed that the blank verse of the last-named poem, which extends to ten books, approaches more nearly than that of any other British poet to the sonorousness of Milton’s rhythm.

A remarkable instance of native talent triumphing over difficulty was furnished by Janet Hamilton (1795–1873), the Coatbridge poetess, who invented symbols to serve her own purpose in writing, and so overcame



Thomas Ford, R. A.

From the Collection of Augustin Richelieu.

SIR WALTER SCOTT AND HIS FRIENDS AT ABBOTSFORD.

p. 676.

the want of education in early life; the last eighteen years of her life were clouded by blindness.

Professor W. E. Aytoun (1813-65), author of the stirring *Lays of the Scottish Cavaliers*, and other poems, and Sheriff H. G. Bell (1803-74), who wrote the well-known poem on *Mary, Queen of Scots*, with its series of dramatic pictures, are excellent exponents of the "poetical Jacobitism," and the sympathy with the unfortunate Mary, which most Scotsmen manage to harbour in some degree alongside of their conscientious belief in the justice of the interests opposed to such sympathies. Aytoun was joint-author of the clever and humorous *Bon Gaultier Ballads* with Sir Theodore Martin (1816-1909), who is noted for numerous translations and for the *Life of the Prince Consort*.

Genuine poetic talent and power of expression pervaded the work of James Thomson (1834-82), a native of Port-Glasgow, whose *City of Dreadful Night*, full of the morbid views of one who has seen only the more unlovely aspects of life, who has lost hold of religion and has taken refuge in drugs, entitles him to the designation of "the poet of despair."

William Sharp (1855-1905), a native of Paisley, gained a high reputation as a prolific writer of poetry, fiction, and literary criticism. He mystified the public by writing numerous works of Celtic spirit under the *nom de plume* of Fiona Macleod. Many speculations were indulged in as to the identity of this neo-Celtic "authoress," but the secret was not divulged until Sharp's death.

In the region of religious poetry, mention must be made of James Montgomery (1771-1854). Montgomery was born at Irvine, but spent most of his life in Sheffield, where he twice incurred fines and imprisonment for Radicalism in his capacity as an editor

and publisher. The best of his longer poems is the *Pelican Island*. His short poem, *A Voyage round the World*, is well known, and is a fair sample of his work. He was the author of numerous hymns, of which nearly twenty find a place in the Presbyterian Hymnary. Over a dozen hymns in the same collection are culled from the *Hymns of Faith and Hope* by Dr. Horatius Bonar (1808-89), who was minister of Kelso for thirty years, and was thereafter transferred to Edinburgh. Over twenty of his hymns have been included in Roman Catholic collections. He took a keen interest in D. L. Moody's revivals, and some of his hymns were written for Sankey's *Songs and Solos*. His most popular composition is probably, "I heard the voice of Jesus say."

Henry F. Lyte, a native of Ednam, near Kelso, wrote "Abide with Me," "Pleasant are Thy courts above," and other well-known hymns.

That most popular of children's hymns, "There is a Happy Land," was the work of a Scottish schoolmaster, Andrew Young (1807-89).

The elements of permanence can scarcely be claimed in the work of such modern Anglo-Scots as Robert W. Buchanan (1841-1901), and John Davidson (1857-1909); and meanwhile the harp of Scotland is to all intents and purposes silent.

The best we can say of Scottish poetry in modern times is that its message has in great measure permeated the nation, and that its work is so far accomplished. As Professor Veitch, perhaps too optimistically, says: "The feeling for nature has now become part of the daily atmosphere of the Scottish poet, to a considerable extent even of the Scottish people. . . . It is as widespread as the wild-flowers of the land, and often to be found, like one of these, in spontaneous bloom

in out-of-the-way glens,—the solitary and precious glory of the burnside, or the radiance that lights the cottar's brae."

Before quitting the subject of Scottish poetry it may be remarked that Robert Browning was of Scottish lineage on his mother's side.

It is a strange fact that Scotland has not yet produced any dramatic poetry of sterling merit, her share of stage attention being at present limited to such prose adaptations from Scott as *Rob Roy* and *Jeanie Deans*. Yet no country has at hand a more suitable array of dramatic possibilities in the lives of such historical personages as Wallace, Queen Mary, Montrose, Dundee, and Prince Charlie. As in classical music, so in dramatic poetry, Scotland is in an attitude of expectancy.

Her record in dramatic composition being poor, it is natural to find Scotland but scantily represented in the profession of acting. The foremost Scotsman on the stage at present is J. Forbes-Robertson (b. 1853). Though born in London, he is the son of the famous art-critic and journalist, John Forbes-Robertson of Aberdeen (1822–1903). As an actor, Forbes-Robertson excels in tragedy, his *Macbeth* and *Othello* in particular being worthy of the best traditions in Shakspearean drama. Since 1896 he has also been a theatrical manager. William Mollison shines in Scottish parts, and in these he has included *Macbeth*. The well-known actor-manager, George Alexander, is the son of a Scottish manufacturer, and Walter Bentley's father was a Scottish minister.

For the rest, the histrionic Scot best known in London and in America is Harry Lauder. Starting the work of life as a Lanarkshire miner, Lauder by sheer irrepressible humour and vivacity has risen to a fore-

most place on the comic stage. He has found fortune, yet retained his innate modesty and correctness of private life. The only pity is that fate has not willed his talents to be used in representing his countrymen in other veins than the burlesque.

When we turn to the prose work of the century, the vista is more pleasing. The beginning of the period witnessed a remarkable development of journalism. Already a precarious existence had been eked out by newspapers such as the *Edinburgh Gazette* (started 1699), the *Glasgow Courant*, which began in 1715, but survived only a few months, and was resuscitated in 1745, and the *Glasgow Journal* (1741).

The *Glasgow Herald* was first published as the *Advertiser* in 1782, six years before the London *Times*. It was not till 1859, however, that the *Herald* became a daily paper, the price being then reduced to a penny. The *Dundee Advertiser* began its career in 1801, and the *Scotsman* was started in 1817 as a champion of Whig politics.

As a literary periodical, the *Scots Magazine* (1739-1826) did pioneer work.

In 1802 a great step forward was taken by the publication of the *Edinburgh Review*, a Whig quarterly intended to breach the fortifications of the prevailing Toryism of the time. The most brilliant names connected with this periodical are those of Francis, Lord Jeffrey (1773-1850) and Henry, Lord Brougham (1778-1868), who afterwards rose to the top of the legal profession in Scotland and England respectively, Jeffrey becoming Dean of Faculty and Lord Advocate, and afterwards a lord of the Court of Session, while Brougham was one of the few Scots who attained to the office of Lord Chancellor. In spite of the arrogance and cocksureness which characterised both of these

notable men, they not only influenced politics, but raised the standard of literary criticism. In 1825 Lord Macaulay became a regular contributor, and his brilliant essays first appeared in the *Review*.

The *Quarterly Review* was begun in 1809 in opposition to the *Edinburgh Review*. In 1817 a more serious opponent appeared in the shape of *Blackwood's Magazine*, a Tory monthly, which enlisted the services of Sir W. Scott, Professor John Wilson, D. M. Moir, J. G. Lockhart, James Hogg, John Galt, Michael Scott, and Miss Ferrier, and later of Professor Aytoun and Alexander Smith, who in his day was looked upon as a coming great poet.

Before referring to the work of any of these individuals, we may allow the name of Blackwood to remind us how many of the greatest publishing houses in Britain were of Scottish origin, such as John Murray (1768), Wm. Blackwood & Sons (1804), A. & C. Black (1807), Sir Wm. Collins & Sons, Blackie & Son, Thos. Nelson & Sons, M'Millan & Co. (1843), and W. & R. Chambers. The founder of the Blackwood firm was Wm. Blackwood (1776-1834), who himself was first editor of the *Magazine* that bore his name. The London branch of the firm's business was started in 1840 by John Blackwood (1818-79), who later became editor of the *Magazine*. The two founders of the Chambers firm, William Chambers (1800-83) and Robert Chambers (1802-71), natives of Peebles, were both men of outstanding character. They each contributed to literature books of great antiquarian and historical value. They published cyclopædias of general knowledge and of literature, and their *Chambers's Journal*, in 1832, was the pioneer of the now innumerable army of weekly magazines. Their *Cyclopædia of English Literature* (1844) can scarcely be regarded

as superseded by any later work. Robert's *Vestiges of the Natural History of Creation* was in many respects a forerunner of the works of Darwin. The *Encyclopædia Britannica* was also in its origin a Scottish undertaking, the first edition (1768-71) being published by Bell & MacFarquhar of Edinburgh, with William Smellie as editor. The second edition, edited twenty years later by James Tytler, added articles on history, biography, and geography to the information on the arts and sciences contained in the earlier issue.

Most of the great Scottish firms have published dictionaries, such as those by Ogilvie, Annandale, and Stormonth. The standard Scots dictionary is that of John Jamieson (1759-1838), a native of Glasgow, and an Antiburgher minister at Forfar and Edinburgh. It was published in 1808 under the title of *Etymological Dictionary of the Scottish Language*. That the "capacity for taking pains" thus shown by Scotsmen has not declined is evidenced by the fact that the editorship of the *Oxford English Dictionary* of the Philological Society—an undertaking equalled only by the French Academy's perennial dictionary—is in the hands of a Scotsman, Dr. James A. H. Murray. Murray, who was born at Denholm in 1837, won his reputation by a scholarly work on the *Dialects of the Southern Counties of Scotland*, in 1873, and he may safely be regarded as the greatest living British philologist. He was knighted in 1908. Of the two assistant editors in his vast undertaking, one is a Scot, Dr. Wm. A. Craigie (b. Dundee, 1867). Dr. David Patrick (b. Ochiltree, 1849) edited *Chambers's Encyclopædia*, and more recently *Chambers's Cyclopædia of English Literature*. As a compiler of dictionaries and encyclopædias, Dr. Charles Annandale (b. 1843, in Kincardineshire) holds a deservedly high reputation.

In the purely technical work of printing, much credit is due to the firm of R. & R. Clark, founded at Edinburgh about 1842. With them Scottish printing so took the lead that it is possible to speak of a "Scottish school" of printing; and it is a well-known fact that a very large proportion of the best printed books published even by purely English firms are printed, or at least set, in Scotland. Edinburgh and Aberdeen occupy a position of pre-eminence in this regard.

From among the large number of Scotsmen who have played a prominent part in newspaper and other journalistic work, only a few names can be mentioned.

Wm. Jerdan (1782-1869), a Kelso man, was editor of the *Literary Gazette* (London), and wrote copiously for various Reviews. He was one of those who founded the Royal Society of Literature in 1821.

John Black (1783-1855), born near Duns, was editor of the *Morning Chronicle* from 1817 till 1843.

Alex. Ireland (1810-94), a native of Edinburgh, became publisher and manager of the *Manchester Examiner*, being connected with that paper for nearly fifty years.

Rev. Dr. Norman Macleod, the distinguished minister of Barony Church, Glasgow, was the originator of *Good Words*, and from 1860 till 1872 he acted as its editor. For the thirty-three succeeding years this popular periodical was edited by his brother, Rev. Dr. Donald Macleod.

Alex. H. Japp (1839-1905), a Forfarshire man, was editor of the *Sunday Review* and sub-editor of the *Contemporary Review*.

Charles Mackay, already mentioned among song-writers, edited the *Illustrated London News*, and

represented the *Times* as war correspondent in the American Civil War.

Two of the recent editors of the *Scotsman* deserve mention. Alex. Russel (1814-76) became editor in 1848. Under him the *Scotsman* first became a daily paper, and in his time it reached its palmiest days as a respected newspaper of literary merit.

This tradition was well maintained by Dr. Robert Wallace (1831-99). Born near Cupar, Wallace was one of the most versatile of men. After being for some time a minister he succeeded Russel as editor of the *Scotsman*, retaining that position till 1880. Thereafter he was called to the English Bar and subsequently entered Parliament, where he gained the reputation of being the foremost humorist in the House of Commons.

Among living editors in Scotland, the premier place is held by Dr. William Wallace (b. Perthshire, 1843). After serving for seventeen years as sub-editor of the *Glasgow Herald* under the late Dr. Russell, he became in 1906 editor-in-chief of that newspaper. He has nobly maintained the reputation of this leading Scottish organ for scrupulous justice of statement, and for fair-minded dealing with political questions in a spirit superior to mere party prejudice. As a Burns and Dickens enthusiast and authority, and as a keen supporter of rational movements for the preservation of Scottish national interest, Dr. Wallace stands in high esteem. (Retired in summer of 1909.)

Hector Macpherson, ex-editor of the *Edinburgh Evening News*, is a man of wide outlook and of enormous versatility and literary energy.

Of living Scottish journalists located in England five at least are too important to be passed over unnamed.

James Nicol Dunn (b. Kincardineshire, 1856)

served on the *Dundee Advertiser* and the *Scotsman*, before becoming editor of *Black and White*, 1895-97. Thereafter till 1905 he edited the *Morning Post*. In the latter year he transferred his services to the *Manchester Courier*. In 1904 he was president of the Institute of Journalists.

William Archer (b. Perth, 1856), after serving on the *Edinburgh Evening News*, went to London and became dramatic critic to *Figaro*. In 1884 he held the same post on *The World*, and later transferred his services to *The Tribune*. He has helped by his criticisms to give actors a higher ideal of their profession. He is also noted as a critic of contemporary poetry.

Sir Hugh Gilzean Reid (b. 1838, Aberdeenshire), has at various times founded many cheap periodicals in Aberdeenshire, north and midland England, and London. He was the chief founder and first president of the Institute of Journalists, and he acted as president of the World's Press Parliament held at New York in 1904. He originated the co-operative house-building movement for working men at Edinburgh in 1861. He was knighted in 1893.

William Robertson Nicoll (b. 1851, Aberdeenshire) was for some years a Free Church minister. In 1886 he went to London, and became editor of *The Expositor*. He started *The British Weekly*, which wields great power as the organ of Nonconformity. He also edits *The Bookman* and *The Woman at Home*. He has written and edited numerous books. His "Claudius Clear" papers alone would stamp him as a man of remarkable versatility. (Knighted Nov. 1909.)

Robert Donald (b. 1861) is managing editor of the *Daily Chronicle* and of *Lloyd's Weekly News*, also of the *Municipal Journal* and *The Reader*.

To return to the Blackwood writers, Professor John Wilson, or "Christopher North" (1785-1854), was a native of Paisley, a man of winning personality and of buoyant temperament. Both as a professor and as a literary man he exercised enormous influence in his own day, but his work is not now of sufficient importance to require detailed comment. Dr. D. M. Moir of Musselburgh (1798-1851), who wrote under the pen-name of "Delta," is now chiefly remembered as the author of *Mansie Wauch*, which still appeals by its quiet pawkiness. Published in 1828, it perhaps paved the way for such works as the *Pickwick Papers* by showing that humour and grossness did not necessarily go hand in hand.

John Gibson Lockhart (1794-1854), a native of Glasgow, wrote various novels, and for twenty-eight years edited the *Quarterly Review*. He now owes his reputation solely to his *Life of Scott*.

The three Blackwood novelists, Miss Ferrier, Michael Scott, and John Galt, may be regarded almost as founders of three separate schools, and we therefore proceed to consider them with reference to their successors in each department.

Miss Susan E. Ferrier (1782-1854), a native of Edinburgh, has not received from our generation the homage which her work deserves. She might well have shared in the renewed appreciation justly accorded to Jane Austen. Her character novels *Marriage*, *The Inheritance*, and *Destiny* show keen observation of life, and the second of these especially received the warm approval of Scott, who was for a time credited with its authorship. Miss Ferrier was particularly skilful in describing parvenus and semi-educated society people.

Other three Scottish lady novelists at least deserve mention.

Mrs. Elizabeth Hamilton (1758–1816) preceded Miss Ferrier's work with *The Cottagers of Glenburnie*, which gives a vivid and not too flattering picture of Scottish country life.

Mrs. Oliphant (Margaret Oliphant Wilson, born in 1828 near Musselburgh, died 1897) is too recently deceased to enable her ultimate place in literature to be properly assigned. Her attention was directed to literature primarily as a means of livelihood, she having been left widowed with three children to support. She gained a high place of merit as a delineator of Scottish character and Scottish life, her best efforts in this domain being *Kirsteen*, *Margaret Maitland*, *That Little Cutty*, and *Adam Graeme of Mossgray*. The *Chronicles of Carlingford*, however, which many consider her best works, deal with English life. Her *Beleaguered City* and *Little Pilgrim* justify Mr. J. M. Barrie's prediction that her "magical stories of the unseen" are "destined for a long voyage" of popular favour. She can at least claim to have been the most notable lady writer as yet produced by her country. Like many other writers, she first won her reputation through the pages of *Blackwood*, and her prolific pen poured forth a constant stream of novels and of critical and historical sketches until the very year of her death.

Annie S. Swan (Mrs. Burnett Smith, b. 1860, near Edinburgh), is still with us, and as novelist, editor, and contributor to periodicals, she has throughout exercised a healthy moral influence by the purity of her work and the attainableness of the ideals set before her sisters.

Michael Scott (1789–1835), a native of Glasgow, and a merchant in that city, acquired by a protracted stay in the West Indies that broader outlook and love of adventure which have given vitality to his novels.

Tom Cringle's Log and *The Cruise of the Midge*. Sir George Douglas declares: "The voice of Britain's greatness itself speaks in his books, and as we read them we seem brought nearer to the spirit of Drake or of Dundonald."

In the realm of healthy books suitable for youthful readers, a worthy successor to Michael Scott appeared in Robert M. Ballantyne (1825-94), a nephew of Scott's unfortunate publishers. At the age of sixteen he became a clerk in the service of the Hudson Bay Company. Six years' stay in the Keewatin district of Canada gave him that close acquaintance with the West and that sympathy with its adventurous life which have made his lively novels a never-failing mine of delight to schoolboys. The first of his eighty-odd stories was *The Young Fur Traders*. The realism of his novels springs from the care he exercised in keeping close to actual life. He seldom wrote without having visited the actual scenes of his stories, so that he is equally reliable whether the theatre of action be in Canada, Norway, Britain, or Africa.

In a similar vein of story, W. Gordon Stables (b. 1840, in Banffshire) still proves himself a master.

The ample series known as *Wilson's Tales of the Borders* was begun by John Mackay Wilson (1804-35), a native of Tweedmouth, and continued after his death by a number of other writers.

James Grant (1822-87), a native of Edinburgh, a soldier and the son of a soldier, wrote many stirring military and historical romances, founded mainly on Scottish feats of arms in foreign lands.

Another military novelist was Major George J. Whyte-Melville (1821-78), of the Coldstream Guards, who fought in the Crimea. Most of his writings are redolent of a keen pleasure in outdoor sports.



Photo by Elliot & Fry.

J. M. BARRIE.

John Galt (1779–1839), a native of Irvine, is now generally recognised as the real founder of what has come to be humorously called the “Kailyaird School.” His first genuine success was *The Ayrshire Legatees*, which appeared in *Blackwood* in 1820. Next year appeared *The Annals of the Parish*, usually regarded as his masterpiece. He himself intended it to “be for Scotland what the *Vicar of Wakefield* is for England.” *The Entail* and *The Provost* followed.

In these sketches of contemporary life in Scottish provincial towns, Galt combines in a high degree the allied qualities of humour and pathos, and his Scotticisms are unaffected and racy of the soil.

Galt also successfully attempted the historical novel. In *Ringan Gilhaize*, by enlisting our interest in the career of three generations of Gilhaizes, he skilfully covers the whole hundred and thirty years from Knox to the Revolution, thus presenting a dramatically complete picture of the storm and stress of the Scottish religious struggles. Amid the reviving interest in Scottish history this novel, published in 1823 as a counterblast to *Old Mortality*, well merits a more prominent place than is usually accorded it.

Of the remarkable triad of “kailyaird” novelists in our own generation little need be said. James M. Barrie (b. 1860) by his *Auld Licht Idylls* (1888) secured a place in the first ranks of living authors through his vivid and pawky pictures of the quaint Forfarshire “Thrums” of his boyhood. Of his *Window in Thrums*, Mr. A. T. Quiller Couch writes: “No character is extraordinary: of plot there is nothing at all. But search about in English literature, and where will you find a story of like quality of pathos written by an Anglo-Saxon?” Much of his subsequent work dealt with the same theme, and its success induced him to commit

the mistake, as many people will feel it, of publishing *Margaret Ogilvy*, with its un-Scottish revelation of the sanctities of family life. Mr. Barrie has of late devoted his talents to meeting the taste of London theatre-goers, by offering them plays of slight plot, but of startling wit. While he thus helps to sweep the stables of modern histrionism, it is to be regretted that he is in consequence presenting his country with nothing to hand on to the next generation of Scotsmen.

Ian Maclaren (Dr. John M. Watson, 1850-1907) and Samuel R. Crockett (b. 1860) have been wittily classed as the "Jean qui pleure" and the "Jean qui rit" of the modern Scottish school of novelists. The former proved himself a master of pathos, of an almost overdrawn type, perhaps; while his *Young Barbarians*, in its delightful pictures of mischievous but withal endurable Scottish schoolboys, revealed another side of his genius more akin to that of Crockett. The latter author, a Galloway man, who in 1895 exchanged the pulpit for the author's desk, has successfully gauged the taste of the reading public in the sphere of the novel with historical interest, and in the humorous delineation of Scottish life. While a good deal of his work is not strikingly original, but owes much to such folk-lore as is stored in the "chapbooks" of an earlier day, he has provided harmless and profitable entertainment to a vast multitude of readers, and to do this is a more difficult achievement than to indulge in the cheap sneers so often levelled by "superior" critics at the "Kailyard School." Not the smallest service of all the three writers here dealt with consisted in the fact that they "cleaned the slate" of modern fiction at a time when it had become seriously besmirched.

If Ian Maclaren represented Scottish life in too idyllic colours, the reverse picture was painted all too



D. W. Steer in, R.S.A.

ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON.
In the Glasgow Art Gallery.

vividly by George Douglas Brown (1869-1902) in *The House with the Green Shutters*, a novel which has been lauded far beyond its merits, but whose bizarrerie will ultimately relegate it to its own place as a work of youthful exaggeration produced by a soured and disappointed man.

From among our late Victorian novelists the spirit of Sir Walter Scott's romances was perhaps best caught by William Black (1841-98), a native of Glasgow of Highland origin. In his varied career of artist, journalist, and war correspondent, Black gained a wide knowledge of life, and his training enabled him to combine graphic delineation of action with a contemplative love for the dreamy scenery and life of the Western Highlands. Much of his popularity no doubt sprang from the fact that he was the first to introduce Lowland, English, and American readers to the glamour of that lonely district of which Scott had scarcely touched the fringe. His first striking success was *A Daughter of Heth*, in 1871, while his *Princess of Thule* and *Macleod of Dare* have retained a large measure of popular favour. In 1901 a lighthouse was erected to Black's memory at Duart Point on the Sound of Mull. Judging by present indications, Black's reputation is not likely to grow with the lapse of years.

The same may now with some safety be said of the work of Robert Louis Stevenson, a native of Edinburgh (1850-94). His touching struggle with ill-health, and his pathetic retiral to far Samoa, co-operated with his carefully studied and beautiful style in giving his writings a factitious value in public estimation. Gradually but surely his reputation has settled down into that which is due to a writer of pleasing but not specially inspired verse, and to a novelist who revived the lapsing art of vivid narration in his *Treasure Island*

and *Kidnapped*, but whose romances are in some cases removed only by his inimitable style and by his art of vivid description of incident from the region of the ordinary sensational tale. It has been well said that his "appeal is to the very same passions and emotions as those which moved the audience of Homer. His heart is with man as a being that toils, loves, and fights in the open air—the hunter, the sailor, the warrior." *The Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde*, whilst improbable in plot, has a distinct psychological interest. It has been pointed out that Stevenson had a strange aptitude for delineating ruffians, and that even his strongest creation, Alan Breck Stewart, has a ruffian strain about him. Regarding his essays Justin M'Carthy says: "Some of us who cannot admit for a moment that his novels were equal to those of Walter Scott are quite willing to allow that his essays are equal to those of Charles Lamb or of François Coppée." On one point all critics are agreed, namely, that, as Professor Raleigh expresses it, "there is an indescribable air of distinction breathing from all his works." Judged by the test of foreign translation, Stevenson's work has held its ground better in continental favour than it has proportionately done at home.

George Macdonald (1824–1905), a native of Aberdeenshire, while not competing with Stevenson as a stylist, reaches a higher plane of moral purpose, and his work is therefore more lasting, at least in its influence, if not in its reputation. Imbued with a broad-minded Christianity, Macdonald was always the preacher of the revolt from Calvinism even in his novels. Such works as *Alec Forbes*, *Robert Falconer*, *Donal Grant*, and *David Elginbrod* reveal a close knowledge of Scottish life, especially in the north-eastern shoulder of the country. His grasp of the Aberdeen-

shire dialect has not been paralleled by any of the later dialect writers in any part of the British Isles, and in the idyllic treatment of simple life he must be regarded as a pioneer.

If the elements of permanence are present in the work of any living Scottish novelist they are to be found in some of the best work of Neil Munro, a native of Inveraray (b. 1864), whose *Lost Pibroch* is one of the few works of outstanding genius produced in any part of these isles in recent years. No one has ever better interpreted the Celtic temperament, and it is to be hoped that this author will yet reach even higher levels than in his very creditable succession of novels such as *John Splendid*, *The Shoes of Fortune*, *Doom Castle*, and *The Daft Days*. Much of the charm of Neil Munro's work springs firstly from the thorough sympathy of his mind with both the Highland and Lowland strains of Scottish life and character, and secondly from the striking prominence of his homely vernacular phrases against the background of an eminently cultured style.

Robert Barr (b. Glasgow, 1850) has written many novels, one of the best known being *The Tempestuous Petticoat*. He co-operated with J. K. Jerome in founding *The Idler*.

Among Scottish writers in London John A. Steuart (b. 1861, in Perthshire), author of *Wine on the Lees* and many other novels, deserves mention.

In the humorous delineation of local peculiarities and parochial life Scotland has always been well served. As excellent exponents of Glasgow humour, no small meed of praise is due to Jeems Kaye (Archibald M'Millan) and to J. J. Bell, of *Wee Macgreegor* fame, who has more recently, in *Thou Fool*, entered with some success on a field which still offers abundant harvest,—

the life of modern Glasgow. Other districts of Scotland have of course their local dialect works, many of them, especially *Johnny Gibb o' Gushetneuk*, by Dr. Alexander of the *Aberdeen Free Press*, being of outstanding merit.

Among miscellaneous prose-writers of the nineteenth century special mention must be made of Hugh Miller and of Dr. John Brown.

Hugh Miller (1802-56), a native of Cromarty, rose from the humble sphere of stone-mason to that of a foremost geologist, and wrote with a charming yet powerful individuality. His *Old Red Sandstone* and *My Schools and Schoolmasters* still enjoy considerable vogue. Agassiz, the great Swiss scientist, declared that he would give his left hand to possess such powers of description as Hugh Miller. John Brown (1810-82), a native of Biggar, the author of *Horæ Subsecivæ* and of *Rab and his Friends*, was a writer of much greater culture. His combination of humour and pathos reveals in the author a most lovable personality, and to call him the "Scottish Lamb" certainly involves no disparagement of the great English essayist.

In a category by himself, as a writer of popular moral essays interspersed with judiciously chosen anecdotes and other illustrative aids to the driving home of the lessons of life, stands Dr. Samuel Smiles (1812-1904), a native of Haddington, and a medical graduate of Edinburgh University. *Self Help*, *Thrift*, and *Duty*, have deservedly enjoyed an enormous vogue in almost every civilised country, and in the aggregate their influence in inculcating an optimistic acceptance of the "strenuous life" must have been tremendous. He also wrote biographies of Boulton and Watt, the Stevensons, and other



Photo by J. Moplat.

JOHN BROWN, M.D.

engineers, and of Thomas Edward and Robert Dick, the Scottish naturalists.

During the nineteenth century Scotland produced a very creditable array of historians. Dr. Thomas M'Crie (1772-1835), by his *Lives of Knox* (1812) and *Melville* (1819) and by his telling defence of the Covenanters against the caricaturing representations of Scott, did much to place these defenders of the Scottish faith in a truer and more favourable light. Patrick Fraser Tytler (1791-1849) wrote a careful *History of Scotland* from the early struggles with England to the Union of the Crowns; but his work was in great measure superseded by the completion in 1873 of the *History of Scotland* from the earliest times to the Jacobite Wars by John Hill Burton (1809-81) whose history, though capable of modification in parts owing to subsequent research, is a model of what a historical work ought to be as regards painstaking investigation, and scrupulous though not impassive fairness, combined with an eminently readable style. Burton's *Scot Abroad* is likewise a classic in its own domain.

David Laing (1793-1878), a native of Edinburgh, did valuable service as a collector and editor of Scottish literary works, especially of the pre-Union period.

The history of the Highlands received loving and picturesque treatment in *The Highlanders of Scotland*, and *Celtic Scotland*, by W. F. Skene (1809-92).

Thomas Babington Macaulay (1800-59), the famous English historian and essayist, was of Scottish descent.

Sir Henry J. S. Maine (1822-88), a native of Kelso, who held important legal appointments in Cambridge, Oxford, London, and India, is the author of the standard books on *Ancient Law* and *International Law*.

George Finlay (1799-1875), the standard historian

of Greece, was of Scottish parents, though born in Kent. Like Byron, he became fired with enthusiasm for Greek independence, and after 1823 most of his life was spent in Greece, where he took an active part in political and economic reform.

In our own day the history of Scotland has been dealt with by two writers of diverse views and contrasted temperament,—the critically scrupulous Professor P. Hume Brown (b. 1850, in Haddingtonshire), and the bright though less reliable Andrew Lang. The latter author (b. 1844, at Selkirk) is one of the most versatile of living men. An excellent type of the best product of modern education and modern journalism, he sees equally at home in folk-lore, literary criticism, religious antiquities, ancient poetry, and in mediæval or modern history. A modern Admirable Crichton, he commands the admiration of Scotland by his universality of genius and by his industry, yet he never seems more at ease than when complacently fouling the favourite nests of his country's story.

From among the many distinguished Scotsmen who have occupied university chairs in Scotland it is impossible to make in short compass an adequate selection, but apart from those whose names occur in other connections, two at least must receive a passing mention.

Sir Richard C. Jebb (1841–1905), a native of Dundee, added lustre to the Greek Chairs of Glasgow and Cambridge. His edition of Sophocles alone places him in the front rank of scholars; his *Introduction to Homer* is also a classic.

David Masson (1822–1907), a native of Aberdeen, after acting as Professor of English Literature in London, and as editor of *Macmillan's Magazine*,

occupied the Chair of Rhetoric in Edinburgh University from 1865 till 1895. His *Life of Milton* is a standard work, and his influence as a teacher was touchingly indicated by Mr. J. M. Barrie in his recent (1908) allusion to "Edinburgh without Masson."

[In June 1909 John M. Bulloch (b. Aberdeen, 1867) became Editor of *The Graphic*.]



CHAPTER XXXVII

THE SCOTTISH REGIMENTS IN THE BRITISH ARMY.

“IF blood be the price of admiralty,
Lord God, we ha' paid in full!”

KIPLING.

“BUT ne'er in battle throbb'd a heart so brave
As that which beats beneath the Scottish plaid;
And when the pibroch bids the battle rave,
And level for the charge your arms are laid,
Where lives the desperate foe that for such onset staid?”

SCOTT.

IT was but to be expected that after the Union of the Crowns and the later parliamentary Union, a nation which had in the past produced so many heroes and warriors as Scotland should furnish to the army of the United Kingdom more than her share of fighting material. And so it has been. While, therefore, the names of Scottish generals find their place in the main course of our narrative, the present chapter is intended to serve as a brief memorial of the work done by the rank and file of Scottish regiments in the British Army.

In cavalry Scotland is represented by one regiment alone, but that a regiment of whose record any country might well be proud,—the Scots Greys (or 2nd Dragoons). In its origin this crack regiment arouses no pleasurable memories. In 1678 Charles II., in furtherance of his persecuting policy, raised two troops of Dragoons, which by 1681 became the Royal Regi-

ment of Scots Dragoons. They were at first commanded by the notorious Dalziel, and they fought against the Covenanters at Drumclog, Bothwell Bridge, and Ayr's Moss. Passing from that painful period, we find the Scots Greys of Queen Anne's day among the ever-victorious troops of Marlborough. They won special distinction at Blenheim and Ramillies, and took part in the other great victories of Oudenarde and Malplaquet. They played a prominent part in saving the day at Sheriffmuir against the Jacobites. They won distinction at Dettingen and Fontenoy. In the Seven Years' War (1756-63) they fought at Minden and in other battles. At Waterloo they were stationed in rear of the left British centre. Napoleon is reported to have said of them, "These are splendid horsemen, but in less than half an hour I shall cut them to pieces!" But those "terrible grey horses," as he called them later in the day, were not the least among the influences which on that fateful field ended his baleful career. The Greys were at first intended simply to support the charge of the Royals and Enniskillens, but they veered to the left to attack Marcognet's divisions, which formed the extreme French right. On the way they passed through the intervals of the 92nd Highlanders, and the latter, in the words of one of their own officers, "went half mad" with enthusiasm. The well-known battle-picture by Lady Butler, "Scotland for Ever," embalms in fitting wise the grand charge when, with their countrymen of the 92nd holding on to their stirrup-irons, and with their country's name rending the air, the Greys sealed the victory for Wellington and Britain. Sergeant Charles Ewart of the Greys, a famous swordsman, captured a French "eagle" after slaying three defenders in turn. He was coolly rejoining his regiment to take further

part in the conflict, when his commanding officer exclaimed, "My brave fellow, take that to the rear! You have done enough till you get quit of it." In the Crimea, along with the Enniskillen Dragoons, who chanced frequently to be associated with them, the Greys defeated at Balaklava five times their own number of Russian cavalry. At Inkermann they again did their share of fighting.

In later wars the cavalry in general have been less in evidence than formerly. In the recent Boer War, where the Scots Greys formed part of General French's Cavalry Brigade, their total death-roll was about twenty in action, and thirty from disease. Should their services be again requisitioned in more desperate warfare, the Greys would doubtless justify their proud motto, "Second to none!" The fact that the Greys are the only distinctively Scottish cavalry regiment naturally added to the indignation and dismay with which the news was received in the end of 1906 that their headquarters were to be removed from Scotland.

Turning our attention to the infantry, the oldest regiment in the British Army is the First Royal Regiment of Foot, or "Royal Scots," which originated as a collection of Scotsmen who had served abroad in various lands. The kings of France are credited with having had a Scots Bodyguard a thousand years ago, and certainly Charles VII. formed in 1422 a corps of Scots gendarmes, and in 1440 a Scots Guard. Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, the contemporary of James VI. and Charles I., had at one time in his service eighteen British regiments, thirteen of them Scottish, and his officers in large proportion were Scots, such as Monro and Hepburn, the generals of the famous Green Brigade. Ultimately, about 1635, the Scotsmen in the



W. Burne Rhind, R.S.A.

Photo by Currier & Ives

SCOTS GREYS MEMORIAL, EDINBURGH.

Swedish and French services were combined in one corps under Sir John Hepburn, and were known in France as "Le Régiment d'Hebron." Being commanded later by Lord James Douglas, they became known as the "Douglas Regiment," and fought under the Prince de Condé in Italy and the Netherlands. After the Restoration of Charles II. this Scots corps was constituted a British regiment, though occasionally lent to France. Under James II. and VII. they saved the royal position at Sedgemoor against Monmouth in 1685, and held out for their unworthy king when almost all had deserted him. William at length gained them over, and placed Marshal Schomberg at their head. They shared in Marlborough's four great victories, and fought against Charles Edward in the "Forty-Five." Later they were engaged in America and the West Indies. They served with Abercromby in Egypt, and one battalion was at Corunna with Moore. In the Peninsular Campaign their crowning achievement was at San Sebastian, where, with a loss of over 500 men, they stormed the breach and captured the fortress (August 1813). At Quatre-Bras the Royal Scots were the first to check the advance of Marshal Ney's cavalry, and at Waterloo they shared the honours of the day. About this period the regiment had four battalions serving in three continents. In the Crimea the regiment fought at Alma, Inkermann, and Sebastopol. Its later record included India, China, and Warren's Expedition to Bechuanaland. In the Boer War of our own day, Sir A. Conan Doyle thus refers to the taking of the Zwaggershoek Mountain: "The difficult task of seizing it at night was committed to Colonel Douglas and his fine regiment of Royal Scots. It was Spion Kop over again, with a happier ending. At break of day the Boers found that their position had been rendered

untenable, and withdrew." Like other Scottish regiments, the Royal Scots were free from the disgrace of "surrender parties."

The name "Lothian Regiment" was given to the Royal Scots in 1881, when the old numerical names were discontinued, and territorial names assigned to the various regiments. In the present chapter, both names are given in speaking of the various regiments, as many of the old numerical names are even now household words.

Mention may here be made of the old Scots Brigade. About 1572 in Holland a corps of four or five thousand men served frequently against the Spaniards. A similar body existed till the time of William of Orange, and formed part of his force when he sailed to Britain. It was in Holland that General Mackay and Graham of Claverhouse learned their profession. In 1698 the Scots corps returned to Holland, and in 1745 it numbered 6000 men. At length it was brought home by George III. in 1793 and named the 94th Foot, but after sharing the honours of Seringapatam, and serving in the Peninsular War, the regiment was disbanded in 1818.

The Royal Scots Fusiliers, or 21st Foot, were formerly called the Royal North British Fusiliers. They were raised in 1678, and fought at Bothwell Bridge. They were at Steinkirk with William in 1692, and played their part in Marlborough's four great victories. They fought at Dettingen under the eye of George II., and shared the labours of the day at Culloden. We next find them in America, their work including the attack on the forts at Ticonderoga, and in the West Indies. They helped to quell the Dublin riots of 1803, and served in Sicily (1806) and at the Demerara rebellion (1823). They were in the forefront at

Inkermann, "the soldiers' battle," and fought at the Alma and around Sebastopol. In the Zulu War they fought at Ulundi (1879), their next service being in Burmah (1885-86). In the last Boer War they had a share in the operations which ended with the relief of Ladysmith, especially in the successful attack on Pieter's Hill in February 1900.

The King's Own Scottish Borderers, 25th Foot, or Edinburgh Regiment, was raised at Edinburgh in 1689 by the Earl of Leven. Over 800 men were enrolled in a few hours, many of these having returned from the Continent at the advent of William to our shores. They fought for William at Killiecrankie. General Mackay, while stigmatising most of the other regiments on that day as the "vilest cowards," singles out two regiments for praise, one of them Lord Leven's, "whom I must praise at such a degree as I cannot but blame others." The regiment next served William in Ireland and the Low Countries. It was present at Sheriffmuir and in the pursuit of the young Chevalier. At Minden, in 1759, where the British infantry held out against the best cavalry of France amid a cross-fire of artillery, the Borderers covered themselves with glory. They assisted in defending Gibraltar, under General Elliott, and detachments of them acted as marines under Lord Howe, sharing in the victory off Brest on the "glorious first of June," 1794. They took a prominent part in the operations against the French West Indies, and in more recent times helped to repel the abortive Fenian invasion of Canada (1866). They were through the Afghan campaigns of 1878-80, and served in the Soudan and Chitral. In the Boer War they were present at Paardeberg, and Sir A. Conan Doyle, speaking of the regiment's work under Sir Ian Hamilton,

declares that it "put in as much hard work in fighting and marching as any body of troops in the whole campaign."

At the Restoration period various regiments of "Guards" were enrolled. The Coldstream Guards were enlisted by General Monk in 1650, and the Scots Fusilier Guards (now the Scots Guards) were embodied in 1662. The latter force fought at Bothwell Bridge, having helped to defend Glasgow against the Covenanters after Drumclog. A battalion of them was present at the Boyne. They first saw service abroad under Marlborough in the Netherlands in William's reign. After sharing in the victory of Dettingen, they were present at the defeat of Fontenoy (1745). They were among the regiments which returned home in time to check Charles Edward's march on London, and which shared in compassing his downfall. They took part in the Seven Years' War and the American War.

The Coldstreams and Scots Fusiliers both have "Egypt" on their colours for their services under Sir Ralph Abercromby. Both served with Wellington in the Peninsula, being specially distinguished at Talavera and Barossa. At Quatre-Bras, the Scots Guards came up in time to put an effectual check on Marshal Ney's tactics. At Waterloo both regiments were stationed at Hougomont and in its grounds under command of Lieutenant-Colonel Macdonnell. One battalion of each of the "Guards" regiments was sent to the Crimea. Marshal St. Arnaud described their conduct at the Alma as "superb," while at Inkermann much was again due to the valour of the Guards. The Guards were present at Tel-el-kebir. In the Boer War the Guards formed part of Lord Methuen's force. They did some gallant fighting at Belmont, and com-

posed the right wing at the Modder River, which Lord Methuen, losing all sense of proportion in the flush of success, described as "the hardest won victory in our annals of war."

The 26th Foot, or Cameronians, now form the 1st Battalion Scottish Rifles. The regiment was at first entirely composed of Covenanters, 1000 of whom were enlisted by the Earl of Angus in 1689 on behalf of King William. The part played by the Cameronians at Dunkeld after the battle of Killiecrankie is related in Chapter XVIII. Macaulay tells how, after their successful defence of Dunkeld, "the drums struck up: the victorious Puritans threw their caps into the air, raised with one voice a psalm of victory and thanksgiving, and waved their colours,—colours which were on that day unfurled for the first time in the face of an enemy, but which have since been proudly borne in every quarter of the world, and which are now embellished with the Sphinx and the Dragon, emblems of brave actions achieved in Egypt and in China."

The regiment served in the Low Countries under William, and won laurels in Marlborough's four great battles. They took part in the defeat of the Jacobites at Preston in 1715. They were at the siege of Alexandria in 1801, and were present at Corunna. Their subsequent spheres of service included China and Abyssinia under Sir Robert Napier (afterwards Lord Napier of Magdala, 1810-90).

The 2nd Battalion of the Scottish Rifles represents the old 90th, or Perthshire Volunteers, raised in 1794 by Thomas Graham, afterwards Lord Lynedoch. They served under Abercromby, doing good service at Mandora. Later they fought in the West Indies, in the Crimea at Sebastopol, in India at the relief of Lucknow, and in Zululand at Ulundi.

In the Boer War the Scottish Rifles fought at Colenso under Lyttleton, and were among the combatants at Spion Kop. The regiment was specially praised by General Buller, yet "it is typical of the complete disorganisation which the fight produced that the one battalion, the Scottish Rifles, which preserved the best order, could muster only 270 out of 800 men at the foot of the mountain. The reason was, that in the darkness and confusion no formation could be maintained." In the subsequent operations the regiment had its share, entering Ladysmith at last in March 1900.

Most of the Lowland regiments, as we have seen, were enlisted at the periods of the Restoration and the Revolution. The Highland regiments were embodied later, principally after the Second Jacobite Rising. The idea of affording the warlike spirit of the Highlanders an outlet through the British Army originated with Duncan Forbes of Culloden, and was at last energetically acted upon by Pitt. Not only were the Highlands thus gradually brought into closer touch with the other parts of Great Britain, but the British Government found itself able to count upon a constant supply of the finest fighting material on earth at a time when it was called upon to strive with France for supremacy on the three continents of Europe, America, and Asia. Numerous forces, such as Fraser's, Montgomery's, Keith's, and Campbell's Highlanders, did excellent service in the Seven Years' War and the American wars, and were thereafter disbanded, while at home Loudoun's Highlanders had been employed against the young Chevalier. During the French wars in the latter part of the eighteenth century no fewer than two dozen Highland "Fencible" regiments were embodied from time to time as a protection against foreign invasion.

The only Highland regiment still existing which dates from these stirring days is the 42nd, or Black Watch, now the 1st Battalion Royal Highlanders. This body at first consisted of men friendly to the Hanoverian cause who were enlisted to hold the Jacobites in check. The term "Black Watch" (Am Freiccadan Dubh) referred to their dark tartans as contrasted with the red coats. In 1729 there were six companies, and ten years later ten companies, in this service. These now became embodied as a regiment, with the Earl of Crawford as its first colonel.

Under command of Sir Robert Munro, they were present at Fontenoy, where, although defeat fell upon the allies as a whole, the Highlanders drew from the French general the testimony that "these furies rushed in upon us with more violence than ever did a sea driven by a tempest." They were awarded the title of "Royal" in the month of their "extraordinary gallantry" at Ticonderoga in North America.

They were present at the taking of Montreal, and were hotly engaged in the American War of Independence. The privilege of wearing the "red heckle" was in 1795 accorded to the Black Watch for their bravery in Holland in regaining the guns lost by a regiment of Dragoons who had formerly worn the heckle.

They served with Sir Ralph Abercromby in Egypt, and in that general's brilliant victory near Alexandria in March 1801 the 42nd defeated the French "Invincibles." In the midst of the conflict they were violently charged by the French cavalry, but, cheered by the general's appeal, "My brave Highlanders, remember your country, remember your forefathers!" they came off victorious with a loss of 300 killed and wounded. At Corunna, with Sir John Moore, they fought under that other brave Scot, Sir David Baird.

Sir John, at a critical moment in the battle, exclaimed, "Highlanders, remember Egypt!" and he only lived to know that his appeal had not been in vain.

The 2nd Battalion of the regiment represents the old 73rd Foot, or Perthshire Regiment, enrolled in 1780 for service in India. There it took part in the operations against Hyder Ali and Tippoo Sahib. Its chief feat was the defence of Mangalore, where 250 Highlanders and 1500 Sepoys under Colonel Campbell held out for nine months against a native force estimated at 100,000, surrendering at last with the honours of war, when only one-fourth of the garrison remained alive. Later, the regiment helped Sir David Baird to take Seringapatam.

The Peninsular work of the Black Watch included Busaco, Torres Vedras, Fuentes d'Onor, where they again withstood a French cavalry charge, and Salamanca. At Toulouse they were highly distinguished throughout the day, and in face of the enemy's batteries they captured a series of redoubts, only 90 men reaching the position out of 500 who went into action. In the terrible three days' fighting in June 1815 their work was such that they were among the four bravest regiments as named by Wellington. At Quatre-Bras the command changed hands three times in a few minutes, and in the three days 22 officers out of 23 were killed or disabled, 300 men falling in action. In the wreck of the *Birkenhead* (see 74th Foot) 55 men of this regiment went down. In the Crimea, as senior regiment in Sir Colin Campbell's brigade, the 42nd, with the 79th and 93rd, were the heroes of the Alma, fighting also at Sebastopol. Like so many Highland regiments, they are next found in India, serving at Cawnpore and Lucknow under their brave old general. For their later work in the Mutiny,



Photo by H. W. H. G. G.

MAJOR GENERAL WALCHOFF, C.B., C.M.G., LL.D.

Sir Hugh Rose, who succeeded Sir Colin as commander-in-chief, declared that "the spirit of the Black Watch of 1729 was the same in 1859."

In Sir Garnet Wolseley's Ashanti Campaign they "took the most conspicuous part." In the splendidly managed attack on Tel-el-kebir (September 1882), after a hard twenty minutes' struggle in the enemy's intrenchments, following upon a nerve-testing night-march, they "captured two miles of works and batteries, piercing the enemy's centre, and loosening their whole system of defence; and finished by taking the camp and the railway trains, and again assembling ready for any further enterprise." (General Hamley's report.)

After the battles of El-Teb and Tamai (1884) Lord Wolseley sent the telegraphic greeting, "Well done, old comrades of the Black Watch!"

In the Boer War the Black Watch (2nd Battalion) formed part of the Highland Brigade under General Wauchope. It was the chief sufferer in the madcap battle of Magersfontein, 11th December 1899, losing over 300 men on that dreadful day. Out of three companies only six men remained unhurt! It was February before, under its new general, Hector Macdonald, the regiment could be considered to be again in fighting trim.

The old 71st, or Glasgow Highlanders, now constitute the 1st Battalion Highland Light Infantry. They are the second oldest Highland regiment, having been embodied about 1778, at a time when, owing to troubles in India, some 12,000 Highlanders were enrolled in about two years. They were raised by Lord Macleod, a Highlander who had held high command in the Swedish Army. Being at once sent to Madras, they were employed against Hyder Ali, and were presented with a set of silver pipes by

General Coote for their gallantry in July 1781. They saw almost continuous service in India till 1798. Another battalion had meanwhile served in the gallant and successful defence of Gibraltar, and for the service of the regiment under Sir David Baird in reducing Cape Colony in 1806 "Cape of Good Hope" is inscribed on the colours. At the time of the Peninsular War the kilt was discarded, and the regiment has since then worn tartan trews. They fought at Vimiera, Corunna, and Fuentes d'Onor. At Vittoria they lost nearly 400 men. They were engaged at Quatre-Bras and Waterloo, and were in the Crimea at Sebastopol. After the Modder River fight, this battalion of the Highland Light Infantry was hurried up to join Lord Methuen's force. They were thus in time to share in the Magersfontein disaster, but they suffered least of the Scottish regiments engaged, their total casualties being 95.

The 2nd Battalion Highland Light Infantry consists of the old 74th Highlanders, raised in 1787 by Sir Archibald Campbell, largely from Argyllshire. Being at once shipped to India they served in the operations leading up to Seringapatam. This regiment and the 78th (along with a Dragoon regiment) were the heroes of Assaye (September 1803), where the future victor of Waterloo won his early reputation, defeating a Mahratta force ten times as numerous as his own. The 74th lost 440 men in this action.

The same two regiments were cordially commended in November of the same year for their perseverance and bravery at the battle of Argaum. By the time it left India in 1805 after sixteen years' service the 74th had earned *par excellence* the title of the "fighting regiment."

In the Peninsula they served at Busaco and Fuentes

d'Onor. In one engagement General Montbrun succeeded in isolating the 74th from the rest of the British force, and the regiment was believed to have been captured. But General Picton's assurance that "he thought he must have heard more firing before the 74th could be taken" was justified by the regiment's managing to rejoin the main body under cover of night. They fought at Ciudad Rodrigo and at the storming of Badajoz, where Piper M'Lauchlan played "The Campbells are Coming" on the castle wall, until his bag was pierced by a bullet. Coolly repairing the damage, he resumed his stirring music.

At Salamanca the three miles' advance of the 74th in perfect order caused Major-General Parkenham to exclaim, "Beautifully done, 74th!" At Vittoria and Toulouse they well maintained the reputation of Picton's "fighting division," of which they were a prominent constituent.

Every one knows the story of the *Birkenhead*, but not all are aware that the heroes of the sad tale were drafts of various regiments, including fifty men of the 74th, while the commander of the troops was Lieutenant-Colonel Seton of the same regiment. The ill-fated troopship struck a rock near Simon's Bay, Cape Colony, at 2 a.m. on 26th February 1852. In little over half an hour she sank, with 438 out of her 631 passengers; but to the eternal honour of British soldiers every woman and child was saved in the boats, while the soldiers awaited their doom as calmly as if on parade. The King of Prussia ordered the account of this noble example of discipline and self-sacrifice to be read on three successive occasions to every regiment in his army.

The chief subsequent episode in the regiment's story is the battle of Tel-el-kebir.

The 1st Battalion Seaforth Highlanders represents the 72nd Foot, or Duke of Albany's Highlanders, raised by the Earl of Seaforth, chief of the Clan Mackenzie, in 1778. Almost their first experience was that of being packed on board troop-ships for India in 1781. In the course of their long voyage, which extended over ten months, scurvy broke out, and from this and other causes no fewer than 247 men, including the earl, perished before India was reached. The survivors fought against Hyder Ali and Tippoo Sahib, acting gallantly at the taking of Palghantcherry, Bangalore, and Pondicherry, and capturing Ceylon from the Dutch. They helped to subdue Cape Colony in 1806. "Sevastopol" on the colours tells of service in the Crimea. In 1857 the regiment served in Central India under Sir Hugh Rose. In the Afghan Campaign (1878-80), after the storming of the Peiwar Kotul, General Roberts said, "I cannot praise them too highly: the 72nd Highlanders is a splendid regiment." They did their share of fighting at Tel-el-kebir and at the Atbara, being present also at Omdurman.

In the course of the 1905 war-test inspection, when the 1st Seaforths were declared to be the best British battalion in the Western Command, Lord Kitchener said, "I shall never forget the gallant way this regiment stormed Mahmoud's zareba at the Atbara seven years ago. I am sure the same spirit still prevails in the regiment. There is no regiment that I would sooner have with me on service than you men of the Seaforths."

The 2nd Battalion Seaforths are the famous 78th, or Ross-shire Buffs. They were enrolled by F. H. Mackenzie, another lord of Seaforth, in 1793 at Fort George, and being sent to India took part, as we have seen, with the 74th in the brilliant victory of Assaye.

Another portion of the 78th, although newly raised, fought brilliantly in Sir John Stuart's victory over the French at Maida in Italy (1806). Sir David Baird had the help of the 78th in South Africa. After a long period of comparative rest, Eastern troubles called out the 78th to win their brightest laurels. Having been engaged in Persia in 1856, they were at hand for service in India on the outbreak of the Mutiny in May 1857, and we find them the mainstay of Havelock's brigade. The details of this campaign will be found in Chapter XXXII.

After their successful entry into Lucknow, Havelock thus addressed his favourite regiment: "I am now upwards of sixty years old: I have been forty years in the service; I have been engaged in actions seven-and-twenty times; but in the whole of my career I have never seen any regiment behave so well as the 78th Highlanders. I am proud of you. I am not a Highlander, but I wish I were one!"

Outram, in no less flattering terms, said and wrote: "Your exemplary conduct, 78th, in every respect throughout the past eventful year, I can truly say, and I do most emphatically declare, has never been surpassed by any troops of any nation in any age, whether for indomitable valour in the field or steady discipline in the camp, under an amount of fighting, hardship, and privation, such as British troops have seldom, if ever, heretofore been exposed to."

Coming down to recent times, the Seaforths were among the Highlanders led to the shambles at Magersfontein, where they lost 200 men; the second heaviest loss in that engagement. The regiment got in some bayonet work at Paardeberg prior to Cronje's surrender, and were also present, together with the

Highland Light Infantry and Black Watch, at Prinsloo's surrender to General Hunter in July 1900.

The 79th Foot, or Cameron Highlanders, were raised in 1793 by Alan Cameron of Erracht, a cadet of the Lochiel family, and embodied at Stirling early in the following year. They served with Moore in Holland, and with Abercromby in Egypt. They formed part, along with the 92nd, Coldstreams, and Scots Fusiliers, of the force which occupied Copenhagen in 1807 under Lieutenant-General Lord Cathcart. In the Peninsular War they fought at Busaco, Fuentes d'Onor, the siege of Burgos, Salamanca, and Toulouse. In the last-named engagement, with the 42nd and 91st, they called forth the admiration and awe even of their vanquished enemies, a French officer exclaiming, "How firm these *sans-culottes* are!" They were present at Quatre-Bras with the 42nd and 92nd. They bravely held a difficult position at Waterloo throughout the day, and backed up the grand charge of the Greys and the 92nd. Out of 700 who had issued forth from Brussels for those three days of fighting, only 300 marched to bivouac on the night of Waterloo. The regiment was one of the four singled out by Wellington in his dispatches.

In the Crimea they formed with the 42nd and 93rd the Highland Brigade, their crowning glory being the Alma. "Sevastopol" is also on their regimental colours. In India, 1858, the regiment took part in the final capture of Lucknow. From street to street, from house to house, the brave Camerons fought their way, till the honour of the British arms was fully vindicated. For nearly twelve years the regiment remained to guard our interests in India, being rewarded in 1873 with the title of the Queen's Own Cameron Highlanders.

At Tel-el-kebir we are told how Lieutenant-Colonel Leith galloped to the front, waving his sword and crying, "Come on, 79th!" and how, "breaking into double time, to the shrill music of the pipes, and cheering as they ran, the regiment charged the enemy's lines." In the Nile Campaign of 1898 the Camerons played a prominent part. At the battle of the Atbara, on 8th April, they led the British brigade, being in fact extended along the whole front, with the Warwicks, Seaforths, and Lincolns behind. They suffered half of the whole British loss. Among the telegrams received by Kitchener was one from Queen Victoria: "Am proud of the gallantry of my soldiers! So glad to hear my Cameron Highlanders should have been amongst them." Kitchener, addressing their colonel, said, "I have never seen anything so splendid as that steady advance of your regiment: you ought to be very proud of it." They were present at Omdurman, and the Camerons were the sole British regiment represented at Fashoda when the notorious Marchand Expedition of the French came to an untimely end.

In the Boer War they were part of Sir Archibald Hunter's force to whom Prinsloo surrendered in July 1900. General Smith-Dorrien declared to the Camerons, "You have done more marching than any other regiment in South Africa, and if ever soldiers had reason to complain, you had; but I have never met a more uncomplaining regiment." Their marching record was 3315 miles.

The 2nd Battalion of the Camerons dates only from 1897.

No British regiment at the present day ranks higher in popular estimation than the Gordon Highlanders. The 1st Battalion represents the old 75th or

Stirlingshire regiment, raised in 1787. The regiment shared in the honours of Seringapatam, and after nineteen years' service in India it was rewarded in 1806 with the Royal Tiger badge. This battalion took part in the siege of Delhi and in the operations at Lucknow, and in the Soudan Campaign fought at Tel-el-kebir, El Teb, and Tamai.

The 2nd Battalion represents a much more famous regiment, the 92nd, raised largely by the influence of the Duchess of Gordon in 1794, each recruit receiving a guinea and a kiss from her ladyship. Their gallantry at Egmont-op-Zee in Holland induced Sir John Moore, like Lord Roberts in our own day, to adopt a Gordon Highlander as one of the supporters of his armorial bearings. They were distinguished at Mandora under Abercromby in March 1801, and fought at Copenhagen in 1807. In the Peninsula they fought at Corunna and Fuentes d'Onor. Under General Hill, along with the 71st, they surprised the French at Arroya del Molinos in a night-attack to the appropriate music of "Hey, Johnnie Cope, are ye waukin' yet?" They were especially distinguished at Vittoria. In July 1813, while the British were making their way through the pass of the Maya, a strong French force of 10,000 men drove back the 50th regiment upon the 71st and 92nd. The latter regiment emerged from the conflict with only half its men, and as Sir W. Napier says, "The stern valour of the 92nd would have graced Thermopylæ."

In 1815 they were brigaded with the Royal Scots and 42nd under Picton. At Quatre-Bras the regiment was close to Wellington himself. It lost over 300, including its colonel, John Cameron. At Waterloo, after the day's work was well through, it was ordered to retake La Haye Sainte, which the Belgians had lost.

Scarcely 300 of the regiment remained, but they at once rushed forward, raising with the Scots Greys the stirring cry of "Scotland for ever!" and carrying all before them. General Sir Denis Pack admiringly exclaimed, "You have saved the day, Highlanders!" Napoleon is credited with having exclaimed amid the chagrin of defeat, "The brave Scots!"

They arrived in the Crimea too late for service, but took part in quelling the Indian Mutiny. In the arduous Afghan campaigns of 1878-80 the regiment took a conspicuous part. In this war two future generals of the British Army won distinction. Major Stewart White (now Sir George White, one of our most deservedly popular generals) was awarded the V.C. for deciding the result of the engagement at Charasiab by coolly running up to the Afghan leader and shooting him dead on the spot, while Hector Macdonald, being offered his choice between a V.C. and a commission, chose the latter, like a canny Scot, and so entered on that career of hard work which culminated in the command of the Highland Brigade.

In the Boer War of 1881 a detachment of the Gordons shared the disaster of Majuba. In 1882 the regiment took part in the victory of Tel-el-kebir, while in the Chitral Campaign of 1895, and that against the Afridis in 1897, the Gordons were again distinguished. It was during the famous Dargai charge in the latter campaign that Piper Findlater won the V.C. by propping himself against a rock and continuing to play when shot through both legs.

In 1899 both battalions were sent to South Africa, and both colonels were killed in action. The first battalion had a small share in the misfortune at Magersfontein, and later served under Smith-Dorrien,

gaining some distinction at Paardeberg in conjunction with the Canadians.

During the operations following upon the capture of Bloemfontein there occurred at Thabanchu Hill the episode by which Captain Towse gained the V.C. With twenty-two men of the Gordons and Kitchener's Horse he swept 150 Boer mercenaries from the height, but lost the sight of both eyes in the action.

The second battalion formed part of the Ladysmith defence force. At Elandsplaagte in October 1899 they performed gallant work, and in repelling the desperate Boer attacks on Waggon Hill and Cæsar's Camp they shared the honours of victory with the Manchesters and Devons.

An episode in July 1901, as telegraphed to the king by Lord Kitchener, is typical of the excellent spirit of the Highland regiments of to-day: "Commandant Villiers, who was present, informs me that on the attack on the train on 4th July, at Naboomspruit, the guard of Gordon Highlanders behaved with utmost gallantry after the train had been captured by 150 Boers. The last four men, though completely surrounded and with no cover, continued to fire until three were killed, and the fourth wounded. On the Boers asking the survivor the reason they had not surrendered he replied, 'Why, man, we are Gordon Highlanders!'"

With the Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders we reach the last, but not the least famous, of the Scottish regiments. The first battalion represents the old 91st Foot, raised at the end of the eighteenth century by Colonel Duncan Campbell. After some service at the Cape they served in the Peninsula under Wellesley, taking part in the combats at Vimiera, Corunna, and Toulouse. The regiment was in reserve at Waterloo.

In more modern times it served in the Zulu War of 1879, and it may be mentioned that a draft of forty-four men belonging to this regiment shared the fate of the *Birkenhead* in 1852.

The second battalion has a much more famous record, being none other than the old 93rd. It was raised in 1800, nearly 500 of its first components being Sutherland men. It formed part of the Highland Brigade which in 1805-6 helped Sir David Baird to subdue Cape Colony for the British. After nearly fifty years of comparative inaction, excepting a short campaign in America, the regiment landed in the Crimea in September 1854. The 93rd was the central regiment of Sir Colin Campbell's line of advance at the Alma, but its crowning honour was won at Balaklava (see Chapter XXXI.).

In 1857 they again served under their grand old leader in India, and shared in the final relief of Lucknow. They remained in India till 1870. The well-known and authentic story of William M'Bean (later a major-general) will bear repeating as illustrating the fighting spirit of the Highlander. M'Bean was awarded the V.C. for his conspicuous gallantry at Lucknow, where he killed eleven of the enemy who had surrounded him. General Sir R. Garrett, on affixing the decoration to his breast, ended his remarks by saying, "A good day's work it was, sir!" "Tuts," replied the honest soldier, "it didna tak' me twunty meenits!"

In the Boer War the Argyll and Sutherlands were at Modder River and Magersfontein, afterwards doing some hard service under Sir Ian Hamilton, their marching record totalling 3500 miles.

In summing up the present-day condition of our Highland regiments, no more weighty testimony

could be adduced than that of Lord Roberts, who, after declaring that "no words of his could adequately describe their magnificent conduct" during the Boer Campaign, assures us that "the traditions of these regiments are nobly maintained."

CHAPTER XXXVIII

SCOTSMEN AS SCIENTISTS.

“O LORD, how manifold are Thy works ! in wisdom hast Thou made them all.”

Ps. civ. 24.

“PEACE hath her victories
No less renowned than war.”

MILTON.

THE two most famous names of learned Scotsmen that have come down to us from early times are those of Michael Scott and of John Duns Scotus.

Michael Scott lived in the earlier part of the thirteenth century. After studying in Oxford and Paris, he excited the wonder of Italy, Spain, Germany, and England by his knowledge of the crude astronomy and chemistry of those times, tinged as they were with the perverted ideas of astrology and alchemy respectively. Dante, in his great poem, represents him as suffering in the next world for his impiety in prying into the future. Returning to his native land, he earned the name of “the Wizard,” and popular credulity attributed to him powers of a supernatural order. At the same time, he was regarded as sufficiently human to be included in the embassy to Norway at the death of Alexander III.

John Duns Scotus (which probably meant, “John of Dunse, Scotsman”) was a distinguished scholar, scientist, and philosopher of the late thirteenth and

early fourteenth century, dying in 1308. Appointed a professor at Oxford, he is said to have attracted by the fame of his lectures no fewer than 30,000 students in all. Later he became a professor at Paris, where he earned the title of the "Subtle Doctor." He died at Cologne, whither he had been sent to found a university. The opinion was held not only during his lifetime but for generations after it, that "this Scot surpasses not only the contemporary theologians, but even the greatest of ancient or modern times, in the sublimity of his genius and the immensity of his learning."

In the case of both of these early scholars, the ambiguity of the term "Scot" as used at that period has led to their being claimed as Irishmen. No such doubt attaches to William Wellwood, a St. Andrews professor, who in 1577, when the great Galileo was only a boy of thirteen, obtained a patent for an invention for raising water from pits or wells on the principle of the siphon.

A passing mention is merited by the "Admirable Crichton." James Crichton, son of the Lord Advocate of Scotland, was born in Perthshire about 1560. Leaving Scotland at the age of twenty, with a fluent knowledge of ten languages, besides an astounding proficiency in all manly exercises, including horsemanship and fencing, he visited Paris, where his cleverness evoked the criticism that "if a man should live a hundred years without eating, drinking, or sleeping, he could not attain to this man's knowledge, which struck us with a panic fear." Crichton next visited Italy, and astounded the citizens of Rome, Venice, and Mantua in like manner. What might have been the ultimate use made of his great talents must remain matter of conjecture, as he was murdered in the last-

named city when about twenty-five years of age, leaving his name as a synonym for all that is marvellous in talent and erudition.

With the Union of the Crowns we leave the region of the marvellous, and enter upon the era of modern science, and here we are at once confronted by the greatest mathematician ever produced by Britain. Western Europe as a whole has added but little that is original to our mathematical knowledge, and the work of John Napier of Merchiston (1550–1617) may easily be classed as the most important mathematical achievement of the great modern nations. That work consisted in the exposition in 1614 of the Theory of Logarithms,—a discovery of such importance that it rendered possible the great advances which since then have been made in astronomy, physics, navigation, and engineering. And Napier did not leave his work half done, for, as Professor Playfair said, “Napier’s view of the subject is as simple and profound as any which, after two hundred years, has yet presented itself to mathematicians.”

In pure geometry one of the most distinguished of British scholars was Robert Simson (1687–1768), a native of Ayrshire, who became Professor of Mathematics at Glasgow in 1711. His edition of Euclid, published in 1756, served as a model for all subsequent editions during several generations. One of Simson’s pupils was Colin Maclaurin (1698–1746), an Argyll Highlander, who at the early age of nineteen became Professor of Mathematics at Aberdeen. In 1725 he was transferred to Edinburgh, largely owing to the cordial recommendation of Sir Isaac Newton, who had learned of the young Scot’s brilliant abilities. In 1742 he published his famous *Treatise on Fluxions*, which entitles him to rank among the foremost British

mathematicians. While he thus established a high reputation in pure mathematics, he showed great ingenuity in the application of his knowledge to practical purposes, and in his own district he rendered valuable help in the construction of machines, in mining, and in public works generally.

A most unusual example of hereditary talent is furnished by the remarkable family of Gregorys of Aberdeen. Dr. James Gregory (1638-75) was a keen student of mathematics and optics. In a work published in 1663 he expounded the idea of the reflecting telescope, and next year he went to London to have one constructed; but mechanical skill had not yet advanced sufficiently for this purpose. A correspondence passed between Gregory and Sir Isaac Newton on the subject, and in the end it fell to the greater genius of the latter to accomplish the construction of such a telescope. Gregory also independently discovered the law of refraction of light, which had been already established by Descartes in France. He married a daughter of George Jamesone, the first great Scottish painter. He held the professorship of Mathematics at St. Andrews and at Edinburgh.

His nephew David (1661-1708) became Professor of Mathematics at Edinburgh, and was the first professor who openly adopted Newton's system of the universe, which he taught to his students a whole generation earlier than it was accepted by Cambridge University. In 1692, largely by Newton's help, he was appointed Professor of Astronomy at Oxford over powerful rivals such as Halley. His brothers James and Charles became Professors of Mathematics at Edinburgh and St. Andrews respectively. David's successor in his Oxford Chair was another Scot, John Keill of Edinburgh.

James, the son of the James Gregory first mentioned, became Professor of Medicine at King's College, Aberdeen, and was succeeded in turn by his two sons, James and John. The latter (1724-73) succeeded to the Chair in 1756, and in 1766 removed to a similar position in Edinburgh, becoming at the same time first physician to the king in Scotland. John Gregory was one of the earliest students and exponents of comparative anatomy, and one of the first to study the human mind in its relations to the faculties of the lower animals. Three years after John's death, his Chair at Edinburgh was given to his son James (b. 1753), who served the university as a medical teacher for forty-five years, dying in 1821. His fame attracted students from all parts of the civilised world, and did much to establish the reputation of the medical school of Edinburgh University. He was also celebrated as a Latinist, and as a man of culture in many spheres. The homely "Gregory's Mixture" takes its name from him.

His son, William Gregory (b. 1803, at Edinburgh), became lecturer or Professor of Chemistry in Glasgow, Dublin, Aberdeen, and Edinburgh successively. He was closely associated in much of his work, especially in investigating the chemical bearings of physiology, with the famous German chemist Baron Liebig. The date of his death brings down the history of this remarkable family to the year 1858, thus completing a period of two centuries.

In the nineteenth century Scotland produced few mathematicians of note, but she has sent forth a noble succession of physicists. We may remark in passing that the Royal Society of Edinburgh, which has helped so much towards co-ordinating the work of Scottish scientists, was founded in 1782, growing out of various

earlier bodies, such as the Philosophic Society, dating back as far as 1716.

Sir John Leslie (1766–1832), a native of Largo, invented the differential thermometer about the end of the eighteenth century. In 1805 he succeeded Professor Playfair in the Chair of Mathematics at Edinburgh, and in 1819 he followed him in the Chair of Natural Philosophy. He carried out early in the century a series of valuable observations on radiant heat, and on the relations of heat and light. In 1810, while experimenting with the hygrometer, which he had invented, he discovered a method of artificial refrigeration,—a discovery which has rendered possible many subsequent investigations in physics and chemistry. He to some extent anticipated the doctrine of evolution.

Sir David Brewster (1781–1868) was born at Jedburgh, his father being rector of the grammar school there. From 1808 to 1830 he acted as editor of the *Edinburgh Encyclopædia*, but this did not interfere with his enthusiastic pursuit of science, particularly in the field of optics, to which he had devoted himself. He made valuable researches in the polarisation of light, and in the course of these he made various discoveries towards perfecting lighthouse arrangements. These were adopted by the French, though neglected by Britain until about 1833, after which date his “polyzonal” system was taken advantage of by Government. In 1816 he invented the kaleidoscope, and later he improved the stereoscope. Brewster was perhaps the first man to “popularise” science by means of such books as his *Life of Newton*, *Martyrs of Science*, and *More Worlds than One*. The Royal Society of London presented him at various times with all its three medals, the Copley, Rumford, and Royal,—an honour accorded

only to Brewster and Faraday. Brewster was one of the main founders of the British Association in 1831 : next year he was knighted. In 1838 he became Principal of the United Colleges at St. Andrews, and, in spite of an attempt to unseat him when he came out with the Free Church in 1843, he held the post till 1859, when he became Principal of Edinburgh University. His first wife was a daughter of James Macpherson, of "Ossian" fame. Brewster was a man of deep piety. On the day before his death Sir James Y. Simpson, who attended him, remarked that it had been his privilege to show forth much regarding God's great and marvellous works. "Yes," replied the aged scientist, "I found them to be great and marvellous, and I have felt them to be His."

James D. Forbes (1809-68), a native of Edinburgh, who in 1833 gained the Chair of Natural Philosophy at Edinburgh in competition with Brewster, became later Principal of St. Andrews. He discovered the polarisation of heat, and so established the connection between radiant heat and light. The classic experiments on the conduction of heat are due to Principal Forbes. He also conducted a series of skilful experiments on the motion of glaciers, and he was associated with Brewster in founding the British Association.

James Clerk-Maxwell (1831-79), a native of Edinburgh, became Professor of Physics at Aberdeen, London, and Cambridge in succession. His greatest published work dealt with electricity and magnetism. He showed that colour-sensation could be made a subject of actual numerical measurement. He established the relationship between light and electricity as being alike disturbances of the "ether," and made valuable researches in the Theory of Heat, besides expounding the kinetic theory of gases. It was Clerk-

Maxwell who founded and organised the now famous Cavendish School of Experimental Physics at Cambridge, where the recent important researches in radio-activity have chiefly been made. That school is now presided over by a Manchester Scot, Professor Joseph J. Thomson (b. 1856), one of the foremost living authorities on electricity. Under his guidance the problems regarding the discharge of electricity through gases were investigated, and the convection theory of electricity was enunciated. He has written most valuable works on this and other physical subjects, and one of his pupils is Professor Ernest Rutherford, of M'Gill University, who has gained so much distinction by his researches on radium and radio-activity. Professor Thomson was awarded in 1906 the Nobel prize for physics, and at the British Association's meetings at Winnipeg, in 1909, he delivered, as President, one of the most brilliant addresses on record.

Balfour Stewart (1828-87), another native of Edinburgh, became director of Kew Observatory, and Professor of Physics at Manchester. He was one of the originators of the method of spectrum analysis, which has made it possible to determine the elements of which the various heavenly bodies are composed. He also investigated and wrote upon radiant heat, terrestrial magnetism, and meteorology.

Peter Guthrie Tait (1831-1901), a native of Dalkeith, occupied the Chair of Natural Philosophy at Edinburgh from 1860 till his death. He performed valuable services in dynamics and in mathematical physics, particularly in thermo-electricity.

The late Dr. John Kerr, of the Glasgow Free Normal College, performed in his own quiet way a vast amount of original work in physics, the value of which is fully recognised by specialists.

The late Lord Blythswood (1837–1908, formerly Sir Archibald Campbell) was an outstanding example of leisured scientific enthusiasm. Among his other inventions was a speed indicator, now used in the ships of the British Navy, and he narrowly missed discovering the Röntgen Rays. His private laboratory was one of the finest in the kingdom.

Addressing the Edinburgh students in November 1901, Lord Dufferin said: "With regard to your benefactors in the world of science, medicine, and mechanical invention, they are so many that it would take too long to enumerate them, but of one thing you may be proud, the greater number are Scotsmen, as is also the greatest man among them, Lord Kelvin." This statement may well serve to introduce that grand old man of science.

Born in Belfast in 1824, William Thomson came of a Scottish family which settled in County Down as farmers a few generations ago. His father became Professor of Mathematics at Glasgow in 1832, and from that early date, until his death in December 1907, William was closely associated with that city. He entered its university as a student at the age of eleven. After a brilliant career at Cambridge, and a year's study abroad, he was appointed Professor of Natural Philosophy at Glasgow in 1846, at the early age of twenty-two. His genius, though precocious, was lasting—a very rare combination indeed—and for fifty-three years, till his retiral in 1899, he lectured in Glasgow University. Eight years after his appointment he instituted at Glasgow the first students' physical laboratory in the empire. He is best known to the general public through his success in laying the submarine cable across the Atlantic. This was accomplished in July 1866, and in the same year Thomson

received the honour of knighthood. The "man in the street" may have some hazy conception of the importance to the world of this brilliant achievement, which has rendered the fantastic boast of Ariel to "put a girdle round about the earth in forty minutes" a realised fact so far as the world's news is concerned, and has done more to cement the brotherhood of man and advance the solidarity of the race than all the philosophy ever written. But only specialists can value aright the infinite care and talent necessary to invent and produce the beautifully delicate instruments which made the achievement possible. No man of genius ever combined in so great a degree as Sir William Thomson the eye of scientific vision with the practical turn which at once enlisted every new discovery in the service of humanity. In connection with the submarine telegraph he invented the mirror galvanometer, various types of electrometers, and the siphon recorder for registering messages. By the help of these instruments trans-oceanic telegraphy can be carried on without the powerful currents which caused the failure of the first two attempts at transatlantic communication prior to 1860. His improved compass, and his sounding apparatus, made him a truer friend to "poor Jack" than any fancied "cherub that sits up aloft" could ever have been. While his practical mind marked him off from almost every other great scientist, he made, in pure science, researches which alone would have classed him as one of the greatest scientists since Newton's day. In thermodynamics and hydrostatics, in his "vortex" theory of atoms and in the doctrine of the dissipation of energy, he has done work of lasting importance. Through his physical investigations into the probable age of the earth he did a valuable service to geology, by throwing out of court many of the wilder





A. M.F. Shannon, A.R.S.A.

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LORD KELVIN.

assumptions as to the æons that had passed since the world became habitable by living creatures. The House of Lords was honoured indeed when Professor Thomson entered its portals in 1892 as Baron Kelvin of Largs. He received every honour that the British scientific world could bestow, having been at various times president of the British Association, and of the Royal Societies of London and Edinburgh. Foreign scientific bodies also showered well-merited rewards upon him, particularly at his professorial jubilee in 1896. Amid it all he remained the same humble, devout man, as in the days when his morning prayer at Gilmorehill reminded his students of Newton's comparison of himself to a child standing on the shore of the great unexplored ocean of truth. As the result of a lifetime spent in scientific study, he held unwaveringly the belief that "proofs of intelligent and benevolent design lie all around us," and declared that "we are absolutely forced by science to believe with perfect confidence in a directive Power,—in an influence other than a physical or dynamical or electrical force." Helmholtz, the great German scientist, said of him: "He far exceeds all the great men of science with whom I have made acquaintance in intelligence and lucidity and mobility of thought, so that I sometimes felt quite wooden beside him." His moral excellence has been best summed up by his old friend and colleague, Professor G. G. Ramsay: "Never was there a soul more transparent, more truth-loving, more whole-hearted, more absolutely devoid of pedantry, affectation, and the whole tribe of unrealities." He died at Largs on 17th December 1907, and was buried in Westminster Abbey, near Newton and Darwin.

Lord Kelvin's fame is apt to blind us to the real

merits of the work achieved in engineering, science, and thermodynamics by his brother James Thomson (1822–92), Professor of Engineering at Glasgow University from 1873. His predecessor in that Chair was William J. M. Rankine (1820–72), to whom civil engineering and mechanics owe a permanent debt. The present holder of the Chair, Professor Archibald Barr (b. Renfrewshire, 1855), has invented range-finders and other useful naval and military appliances.

In chemistry the first important Scotsman is Dr. Joseph Black (1728–99). Born in France of Scottish parents, he was educated at Glasgow and Edinburgh Universities, and in 1756, owing to his discovery of “fixed air,” he was appointed lecturer on chemistry in Glasgow. His *Magnesia Alba*, containing an account of the researches by which he discovered “fixed air,” or “carbonic acid gas,” is still regarded as a model for scientific writers. From the impetus given to scientific study by the discovery already alluded to there followed the identification of oxygen, hydrogen, and other gases, while quantitative analysis practically dates from him. During the winter session of 1761–62, Dr. Black discovered and announced the important principle of “latent heat,” which at once freed the study of heat from the fantastic chemical theories hitherto applied to it, and brought it within the sphere of physics. This discovery cleared the way for James Watt's investigations into the dynamical value of steam, which were soon to revolutionise the mechanical world. Black also investigated the question of specific heat, and his work in this respect was carried on by his pupil and successor Dr. Irvine. After his transference to Edinburgh in 1766 Black became more of a teacher and less of an original thinker. The famous French chemist Lavoisier attributed his own enthusiasm to the

influence of Black, whom he called "the illustrious Nestor of the chemical revolution."

About 1750, Dr. Home of Edinburgh, by using water mixed with sulphuric acid instead of sour milk as formerly, revolutionised bleaching, reducing by one-half the time required for the process.

Thomas Graham (1805-69), a native of Glasgow, and Professor of Chemistry there and in London, discovered the law of the molecular diffusion of gases familiarly known as Graham's Law, and investigated the absorption of gases by liquids. As Master of the Mint, he introduced the use of bronze coinage.

Thomas Thomson, a native of Crieff (1773-1852), the first Professor of Chemistry in Glasgow (from 1818 till 1830), was the first scientist to organise a well-equipped university laboratory, some years before Liebig's famous laboratory was inaugurated. To Thomson are due the symbols still used in chemical nomenclature, and he was the first to recognise the importance of mineralogy as a branch of science. He popularised Dalton's atomic theory, and calculated most of the atomic weights of important elements. His *History of Chemistry* remained until recently the only British classic on the subject.

Lyon Playfair (1818-98) was born in India, but studied at St. Andrews and Glasgow. Proceeding to Germany, he became associated with Liebig, and on his return held various important appointments before becoming (1858-69) Professor of Chemistry at Edinburgh. He was of a strongly practical bent, applying his great chemical knowledge to calico-printing, hygiene, and steel manufacture, and serving on many Royal Commissions. He represented Edinburgh and St. Andrews Universities in Parliament for seventeen years, and became postmaster-general and deputy-speaker. In

1892 he was rewarded for his public services by a peerage.

Dr. George Wilson of Edinburgh (1818-59) carried out important investigations on fluorine, tracing it in granite, trap-rocks, and river-water. In the chemistry of photography it is worthy of mention that in 1839 Mungo Ponton of Edinburgh discovered that paper prepared with potassium bichromate was sensitive to light. From this has sprung the modern system of carbon-printing.

At the present day two of the greatest and most original chemists are Scotsmen.

Professor Sir James Dewar, born in 1842 at Kin-cardine-on-Forth, was educated at Edinburgh University, where he became assistant Professor of Chemistry under Lord Playfair. In 1875 he was appointed Jacksonian Professor of Natural and Experimental Philosophy at Cambridge, and in 1877 Professor of Chemistry in the Royal Institution, London. He is known to the world as the first scientist to obtain liquid and solid hydrogen, and as the successful producer of liquid air. He was one of the inventors of cordite. Sir James was the first British recipient of the Lavoisier Gold Medal from the French Academy of Science (1894). He is an LL.D. of all the four Scottish universities. He was president of the British Association in 1902, and was knighted in 1904.

In the same year the honour of knighthood was conferred on Professor Sir William Ramsay, who was born at Glasgow in 1852. From 1874 till 1880 he assisted the Professor of Chemistry at Glasgow University. In 1887 he was appointed Professor of Chemistry at University College, London. In 1894 he sprang into fame by his discovery of a new element, argon. In the following year he discovered helium,

and he has since detected the existence of other gaseous elements named by him neon, krypton, and xenon. He is in the forefront of the investigation of the emanations from radium. In 1904 he was awarded the Nobel prize for chemistry, and he is noted as one possessing in the highest degree the faculty of inspiring others with his own enthusiasm.

In astronomy the most interesting Scot is James Ferguson (1710-76). Born near Keith in Banffshire, the son of a day-labourer, Ferguson was absolutely a self-taught genius. His mechanical faculty showed itself from his earliest years, and, whether as farmer's boy or shepherd, he spent every spare moment in his chosen study of astronomy. Almost unaided by books, he devised a "rotula," or diagram showing the position of the heavenly bodies, the times of eclipses, and the like. This, engraved by the advice of Maclaurin, met with a constant sale until 1752, when the "new style" of dating threw it out of use. Ferguson subsequently constructed numerous ingenious "orreries," or models showing the motions of the heavenly bodies, and from 1748 onwards he lectured on astronomy and mechanics, his first lecture dealing with the eclipse of that year. He wrote various books on astronomy, the chief being *Astronomy explained upon Newton's Principles* (1756), considered worthy by Brewster of being revised in 1811 for a thirteenth edition. Ferguson is credited with having foreshadowed the nebular hypothesis.

It was a Glasgow man, Dr. Alex. Wilson, who first discovered, in 1777, that the sun revolves as well as the planets. He was the first to make a systematic study of sun-spots. Wilson was the first head of the observatory opened at Glasgow University in 1760, his most distinguished successor being Professor Robert Grant (1814-92).

Robert Blair, Professor of Astronomy at Edinburgh from 1785 till 1828, made important improvements in the astronomical telescope.

Mrs. Mary Somerville (1780-1872), a native of Jedburgh, wrote a popular English version of Laplace's *Mécanique Céleste* at the invitation of Lord Brougham, and till near the end of her long life she continued to produce popularly written works on astronomy, physical geography, and kindred branches of science.

Thomas Henderson, early in the nineteenth century, was the first astronomer who succeeded in measuring the distances of the stars,—an achievement which heralded the so-called "New Astronomy."

Among living astronomers a foremost place is held by Sir David Gill (born in Aberdeenshire in 1843), appointed president of the British Association in 1907. During the years 1885-96 he carried out the geodetic survey of Natal and Cape Colony. In 1907 he retired, after fully a quarter of a century's tenure of office, from the position of astronomer-royal in Cape Colony, and head of the National Observatory at the Cape of Good Hope. Sir David has carried out a series of researches of enormous difficulty with a view to establishing more accurately the distance of the earth from the sun. He was the first to employ photography as an aid to the cataloguing of stars, and his researches added about three thousand double stars, nebulae and clusters, to those already known.

Scotland has not many distinguished names in botany. Mention must, however, be made of Robert Dick (1811-66), the self-taught botanist, a native of Tullibody, but usually known as Dick of Thurso, in which town he settled as a baker.

Another self-taught botanist was John Duncan of

Stonehaven, who presented to Aberdeen University a herbarium of his own formation.

Robert Brown (1773–1858), a native of Montrose, went in 1801 as naturalist with Captain Flinders on the expedition to the Australian coasts. He classified about four thousand species of Australian plants, and his adoption of the “natural system” of classification did much to displace the Linnæan system. He became head of the botanical department of the British Museum, and Humboldt declared him to be “easily the greatest of botanists.”

The Royal Botanical Society of Edinburgh was founded by John Hutton Balfour (1808–84), a native of that city, who held the professorship of Botany in Glasgow and Edinburgh in succession.

An interesting early Scottish botanist was Robert Morison (1620–83), a native of Aberdeen, who was placed in charge of the gardens of the Duke of Orleans at Blois in 1650, and retained this post till the Restoration of Charles II., when he returned to Britain on that king's invitation, and became botanist-royal and Professor of Botany at Oxford. His writings enjoyed a European reputation.

In zoology the most prominent Scot in recent times was Sir C. Wyville Thomson, elsewhere noticed (Chapter XLIV.). A generation earlier one of the most famous British zoologists was John Fleming (1785–1857), a native of Bathgate, who held scientific chairs in Aberdeen and Edinburgh. Thomas Edward (1814–1886), a native of Fife, and in later life a Banff shoemaker, became well known as a self-taught naturalist, especially in zoology.

Among living zoologists a very high place is held by John Arthur Thomson (born in Haddingtonshire in 1861, and educated at Edinburgh and Berlin). After

lecturing in Edinburgh, he became in 1899 Professor of Natural History at Aberdeen. He has devoted much research to the difficult problems of heredity, and *The Evolution of Sex* is a standard work. In the preparation of this book he was assisted by Patrick Geddes (b. 1854), Professor of Botany in University College, Dundee, the organiser of University Hall, Edinburgh, and of the Outlook Tower and the summer meetings for study in that city. Wm. A. Herdman (b. Edinburgh, 1858), Professor of Natural History in Liverpool University, is one of the greatest living authorities on marine zoology.

In ornithology a distinguished place is held by Alex. Wilson (1766–1813), a native of Paisley, the gifted author of the humorous poem *Watty and Meg*. In succession weaver, pedlar, and Radical agitator, Wilson emigrated in 1794 to America, where he served as a school teacher. After some years he found his true bent in the study of bird-life, and in 1808 he published the first volume of his epoch-making work, *American Ornithology*, most of the plates being from his own hand. He met his death through a chill contracted by swimming across a river in pursuit of a rare bird. Seven volumes of his work were published before his death, the other two appearing posthumously. Sir Wm. Jardine (1800–74), an Edinburgh man, held high place as an ornithologist and as a naturalist in general. He edited the forty volumes of *The Naturalist's Library*. Another noted authority on bird-life was Wm. MacGillivray (1796–1852), author of the *History of British Birds*, and Professor of Natural History at Aberdeen.

In reference to Scotland's share in promoting geographical science, it is impossible to do better than quote from the report of a speech by Sir George

T. Goldie, president of the Royal Geographical Society, delivered in November 1906 at Edinburgh to the Scottish Geographical Society: "The subject of the practical uses of ecology, or economic geography, was far too large to be treated incidentally. The best short manual on the subject was still that entitled *Applied Geography*, by Dr. Scott Keltie. He understood he was a Scotsman, and as he was speaking to a Scottish audience he might briefly refer to the splendid ecological work that Scotland had done in the exploration, settling, and development of those vast regions known as the Dominion of Canada. . . . He need hardly remind them that from Canada came a Scot—Sir John Murray—who was admittedly the greatest oceanographer and limnologist that the world had produced; that the most successful settlement in South Africa was the Scotch settlement in Cape Colony; that Natal was a second Scotland; that the acquisition of British rights in East Africa, which promised to show important ecological results, was due to the efforts of the late Sir William Mackinnon, and was largely the result of the explorations of Joseph Thomson; that the province known by the misleading name of British Central Africa was opened up to commerce by the Scottish African Lakes Company, and was made into a peaceful British possession by the first recipient of their Livingstone medal, Sir Harry Johnston; or that a century ago the marvellous travels of Mungo Park were the genesis of the entire movement which had opened up Africa to civilisation. It must, he thought, be admitted that Scotland was in the forefront of the great geographical and imperial movement of the nineteenth century. Nor had she neglected the more purely scientific sides of geography, as was evidenced by the recent successful national ex-

pedition to the Antarctic regions ; while her cartography, as represented by Keith Johnston and Bartholomew, had undoubtedly led the way in these islands." To the names mentioned by Sir George may be added that of Alex. Dalrymple (1737-1808), an Edinburgh man who, after many years spent in the East India Company's service, and after much scientific research, was appointed first hydrographer to the British Admiralty.

The two Keith Johnstons, father and son, merit more than a simple mention of their names.

Alex. Keith Johnston the elder (1804-71), was a native of the county of Edinburgh. Beginning business as an engraver along with his brother William, he published various atlases, together with a *Dictionary of Geography*. In 1843 he was appointed geographer-royal for Scotland.

His son and namesake (1844-79) was born at Edinburgh. At the age of twenty-five he went to London to take charge of the great London business of the firm of W. & A. K. Johnston. After geographical work in South America, he died in Central Africa while in charge of the Royal Geographical Society's expedition to Lake Nyasa.

Directing our attention to the fascinating science of geology, which may be regarded as having grown up in little more than a century, we find that the whole subject may without exaggeration be claimed as a Scottish science. As a serious study, geology may be said to have begun with James Hutton (1726-97), a native of Edinburgh. He was the first who clearly showed the folly of the old catastrophic ideas of the formation of the world, and called attention to the importance of the forces regularly at work. His *Theory of the Earth*, published in 1795, was the matured result of forty years' close observation and

reasoning, and it still remains one of the standard books on the subject. Hutton also did much to improve the methods of agriculture in Lowland Scotland.

John Playfair (1748–1819), Professor of Mathematics and later of Natural Philosophy at Edinburgh, amplified and verified many of Hutton's ideas, besides performing useful work in the regions of mathematics and natural philosophy.

The credit of finally laying to rest the older ideas as to the world's creation is due to Sir Charles Lyell (1797–1875), a native of Forfarshire. Hutton's "Plutonian" ideas of geology had postulated enormous volcanic upheavals of the sea-bottom at periodic intervals, but Lyell was able to account more satisfactorily for secular phenomena by the slower natural forces. In other words, he carried out Hutton's principles to a more logical series of conclusions. His *Principles of Geology* (published 1830–33) and his later work, *Geological Evidences of the Antiquity of Man* (1863), rank only after Darwin's works in the revolution which they caused in scientific thought and in the recasting of religious beliefs which they rendered necessary. Darwin said of him: "The science of geology is enormously indebted to Lyell,—more so, I believe, than to any other man who ever lived." Apart from the boldness and logical acumen of Lyell's theories, he did most useful service in rendering descriptive geology a truly scientific and ordered study. He was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Sir Roderick Murchison (1792–1871) was a native of Ross-shire. He served in the Peninsular War, and afterwards took up geology as a hobby; soon, however, it claimed all his attention. He applied himself to the serious study and classification of the British fossil-bearing strata beneath the Old Red Sandstone, and

after seven years' work published his account of the Silurian system. Later he investigated the Devonian, Permian, and Laurentian systems. Between 1840 and 1845 he carried out a geological survey of the Russian Empire, and at the request of the Russian Emperor he was knighted by Queen Victoria. In 1844 he foretold the discovery of gold in New South Wales from the nature of the strata. To him was chiefly due the founding of the Royal Geographical Society, and from 1854 he was director of the Geological Survey of the United Kingdom, his successor in this position being another Scot, Andrew C. Ramsay, a native of Glasgow (1814-91) and writer of a standard work on the geology and physical geography of Britain, who retired in 1881 with the honour of knighthood. It is worthy of mention that the first Ordnance Survey of any part of the United Kingdom was completed in Scotland in 1755 by Major-General Wm. Roy, a native of Lanarkshire. Roy was afterwards appointed surveyor-general of the coasts of Great Britain, and wrote *Military Antiquities of the Romans in Britain*.

A thoroughly native genius was that of Hugh Miller, born at Cromarty in 1802. Being apprenticed in his teens as a stone-mason and quarryman, Miller rose to be a recognised authority on geology, especially on the Old Red Sandstone formation. In his *Testimony of the Rocks* and *Footprints of the Creator* he strove to dovetail religious ideas into the new facts revealed by geology. Overwork brought on a decay of his mental powers, and in December 1856 he committed suicide in his own room.

James Croll (1821-90), a native of Coupar-Angus, raised himself by his own ability, and almost without tuition, to be keeper of the Glasgow Andersonian Museum and a member of the Scottish Geological

Survey staff. He wrote copiously on geological, astronomical, and biological subjects. His most important books were *The Physical Causes of the Changes of Climate during the Glacial Epoch* and *Climate and Time*. The former, calling attention as it did to glacial action, was an epoch-making work.

Our foremost living geologist is Sir Archibald Geikie, born at Edinburgh in 1835. In 1867 he became director of the Geological Survey of Scotland, and in 1881 he succeeded Sir A. C. Ramsay as director of the Survey of the United Kingdom, and became head of the London Geological Museum. He was Professor of Geology at Edinburgh from 1870 till 1881, when he was succeeded by his brother James Geikie (b. 1839), author of *The Great Ice Age*. Both brothers have written clearly and copiously on geological subjects, and Sir Archibald has recently written one of the best books of Scottish memoirs produced since the days of Dean Ramsay's *Reminiscences of Scottish Life and Character* (1858).

Before leaving the subject of geology, it falls to be mentioned that the Academy of Natural Science in Philadelphia was established in 1812 by a group of enthusiasts, including Wm. Maclure of Ayr, the "Father of American Geology."

The modern science of anthropology may be regarded as having been introduced by a Scottish judge, James Burnett, Lord Monboddo (1714-99). His *Origin and Progress of Language*, in six volumes, compared civilised man with the savage and with the lower animals. His theory of a close connection between man and monkey, which excited much ridicule in his own day, was a direct precursor of Darwinism.

John F. Campbell of Islay (1822-85) was a noted compiler of Highland folklore and a keen student of

comparative anthropology, as was also John F. M'Lennan (1827-81), a native of Inverness, author of *Primitive Marriage* and other works. Mention must also be made of Sir Daniel Wilson (1816-92), a native of Edinburgh, who became Professor of History at Toronto, and later President of that university, and who was a copious writer on pre-historic man and anthropology.

George John Douglas Campbell, the eighth Duke of Argyll (1823-1900), besides holding high offices of State under Palmerston and Gladstone, had during his lifetime a great reputation as a writer on "Primeval Man" and other subjects on the borderland between religion, science, and philosophy.

A foremost place among living archæologists is held by Professor Sir Wm. M. Ramsay of Aberdeen (b. Glasgow, 1851), who for thirty years has devoted himself to the elucidation of the New Testament by the study of the history and geography of Asia Minor and other parts of the "Near East."

On the archæology of Scotland a leading authority is Dr. Robert Munro (b. 1835, Ross-shire), who retired from medicine to prosecute his favourite study. He has written numerous works on prehistoric Scotland, and has dealt particularly with its lake-dwellings.

CHAPTER XXXIX

MEDICAL SCIENCE IN SCOTLAND.

“AH, little think the gay licentious proud,
Whom pleasure, power, and affluence surround,
How many feel, this very moment, death,
And all the sad variety of pain.”

JAMES THOMSON.

“AFFLICTION’S sons are brothers in distress ;
A brother to relieve, how exquisite the bliss !”

BURNS.

IN the noblest of all sciences—that devoted to the alleviation of human suffering—Scotland has clearly done more than her share in adding to the sum of human knowledge and human skill. The rise of Medicine and Surgery to the dignity of sciences can scarcely be regarded as dating further back than the Reformation period, although in 1505 the Edinburgh College of Surgeons was established as a medical school, developing later into the Royal College of Surgeons of that city. From Reformation days onwards Scotland has not only furnished her own full quota of talent to this most honourable profession, but has been able to send skilled doctors to other lands.

At the end of the sixteenth century Peter Lowe, a Scotsman, was surgeon-ordinary to the king of France. Returning to his native land, he founded the Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons of Glasgow. Dr. Duncan Liddell was chief physician to the court of Brunswick in the reign of James VI.

By the seventeenth century Harvey's discovery of the circulation of the blood (1628) gave a new impetus to the science, and may actually be regarded as the starting-point of genuine medical skill. The chief exponent of his ideas in Scotland was Archibald Pitcairne (1652-1713), who for a short time was a professor at Leyden. Another pioneer of Scottish medicine was Sir Andrew Balfour (1630-94), a Fifeshire man, who founded the Edinburgh Botanical Garden and projected the Royal College of Physicians in the same city. He was the first to introduce the study of human anatomy into his native country, and he instituted in the Scottish capital a hospital which, by the public spirit of Provost George Drummond, was incorporated as the Royal Infirmary in 1738. Provost Drummond's other services to the city included the projecting of the New Town, and the draining of the old Nor' Loch, whose basin is now occupied by Princes Street Gardens.

Closely associated with Dr. Balfour was Sir Robert Sibbald (1641-1722), who, apart from his medical work, was a keen student of botany, zoology, and archæology, and held the post of geographer-royal for Scotland.

A passing reference is merited by John Arbuthnot (1667-1735), a native of Kincardineshire, who became physician to Queen Anne, but who is now chiefly remembered as a literary man, and as the close friend of Pope, Gay, and Swift. The personification of the English nation as "John Bull" is due to a clever literary sketch by Arbuthnot in 1712.

The rise of Edinburgh University in the eighteenth century to a position of European eminence as a medical school is closely connected with the notable family of Monros, three of whom, in lineal succession, occupied the Chair of Anatomy for one hundred and twenty-six years.

The founder of the Edinburgh medical school was Dr. Alexander Monro (1697–1767), born at London of Scottish parentage, who became lecturer on anatomy at the age of twenty-two, and held the post till his retirement forty years later. By 1726 the medical faculty of Edinburgh University was fully constituted, and students were attracted from England and Ireland and even from the Continent. A close connection existed at this time between Edinburgh and various continental universities, especially that of Leyden.

Dr. Monro was succeeded by his youngest son and namesake (1733–1817), who lectured for a full half century, and added greatly to the sum of human knowledge, especially by his investigations into the nervous and lymphatic systems of the body. He in turn was succeeded by his son, Alexander Monro *tertius* (1773–1859), who held the Chair of Anatomy for nearly forty years.

The first British school for the deaf and dumb was opened at Edinburgh in 1760 by Thomas Braidwood (1715–1806); and the London Asylum, founded in 1792, had as its first head his nephew Dr. Joseph Watson. It may be mentioned that, a century earlier, George Dalgarno of Aberdeen (1626–87) had invented a finger alphabet for the deaf and dumb, and had published works indicating how deaf-mutes might be taught to read and write.

Glasgow University had one of the earliest laboratories of human anatomy nearly two hundred years ago, but the emergence of Glasgow as a Medical School of importance dates only from about 1747, and is connected with the work of Dr. William Cullen (1710–90), a native of Hamilton. After some years of successful general practice in Hamilton and Glasgow, Cullen set up as a lecturer at Glasgow College, and in 1751

there was founded for him the Chair of Medicine in that city. Cullen lectured both on physic and chemistry until 1755, when he was transferred to Edinburgh, where for thirty-five years he was in turn Professor of Chemistry, Institutes of Medicine, and Medicine. He gave a new dignity to chemistry by treating it as a science in itself, helpful to art and commerce, and not as a mere appanage of medicine. In medicine he did valuable service in the classification of diseases and in his inquiries into the nervous system. In particular, he investigated the phenomena of reflex action, and the results established by him led not long afterwards to the discovery of the distinction between sensory and motor nerve-fibres. He instituted clinical lectures in the Edinburgh Royal Infirmary.

A pupil and assistant of Cullen, John Brown, caused a short-lived sensation in the medical world in 1780 by promulgating, in opposition to his master, the so-called "Brunonian system" of medicine, which consisted chiefly in a copious use of opiates and stimulants. Brown's chief service to medicine was that he did much to banish the hitherto almost universal practice of blood-letting as a cure for all ailments.

The Morningside Asylum in Edinburgh was founded by Dr. Andrew Duncan (1744-1828). He and his son Andrew were alike distinguished as surgeons and professors in the Scottish capital.

Of the many distinguished medical men who have gone from Scotland to England, and particularly to the metropolis, none enjoyed a greater fame than the brothers William and John Hunter, of East Kilbride in Lanarkshire. William Hunter (1718-83) was educated at the universities of Glasgow and Edinburgh, and after being associated with Dr. Cullen in his practice at Hamilton, he settled in London in 1741, and gradually

rose to the summit of the profession there by his intimate knowledge of anatomy and midwifery, and his excellent qualities as a lecturer. In 1764 he was appointed physician to George III.'s consort. From 1770 onwards, finding his wealth accumulating, he devoted himself to the formation of a museum of medicine, natural history, and archæology. By the time of his death the value of the museum, added to the money left for its endowment, amounted to about £130,000. According to the terms of his bequest the collection fell to Glasgow University after being at the disposal of two friends for a few years, and now constitutes the well-known Hunterian Museum.

John Hunter (1728-93) reached even a greater degree of eminence in his profession. At the age of twenty he joined his brother in London. With much less talent as a lecturer, John gradually outdistanced his brother as an anatomist, and the study of comparative anatomy engrossed much of his attention. In 1776 he was appointed surgeon-extraordinary to the king, and in 1789 inspector-general of hospitals, and surgeon-general of the army. He took a prominent part in founding the London Veterinary College. Like his brother he had formed a scientific collection, which the British Government purchased after his death for £15,000 and presented to the College of Surgeons. He is now generally recognised as an original investigator of much talent, and Sir Richard Owen, the zoologist, said of his work in comparative anatomy: "It appears to me that he marks a new epoch."

The Barcleian Museum of anatomical specimens in the Royal College of Surgeons, Edinburgh, owes its origin to John Barclay (1758-1826), a famous surgeon and anatomist of that city.

To Sir Gilbert Blane (1749-1834), an Ayrshire

physician, are attributed the sanitary measures in the British Navy about 1780, which resulted in the disappearance of scurvy.

The well-known *Buchan's Domestic Medicine*, published in 1769, was the work of William Buchan (1729–1805), a native of Ancrum, who practised as a doctor in Sheffield, Edinburgh, and London. It held the field well into the nineteenth century as a household manual.

Sir Charles Bell (1774–1842), a native of Edinburgh, removed to London in 1804, and after much hard work and many discouragements he became surgeon to the Middlesex Hospital in 1814, holding this post till 1836. In the Napoleonic wars he gained, as an army-surgeon, much experience which served to make him one of the leading authorities on anatomy and surgery. He created a revolution in medical knowledge in 1807 by clearly establishing the distinction between the sensory and motor nerves, already foreshadowed in Cullen's work, and by his investigations into the connection between nerve action and the senses. He established the existence of a sixth sense. These discoveries were published privately in 1811, and publicly in 1821. In 1824 he was appointed to the senior Chair of Anatomy and Surgery in the London College of Surgeons, and twelve years later he returned to Scotland as Professor of Surgery at Edinburgh, having in the interval been knighted in 1830. His brother George J. Bell (1770–1843), Professor of Scots Law, was the author of many well-known law treatises, notably the *Principles of the Laws of Scotland*.

The famous Edinburgh physician, Dr. Joseph Bell (b. 1837), the prototype of "Sherlock Holmes," is a relative of Sir Charles. Sir A. Conan Doyle, the talented author of the "Holmes" stories, though

not a Scot by descent, was born at Edinburgh in 1859, and is a medical graduate of Edinburgh University.

Sir C. Bell's work in connection with the senses has been amplified and continued by the researches of Dr. David Ferrier (b. 1843), a native of Aberdeen, who has done much to localise the various brain functions, and who has held many important surgical appointments in London. The Chair of Neuro-Pathology in King's College was specially created for him in 1889.

Dr. James Currie (1756-1805), a native of Dumfriesshire, is remembered as the first physician to keep a systematic record of the temperature of patients by means of the clinical thermometer. He advocated the cold bath as a palliative in cases of fever, and after a period of ridicule, the value of a modified application of his ideas has been recognised in later times. Currie had made the acquaintance of Robert Burns, and on the poet's death he generously agreed to furnish notes, criticisms, and prefaces, and an account of the poet's life, for an edition of Burns's works brought out on behalf of the poet's family. This edition, still well known, appeared in 1800.

Sir John Forbes (1787-1861), a native of Banffshire, one of Queen Victoria's physicians, and one of the founders of the British Medical Association, is now chiefly remembered as having popularised the use of the stethoscope, thus adding greatly to the efficiency of diagnosis in chest affections.

Another of the queen's physicians was Sir Robert Christison (1797-1882), a native of Edinburgh, who became Professor of Medical Jurisprudence and later of *Materia Medica* in that city. His *Treatise on Poisons* (1829) is still regarded as a standard work on that subject.

Dr. Andrew Combe (1797-1847), a native of

Edinburgh, was physician to the king of Belgium, and afterwards to Queen Victoria.

Two of the most famous London doctors of the past generation were Sir Andrew Clark (1826-93), a native of Aberdeen, who became physician to the London Hospital, and who is chiefly remembered as Mr. Gladstone's medical adviser, and Sir James Clark (1788-1870), a native of Cullen, who was Queen Victoria's physician-in-ordinary.

One of the most noted of Edinburgh's many great surgeons was Robert Liston (1794-1847), a native of Linlithgowshire. His *Principles of Surgery* (1833), together with his skill and rapidity as an operator, made his name a household word in medical circles throughout the world. In 1834 he was called to London as a hospital surgeon, and soon after was made Professor of Clinical Surgery in University College.

James Syme (1799-1870), a native of Edinburgh, became a professor there. Later he resigned a similar appointment in London after three months' trial of that city, and returned to his *alma mater*, whose fame he added to in no small degree. As an operator, a lecturer, and a writer he was in the first rank.

John Goodsir (1814-67), a native of Anstruther, Professor of Anatomy at Edinburgh, made important investigations into the cellular constitution of the human body.

Sir William Fergusson, born at Prestonpans (1808-77), became Professor of Surgery in King's College, London, and president of the Royal College of Surgeons in that city. Many surgical instruments owe their invention or improvement to him.

The first man to investigate the phenomena of hypnotism on a scientific basis was a Scottish medical

man, James Braid (d. 1860), practising in Manchester. His work has been continued by Dr. John Milne Bramwell (b. Perth, 1852), who has been located in London since 1892.

One of the earliest advocates of phrenology as a scientific study was George Combe (1788–1858), an Edinburgh lawyer.

From among the numerous outstanding men who have served in recent years to raise the fame of Glasgow University as a medical school above even that of Edinburgh, mention must be made of Sir William T. Gairdner (1824–1907), a native of Edinburgh, who, after sixteen years' connection with the Royal Infirmary of his native city, occupied the Chair of Medicine at Glasgow from 1862 till 1900. He was recognised as a supreme type of the philosophically-minded physician, and his work on the heart particularly remains of permanent importance to the profession.

Of living surgeons, no man enjoys a higher or more secure reputation than Sir William Macewen (b. 1848), a native of Bute, and Professor of Surgery at Glasgow University since 1892. At a recent conference of the American Medical Association at Boston, Sir William was one of two selected to represent the surgical and medical talent of Britain, and that distinguished honour is typical of the esteem in which he is held by the scientific world, and at the same time of the extent to which Glasgow as a medical school has leaped into the forefront in recent years. Sir William is recognised as one of the most daring, yet safe, operators, and in brain cases particularly he is without a rival. The *Boston Transcript* thus spoke of "this eminent Scotchman": "He is perhaps one of the most original men of science in Europe, and the combination of this

with his other qualities equips him for the accomplishment of singular and remarkable discoveries and advances. By his contribution to surgical science he has acquired such a reputation that his clinic is a Mecca to which pilgrims are drawn from all parts of the world." At the time of Professor Macewen's appointment there were ill-informed sneers at the choice of a "mere Glasgow student," and the extent to which his native talent has distanced all his old "distinguished" competitors may well give food for thought to those who, in the case of appointments in the Arts Faculty, tacitly, or even avowedly, scout the claims of native-trained Scotsmen.

In view of Glasgow's present fame as a medical school, the appointment of a medical man, Donald Macalister (b. Perth, 1854, knighted 1908), to the principalship of the University in 1907 presented a special appropriateness.

Despite the array of Scottish medical talent already mentioned, we have kept the best wine to the last. The enormous developments in modern surgery owe their possibility and success to the two greatest medical discoveries of the modern world, anæsthesia and the antiseptic treatment of wounds, and both of these were evolved in Scottish hospitals, the first by Simpson, the second by Lister.

Sir James Young Simpson (1811-70) was born at Bathgate, where his father was a baker. By the age of twenty-four he was publishing medical papers considered worthy of being reproduced in the main continental languages. In 1840 he became Professor of Midwifery at Edinburgh, and in that capacity he found an outlet for that sympathy with suffering in every shape which formed the basis of his deeply pious character. The excruciating pain suffered by his



Photo by T. J. G. & Co.

SIR JAMES Y. SIMPSON, BART.

patients made him seek for some means of alleviation, and when, in 1846, Dr. Morton, a Boston dentist, employed sulphuric ether to render his patients unconscious under treatment, Professor Simpson at once welcomed the discovery and introduced it in his own practice. By the following year he had discovered the superior qualities of chloroform as an anæsthetic, and its triumph was soon complete. In 1866 Sir James was awarded the gold medal and prize of the French Academy of Sciences for "most important services rendered to humanity." Well has Dr. John Brown referred to chloroform as "one of God's best gifts to his suffering children," and it is gratifying to think that from Edinburgh that gift and its properties was first made known. In other directions Simpson did valuable work, especially in hospital reform and in archæology, to which he devoted much time and enthusiasm.

Dr. James M. Duncan (1826-90), a native of Aberdeen, was closely associated with Simpson in his great discovery.

The other great medical discovery of the nineteenth century is due to one who, though a native of England, received part of his training, and achieved the success of a lifetime, north of the Tweed. Joseph Lister was born in Essex in 1827. He was appointed house-surgeon to Dr. Syme in Edinburgh, and married Syme's daughter in 1856. Until the date of Lister's great discovery in 1860, surgical operations, however skilful, had been accompanied by a very high mortality. Lister not only traced the cause of this by his investigations in bacteriology, but, after a series of experiments carried on in Glasgow Royal Infirmary, he discovered a method of preventing this sad result by the use of carbolic acid and other substances of an "antiseptic"

nature, which protect the wounded surfaces from the attacks of those minute organisms to whose inroads the high death-rate had hitherto been due. (It may be remarked in passing that the Royal Infirmary was founded by royal charter in 1791; the Western followed the opening of the new university at Gilmore-hill in 1870.) It is no exaggeration to say that Lister's discovery has revolutionised modern surgery, and along with Simpson's has rendered possible operations which, at any previous period in the world's history, would have been considered chimerical. In the Royal Infirmary itself, Lister's work reduced the death-rate in serious operations from forty-five per cent. to fifteen per cent., and by subsequent improvements he further reduced the percentage to twelve! Lister's services were fitly recognised by a baronetcy in 1883 and a peerage in 1897.

In the subsequent developments of human knowledge in reference to parasitic communication of disease, excellent work was done by Colonel David Bruce (b. 1855), who in 1894 investigated in Africa the conditions under which the "fly disease" is spread by the dreaded "tsetse" fly, and who, founding upon researches by Castellani in 1902, pursued a series of successful inquiries into the nature and causes of the hitherto mysterious "sleeping-sickness," whose deadly ravages had penetrated from West Africa to the Equatorial Lake Region. In 1908 Colonel Bruce was appointed head of a commission to make still further investigations in the Lake Victoria district into the relations of the sleeping-sickness parasite to the fly which harbours it.

Major Ronald Ross (b. in India 1857, of Perthshire lineage) holds a similar position of honour in the investigation of malaria. During 1897-98 he successfully traced the life-history of malaria parasites in the

mosquito, and in 1899 he tracked out these parasites in West Africa, and paved the way for the extermination of that deadly disease. In 1902 he was awarded the Nobel prize for medicine, and he occupies the Chair of Tropical Medicine in Liverpool University.

As a natural development of Lister's antiseptic treatment of wounds, the principle of asepticism has in late years permeated the whole field of surgery. One of the recognised pioneers in this domain was Robert Lawson Tait (1845-99), a native of Edinburgh, at one time assistant to Sir James Y. Simpson.

CHAPTER XL

SCOTSMEN IN INVENTION AND ENGINEERING.

“LORD, send a man like Robbie Burns to sing the Song o’ Steam !
To match wi’ Scotia’s noblest speech yon orchestra sublime,
Whaurto—uplifted like the Just—the tail-rods mark the time.
The crank-throws give the double-bass, the feed-pump sobs and
heaves,

And now the main eccentrics start their quarrel on the sheaves :
Frae skylight lift to furnace bars, backed, bolted, braced an’ stayed,
An’ singin’ like the Mornin’ Stars for joy that they are made
Now a’ together, hear them lift their lesson—theirs an’ mine,
‘Law, Order, Duty an’ Restraint, Obedience, Discipline !’ ”

KIPLING, *M’Andrews’ Hymn.*

WE are frequently reminded to what an enormous degree Scotland has benefited in material prosperity by the union with England, and it is indeed impossible to estimate too highly the advantages gained by Scotland in freedom from the fear of invasion and in the removal of restrictions upon her commerce. But, after all, these were merely negative advantages, —merely the termination of a series of badgering enactments by the greater power, and of a course of aggression pursued during several anxious centuries.

On the other side of the account, the brilliant series of inventions achieved by Scottish genius since the middle of the eighteenth century, while in the long-run benefiting the whole human race, lay open through the Union to England’s immediate participation ; and the headway thus gained over other nations, coupled

with the impetus given to England's enterprise by her partnership with Scottish industry, has added to her wealth and prosperity in a measure before which the material benefits accruing to Scotland from the Union pale into insignificance.

The first invention alone that we have to cite is of such transcendent importance that it conditions the whole aspect of life in the modern world. The astounding developments in mining, manufactures, land and sea locomotion, and even in agriculture, which characterise the nineteenth century, were rendered possible only by an efficient control of the mighty power of Steam, and that control was first attained in full degree by James Watt (1736-1819), a native of Greenock. Being of a strongly mechanical bent, Watt endeavoured at the age of twenty-one to set up in business in Glasgow as an instrument-maker; but the conservatism of the trades incorporations of that day boycotted him so effectively that his genius might have been lost to the world had not the professors of the University—among whom at this time were numbered Adam Smith, Joseph Black, and Robert Simson—appointed him mathematical instrument-maker to the University. They gave him a home and a workshop within the walls of the college, adjoining the famous printing establishment of the brothers Foulis. Such discriminating appreciation of genius was well worthy of a university which by 1839 could boast the first professorship of engineering in the British Empire, and which first taught the principles of shipbuilding upon a scientific basis. Watt retained his Glasgow appointment from 1757 till 1763. It was in the last-named year that Watt, while repairing a Newcomen pumping-engine still preserved in Glasgow, hit upon the idea of using a condenser separate from the cylinder,

—an improvement which made the steam-engine a genuinely useful machine. For the next ten years Watt was chiefly engaged in survey work as a canal and river engineer. He made surveys for the Crinan, Caledonian, and Forth and Clyde canals, and personally superintended the formation of the Monkland Canal. In 1774 he entered into partnership with Mr. Matthew Boulton, of the Soho Foundry, near Birmingham, and from this time on Watt accomplished a series of brilliant improvements on the steam-engine, including the crank principle, the sun-and-planet wheel, the double-acting engine, the parallel-motion for guiding the piston-rod, centrifugal governors, pressure-indicator, and slide-valve.

In one of his numerous patents (1784) he described a form of steam-locomotive, but it was left for George Stephenson to make efficient steam-locomotion an accomplished fact.

Mr. Andrew Carnegie well said in June 1908 that “it was a strange fact that the three men who changed the conditions of life upon the earth were contemporaries, all Scotch in blood, and two of them Scotch by birth. There must be something in the climate, and the race it produced, that could have brought Watt, Symington, and Stephenson within a radius of a hundred miles of Greenock, in the same century, and all of Scotch blood.”

To Watt, along with his father-in-law Mr. M'Gregor of Glasgow, is due the credit of first introducing into Britain the use of chlorine in bleaching (1787). Watt invented an ingenious machine for making reproductions of statues. The principle of this machine has in more recent times been used in producing large numbers of small pieces of machinery or armour which require to be identical in shape and measurement.



Photo by R. A. D. Macalister.

THE JAMES WATT INSTITUTE, GREENOCK.
(Nautical and Technical College.)

Statue of Watt unveiled by A. Carnegie, 1st June 1908.

Retiring from his partnership with Boulton in 1800, Watt, now a rich, honoured, and leisured man, continued till his last year to be consulted on engineering matters, and rendered useful services to the Glasgow Water Company, the British Admiralty, and other public bodies.

Lord Jeffrey truly wrote of him : " We have said that Mr. Watt was the great improver of the steam-engine, but, in truth, as to all that is admirable in its structure, or vast in its utility, he should rather be described as its inventor. It was by his inventions that its action was so regulated as to make it capable of being applied to the finest and most delicate manufactures, and its power so increased as to set weight and solidity at defiance." Sir Walter Scott refers to James Watt as " the man whose genius discovered the means of multiplying our national resources to a degree perhaps even beyond his own stupendous powers of calculation and combination, bringing the treasures of the abyss to the summit of the earth, giving the feeble arm of man the momentum of an Afrite, commanding manufacturers to arise, as the rod of the prophet produced water in the desert, affording the means of dispensing with that time and tide which wait for no man, and of sailing without that wind which defied the commands and threats of Xerxes himself."

Sir Walter pays a high tribute to the personal character of Watt, describing him as " not only the most profound man of science, the most successful combiner of powers and calculator of numbers as adapted to practical purposes, not only one of the most generally well-informed, but one of the best and kindest of beings."

The first " railway " of any kind known to have

been in operation was a horse-tramway between Kilmarnock and Troon, opened in 1812. Scotland was a year behind England in introducing steam-locomotion, the first railway laid being the Monkland line in 1826 from Monkland (Coatbridge) to Kirkintilloch. George Stephenson (1781-1848), to whom fell the honour of first successfully applying steam-power to locomotion, was a native of Northumberland, but was of Scottish parentage, his grandfather having been a Roxburghshire shepherd. His first locomotive was produced in 1814, but not till 1825 was the first English railway constructed between Stockton and Darlington. The Caledonian and North British Railway Companies were constituted in 1845, and the Glasgow and South Western in 1850, these being chiefly combinations of earlier companies. Glasgow and Edinburgh were connected by rail in 1842, and by 1857 Scotland had 1200 miles of railway open to traffic.

One of the most useful adaptations of steam-power, combining in the fullest degree minute accuracy with enormous force, is the steam-hammer, invented by James Nasmyth (1808-90), a native of Edinburgh, and son of the painter Alexander Nasmyth. The steam-hammer was devised by him in 1839, when he had been invited to forge an enormous paddle-shaft. The French Creuzot firm copied the invention from his scheme-book, and Nasmyth accordingly took out a patent, and was entrusted by the Admiralty with the making of shafts. Nasmyth also invented a steam pile-driver. His manager, Robert Wilson, improved the value of the steam-hammer by a device for its rapid withdrawal before cooling the glowing mass of metal.

The invention of the steam-hammer, which rendered possible the construction of the enormous iron and steel erections of the past two generations, was preceded in

1829 by a vast improvement in the process of iron-smelting. This was due to James B. Neilson (1792-1865), a native of Shettleston (near Glasgow), and manager of the Glasgow Gas Works, who introduced the use of the hot-blast, and so led to the improvements associated with the names of Bessemer and Siemens. From Neilson's time, owing to the great economy of coal effected by his device, dates the tremendous development in the iron and steel manufacture of the west of Scotland. Over a million tons of pig-iron are now annually produced in Scotland.

Neilson's invention made it possible to smelt the black-band ironstone, which is so copiously distributed over the Scottish Lowlands, and which had been recently discovered by David Mushet, an employee in the Clyde Iron Works.

In the invention of the steamboat, and the development of steam navigation, Scotland has played, irrespective of its size, a greater part than any other country in the world. Numerous are the claims put forward as to the inventor of the first steamboat. Absolutely the earliest seems to have been that navigated in 1786, on the Potomac, by James Rumsay, or Ramsay, a Scottish Virginian, in presence of George Washington and crowds of enthusiastic spectators. The next names in order of time connected with this important invention are those of Wm. Symington (1764-1831) and Patrick Miller. Symington, a native of Leadhills, had already invented a model steam road-locomotive in 1786, and two years later he constructed for Miller (one of the principals of the Carron Iron Co.) an engine to propel a boat launched on Dalswinton Loch in Dumfriesshire. This vessel measured 25 feet in length, and consisted really of two boats side by side with a paddle-wheel in the space between them. It attained a speed of five miles

an hour. In 1789 Symington made further experiments on the Forth and Clyde Canal, which was then under construction, and in 1802 he launched the first really successful steamboat, the *Charlotte Dundas*, built by Hart of Grangemouth, and engined at the famous Carron Works, which had been founded in 1760. This vessel attained a speed of seven miles an hour, and was intended as a tug, but it was feared that the commotion caused by her paddles would injure the canal banks, and she was discarded. Symington is one of the many humble men of genius who were never adequately rewarded for their services to the country and to humanity. The idea of the steamboat now lay in abeyance for a few years, but among those who had inspected the *Charlotte Dundas* in 1801 were two men who were to revive the enterprise to better purpose. One of these was Robert Fulton (1765–1815), a young American of Scoto-Irish parentage: the other was Henry Bell.

In 1807 Fulton launched a river-steamer on the Hudson. She was furnished with a Watt engine, and made a speed of fully five miles an hour.

The first regular passenger-steamer in the world was launched on the Clyde. Henry Bell, a native of Torphichen in Linlithgowshire (1767–1830), had for many years applied his mind to the problem of steam navigation. In 1800 and 1803 he had laid schemes before the Admiralty which were considered visionary by all except Lord Nelson, who advised their acceptance. In 1808 Bell became an inn-keeper at Helensburgh, and here he matured his plans so successfully that in January 1812 his thirty-ton *Comet*, built by Wood & Co. of Port-Glasgow, completed her first voyage from Glasgow to Greenock at the rate of five miles an hour against a strong wind, her best

subsequent record being six miles an hour. It will be noted that the date of the *Comet* is twelve years earlier than that of the first railway, and two years earlier than Stephenson's first locomotive. By 1814 Scotland had five steamers, while England had as yet none. The *Comet* plied on the Clyde for eight years, at the end of which time she was wrecked. The first Thames steamer, the *Margery*, was built on the Clyde. The *Rob Roy* (1818), built by David Napier, was the first deep-sea steamer. She ran between Scotland and Ireland, and later between England and France.

The first iron boat, the *Vulcan*, was constructed for the Forth and Clyde Canal by Thomas Wilson in 1818. The first iron steamer capable of going to sea was designed in 1825, and launched a few years later, by John Neilson of Oakbank Foundry, Glasgow, brother of James Neilson of "hot-blast" fame. The patent slip-dock for vessels was invented about 1822 by a Leith shipbuilder, Thomas Morton (1781-1832).

The first vessel to cross the Atlantic purely by steam-power was the *Royal William*, built at Quebec in 1831 by a Greenock Scot, James Goudie. The one American "steamer" which had crossed earlier was primarily a sailing-ship. The introduction of the screw-propeller dates from about 1836.

One of the most famous of naval architects was John Scott Russell (1808-82), who was born near Glasgow, though most of his work was done on the Thames. About 1834, as a result of investigations on the principles which condition speed, he adopted the "wave-line system" of naval construction. Two of his greatest productions were the *Great Eastern* (1857) and the first British iron-clad, the *Warrior* (1861).

A word may here be said as to the great development in the building of sailing-vessels which took



place about 1846 in Aberdeen. Until that date the China tea-trade was almost entirely in the hands of Americans, but now the Aberdeen "clippers" began to oust the American vessels. About the same time Britain reaped a decided advantage from the building of iron ships instead of wood. The change was largely due to Sir Wm. Fairbairn (1789-1874), a native of Kelso, who between 1835 and 1849 turned out at London hundreds of iron vessels. Fairbairn also introduced improvements in hot-blast furnaces. Along with Robert Stephenson he designed the Menai Tubular Bridge. In 1861 he was president of the British Association, of which he had been a founder.

The Clyde and Tyne districts received a tremendous impetus in shipbuilding through the introduction of iron construction, and the pre-eminence of these northern rivers became even more marked as steel gradually superseded iron in the later part of the nineteenth century. Among Clyde-built vessels, which in their own day represented the highest reaches of naval construction, there may be noted the Cunard Liner *Scotia* (3870 tons), 1861; the Guion Liner *Oregon* (7375 tons), 1883; the Cunard Liner *Umbria* (7718 tons), 1884; the American Liner *Philadelphia* (10,500 tons), 1888, and the Cunarder *Campania* (13,000 tons), 1893.

A puny river like the Clyde might well have been ousted from its supremacy by more favoured competitors, but the public spirit and enterprise of Glasgow and the west of Scotland generally have so far prevented that catastrophe. The Clyde Trust, incorporated in 1858, has spent eleven million pounds in keeping the river abreast of modern requirements, and the Clyde by itself produces more vessels, by number or tonnage, than any foreign country, and builds about a third of the

total tonnage produced in Great Britain. The year 1907 constituted the record year for the Clyde, over 500 vessels, with a total tonnage of 619,919, being constructed in that year. The three firms with greatest tonnage were Messrs. Russell & Co., Port-Glasgow, the Fairfield Co., and Messrs. Barclay, Curle & Co.

Naturally many of the improvements in the construction of steamships and of their engines are directly due to the great Clyde firms. For instance, the compound or double-expansion engine, 1854, which saved a third in fuel, was due to John Elder of Govan, 1824-69. Messrs. Napier & Sons improved on this by introducing the triple-expansion. Water-tight compartments, which add so much to the security of deep-sea vessels, were chiefly the work of Messrs. Denny of Dumbarton, who have more recently devoted much attention to the perfecting of the turbine for marine purposes. The first turbine-steamer in the world was the Clyde river-steamer, *King Edward*, constructed by Denny in 1901, and followed by the *Queen Alexandra* in 1902. In war vessels Messrs. J. & G. Thomson and other Clyde firms have produced excellent work, and the most powerful cruiser afloat, the *Indomitable* (a turbine ship costing one and three quarter million pounds), was recently launched by the Fairfield Shipbuilding Co. A sister-cruiser, the *Inflexible*, built by Messrs. John Brown & Co., is the swiftest warship to date (1909), attaining a speed of over thirty miles an hour.

A passing reference must be made to Messrs. Scott & Co. of Greenock. Six generations of this family have been engaged in shipbuilding, and the firm has existed for two centuries. In 1711 John Scott began by building herring-boats. From 1819 till 1821 the

firm annually launched the largest steamer in Britain. They took part in the clipper-building of the earlier half of the nineteenth century, and their crowning achievement in our own day was the construction of the first-class armoured cruiser *Argyll* (10,850 tons) for the British Government.

The Clyde has inevitably kept in close touch with the great ocean steamship firms.

The world-famed Cunard Co. was founded in 1839 by Samuel Cunard, a Nova Scotian, David M'Iver of Liverpool, and George Burns of Glasgow. In 1897 the title of Baron Inverclyde was conferred on Sir John Burns (1829-1901), the son of the last-named, as chairman of the Cunard Co. The title has since fallen to two sons of Sir John, namely, George A. Burns (1861-1905), who also was chairman of the Cunard Co., and the present baron, James C. Burns (b. 1864), who is the principal director of G. & J. Burns Ltd. and of the Clyde Steamship Owners. He has been president of the Chamber of Shipping of the United Kingdom. Robert Napier, a cousin of the David Napier already mentioned, was chosen as the first builder for the Cunard Co. The Company's first steamer, the *Britannia* (1840), crossed the Atlantic in 14 days 8 hours, and established steam postal connection between Britain and America. Iron steamers were adopted in 1855, and by 1862 the screw had completely ousted the paddle. The Fairfield-built *Campania* and *Lucania* reduced the transatlantic passage to about 5½ days. This has been reduced by nearly another day in the case of the latest Clyde triumph, the Cunarder *Lusitania*, built by Messrs. John Brown & Co. at Dalmuir (1906-7). This magnificent vessel, which meanwhile constitutes the best product of modern construction, has regained from

Germany the speed-supremacy of the seas, being capable of crossing the Atlantic at an average speed of over 25 knots an hour. At the time of launching she was the largest steamer ever produced; her length being 790 feet, and her complement of passengers and crew 3000. Her tonnage is 32,500, and her horse-power 65,000. She is fitted with turbine machinery. In spite of her enormous dimensions she has that indefinable charm of build and accuracy of detail which are summed up in the phrase "Clyde finish."

The Allan Line was founded in 1852 by Sir Hugh Allan (1810-82), a native of Saltcoats, to provide a service between the Clyde and Canada. This firm, now amalgamated with the State Line, owns about thirty vessels, including the *Victorian* and *Virginian*, the first ocean steamers fitted with turbines. Sir Hugh was later one of the projectors of the Canadian Pacific Railway.

The Anchor Line, founded in 1856 by the Messrs. Henderson of Glasgow, at first provided communication between the Clyde and the Mediterranean, but ere long extended its operations to America and India. It owns over two dozen ocean steamers.

The Clan Line, instituted in 1878, with headquarters in Glasgow and Liverpool, possesses about fifty ocean steamers, plying to Africa and India, and from America to the Cape.

The Donaldson Line was founded by the brothers Donaldson of Glasgow in 1854. It possesses fourteen twin-screw steamers, linking Glasgow with Canada and United States.

Sir Donald Currie's services in connection with South African shipping are elsewhere referred to (Chapter XLIII.).

Excellent coasting steamers belonging to such

lines as the Clyde Shipping Co., the Laird Line, and the Carron Co., provide regular connection with English and Irish ports, while for river steamers the Clyde stands pre-eminent in the world. In their old age these serviceable little vessels find their way to the other parts of Britain, and even to the Continent. For instance, Messrs. G. & J. Burns's *Cobra* (predecessor of the *Adder* and *Viper*), after serving her time as daylight steamer from the Clyde to Belfast, was sent to Germany, and, plying between Hamburg and Heligoland, was for many years regarded (if she is not so still) as the crack steamer of the Elbe.

In the sphere of yacht-building the Clyde holds an honourable place, and all the recent serious attempts to recapture the famous America Cup in face of the most adverse conditions were based on the work of Clyde constructors and designers, foremost among the latter being the late Mr. G. L. Watson.

In recent times many Clyde workmen and managers have migrated to Belfast and the Tyne, and have there helped to create serious rivals to the Clyde firms. It is well known that in the building of the *Mauretania*, the greatest Tyne triumph, a good many Scots played prominent parts. The excellent qualities of Scottish marine engineers are so universally recognised that Cutcliffe Hyne's "M'Todd" and Kipling's "M'Andrews" have only embodied in more material form the well-known saying that if you call "Mac" into the engine-room of a P. and O. steamer you are sure to be at once answered.

Another important branch of engineering which Scotsmen have made peculiarly their own is the construction of roads and bridges. In road-making Telford and Macadam occupy positions of eminence.

Thomas Telford (1757–1834) was born near Langholm in Dumfriesshire, and pushed his way upwards from the position of stone-mason to a foremost place in the engineering world. He made over a thousand miles of roads in Scotland alone, chiefly in the Highlands, the most notable being the excellent highway from Inverness through Sutherlandshire to Caithness. He built 1200 bridges, including the “Jamaica” Bridge, Glasgow (1836), the Dean Bridge, Edinburgh, and the Menai Suspension Bridge. He constructed the road from London to Holyhead, and formed the St. Katharine’s Docks at London, besides harbours at Dundee, Aberdeen, and other Scottish towns. One of his greatest achievements was the Caledonian Canal (1802–23). The Göta Canal in Sweden was another of his works. Telford was buried in Westminster Abbey.

John L. Macadam (1756–1836) was a native of Ayr. Having pushed his fortune for a time in America, he returned to Britain after the War of Independence, and after a varied career he became in 1815 surveyor-general of the Bristol roads. In that capacity he abandoned the old style of rubble roads and introduced the method of road-laying now so universally adopted and known as “macadamising.” He used broken metal of uniform small size, and bound this together into a smooth surface,—a plan which the subsequent invention of the steam-roller has done much to perfect, while the “tar-macadam” device is a useful modern application of his principle to pavements. His methods were adopted almost at once by the principal counties and cities, and he might have chosen to make a vast fortune; but he preferred to give the whole country the benefit of his discovery, and even spent thousands of pounds in helping on the construction of roads.

In 1827 Parliament voted him £10,000 for his services to the nation. He died at Moffat.

The enormous improvement in the condition of the roads made improved vehicles possible, and among other methods of locomotion the device of balancing oneself upon two wheels on the principle of kinetic stability came into vogue,—a device so common to our ideas that it seems inconceivable why so many centuries should have passed before it was discovered. Early in the nineteenth century the “hobby-horse” and “dandy-horse” came into some vogue as sources of more or less exhilarating amusement. They consisted essentially of two wheels connected by a bar, on which the rider sat while propelling the “horse” by taking long strides along the ground.

What is believed to have been the first bicycle, or “velocipede,” was that made at Lesmahagow about the year 1846, and shown at the Glasgow Exhibition of 1888. A similar claim is, however, made on behalf of a bicycle made at Dalswinton by Kirkpatrick M'Millan. At any rate, these two Scottish bicycles were the first in the world. Both machines were driven by means of cranks acting on the rear-wheel. The front-wheel method of propulsion was devised at Paris in 1864, and was soon afterwards adopted in the British “bone-shaker.” The “safety” reverted to the earlier Scottish type. Rubber-tyres were introduced in England about 1870, and naturally gave a great impetus to cycling. This healthful pastime is now being rapidly superseded by the much more exhilarating motor-car, and in the construction of this type of vehicle Scotland, with her Albion and Arrol-Johnston Motor Companies, is well to the front.

The first of the famous Scottish bridge-builders was John Rennie (1761–1821), a native of East Lothian.

In his teens he had the advantage of being in the employment of Andrew Meikle (1719-1811), the inventor of the threshing-machine. Meikle was a farmer, and later a civil engineer at Dunbar, and both his father and his son showed signs of inventive faculty.

In passing, we may note that the reaping-machine was invented in 1827 by a Scottish parish minister, Rev. Patrick Bell of Carmyllie, near Arbroath (1799-1869). His machine is preserved in the South Kensington Museum.

To return to Rennie, after three sessions at Edinburgh University he found employment under James Watt at the Soho Works. Having shown much skill in inventing devices for the improvement of grain-mills, Rennie at last turned to the real work of his life. He constructed bridges at Kelso and various other Scottish towns. He built the Waterloo and Southwark Bridges, London, and planned the new London Bridge, afterwards finished by his sons. In 1811 he began the construction of the famous Plymouth Breakwater, which he had designed. This work was completed in 1841, twenty years after his death, by his sons George and John, both of whom followed in their father's footsteps as famous engineers, the latter being appointed engineer to the Admiralty. Among other works executed by Rennie were the Crinan Canal, the Birmingham Canal, the East and West India Docks in London, and other docks in the three kingdoms, besides harbours and dockyards at Portsmouth, Chatham, Sheerness, and Plymouth. He also drained great tracts of the fen-country in the east of England, and invented a dredging-machine for deepening the Clyde. He was buried with great pomp beside Wren in St. Paul's Cathedral.

In the construction of the Menai Tubular Bridge, Robert Stephenson (son of George Stephenson), was

assisted by a famous Scottish engineer, Alexander Ross, who also constructed the great railway bridge across the St. Lawrence at Montreal, one and three quarter miles in length, with powerful ice-breaking piers.

Sir John Aird (b. 1833, knighted 1901), represents the third generation of a notable engineering family. His grandfather left Ross-shire to work on the Regent's Canal, London. His son (Sir John's father), was responsible for the building of the International Exhibition in Hyde Park in 1851, and its reconstruction as the Crystal Palace was carried through by Sir John himself. The important Nile Barrage scheme, which has proved so great a boon to modern Egyptian agriculture, was executed by Sir John's firm.

By the contract with the Egyptian Government, the firm agreed to bear the capital outlay of this work, amounting to two million pounds, and in return the Egyptian Government pays £157,000 per annum for thirty years. The bar or dam is situated at the First Cataract, a few miles above Assuan, and in connection with the scheme there is an open weir at Assiut. The bar is of solid masonry; its length is $1\frac{1}{4}$ miles, its height 92 feet, and the thickness varies from $26\frac{1}{2}$ feet at the top to $82\frac{1}{2}$ feet at the base. There are locks for the passage of boats, together with 180 sluices. It is capable of providing for the storage of a thousand million cubic metres of water, which are thus made available for the irrigation of Upper and Middle Egypt. It is calculated that Egypt will gain in wealth by this scheme to the extent of two and a half million pounds per annum. The dam was formally inaugurated by the Duke of Connaught in December 1902.

The same firm carried out another barrage scheme one hundred miles north of Assuan between 1906 and 1908.

Among bridge-builders of the present generation, the foremost place is easily held by Sir William Arrol (b. near Paisley, 1839), whose works are situated at Dalmarnock, Glasgow. Beginning the work of life as a blacksmith, Arrol pushed his way by talent and industry, until his two great engineering triumphs, the Tay and Forth Bridges, thrust him into fame. The Tay Bridge is over two miles long, and was built to replace the bridge which fell with such disastrous results in 1879. The Forth Bridge is recognised as one of the wonders of the modern world, and excites the admiration of visitors from all countries. It is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, spanning the Firth of Forth, whose width at that part is about a mile. It is built on the cantilever principle, and provides a clear headway for ships of 150 feet at high water. It is the largest railway bridge in the world, and cost about two million pounds. In spite of its vast size it is admittedly an object of grace, and has falsified the fears that so vast a structure would be a blot on the scenery of the Forth. It was opened in 1890, and in that year its constructor, who had also done important work on the Manchester Ship Canal, was knighted. Since then Sir William's firm has received important commissions in many lands, among others being the construction of the Tower Bridge at London, with its bascule action allowing for the passage of large vessels. This bridge was opened in 1894 after eight years' work, and cost over a million pounds. The reconstruction of the Blackfriars Bridge London, in 1907-9, was carried out by the same firm.

In competition with contractors of all nationalities Sir William secured from the Egyptian Government the contract for the building of the great Nile Bridge (with two smaller bridges) near Cairo. This bridge was begun in 1905 and opened in February 1908. Its

construction involved the use of over 7000 tons of steel and 40,000 tons of foundation-work.

The astounding enterprise of the late Sir R. G. Reid is referred to in Chapter XLIV.

In lighthouse construction Scotland was nobly represented by the Stevensons. Robert Stevenson (1772-1850), a native of Glasgow, and grandfather of R. L. Stevenson the author, early learned the art of lighthouse building from his stepfather, and at the age of nineteen took charge of the construction of the Little Cumbrae Lighthouse. His greatest achievement was the Bell Rock Lighthouse, finished in 1810. The rock whose terrors were thus mercifully laid to rest is situated a dozen miles from land, and is barely uncovered even at low water, so that Stevenson's skill had to overcome many difficulties not presented to Smeaton, whose Eddystone Lighthouse was chosen by Stevenson as his model. It may be remarked that Smeaton himself, though born in Leeds, was of Scottish lineage. Stevenson held for forty-seven years the position of first engineer to the Lighthouse Board, and he constructed in all twenty-three lighthouses. He introduced the catoptric system of illumination, by which the rays of light are concentrated by reflectors so as to be powerful enough to be seen at great distances. In order to render it possible to distinguish various lighthouses at night, he invented intermittent and flashing lights, and for his services to humanity in this respect he received a gold medal from the King of the Netherlands.

As engineer to the Northern Lights Commissioners, Robert Stevenson was succeeded by his son Alan (1807-65), who was born at Edinburgh, and whose name is associated with the dioptric or refractive principle as applied to lighthouses. Of the ten lighthouses constructed by him all the others are thrown into the

shade by that built on the Skerryvore reef of rocks, fourteen miles from the bleak Hebridean island of Tiree, the nearest land. Sir Walter Scott declared that, in view of the difficulties to be faced, "the Bell Rock and the Eddystone would be a joke to it," yet by 1844 Alan Stevenson had succeeded in erecting a sturdy lighthouse, twice as high as the famous Eddystone. For his humane work in this and other undertakings he received medals from the crowned heads of Russia, Prussia, and Holland. His health, however, never robust, had been permanently shattered by exposure, and he retired to Portobello in 1852, where he resumed his favourite linguistic and literary pursuits, which he had with reluctance partly suspended in youth to devote himself to the scientific and mathematical studies necessary for his lighthouse work. Such was his talent in these directions that, but for his attention to the more practical side of his genius, it is believed he might have secured for his family a literary fame equal to that afterwards gained by his nephew "R. L. S." With Alan there was associated, in much of his work, his younger brother Thomas (1818-87), who carried on the family reputation after Alan's retiral. Thomas was to a great extent, through his writings and his inventions, the founder of the science of meteorology in its present form.

In the sphere of artificial lighting Scotland has rendered no mean service to the world. The manufacture of oil on a grand scale was initiated by Dr. James Young, F.R.S. (1811-83), a native of Glasgow. Beginning as a joiner, Young rose to be a lecturer on chemistry and manager of great chemical works in various cities. He obtained a patent for manufacturing paraffin and paraffin-oil from shale, and works at Bathgate for this purpose were opened in 1851. In recent

times Scottish industry in this sphere has been eclipsed by the great natural resources of America in mineral oils.

As Dr. Young did much to apply chemistry to industrial purposes, we may associate with him another Glasgow man, Charles Macintosh, F.R.S. (1766-1843), whose surname has become the regular designation for a waterproof overcoat. Having studied under Dr. Joseph Black, and being associated at different times with Charles Tennant, the famous chemical manufacturer, and with J. B. Neilson, Macintosh did a great deal to develop industrial chemistry in Glasgow, for instance in utilising the by-products of gas manufacture. Experimenting with one of these, naphtha, he discovered about 1820 a method of dissolving caoutchouc or india-rubber, and a few years later he devised and patented the method of waterproofing cloth, with which his name is so closely associated.

The use of coal-gas as an illuminant was due to William Murdoch (1754-1839), a native of Auchinleck, in Ayrshire. While in the employment of Boulton & Watt, he constructed (in 1784) a model engine to run on wheels, and he devised many other ingenious applications of the principles of his great master James Watt. Having previously experimented at Culross with the waste gases produced in distilling coal for tar, he began in 1792 to distil coal-gas at Redruth in Cornwall, and in that year he lit his own house and office with gas. Six years later he invented apparatus at Birmingham for storing gas on a large scale. By 1803 Boulton & Watt's premises were lit by the new illuminant, but it was not till ten years later that gas definitely won the confidence of the public, after which its use soon became general. Murdoch never patented his invention, whose benefits were freely given to his fellow-men. It was Murdoch, also, who first discovered

the practical value of compressed air as a mechanical force.

The lucifer match was invented in 1829 by Isaac Holden (1807–97), a Renfrewshire miner's son. In later life he introduced numerous improvements in the methods of treating wool, and established at Bradford the largest wool-combing business in the world. He was made a baronet in 1893.

In connection with electricity as applied to lighting, mention falls to be made of James Bowman Lindsay (1799–1862), a Dundee man, who in 1834, after investigations into the possibilities of electricity as a heating and lighting agency, was able to light his humble room with electric light.

The first house in the world to be lit throughout with this new illuminant was the official residence of Sir William Thomson at Glasgow University. In 1881, with the help of a Siemens dynamo and a Clark gas-engine in the natural philosophy laboratory, Sir William supplied his house with 106 lights.

As the telegraph brought the world's news to every man's door, and as education created a new and unlimited reading public, swifter methods of printing great numbers of any required book or newspaper became a necessity. In this case the method had been devised actually before the necessity arose. William Ged (1690–1749), an Edinburgh goldsmith, had invented in 1725 the process of stereotype printing, by which, from a single setting of movable types, various duplicates can be made, and hundreds of thousands of copies may thus be printed if required.

It is claimed that Charles Morrison, a native of Greenock, who had settled as a surgeon in Virginia, was the first man to declare publicly in the *Scots Magazine* (1753) that electricity could be utilised for telegraphy.

Morrison's ideas were rendered practicable when it was discovered that two wires in all were sufficient, instead of one for each letter of the alphabet, as Morrison had thought to be necessary. It was an Edinburgh clock-maker, Alexander Bain, who ultimately showed one wire to be enough.

James B. Lindsay, above-mentioned, enunciated and proved the possibility of "wireless telegraphy" some forty years before Marconi's genius rendered it a matter of commercial importance, and the practical work of the latter, resting as it does on the investigations of Hertz, was only rendered possible by the discovery of the principle of electric waves by Clerk-Maxwell about a generation ago.

In providing the funds for the submarine cables between Britain and America, beginning with the temporarily successful cable of 1857-58, and culminating in Sir William Thomson's triumphant success of 1866, one of the foremost spirits was Sir John Pender (1815-96), a Vale of Leven man. He afterwards engaged in similar enterprises connecting Europe with the East.

Electric traction has now gained a great hold on public favour owing chiefly to its use in tramways, and it is capable of enormous development in the near future. It is therefore interesting to know that this method of locomotion was first demonstrated to be possible by a Scotsman, Robert Davidson. His experiments were made in 1837 on the Glasgow and Edinburgh railway before it was open for traffic.

One of the greatest of living scientific inventors is Alexander Graham Bell, born at Edinburgh in 1847. His father, Alexander Melville Bell (d. 1905), was a professor of elocution in Edinburgh, who migrated to America partly on account of his son's health. He was a noted investigator in phonetics, and devised a

method of registering sounds by written symbols, which he described in his book on *Visible Speech*. He compiled the well-known *Bell's Elocution* manual. The son applied himself to the teaching of deaf mutes, and became Professor of Vocal Physiology at Boston, U.S.A. Between 1872 and 1876 he carried out a series of investigations which issued in the invention of the telephone. This striking discovery was prosecuted by Bell until it was so perfected that communication could be carried on between New York and Chicago, a thousand miles apart. In the perfecting of the telephone much was done by that prime genius T. A. Edison, who followed up the invention by that of the phonograph. Edison's mother, it may be noted, was a Scottish school teacher, and she it was who took charge of his early education, and even then discovered the brilliant talents of her son, although strangely enough they seemed to promise a literary career. Graham Bell is also the inventor of the photophone and graphophone, and he has devoted much thought to the problems of aerial navigation.

[Among shipping firms a word is called for regarding the City Line. This business was founded in 1839 by George Smith and Sons, with headquarters in Glasgow, and was managed in succession by four generations of Smiths. At present the fleet, consisting of fully two dozen steamers, is the chief carrier of Indian tea. Although Glasgow is still the port of departure for India, the purchase of the fleet by Sir J. R. Ellerman in 1901 rendered this line no longer a purely Scottish concern.]

CHAPTER XLI

SCOTTISH ART: PAINTING.

“A THING of beauty is a joy for ever :
Its loveliness increases : it will never
Pass into nothingness, but still will keep
A bower quiet for us, and a sleep
Full of sweet dreams and health and quiet breathing.”

KEATS.

THE northern countries of Europe have not been in general the most fertile in the production of works of Art. Their hard climate engendered rather the manlier qualities of war and statesmanship than the softer delights of the Fine Arts. While this is more or less true of all these countries, there were special reasons in the case of Scotland why for many a century artistic talent should fail to find a congenial sphere of work. Art is rightly supposed to require for its manifestation a certain degree of leisure and luxury, whereas the early history of Scotland tells of a hard struggle against poverty and privation, and of constant and desperate conflict for her very existence as an independent nation. And when at last her age-long feud with England was happily terminated by the Reformation and the Union, the prevalent ideas of the time, as shaped by the former event, were utterly opposed to the production of works of Art. The Reformers, in their eager desire to break loose from Rome, rushed to extremes in casting aside all that savoured of

Romanism, and since Art, as known to them, was a product of southern Catholic Europe, all that suggested it had to go. In some respects this is not to be regretted. To a mind of any degree of spirituality, many of the picture-galleries of the Continent, in so far as they are stocked with ever-recurring representations of the Virgin and Child and the Holy Family, are mere hotbeds of materialism, and it is perhaps as well that Art should not have developed in our isles until the taste for such unelevating pictures should have been rendered impossible. The turn taken by Scottish affairs in the seventeenth century was not more favourable to artistic work. The Covenanters, in still further purging the Protestant religion, were, if possible, less artistically inclined than the first Reformers, and the Puritanism which in England allowed Cromwell to use churches as stables, led his Scottish contemporaries to regard Art with almost as great a terror as does the religion of Mahomet. But more cheerful days came at length, and with the peace that succeeded the Jacobite conflicts there arose in Scotland, alongside of her stirring literary revival, a native impulse towards Art which enables us to speak to-day of a Scottish School of painting, with its three contemporary masters, Raeburn in portraiture, Wilkie in genre, and Thomson in landscape.

The pioneer of Art, as regards not merely Scotland, but Britain, was George Jamesone of Aberdeen (1586-1644). He is traditionally reported to have been a pupil of Rubens and a fellow-student of Vandyck; but be that as it may, his portrait-painting was so highly appreciated that it won for him as sitters such diverse celebrities of his day as Charles I., Montrose, Argyll, Johnston of Warriston, Richard Baxter, and George Heriot. Most of his immediate successors lived to such

an extent in England or abroad that they need not be particularised, or, with the exception of William Aikman (1682-1731), even named. Our next notable portraitist was Allan Ramsay (1713-84), son of the poet. After three years' study in Italy he acquired a high reputation throughout Great Britain, his work being especially appreciated in London, and gaining for him the post of portrait-painter to George III. While resident in Edinburgh he was one of the special stars of the brilliant galaxy of literary men and wits of that period.

Quite a number of moderately good portraitists in Scotland preceded the brilliant work of Reynolds and Gainsborough; but the best work of these English artists was past ere the greatest of Scottish artists in this branch arose in the virile personality of Sir Henry Raeburn (1756-1823). Sprung from Border stock, but born at Edinburgh, he was from the first a man of striking originality and perseverance. After a slight struggle with fortune in early life, he reached affluence by marriage, but retained his industry. Beginning with miniatures, he developed into full length portraiture before conforming to the custom of the time by visiting Rome. After a year and a half in Italy he returned to Edinburgh, and for a generation reigned as chief of Scottish painters. His main excellence in contrast to the English masters was in the delineation of masculine subjects, and Mr. W. D. M'Kay claims that his portraits of Dr. Spens, Colonel Macdonnell of Glengarry, and others, "can take rank with the great portraits of any age or school." Yet such exquisite masterpieces as his Mrs. Urquhart and Mrs. James Campbell show that his genius suffered no limitation from his special gift for male portraiture. Mr. James L. Caw points out that while Raeburn reflected the "sense of repose and dignity, the easy



By himself.

Photo by Annan & Sons.

SIR HENRY RAEBURN, R.A.

1864.

breadth of conception and design and treatment" of his immediate English forerunners, "he added a keener feeling for the play of light, a simpler and more direct method of expression, and a wonderful zest for individuality and type." Hence he attains "a more convincing rendering of personality" than either Reynolds or Gainsborough. The formation of a native Scottish School of painting is mainly to be credited to Raeburn's sturdy refusal to be absorbed in the great English Metropolis, where so much Scottish talent in every sphere has been engulfed and assimilated. The honour of knighthood was conferred on him on the occasion of George IV.'s visit to Edinburgh in 1822.

In 1876 an exhibition of his works was held in Edinburgh, when over three hundred pictures gave eloquent testimony to his persevering industry. Not the least valuable feature in Raeburn's work is the fact that it supplies an authentic record of the personal appearance of such typical Scotsmen as Sir Walter Scott, Neil Gow, Lords Melville, Jeffrey and Cockburn, and Dugald Stewart.

His work in portraiture was carried on by numerous successors, among these being George Watson, Sir John Watson Gordon (1788-1864), Andrew Geddes (1783-1844), John Graham Gilbert, Sir Francis Grant (president of the Royal Academy in 1866), and Sir Daniel Macnee, the last-named of whom brings us down to 1882.

As a caricaturist, John Kay of Dalkeith (1742-1826) showed much humour in hitting off the numerous Edinburgh celebrities of his day.

For their encouragement of Scottish Art, honourable mention is merited by the brothers Robert and Andrew Foulis (1707-76 and 1712-75), the well-known printers to Glasgow University, whose beautiful editions of the

works of Horace and Homer have gained them the name of "the Elzevirs of Scotland." During the third quarter of the eighteenth century they carried on an Academy of the Fine Arts, combining the exhibition of pictures with the training of artists. As a trainer of art students John Graham of Edinburgh (1754-1817) likewise did noble service to his country, his pupils in the "Trustees' Academy" including Sir David Wilkie, Sir William Allan, Alexander Fraser (1786-1865), a colleague of Wilkie, and Sir John Watson Gordon.

The painting of landscape came into vogue in Scotland not long after Allan Ramsay and James Thomson had paved the way for its appreciation by their return to Nature in the sphere of literature. The Scottish pioneers in this branch of Art are Jacob Moore (1740-93) and Alex. Nasmyth (1758-1840). Moore's work, however, was mainly done at Rome; and Nasmyth, although distinctively Scottish in his choice of landscapes, is not now so often remembered for these as for his famous portrait of Burns, and for his work in designing the New Town of Edinburgh and the Dean Bridge. A son of his, Patrick Nasmyth (1787-1831), gained a higher reputation for landscape work.

The man of genius in Scottish landscape work was John Thomson (1778-1840), a son of the manse (b. at Dailly, near Girvan) and himself (after 1805) minister of Duddingston. While carrying on his clerical duties, Thomson, though but an amateur, and trained entirely in Scotland, contrived to send for exhibition in Edinburgh over a hundred pictures during the last thirty-two years of his busy life, while his manse became a regular "howff" for the literary and artistic spirits of Edinburgh. He may be regarded as the Scott of painting, in so far as he aroused Scotland's interest in itself, and the world's interest in Scotland as a land of



Rev. John Thomson.

Photo by Inman & Sons.

FINE CASTLE.



beauty, romance, and historic interest. He "awakened Scottish painters to the pictorial possibilities of their country." Nothing Scottish was alien to him. Its scenery mild or wild, field, mountain, loch and glen, beetling castles or scenes from history, furnished work for his fertile brush. From among his pictures, those which have most impressed the popular fancy are such as Fast Castle, Dunluce Castle, and Castle Baan, where ancient keeps dominate crags that sink sheer to the swelling sea beneath. Careful in detail, and taking infinite pains to work direct from Nature, Thomson was over and above all a seer, striving to embody the sentiment of a scene and to render it a pictorial unit. Professor Veitch claims that "in pure imaginative impressiveness he has not yet been surpassed, if equalled." In other words, what chiefly remained to be done by his successors in this field was to correct, by improved attention to technique and colouring, those deficiencies which were naturally inherent in Thomson's work as that of an amateur.

Contemporary with Thomson, and like him devoted to landscape, were John Wilson (1774-1855), another Ayrshire man, whose subjects were taken chiefly from England and the near Continent, and John C. Schetky (1778-1874), born in Edinburgh of foreign extraction, who depicted Border scenes and buildings in connection with Scott's poems, and who occupies an important place in the development of water-colour painting. John Knox of Paisley (1778-1845), himself a pupil of Nasmyth, deserves mention not only for his own work, but as the trainer of Sir Daniel Maenee and Horatio Macculloch.

David Roberts, slightly later (1796-1864), occupied himself mainly with the pictorial aspects of architecture, city scenes, and church interiors. Spain and Italy

supplied many of his best subjects. His work, which was copious in quantity, was much appreciated in London.

Among the successors of Thomson in landscape work a prominent place is held by Horatio Macculloch (1805-67), who found his best themes in the Clyde district and later in the Highlands. In general, while Macculloch's work attained great popularity in his own day, it is now recognised as too thin and placid to suit his subjects.

E. T. Crawford (1806-85), like Wilson, found subjects in the coast scenes of Holland, but added the east coast of Scotland.

To a still younger generation belonged Alexander Fraser (1828-99), whose work dealt with the middle Clyde valley (a favourite subject being Cadzow Forest) and with English scenery. Regarding the unpretentious realism of Fraser's work, Mr. Caw says: "Landscape-painting has seldom come nearer the modesty of Nature. He did not interpret Nature's beauty, making it something new and wonderful, as the poet-painters do; but his pictures are steeped in the familiar and abiding charm of the beautiful facts of Nature." Contemporary with Fraser were John Milne Donald (1819-66), who fittingly reproduced the merging of Highland scenery into Lowland on the Firth of Clyde, and Sir William Fettes Douglas (1822-91), one of the few great Scottish artists who, trained at home, have remained at home, preferring the repose of Edinburgh to the glitter of London. John C. Wintour (1815-82) devoted his talents to Scottish scenery, with occasional attention to English landscape. James Docharty (1829-78) carried out Fraser's method to even a greater measure of realism.

Along with these, as a leading representative of the

more realistic movement in scene and colour, must be mentioned an artist who, although born in Carlisle, settled early in Glasgow, and later in Edinburgh, spending most of his life in Scotland and most of his work on it,—the genial Sam Bough (1822–78). His observation of Nature was so close and correct that scientific lectures may be illustrated by photographic reproductions of his work. Apart from his minute care in this respect, his rapidity of execution enabled him to catch the most fleeting aspects of cloud and sky with a skill approached by few artists. His most fertile sources of inspiration were the Forth, the Clyde, and the Solway. Mr. Caw credits Bough with exercising a considerable influence on landscape-work in Scotland: “His relish for air and motion quickened the sense of Scottish painters to these elements of effect, since carried to such perfection by M'Taggart and Wingate. His preference for great panoramic views, falling in as it did with the example of Macculloch, may not have been inoperative with men like M'Whirter, Graham, and Smart.”

George Paul Chalmers, a native of Montrose (1833–78), began with portraits and Scottish genre work, but in his last few years rose to eminence as a landscapist. In all three spheres his main excellence was, in Mr. Caw's words, “an exceedingly subtle feeling for pictorial light and shade.”

William L. Leitch (1804–83), a native of Glasgow, was a noted artist, especially in water-colour, and gave lessons in that branch of painting to Queen Victoria and to Queen Alexandra.

The work of Cecil Lawson (1851–82), though mostly executed in England and dealing with English landscape, had much influence on many Scottish artists.

Coming to the third great branch of Scottish

painting, dealing with human character and action, we find that the pioneers were contemporaries of those in landscape. The first "genre" painter worthy of mention is David Allan (1744-96), the "Scottish Hogarth," who, in a series of etchings in illustration of the *Gentle Shepherd*, led the way in delineating the life-scenes of his native land. Among his other work he illustrated, at George Thomson's suggestion, some of Burns's poems, and Burns claimed him as a kindred spirit in showing forth the humour and pathos of Scottish life.

During the same time Alexander Runciman (1736-85), the first head of the Art Academy set up in Edinburgh by the Board of Manufactures in 1760 and known as the "Trustees' Academy," was illustrating the Ossianic poems and painting historical pictures. Runciman's younger brother John, who died in 1768 at the early age of twenty-four, had already an assured reputation as a painter.

At this juncture mention may be made of Sir Robert Strange (1721-92), a native of Orkney, who played a part on the losing side in the Jacobite Rising, but lived to be knighted by George III. in 1787. Although capable of original work, as his miniatures showed, he devoted himself to the engraving and popularising of great pictures, mainly from the continental galleries. He was the first to employ the line manner of engraving. J. H. Burton says of him: "In the opinion of many critics he is totally unapproached by any other engraver in his happy union of clearness, richness, and decision, in the pliant smoothness of his flesh, the rich softness of his drapery, and the picturesque but clear depth of his shadows."

If John Thomson is the Scott of painting, its Burns is as obviously Sir David Wilkie (1785-1841). Born

at Cults, in Fifeshire, where his father was parish minister, David, even while at school, was famous for his skill in drawing representations of his fellow-pupils. His models as regards technique were the Dutch and Flemish "genre" painters, but his innate powers of observation rescued him from any slavish copying of these. Besides, he had David Allan as his artistic parent, and in his fellow-Fifers he found striking, varied, and definitely Scottish models, full of interest and character, and brimful of that intelligence and that mother-wit which remove the Scottish peasant into a different compartment from his English compeer. His first "hit," at the age of nineteen, was "Pitlessie Fair,"—a representation of a merry aspect of his native village, exhibiting a most Dickens-like profusion of characters. It contained no fewer than 140 figures, and many of these—to the no small disgust of the victims—were actual portraits. The picture only drew £25, but it paved the way to fortune. Migrating to London in 1805, Wilkie, after about a year of hard work and privation, scored a still more decided success by his "Village Politicians," and sprang at once into fame as the "Scottish Teniers." From the age of twenty till that of forty, one success followed another. The "Blind Fiddler," the "Rent Day," and the "Village Festival" led up to "Blind Man's Buff" (1813), his best-known picture. Apart from its Burns-like humour, Mr. W. D. M'Kay pronounces it "one of the finest compositions ever placed on canvas." It was followed by "The Penny Wedding" (an old subject of Allan's), "Reading the Will," and the "Chelsea Pensioners," the last-named being painted to the order of the Duke of Wellington for 1200 guineas.

In 1825 his health, never robust, broke down under the stress of domestic sorrows, and he started off for

three years' travel. He studied the great masters in Italy and Spain, and visited also Germany and France. The result was a transfer of his main interest from genre to portraiture, and a complete change in his technique, which proved, in the opinion of those qualified to judge, not a change for the better. His style became more rapid, and less attention was paid to detail.

At times, however, especially in his Knox pictures, he showed a hold of his old style. "Knox Preaching before the Lords of the Congregation," however faulty in detail or in technique, is an impassioned and fitting representation of the Reformer as "like to ding his pulpit into blads and to flee oot o' it." The fine unfinished picture of "Knox Administering the Sacrament" appeals to one as presenting perhaps a better portrait of the real Knox than any of the stock representations of him handed down from Reformation times. The well-known portrait-group of "Queen Victoria's First Council" is one of the best of his later efforts.

Wilkie's end was characteristic of his life. He set out in August 1840 on an Art pilgrimage to the Holy Land, painting in the course of his trip the Sultan and the Pasha of Egypt. Arrived in Palestine, he realised the absurdity and untruthfulness of the Italian representations of Scripture scenes, and he declares: "A Martin Luther in painting is as much called for as in theology, to sweep away the abuses by which our divine pursuit is encumbered." He died on board ship on the homeward voyage, and was buried at sea off Cape Trafalgar.

In his lifetime he had received his full meed of honour, having been principal painter in ordinary in England and limner for Scotland to three sovereigns, —George IV., William, and Victoria. His merits now

are often subject of discussion, but by such a painter the Scottish School may well be content to stand or fall. His own dictum was that "Art is only Art when it adds mind to form," and in his own practice he lived up to his belief that no Art that is not intellectual can be worthy of Scotland. Bulwer calls him "the Goldsmith of painters, in amiable and pathetic humour, in the combination of smiles and tears, of the familiar and the beautiful"; and Sir John Millais, writing in 1885 to the secretary of the Scottish Academy, says: "In the history of Art there has been no superior to him for knowledge of composition, beautiful and subtle drawing, portrayal of character and originality. You may well be proud of your greatest painter."

Wilkie's contemporary, Sir William Allan (1782-1850), was of a roving disposition, and found his first haven of hospitality at St. Petersburg through the good offices of a "brither Scot" in the person of Sir Alexander Crichton, physician to the Russian Imperial family. Allan's subjects dealt chiefly with foreign countries, but were none the less popular at home. His best-known historical pictures represent "John Knox admonishing Mary, Queen of Scots," and the "Murder of the Regent Murray." His association with Sir W. Scott led him to devote to historical correctness in costume and general setting an amount of attention paid by no previous artist. The work of his contemporary, Andrew Geddes (already mentioned for portraiture), though manifesting perhaps greater skill and genius, was much more lightly esteemed, except by his brother artists.

Robert Scott Lauder (1803-69) drew his subjects chiefly from Scott and Scripture, the "Trial of Effie Deans" being his masterpiece. For a period of nine years he acted as a most inspiring teacher of Art in

the Trustees' Academy of the Scottish capital. Pettie and Paul Chalmers received their early instruction from him. Some of our still living artists, such as Orchardson, M'Whirter, M'Taggart, and Hugh Cameron, were also among his pupils. It may be mentioned in passing that the Scottish Academy was founded in 1826 on the ashes of various less successful attempts to form an association of the kind. It was incorporated by Royal Charter in 1838.

John Phillip (1817-67), though he migrated from Aberdeen to London, remained thoroughly Scottish in his choice of subjects, carrying on the work of Wilkie till 1851, when he was forced by ill health to seek refuge in Spain. In the warm colouring of that sunny clime he found work more congenial than in the more sombre and sullen hues of the homeland, and his vivid representations of Spanish life gained him the reputation of being the most brilliant colourist of all our Scottish painters. According to his own judgment, his masterpiece is "La Gloria—a Spanish Wake."

The more definitely Scottish "genre" work, especially of the domestic type, was worthily carried on by the brothers John and Thomas Faed. Thomas (1826-1900) is the more famous, his pictures of "Burns and Highland Mary" and of "Scott and his Literary Friends at Abbotsford" being universally popular. In such pictures as his "Mitherless Bairn," "When the Day is Done," and "Faults on Both Sides," he showed keen observation of humble life.

The "Wappenschaw," by John Faed (1820-1902), is a type of the best Scottish work in character composition.

Erskine Nicol (1825-1904), a native of Leith, having spent some time as an art teacher in Dublin, devoted practically all his best work to the delineation of the

light, humorous side of Irish character and to the illustration of Ireland's delightfully humorous songs and ballads. The titles "Molly Brierley" and "Hould Me, or I'll fight!" suggest the nature of his work.

In the more serious sphere of historical painting the pioneers, besides Sir William Allan, are Thomas Duncan and Sir George Harvey, whose genius received its bent largely from the work of Sir Walter Scott.

Duncan (1807-45) executed some fine pictures dealing with Prince Charlie's Rising, and from his brush came the well-known "Martyrdom of John Brown of Priesthill."

Harvey (1806-76) is one of the most typically and thoroughly Scottish of all our artists. He revels in the Border hills and in the upland scenery of southern Scotland in general, his "Enterkin" being specially successful. He deals lovingly with the events of the Covenanting period, while in the famous "Quitting the Manse" he links the Disruption to that earlier time, thus accentuating the unity of the Scottish attitude towards religion and politics. In "The Curlers" he vividly portrays one of our national games, while his pictures of school life round off his interest in all that is most thoroughly Scottish. The work of Robert Herdman (1829-88) followed the same main lines as that of Harvey, but his subjects were chosen from a wider range of Scottish history. He also excelled in portraiture.

Historical, scriptural, and allegorical paintings, and drawings in black and white, occupied the attention of David Scott (1806-49), whose etchings in illustration of the *Ancient Mariner* give him a high place among imaginative artists. In his appreciation of dramatic situations, as shown in his "Traitor's Gate" and similar pictures, and in his romantic sensitiveness, he

is to some extent a forerunner of the English Pre-Raphaelite School. With that school the Edinburgh artist, William Bell Scott (1811-90), was closely associated.

William Dyce (1806-64) was entrusted with a share of the wall adornment of the new Houses of Parliament, and executed for the king's robing-room half-a-dozen fresco panels from King Arthur's story. The Arthurian legends likewise furnished a subject to James Archer (1823-1904). Although Dyce is best known by his Arthurian pictures, his bent was more definitely towards subjects connected with early Christianity. As Mr. Caw says: "Of all British, one might even say of all recent painters, he was perhaps the one who turned most spontaneously to religious art." James Drummond (1816-77) recorded many of the historical scenes of his native land, and especially of Edinburgh, the "Porteous Mob" and the "Covenanters in Greyfriars' Churchyard" being his best pictures.

Sir Joseph Noel Paton (1821-1901), the son of a Dunfermline weaving designer, dealt in his earlier pictures with allegorical subjects and the realm of fairyland, devoting also some attention to striking situations from Scottish history. Later he restricted himself almost entirely to moral and religious subjects, and as if in corroboration of Ruskin's maxim that "the Art of any country is the exponent of its social and political virtues," the British public, which more perhaps than any other craves for a religious substratum in its social and political life, took Sir Noel to its heart, such pictures as "Lux in Tenebris" and "The Pursuit of Pleasure" rendering him distinctly "popular."

Among painters who have died in recent years a few remain to be mentioned.

Gourlay Steell (1819-94), brother of the famous

sculptor, Sir John Steell, succeeded Sir Edwin Landseer in 1873 as animal-painter to Queen Victoria. Since his death the post has remained vacant. Steell's principal Scottish successors as animal-painters have been J. D. Adam (1842-96), who painted mainly Highland cattle and sheep, and Robert Alexander, a native of Ayrshire, who of living painters has given the most pleasing renderings of domesticated animals.

John Pettie (1839-93), a native of Edinburgh, and a pupil of Robert Scott Lauder, excelled in depicting dramatic situations, as in his "Death Warrant" and "Drumhead Court-Martial." Such works as "Dost know this Waterfly?" and "Two Strings to Her Bow," a favourite picture in the Glasgow Exhibition of 1888, illustrate the more humorous bent of his genius. He culled many of his scenes from the works of Scott and Shakspeare. Like these literary masters, "he possessed the historical imagination which, in picture-painting, makes the people and the incidents of other days live again before our eyes." He and Orchardson were among the foremost Scots of the modern school who rose to pre-eminence in the Royal Academy (London).

John Smart (1838-99), a Linlithgow man, was a skilful painter of rugged Highland scenery.

W. E. Lockhart (1846-1900), a Dumfriesshire man, was noted both for landscapes and for historic scenes; many of the former dealt with Spanish subjects. In 1887 he was commissioned by the queen to paint "The Jubilee Celebration in Westminster Abbey," now in the Royal Galleries at Windsor.

David Farquharson, who died in 1907, was a noted landscapist, his greatest triumph being "Full Moon and Spring Tide," exhibited in 1904.

Tom Graham (1840-1906) was one of the less

brilliant members of the coterie of Scotsmen in London headed by Pettie and Orchardson.

In the last twenty years or so of the nineteenth century there gradually evolved itself the striking phenomenon of the "Glasgow School of Painting." Without any special features in common, but knit together by a common love of Art and a friendly rivalry in its pursuit, a band of artists, mostly young men, many of whom displayed striking individuality, spurred each other on to efforts which have so far succeeded that in many parts of the Continent Glasgow is to-day best known as a home of painters. Glasgow afforded to these ardent spirits a sphere sufficiently removed from London to allow of freshness and originality being displayed without fear of ostracism, and the result has been to add an impetus to the whole of British Art. Mr. F. H. Newbery says of the Glasgow school: "With no proselytising creed, they have yet a firm belief in one thing, which is that it is quite sufficient for Art to be Art, and to be the most beautiful thing that the hand of man is capable of making of her," and commenting on Glasgow's catholicity of taste in Art, he remarks: "It would be hard to find a city where there are collections of pictures showing greater bravery of purchase." Mr. Caw thus summarises the leading qualities of the work of the Glasgow artists: "Briefly, these were preference for low and full tone upon a basis of naturalistic values; concentration of motive gained by suppression of non-essentials; a more decorative aspect of canvas than existed in contemporary Scottish painting; vigour and power and a distinct feeling for style in the actual use of the medium; above all, devotion to the purely pictorial elements in subject. By the confession of foreign critics," he declares, "they have influenced the Art of Europe."

The famous German Art professor, Dr. Richard Muther, credits the Glasgow men with "accomplishing in the realm of painting what 'Ossian' had done a century before in that of literature; in their works personal mood is set in the place of form, and tone-value in that of pencilled outline." He relates the powerful impression which was made when the Scottish gallery was opened in the summer of 1890 at the annual exhibition in Munich: "Here there burst out a style of painting which took its origin altogether from decorative harmony, and the rhythm of forms and masses of colour. . . . The chords of colour which they struck were full, swelling, deep, and round, like the sound of an organ surging through a church." The portraits shown later at Munich by Glasgow painters "cast into the background almost everything exhibited by the English."

The credit of initiating the Glasgow art movement is primarily due to W. Y. Macgregor (b. 1855), a native of Dumbartonshire. In his own work he did much to break down conventionality, and to set a higher standard both in picture composition and in the judicious selection of detail. One of his finest colour combinations, "The Quarry," was purchased by the Bavarian Government for the Pinakothek in Munich.

Sir James Guthrie, born at Greenock in 1859, and knighted in 1903, is perhaps the best known personality of the Glasgow men. He is an artist of great versatility, excelling both in portraiture and landscape. Of his figure pictures his "Highland Funeral" and "To Pastures New" are probably the most notable. Of his portraits Mr. Caw says: "In power to express the personality of a man in a way at once convincing in character and refined and distinguished in art, Guthrie has perhaps no living rival, and his portraitures of

women, and specially of children, are equally satisfying and perhaps more charming." In reference to one of his pictures in the Paris Salon, a distinguished French critic wrote: "We would most gladly nationalise this foreigner so full of talent." The estimation in which he is held by his brother-artists was evidenced by his election in 1902 to the presidency of the Royal Scottish Academy, his predecessors in that position being Sir J. Watson Gordon, Sir George Harvey, Sir Daniel Macnee, Sir W. Fettes Douglas, and Sir George Reid. His old university of Glasgow accorded him its LL.D. degree in 1906.

No modern exhibition is complete without a picture by D. Y. Cameron (b. at Glasgow in 1865). A man of great industry, he has won a foremost place both as a landscape-painter and a delineator of figure subjects. He is also recognised as one of the best living etchers.

John Lavery was born in Belfast in 1857, but came to Glasgow as a young man, and is by many regarded as the most typical product of the Glasgow School. He is well known on the Continent, and in America and Australia, by his lifelike and lively portraiture, and by his work in figure-grouping. The best known of his pictures located in Scotland is the "State Visit of Her Majesty to the Glasgow Exhibition," in the Glasgow Corporation Art Galleries. His colouring at once appeals to the untutored eye, and bears the strict scrutiny of the practised critic. Of late Mr. Lavery has done much work in Morocco, where he generally winters.

James Elder Christie (b. in Fifeshire in 1847) is strongest in figure work. Many of his pictures are allegorical, such as "The Red Fisherman" and "Vanity Fair," or are founded on ballads, as the "Pied Piper." He also excels in genre work, and has a special aptitude

for depicting children. In some of his pictures, particularly "Suffer Little Children" and "Fortune's Wheel," he boldly brings together everyday modern figures, and figures from out the ancient world or from mythology or allegory.

George Henry, an Ayrshire man, at first worked in black and white, and in landscape-painting. During 1893-94 he travelled in the East, spending a considerable time in Japan, and since then he has chiefly turned to portraiture and character studies. His grasp of colour excites the admiration of his fellow-artists.

Edward A. Hornel was born in Australia in 1864 of Scottish parents, and in early life came "home" to Kirkeudbright. He too veered from landscape work to figure-grouping, a favourite subject being that of children at play. He has collaborated with Henry on various pictures, and he accompanied that artist on his Japanese visit. Since that time his style has acquired piquancy from the subtle suggestions of Japanese influence, rendering his work strongly individual among British artists. At times his effects are suggestive of exquisite mosaic work. His colouring is brilliant but harmonious, one of his latest triumphs being "The Music of the Woods." His pictures are to be found as permanencies in many of the best galleries of Britain and America. One of his most recent successes, "Lace-Making," deals with Ceylon.

Edward A. Walton (b. in Renfrewshire in 1860) has covered a wide range in landscape and portraiture, besides being noted in water-colour work. Many of his pictures have found a permanent place in galleries at home and abroad.

Robert W. Allan (b. Glasgow, 1852) is chiefly noted for seascapes.

Alexander Roche (b. in Glasgow in 1863) at

first devoted his attention to figure-subjects, then to scenery, but found his strength in a combination of these, particularly in coast and firth life. His "Clyde," when exhibited in the Paris Salon of 1892, was paid the high compliment of being bought by the French artist La Touche, while a German artist purchased his "Scottish Town." His works are to be found in galleries on the Continent and across the oceans. In 1900 he was invited to execute a series of frescoes for the banqueting-hall of the Glasgow Municipal Buildings, but by his desire Walton, Lavery, and Henry shared in this task.

James Paterson (b. in Glasgow in 1854) deals chiefly with landscape. From his frequent exhibits in Munich, he enjoys a great reputation in Germany. Of late Edinburgh has been one of his main sources of inspiration.

Even these names, so cursorily dealt with, do not exhaust the Glasgow School. There remain, for example, in landscape, David Murray (b. Glasgow, 1849), one of our most precise observers of Nature; R. Macaulay Stevenson, whose Scottish rural scenes are to be found in many continental galleries; T. Corsan Morton, the new keeper of the National Galleries of Scotland; William Kennedy, T. Millie Dow, J. Whitelaw Hamilton, and Grosvenor Thomas (an Australian by birth). In portraiture Harrington Mann (b. Glasgow, 1864) takes high place, besides doing historical and genre work, while George Pirie devotes his talent to animal life, and Stuart Park is unexcelled in flower-painting, which, with girls' heads, practically monopolises his talent.

Since the beginning of the twentieth century two Glasgow painters have been removed by death, Colin Hunter (1841-1904), a native of Glasgow, and Joseph

Henderson (1832–1908), who came to Glasgow from his native Perthshire at the age of twenty, and from that time till his death was one of the most assiduous artists in that city, having no small share in the development of the Glasgow coterie of painters. Both of these artists found their best subjects in the various aspects of the sea, Hunter manifesting also a keen insight into the ways of fisher folk.

Outside of the Glasgow circle Scotsmen are found in profusion in the front ranks of living British painters.

Hugh Cameron (b. Edinburgh, 1835), one of the surviving pupils of R. S. Lauder, employs his skill in depicting the joys and sorrows of the lives of simple country folks, his masterpiece being perhaps "A Lonely Life." Child-life has for him a special fascination.

Sir William Quiller Orchardson (b. at Edinburgh in 1835, knighted June 1907) has acquired world-wide fame by his genre pictures and portraits, his favourite subjects being groups from history and romance. From among his long list of pictures mention may be made of his well-known "Christopher Sly," "Her Mother's Voice," "Salon of Madame Récamier," and "Napoleon on board *H.M.S. Bellerophon*." Elegance and skill in composition mark all his work. Mr. Caw thus summarises his chief merits: "His art unites intellectual and æsthetic qualities in such rich measure and fine equipoise that the one reinforces and intensifies the other without subordinating it. To the exquisite sensation one receives from perfect mastery and refined taste there is added poignant human emotion, and while possession of either would have entitled him to a distinguished place, their union has given him a position so unique that he is without a rival in his own field."

John M'Whirter (b. near Edinburgh in 1839) is typically Scottish in subject and style, his chief forte being Highland scenery. Some of his best pictures are "Loch Coruisk," "The Sleep that is among the Lonely Hills," "The Silver Strand," "Newark Tower," "Constantinople and the Golden Horn."

William M'Taggart (b. 1835 at Campbeltown) is one of the most noted of modern landscape-painters, his admirers claiming that his sea-scenes, and his representation of fishermen and their calling in particular, are perhaps the best since Turner's day. Mr. Caw goes even further, and claims that "more than any man who ever painted the sea, he possesses the power of appealing to the imagination." This is a result of his "wonderful sense of real light and of movement, and an intimate and profound feeling for Nature." "His pictures of the sea seem to move and pulsate with the heart's beat of the tides; his burns dance among the boulders, or steal in smooth transparent flow over pebbles and sand; his hay and harvest-fields sway to the impulse of the wind; his figures are eloquent with the significance of gesture." He is recognised as one of the leading exponents of the impressionist style, and Mr. Caw regards him as "one of the few really great artists of his time, and one with whose work the future will have to reckon."

Sir George Reid (b. Aberdeen 1841, knighted 1891) is one of the most famous living portraitists, and also excels in landscape and flower-pieces.

Robert Gibb (b. at Laurieston in 1845) was curator of the Scottish National Gallery from 1895 till 1907. His battle pictures enjoy undiminishing popularity, his only serious British rivals in this respect being Lady Butler and R. Caton Woodville, who follow him at a considerable distance as regards artistic ability.

Among his most famous works are "Comrades," "The Retreat from Moscow," "The Thin Red Line" (1881), "Alma: Advance of the 42nd Highlanders" (1889), "Saving the Colours," and "Hougomont." In an entirely different genre, yet excellent of its kind, stands his "Last Voyage of the Viking." In June 1908 Mr. Gibb was appointed to the post of painter and limner to the king in Scotland, in succession to a brilliant series of artists, Raeburn, Wilkie, Sir William Allan, Sir J. Watson Gordon, and Sir J. Noel Paton, the office having remained vacant for seven years after the death of the last-named painter.

James L. Caw (b. Ayr, 1864), who in 1907 succeeded to the directorship of the Scottish National Gallery, and who since 1895 has been curator of the Scottish National Portrait Gallery, has done much valuable service in spreading a knowledge of the history and characteristics of Scottish Art. His most notable publications are *Scottish Portraits* (1903), and *Scottish Painting, Past and Present* (1908).

The appointment of D. S. M'Coll in 1906 as keeper of the National Gallery of British Art (the Tate Gallery, London), gives reason to hope that Scotland may for the future receive a more just share of representation than hitherto in that important collection.

J. H. Lorimer (b. Edinburgh, 1856) is worthy of note as the first Scottish painter to have one of his works purchased by the French Government for the Luxembourg Gallery in Paris. He has attained distinction both as a portraitist and as a subject painter, his most famous work in the latter sphere being the well-known "Ordination of Elders."

William Hole, though born in England (1846) of an English father, had a Scottish mother, and has spent

most of his life in Edinburgh. He is an artist of remarkable versatility and industry. He is best known to the general public by his famous series of historical mural pictures, illustrating the story of Scotland, for the Scottish National Portrait Gallery and for the Edinburgh Municipal Buildings. As the result of a prolonged visit to Palestine, he exhibited in 1906 an admirable series of eighty water-colour paintings of scenes from the life of Christ, revealing an intimate acquaintance with Eastern costumes and scenery, and showing reverent yet eminently sane and sensible treatment of the subject. He has also done notable work in etching.

C. Martin Hardie (b. Haddingtonshire, 1858) is well known by two of his pictures, the "Meeting of Burns and Scott" and "Burns reading his Poems to the Edinburgh Literati."

It is impossible to refer to the pictures of the multitude of artists at present working for their own and their country's credit, but the following list of names, though far from being exhaustive, will serve to show that Scotland is not likely to fall out of notice for want of living painters who have gained more than local recognition:—Edwin Alexander, Muirhead Bone (best known as an etcher), John Bowie, A. K. Brown, T. Austen Brown, Robert Burns, Mary Cameron (Mrs. Miller), A. B. Docharty (nephew of James Docharty), Patrick Downie, John Duncan, Joseph Farquharson, Robert Fowler, David Gauld, W. A. Gibson, Peter Graham, Geo. Harecourt, Geo. Houston, James Kay, R. W. Macbeth, Wm. MacBride, Tom M'Ewan, W. S. MacGeorge, Robert Macgregor, William D. M'Kay (author of *The Scottish School of Painting*, 1906), C. H. Mackie, J. Coutts Michie, J. C. Mitchell, P. S. Nisbet, J. C. Noble, Robert Noble, G. Ogilvy Reid,

John R. Reid, Tom Robertson (whose "En Ecosse" was purchased for the Luxembourg), Wm. Strang (one of the foremost living etchers), Leslie Thomson, J. Lawton Wingate.

Water-colour paintings have received much attention from many of the artists mentioned in this chapter, notably from Sir W. Fettes Douglas, Sam Bough, W. L. Leitch, J. C. Wintour, David Roberts, and Wm. Hole. In this sphere of painting, apart from artists already mentioned, there fall to be enumerated Kenneth M'Leay (1802-78), T. Hope MacLachlan (1845-97), George Manson (1850-76), and Arthur Melville (1858-1904). Of these the most important was Melville, whose best subjects are drawn from Spanish, Moorish, and Egyptian life and scenes. As a pioneer of impressionism he wielded great influence, and, though an Edinburgh man, he stood in close relation to the Glasgow School. From among living water-colourists we can only afford space to mention James Cadenhead, Ewan Geddes, Henry W. Kerr, Alex. MacBride, R. B. Nisbet, and Wm. Young. With these must be classed Miss Katherine Cameron (sister of D. Y. Cameron), who is noted for her skill in colouring, and whose illustrations of various series of fairy-tales are widely known and appreciated.

As master of a burlesque but irresistible humour, which he employs to drive home many a moral and social home-truth, "Cynicus" (Martin Anderson, a native of Leuchars) is supreme in his own sphere.

As an illustrator and as an artist in black and white, A. S. Boyd (b. Glasgow, 1854) merits warm commendation.

The question whether photography is a branch of Art, and the development of photography in Scotland, are too large subjects to be here entered upon. It must

suffice to mention, in passing, the excellent work done by G. W. Wilson & Company of Aberdeen and by Messrs. Valentine of Dundee in disseminating views of Scottish scenery, by J. Craig Annan of Glasgow in portraiture, and by Charles Reid of Wishaw in animal photography. The success of Mr. Reid in this domain excites the admiration and at the same time the despair of amateur and professional alike.

Mr. J. L. Caw thus succinctly appraises the work of the Scottish School of painting: "That a small country like Scotland should have produced so much art in little more than a century is notable enough in itself, but that so large a proportion should be of excellent quality is indeed wonderful. Caring more for the significance and beauty of common things than for the far-off or fanciful, it possesses at its best a keen and dramatic perception of character and situation, a profound love of Nature, and a touch of poetic glamour expressed with an instinct for the essentials in impression, whether realism or decoration be in the ascendant, a dexterous and masculine quality of handling, combined with a fine use of paint, and a gift of colour which assure it a distinct and honourable place."

As the independent testimony of a foreign expert, no more flattering account of our national art could be desired than that given by Professor Muther in his *History of Modern Painting*, published in 1907: "In reviewing their course of development, the distinction between Scottish painting and English is easily recognisable. Whilst the latter was paltry and motley in the beginning, and at length achieved a delicate refinement reminiscent of water-colour painting, Scottish Art had always something deep and sonorous

and a preference for full and swelling chords. The English artists made spiritual profundity and graceful poetry the aim of their pictures. The Scotch are painters. They instituted a worship of colour such as had not existed since the days of Titian."

CHAPTER XLII

SCOTTISH ART: SCULPTURE AND ARCHITECTURE.

“Is there an art like that of Sculpture? Painting is a brilliant illusion—a lovely cheat. Sculpture, while it represents a reality, is itself a reality. The pencil pours its fervid hues upon perishable canvas, but the chisel works in eternal marble—strikes out a creation immortal as the globe, and beautiful as the soul.” *Scottish Annual.*

IN view of the serried ranks of Scottish painters, it is somewhat disappointing to find that in Sculpture our country has as yet played a comparatively humble rôle.

It must be frankly admitted that this branch of the Fine Arts has never met, in Scotland, with the encouragement it deserves. A glance round any of our Art Galleries, or even round the excellent Art collection in the Scottish National Exhibition in 1908, at once reveals the slight meed of attention given to sculptors as compared with workers in oil. Various reasons may be assigned for this. In the first place, wealth of colouring has throughout been one of the distinguishing features of Scottish Art, and in that respect Sculpture is of course hopelessly handicapped. Secondly, our grey atmosphere does not furnish a background for *plein air* groups of statuary comparable to that afforded by the warmer sky and sunnier atmosphere of southern Europe. Thirdly, there still lingers in Scotland a strong Puritanical aversion to statuary in general, and particularly to “the altogether.”

A last, but very practical consideration must not be overlooked, namely, the expense of the medium involved, which lays a heavy handicap on the young sculptor. A struggling painter, if possessed of genius, may make a decided "hit" and attain a competence, with a very small initial outlay. The rising sculptor, on the other hand, can scarcely hope to gain appreciation for his creations when merely embodied in clay or plaster. Bronze or marble are his necessary mediums, and without a patron or an independent income these are not easily obtainable. The struggling genius in sculpture is thus on the horns of a dilemma. His talent demands for its manifestation a supply of expensive material. But that material is not forthcoming until his talent has been recognised. Hence in many cases his gift remains hidden, or he betakes himself to other climes where the conditions are easier, and where appreciation of his art is more readily accorded.

All the more honour is therefore due to those who, in the true spirit of Art, have clung to their calling, in spite of all difficulties and hardships, and have inscribed their names in the select roll of Scottish sculptors.

From among our earlier sculptors only a few names need be mentioned.

James Thom (1799–1850), a native of Tarbolton in Ayrshire, is a remarkable example of the self-taught genius. A stone-mason to trade, he attained fame at a single stride by his grey-stone group of the inn scene from *Tam o' Shanter*. This was followed by his "Old Mortality." Orders poured in upon him, and he removed to London, and later to New York, where he died of consumption when at the height of his fame.

Another self-made sculptor was John Greenshields (born at Lesmahagow in 1795). At the age of thirty-two,

owing to the encouragement given him by the English sculptor Flaxman, he gave up his trade of stone-mason, and seriously applied himself to sculpture. His most successful group was that of "The Jolly Beggars," regarding which Sir Walter Scott said to the sculptor's brother, "Tell John that he has taught me to read Burns in my old age. Say to him that the group is faultless." To Greenshields is also due the statue of Scott in the Advocates' Library at Edinburgh.

The Scott Monument, completed in 1845, is one of the wonders of our land, being equally admirable in its outline and in its details. It was the conception of a Midlothian shepherd's son, George M. Kemp (1795-1844). Kemp had trained himself in architecture and draughtsmanship, and at the age of thirty-three had his design for the monument accepted. Unfortunately he was drowned before its completion.

Scottish stone-masons have somehow found America a specially congenial home. Their work is found in many places, for instance in the State House at Boston, and the Chicago City Hall. Robert Thomson executed a series of carvings in the Central Park, New York. Returning to Scotland, Thomson carved some of the statues for the Scott Monument at Edinburgh. He lived till 1895.

The greatest name in the roll of Scottish sculptors, so far at least as portraiture in statuary is concerned, is that of Sir John Steell (1804-91), a native of Aberdeen. Most of his best work is located in Edinburgh. It includes the statues of Allan Ramsay, Professor Wilson, Dr. Chalmers, Wellington, Queen Victoria and Prince Albert, and the beautiful statue of Scott in the Scott Monument.

A pathetic interest attaches to Walter Buchan, a Glasgow sculptor, who about 1850 executed the remark-



W. G. Steenson, R.S.A.

Photo by Annan & Sons.

WALLACE STATUE, ABERDEEN.

ably fine frieze representing "Trial by Jury" on the Wilson Street façade of the County Buildings in Glasgow. A few years after the above-named date Mr. John Mossman, a well-known Glasgow sculptor of the time, received a letter stating that Buchan was in London, seriously ill and penniless. Mossman at once made a subscription among various friends, and sent it off to London with a kind message, but half an hour before its arrival Buchan had passed away.

William Brodie (1815-81), a Banff man, was the sculptor of the statues of Sir James Y. Simpson and Sir David Brewster at Edinburgh, and of numerous other works. James Fillans (1808-52), a native of Lanarkshire, is also worthy of mention, his best works being a lifelike "Christopher North" and a fine allegorical figure, "Grief."

It was only natural that Scottish Art should profit by the decided impetus given to British Sculpture during the past thirty years by English masters such as W. H. Thornycroft, and consequently the present generation of sculptors in Scotland is not only more numerous, but more definitely artistic in workmanship, than that of any previous period.

The work of living Scottish sculptors nowhere finds better expression than in the noble Wallace monument at Aberdeen. The statue is of bronze, and measures about sixteen feet in height. The heroic figure of the Liberator, in the attitude of replying to the English envoys at Stirling Bridge, was the work of William G. Stevenson, to whom are also due the Burns statues at Chicago, Denver, and Kilmarnock. Mr. Stevenson, who was born at Ratho in 1849, is also the author of various humorous Scottish stories and sketches.

Among other modern Scottish sculptors of note are David W. Stevenson (1842-1904), brother of the last-

named artist, one of whose statues is the "Highland Mary" at Dunoon, and John Tweed, a sculptor of vigorous pieces, such as the memorial to Major Allan Wilson and his men, and the Cecil Rhodes statue at Buluwayo.

James Pittendrigh MacGillivray (b. in Aberdeenshire, 1856) is well known as the sculptor of the John Knox statue and Mrs. Oliphant memorial for St. Giles' Cathedral, and of the Irvine Burns statue, considered by many to be the best representation of the poet.

W. Birnie Rhind (the son of John Rhind, sculptor) has executed many public memorials, notably the Scots Greys monument at Edinburgh.

Bertram MacKennal, born in Australia, the son of a Scottish sculptor, has, besides his "Circe" and other striking statues, executed much decorative work for Australia and India.

A. M'Farlane Shannan, the son of a Glasgow mason and builder, settled in his native city after many years of study and travel on various continents. He is the sculptor of various imaginative groups, notably "The Music of the Marshes," "Early Jealousies," and "The Arcadian Shepherd's Dream." His other works have been mainly memorials of Scots, including the Pollock memorial at Mearns, the panel to Christopher North at Paisley, and busts of Rev. David Macrae, Lord Kelvin, and Macdonald the miners' agent. The statue of Mrs. John Elder in Govan Park is from his chisel, and he has been entrusted with the production of a public statue of Lord Kelvin for Glasgow.

John Hutchison, a native of Edinburgh, has produced, among other works, the colossal bronze statue of Knox at Edinburgh, and statues of Robert the Bruce, Queen Victoria, and Prince Consort. From his chisel are a number of the figures on the Scott Monument.

He has acted as librarian and treasurer of the Royal Scottish Academy. Harry S. Gamley, A. H. Hodge, and George A. Lawson also fall to be mentioned.

Scottish Architecture is more noted for solidity than for grace. The former quality is not so much a reflection of the national character, as a natural consequence of the abundance of excellent stone everywhere to hand, which makes such streets as Princes Street, Edinburgh, or Union Street, Aberdeen, the marvel of brick-dwellers from England or the Continent. Mediæval church architecture in Scotland went through the same phases as in England,—Norman, Early English, and Gothic. The disturbed state of the country from the time of the War of Independence stunted the growth of the artistic spirit, and the Reformation, with its stern opposition to all that savoured of ritualism, gave church architecture its quietus for many generations. The cathedrals of Glasgow, Elgin, and St. Andrews, Roslin Chapel and Melrose Abbey, are among the clearest proofs of the skill and taste of the early Catholic builders,—a skill and a taste which become the more apparent when placed alongside of abortive modern “renovations” such as those of Dunblane Cathedral or of part of Rothesay Castle. In castle architecture Scotland followed the French model. The “Scottish baronial” style is simply a variety of the French square keep with corner towers, though an airy grace is added by the fact that these towers or “bartizans” are not run from the ground, but spring from the walls at some distance above that level. The “craw-stanes” or “corbie-steps” of Scottish gables are also believed to be of French origin, and the flamboyant Gothic of later Scottish architecture is also derived from our old allies. The recent improved taste in church architecture

frequently discredits itself through its association with ritualistic tendencies on the part of its advocates.

A few Scottish architects deserve mention. One of the earliest is James Gibbs (1674–1754), a native of Aberdeen, who after ten years' study in Italy did much architectural work in London, Oxford, and Cambridge, one of his masterpieces being St. Martin's Church, London.

Contemporary with him was Sir William Bruce of Kinross, who, in his capacity as surveyor of royal works in Scotland to Charles II., superintended the restoring and renovating of Holyrood Palace (1671–79). He was succeeded in his official position by William Adam, whose sons Robert (1728–92) and James were the leading Scottish architects of the eighteenth century. Edinburgh University and Register House and Glasgow Royal Infirmary were among their works. Robert was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Another famous architect of that century was Robert Mylne (1734–1811), who designed Blackfriars Bridge and Inveraray Castle. Mylne was also famous both as an engineer and as a geologist, and held the post of surveyor to St. Paul's Cathedral. His son and grandson attained distinction in similar spheres. The former, William C. Mylne, was engaged chiefly in harbour construction and in the drainage of the English fen district. The latter, Robert W. Mylne (1817–90), besides executing engineering works, wrote on geology and artesian wells.

In the building of the New Town of Edinburgh in the end of the eighteenth century, with a spaciousness unfortunately rare in Scottish towns, the main credit is due to James Craig and Alexander Nasmyth.

In the earlier half of the nineteenth century the chief west of Scotland architects were William Starke and

David Hamilton, the latter of whom designed Hamilton Palace and the Glasgow Royal Exchange. In Edinburgh the principal architects of the same period were James Gillespie Graham (who planned Brodick Castle and the Church of Scotland Assembly Hall), Thomas Hamilton (Edinburgh High School), and W. H. Playfair (1790-1857), who, with "Greek" Thomson, (1817-75), did so much, by his enthusiasm for the classical Greek styles, to complete by Art the resemblance which Nature had already made between Edinburgh and the ancient capital of Greece.

The last-named architect deserves more than a passing mention. Alexander Thomson was a native of Balfron, and his work included many Glasgow churches, besides the laying out of Great Western Road. His designs are still highly appreciated in France and the United States. When Sir George Gilbert Scott's designs for the new Glasgow University at Gilmorehill were accepted and exhibited, Thomson generously wrote a talented criticism, suggesting important improvements on the plans of his successful rival. His suggestions were accepted by Scott, and are now recognised to have involved the main elements of beauty in the graceful pile which, on Scott's original plan, would have presented when completed a "broken-backed" appearance.

Prominent among Scottish architects in the second half of the century were William Burn, David Bryce, and Charles Wilson.

It is only in recent years that Scotsmen have to any great extent ventured on the domain of work in stained glass, but already three artists at least have won a high reputation in this branch of Art.

Stephen Adams, a native of Bonnington, Edinburgh, but now practising his art in Glasgow, has executed many fine memorial windows throughout Scotland, noted for

their richness of colouring. The windows in Culross Abbey and Alyth Parish Church, and the Clark memorial windows in Largs, are samples of his work.

The work of Oscar Paterson, a native of Glasgow, derives its value less from colouring than from his quaint designs, now breathing a purely mediæval spirit, now drawing their inspiration from Arabic Art. His fame has spread to many lands, his work having found a market even in India and China. The best samples of his art located in Scotland are to be found in Paisley Abbey, St. Augustine Church, Edinburgh, and St. Giles' Cathedral (Argyll memorial windows).

William Meikle has effected various improvements in the technique of this branch of Art, besides showing considerable talent in decorative work.

In gem-engraving only two names need be mentioned, those of James Tassie (1735-99), a native of Pollokshaws, who gained a high reputation for his replicas of antique gems and for medallion portraits, and of his nephew William Tassie (1777-1860), whose medallions to the number of one hundred and fifty form one of the treasures of the National Portrait Gallery in Edinburgh.

Scotland has good reason to be proud of her past record and present position in Art, and the prospects of her maintaining her ground in the future are distinctly bright.

A Chair of Fine Art (the Watson Gordon Chair) was founded at Edinburgh University in 1880. The Glasgow School of Art, begun in a small way in 1840, and now an educational art centre of considerable importance, has at last (Dec. 1909) come into a long merited heritage in the possession of excellent buildings in which to work. Edinburgh has likewise made arrangements to inaugurate a Municipal School of Art.

By the National Galleries Act of 1906, an effort has at last been made to remedy the financial injustice at the hands of the Imperial Treasury which Scotland has so keenly felt ever since the opening of the Scottish National Gallery at Edinburgh in 1858. During the thirty-three years prior to 1908 the Scottish National Gallery received from Imperial funds only £6000 as against £34,000 granted to the National Gallery of Ireland. In the same period £50,000 of purely Scottish money was expended on pictures for the Gallery.

An excellent National Portrait Gallery was opened in Edinburgh in 1889. It cost over £50,000, and was the gift of the late John R. Findlay of Aberlour.

The annual exhibitions of the Royal Scottish Academy at Edinburgh, and of the Glasgow Institute of the Fine Arts, as well as occasional exhibitions in some of the smaller towns, are doing much to foster and train the popular taste for Art in general, and so to provide a congenial soil for the further growth of the national Art.

The admirable Glasgow Corporation Art Galleries, inaugurated in 1901, and made possible by the surpluses of £46,000 and £40,000 from the exhibitions of 1888 and 1901, augmented by some £70,000 of publicly subscribed funds, are a splendid monument of municipal and civic enlightenment. Aberdeen, Dundee, and other towns possess Art collections of some value.

Late in 1906 an important step was taken by a body of influential Scottish connoisseurs and lovers of Art in the foundation of the Scottish Modern Arts Association. It was felt that the Royal Academy, the National Gallery, the Tate Gallery, and other institutions of a national character located in London, did not devote a proper share of attention to Scottish

Art. Their managers had too often regarded British Art as meaning simply English Art, with perhaps some patronising notice of Scotland as occupying a mere corner in that domain. They had failed to recognise that Scottish Art constituted an independent and virile growth, so much so that even in Continental Art Exhibitions a special and separate section was usually devoted to the Scottish School. The objects of the association are to purchase and preserve good examples of the Art of contemporary Scottish painters, sculptors, etchers, and other artists, to enrich Scottish public Art collections by the exhibition of these works, and of works by artists other than Scottish, and to strive for a more adequate representation of Scottish Art in British national collections. The movement is a most welcome symptom of the revived interest of Scotsmen in their own Scotland, and marks a step towards the state of things longed for by the president of the Royal Scottish Academy, "when a man will be able to do his own work in his own country without being placed under a great disadvantage because of his absence from London."

CHAPTER XLIII

SCOTSMEN AS PIONEERS OF TRAVEL AND COLONISATION: AFRICA.

“Tho’ far frae thee, my native shore,
An’ toss’d on life’s tempestuous ocean ;
My heart, aye Scottish to the core,
Shall cling to thee wi’ warm devotion.
An’ while the wavin’ heather grows,
An’ onward rows the windin’ river,
The toast be ‘Scotland’s broomy knowes,
Her mountains, rocks, an’ glens for ever !”

ALEXANDER HUME.

THE attitude of mind and heart of the Scot toward his home constitutes one of the paradoxes of the modern world. From few nations has so large a proportion of the populace gone forth to travel in foreign parts or to make a home in strange lands, yet let the Scot travel or settle where he may, his little home-country retains his heart’s affections, and he is ever ready to sing—

“I’m a Scot, and I carena wha kens it,
Right prood o’ the honour am I,
An’ prood o’ the worthy auld mither,
Wha’s kinship I’ll never deny.
The land o’ the loch an’ the river,
The land o’ the ben an’ the brae,
I love it, I’ll love it for ever,
I’m a Scot frae the tap to the tae !” (ALAN REID).

At the same time the Scot almost invariably proves a welcome addition to whatever community he may choose to settle among, and such books as Burton’s

Scot Abroad, Fischer's *The Scots in Germany*, and Michel's *Les Ecosais en France* bear eloquent testimony to his usefulness and popularity on the Continent. Not less striking are the services rendered by Scotsmen in every part of Greater Britain,—services which led so great an authority as Mr. Joseph Chamberlain to declare plainly that “Scotland has done more than her share in building up the fabric of the empire.” Scotsmen have risen to the highest positions of power and responsibility by reason of their perseverance and intelligence, and if the Scot, in spite of some natural jealousy on the part of other races, remains trusted and respected above others in our Colonies, the cause is to be found in his sterling moral qualities, which Dr. Ross, in his *Scot in America*, thus describes: “A believer in law, he is ever on the side of authority: a believer in religion, he is a staunch upholder of public and private morals, and of honesty in politics.”

As a sphere of travel and exploration which Scotsmen have in a peculiar degree made their own, Africa must first claim our attention, and we need not be surprised to find that one of the earliest of solitary Scottish adventurers turned his steps thither. William Lithgow (1582–1645) travelled throughout most of Europe, and thereafter visited Palestine, Egypt, and the Barbary States. In the course of his wanderings he fell into the clutches of the Spanish Inquisition, and was imprisoned for a considerable period. He published an account of his travels under the name of *Rare Adventures and Painefull Peregrinations*.

The first outstanding explorer of Africa, however, was James Bruce, born in Stirlingshire in 1730. He arrived at Algiers in 1763 as British Consul, and in 1768 he started from Alexandria *via* Cairo for Gondar,

the capital of the strange kingdom of Abyssinia. He explored the Bahr-el-Azrek (or Blue Nile) and returned to Egypt after three years' stay. In 1790 he published an account of his travels and of Abyssinian affairs in general; but his book met with almost universal ridicule, an edition of *Baron Munchausen* being published to make fun of the supposed lies of Bruce. The account of the cutting of steaks from live cattle was of itself regarded as conclusive proof that Bruce was slandering a people who, amid other idiosyncrasies, professed a peculiar type of Christianity, not apparently derived from any of the Christian nations, but possibly dating back to early apostolic times. Among those who fell foul of the luckless traveller was no less a personage than Dr. Samuel Johnson. It is now well known that Bruce's narratives, however incredible to the "arm-chair critics" of his day, were essentially true and correct. He died in 1794.

The problem of the sources of the Nile seemed as far from solution in the middle of the nineteenth century as in the days of Herodotus; but it fell to the lot of the Englishman Speke and the Scotsman Grant to solve the mystery by their expedition of 1860-63. Colonel James A. Grant (1827-92), a native of Nairn, had already won distinction in the Indian Mutiny, and later he rendered valuable service in Abyssinia. The story of his work along with Speke was graphically told in his *Walk Across Africa*, published in 1864. The researches of Grant were soon afterwards amplified by the travels of Sir Samuel Baker of London.

We have elsewhere mentioned that the present Sirdar of the Egyptian Army, Sir F. R. Wingate, is a Scotsman, and in Chapter XL. some account is given of the important engineering works executed in Egypt

by Sir John Aird and Sir Wm. Arrol. Some reference must also be made to the work of Sir Colin Campbell Scott-Moncrieff (b. 1836), who in 1883 was placed in charge of the Irrigation Department of Egypt, his services being soon after transferred to the Department of Public Works until 1892, when he became for ten years Under-Secretary of State for Scotland. His chief service to Egypt consisted in repairing and rendering fit for use the old French barrage at the point where the Nile separates into the Rosetta and Damietta branches. This work, which he successfully accomplished by 1890, provided Lower Egypt with copious irrigation, and gave a much-needed impetus to the cotton-growing industry.

Leaving the Nile region, and directing our attention to the north-west of Africa, we are presented with a curious present-day example of the once common Scottish soldier of fortune in the person of Sir Harry Maclean (b. 1848), who occupies the position of Kaid or commander-in-chief of the sultan's army in Morocco. Sir Harry is a scion of the Macleans of Drimnin, and son of Inspector-General Andrew Maclean. His dramatic seizure by Raisuli in the late summer of 1907, and his seven months' captivity until February 1908, furnish eloquent testimony to the tremendous contrast in civilisation still presented by the opposite shores of the Straits of Gibraltar.

Excepting Maclean, no European possesses a more intimate knowledge of native affairs and of the native mind in north-western Africa than that versatile Scottish politician, traveller, and author, Mr. R. B. Cunninghame-Graham (b. 1852).

In the exploration and opening up of West Africa Scottish names are conspicuous. Foremost among these comes that of Mungo Park, who was born in



Andree Currie.

Photo by Edward.

MONUMENT TO MUNGO PARK, SELKIRK.

1771 near Selkirk. At the age of twenty-four, Park offered his services to the African Association, and in May 1795 he arrived at Gambia in West Africa, where he spent some months learning the Mandingo language. In December he started inland towards the east, and in July of the following year, having in the meantime spent four months in captivity, he had the joy of being the first European to set eyes upon the Niger. After a total journey of 2000 miles he commenced to retrace his steps, and he reached his starting-place in June 1797. Returning to Scotland, he published his *Travels* in 1799, and set up as a surgeon at Peebles. At this time he was a close friend of Sir Walter Scott. By comparing notes with a fellow-Scot named Maxwell, who had made several voyages to the Congo, Park concluded that the Niger might possibly be found to merge in the Congo. In January 1805 he left Britain on his second expedition, this time at the request of the British Government, which supplied £5000 for his task. Arriving at Gambia, he enlisted thirty-five soldiers from the British garrison, and his total party of forty-five included his brother-in-law Dr. Alex. Anderson, and George Scott, a draughtsman from Selkirk. They turned inland in April. The rainy season of June and July cut off his men one by one, and only seven reached the Niger's banks. When he arrived at Sansanding by canoe, only three white companions remained alive. In November he hoisted the British flag on a "schooner" made out of old canoes, and gallantly set sail down stream. He sent a native back to Gambia with his final dispatch to Lord Camden, the Colonial Secretary. It glowed with stout-hearted resolution: "My dear friends, Mr. Anderson and Mr. Scott, are both dead; but though all Europeans who are with me should die, and though I were myself

half dead, I would still persevere ; and if I could not succeed in the object of my journey, I would at least die on the Niger." After sailing a thousand miles on the broad bosom of the river, the little party (as was discovered some years later) approached the falls at Bussa. Here they were attacked by natives, and whether by the hand of the savages, or owing to the rocks and rapids, they perished, defending themselves to the last. In 1827 Park's second son lost his life in Africa while in search of definite news of his father.

The first European to cross the Sahara from the Mediterranean to the Niger region was Lieutenant Hugh Clapperton, of the Royal Navy (1788-1827), a native of Annan. In 1821 he set out from Tripoli across the desert, and reached the Niger and Lake Chad, but owing to the hostility of the natives he had to return, reaching the north coast in safety after three years' absence. On a second expedition he started from Lagos, in December 1825, and reached Bussa overland. Continuing to explore the district between the Niger and Lake Chad, he at last fell a victim to the climate, dying at Sokoto in April 1827. The sole survivor of this expedition was his servant, a Cornishman named Richard Lander. In 1830 Lander, along with his brother, repeated Clapperton's journey to Bussa, and succeeded in sailing from this, the end of Park's pilgrimage, to the sea.

Major Alex. Gordon Laing, an Edinburgh man, had meanwhile explored the sources of the Niger, but on a second expedition, after crossing the Sahara from Tripoli, he was murdered near Timbuktu (1826).

One of the most enterprising of subsequent explorers was Macgregor Laird of Greenock (1808-61). During the years 1832-34 Laird conducted an expedition, the main object of which was to explore the Niger, from

its mouth inland, from the point of view of trading possibilities. Of forty-eight whites who started on the journey only nine survived to the end, among the deaths being that of Richard Lander. In 1853 Laird fitted out an expedition with the help of £5000 from Government. The ship used for the voyage was the *Pleiad*, a steamer built by the explorer's brother John Laird, shipbuilder, and M.P. for Birkenhead. The commander of the expedition was Dr. Wm. B. Baikie (1825-64), a native of Kirkwall, Orkney. After much valuable information had been gained, the company safely returned to Britain. In 1856 Laird entered into a contract with Government to place steamers on the Niger to develop a regular trade. Dr. Baikie went out with the first of these, and established various trading-stations. Thereafter he took up his abode at Lokoja, at the junction of the Benue with the Niger, being accredited as British Consul to that place. After Laird's death in 1861 a period of inaction ensued. The steamers ceased to ply, and the factories were withdrawn. But Dr. Baikie remained at his post. His duties were now rather those of a missionary than of a trader. He studied the native languages, and translated parts of the Bible into the Haussa tongue. Till his death, three years after Laird's, he was a universal favourite with the natives; but four years after he died the Government abandoned Lokoja, and official British connection with West Africa ceased until 1886.

In that year the Royal Niger Company was formed, largely at the advice of Joseph Thomson. Thomson's clever dash up to Gandu and Sokoto in 1885 forestalled the Germans in seizing that part of the Niger banks. The supineness of the home Government, however, had allowed the French to annex the upper

courses of the river, as well as the great entrepôt of Timbuktu. The French were thus enabled to lay on western Africa as it were a gigantic hand whose palm was the Sahara, and whose fingers reached out by Tunis, Algeria, Senegambia, the Ivory Coast and Dahomey to the Mediterranean, the Atlantic, and the Gulf of Guinea. The tightening of this hand means the practical extinction of British commerce in that vast region, while of the Niger we have retained only the 500 navigable miles from the sea to Bussa,—the stretch of the river which Park failed to reach!

Among governors of Lagos, Sir William Macgregor (b. 1847) is noteworthy. After administering New Guinea, Sir William governed Lagos from 1899 till 1904, being appointed Governor of Newfoundland in the latter year. At the Coronation of King Edward he represented our West African possessions. Sir William had acted as resident-surgeon and physician in Glasgow Royal Infirmary, and his enlightened measures practically exterminated malaria and "yellow jack" in Lagos. In March 1909 Sir William was gazetted Governor of Queensland.

In connection with the Gold Coast district, with its hinterland of Ashanti, a few Scottish names deserve mention. In January 1824, on the death of Sir Charles M'Carthy, who was slain in a skirmish with the natives, Colonel Sutherland became governor, and by 1826 he had succeeded in restoring peace. From 1827 till 1843 the governor was Mr. George Maclean, an officer of the Royal African Colonial Corps. To Maclean's bravery, tact, and administrative ability is largely due the establishment of the Gold Coast Protectorate, with its coast-line of 150 miles. In 1843 the district became a Crown Colony, and Maclean was retained as Judicial Assessor until his

death in 1847. He sternly suppressed the slave trade, and Miss Mary H. Kingsley declares that he was honoured and beloved by the natives as no representative of Britain in West Africa has ever been since.

In the abolition of slave-raiding in West Africa, honourable mention is merited by Sir George Taubman Goldie (b. 1846), an able administrator, and president of the Royal Geographical Society, who comes of Tweed-side lineage. His father was colonel of the Scots Guards. It is due to his tact and his sympathy with native ideas that Britain has retained so much of the Niger district in face of French and German competition. This soldier-statesman, who went to the Niger in 1877, set himself to unite the various isolated British adventurers who still carried on a precarious trade in that region. He secured for Britain some half million square miles of territory, and secured it, in Miss Kingsley's words, "freer from the stain of blood or treachery than any other region she has overseas beneath her flag."

One of the most entrancing stories of African mission work is the record of the United Presbyterian Mission to Old Calabar. In 1846, the year before the formation of the United Presbyterian Church, the district of the Old Calabar River, which flows into the Gulf of Guinea east of the Niger, was accepted as a sphere of Christian effort by the Relief and Secession Churches. It was decided to send to that benighted land missionaries who in Jamaica had become inured to a tropical climate. In April 1846, accordingly, Rev. Hope M. Waddell arrived at Duke Town. Within two years he was joined by Rev. Hugh Goldie, Rev. William Anderson, and other missionaries, together with Samuel Edgerley, a printer, and two teachers, W. C. Thomson and Miss Miller, afterwards

Mrs. Sutherland. Their earliest efforts were directed to the abolition of the cruel custom of sacrificing wives and slaves by the score at the death of native chiefs, and by February 1850, chiefly by Anderson's influence, the native "kings" agreed to this reform. Other savage customs, such as the murder of twins, were gradually rooted out, and steady progress was made in the work of the mission; but, as in South Africa, the white man's villainy kept pace with the white man's sympathy and love. "As far into the interior as we have yet penetrated," wrote Mr. Goldie, "we found the gin bottle had preceded us." A great step forward was taken in 1895 by the foundation of Industrial Training Institutes for boys and girls, under the charge of Mr W. Risk Thomson, on the model of the Lovedale and Livingstonia Institutes in South Africa. In recent times Duke Town has been chosen as the capital of the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria.

In the Equatorial Lake Region we come upon the work of Joseph Thomson (1858-95), a native of Thornhill in Dumfriesshire. In 1878 he served as geologist to the Royal Geographical Society's Expedition to Lake Tanganyika, under Alexander Keith Johnston (son of the famous geographer-royal for Scotland, of the same name). On Johnston's death, Thomson took command. In 1883-84 he explored the district around Mount Kenia. In 1885 he was, as we have seen, at Sokoto. His further travels included Southern Morocco and the district between Lakes Nyasa and Bangweolo. He wrote excellent accounts of his own travels and of those of Park.

The pioneer missionary to Uganda, in East Africa, was Alexander M. Mackay (1849-90), an Aberdeenshire man, whom H. M. Stanley calls "the best missionary since Livingstone." For ten years (1878-87)

he carried on his faithful labours in deadly peril of his life, and the period of his stay covers the date (1885) of the deliberate murder of Bishop Hannington by the order of the cruel and fickle King Mwanga. An order had also been issued for Mackay's death.

In reference to Mwanga's father and predecessor Mtesa, who died in 1884, Mackay states that, during that monarch's reign, "more than once hecatombs of 2000 victims were butchered either in sheer wantonness or else as offerings to the manes of his father Suna." Mackay did not merely instruct the natives in the Gospel, but trained them in various branches of mechanics, especially in carpentry and smith work.

In the subsequent development of Uganda and of Ibea (Imperial British East Africa) no reputations stand higher than those of Colonel Macdonald (b. 1862 in Aberdeenshire) as soldier, and of Sir William Mackinnon as political and commercial pioneer. Macdonald's work in Uganda included the suppression in 1897-98 of the mutiny of Sudanese troops, for which service he received the thanks of Government. So rapid was the march of British civilisation in this district that by 1900 the railway had brought the land of Mtesa and Mwanga into touch with the outer world. (Macdonald, now Brigadier-General Sir James Ronald Leslie Macdonald, commanded the British military operations in Tibet in 1903-4, including the capture of Gyantse and the advance to Lhasa.)

To Sir William Mackinnon is primarily due the fact that "Ibea" is to-day a British possession. Sir William (who, as chairman of the British India Steam Navigation Company, stood in much the same relation to Indian and East African enterprise as Sir Donald Currie did to that of South Africa) received from the Sultan of Zanzibar in 1876 an offer of the whole of

the latter's possessions on the East African mainland. At that time the British Government refused to accept the protectorate of this vast district at Mackinnon's invitation, and only after the Imperial British East African Company (founded by Mackinnon in 1888) had made plain the rough places of colonisation was Ibea definitely recognised as a British sphere. In the public gardens at Mombasa, the capital of Ibea, there now stands a statue of Sir William, and close by it pass the trains on their way inland to Uganda,—the noisy witnesses to Mackinnon's completed work.

The greatest living British African explorer is Sir Harry H. Johnston (b. 1858), the son of a Dumfries man. He organised the British Protectorate of Southern Nigeria, and explored extensive tracts in the Congo district and in East Africa. In 1891 he was made Consul-General of British Central Africa, and in that capacity he fostered the development of civilisation in the Central Lake district, and exterminated the slave traffic.

In South Africa we reach one of our most important spheres of colonisation, and before referring to the work of Scotsmen there, we may pause to comment on the frequent error of supposing that Scotland by the Union gained access to the "English" colonies. In 1603 England had absolutely no colonies beyond a vague foothold on Newfoundland, and even by 1707 England and Scotland together had not much to boast of in that connection. Separately they had not the spare energy, nor had their resources sufficiently developed, nor were the means of travel and transport sufficiently advanced, to allow of extensive colonisation. It is only from the middle of the eighteenth century onwards, after the Union of the Parliaments and the

end of the Jacobite wars had rendered Great Britain a peaceful unit, that colonisation on the grand scale was entered upon. Since then Scotsmen, whether as soldiers, statesmen, financiers, bankers, scientists, missionaries, physicians, preachers, journalists, educators, engineers, or merchants, have in all our Colonies fully held their own, nay, risen to positions of eminence.

In 1799 a British expedition under Admiral Elphinstone and General Craig had seized Cape Town as a punishment to Holland for submitting to French domination, but in 1802 the Peace of Amiens restored the colony to the Dutch. Our permanent national connection with South Africa dates from the end of 1805, when a fleet with five to six thousand men under Sir David Baird was sent to seize Cape Colony during the Napoleonic wars. His force, which arrived in January 1806, included the 71st, 72nd, and 93rd Highlanders. On 10th January, after a British bayonet charge, the Dutch surrendered Cape Town, and South Africa, with all its future joys and sorrows, became a British sphere. The Dutch troops were taken home to Holland at the expense of the British Government, and in an access of generosity the latter paid six million pounds as compensation to the Dutch for the colony thus won by force of arms in time of war!

In 1777 Captain Robert J. Gordon, a Scotsman in the service of the Dutch East India Company, had discovered the Orange River at its junction with the Vaal, and had also explored the Orange for a distance of forty miles from its mouth. In 1812 a Scottish missionary named Campbell mapped the complete course of the Orange, and discovered the source of the Limpopo.

In 1819 the Government decided to settle 5000

British subjects in the east of Cape Colony in the district now known as Albany. The emigrants arrived in May 1820. They included a large proportion of Scottish settlers, and the territory assigned to these was the upper valley of the Baboons' River, a tributary of the Great Fish River. This Scottish settlement is now included in the Bedford district of Cape Colony, and has proved one of the most prosperous ventures in South Africa.

Among the emigrants was Thomas Pringle (1789–1834), a native of Roxburghshire, who two years later removed to Cape Town, where, besides acting as a public librarian, he started a school, and conducted a periodical called the *South African Journal*. In 1824, along with a Newcastle man, he edited the first newspaper in the colony,—the *South African Commercial Advertiser*, the publisher being a Mr. Greig. In 1826 he returned to the home-country, and became secretary of the Society for the Abolition of Slavery, living only until the year following the Emancipation Act. From his *African Sketches* and other poems Pringle is known *par excellence* as the “South African Poet.”

One verse at least by Pringle has become classical :

“We seek a wild and distant shore
 Beyond the western main :
 We leave thee to return no more,
 Nor view thy cliffs again !
 But may dishonour blight our fame,
 And blast our household fires,
 If we or ours forget thy name,
 Green island of our sires !”

One of the earliest South African missionaries was Robert Moffat (1795–1883), a native of East Lothian, who arrived in South Africa in 1817, and settled beyond the frontier of Cape Colony, at Kuruman in Bechuana-

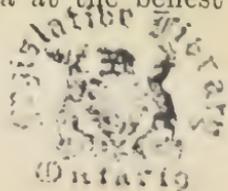
land, from 1826 till 1870. His daughter Mary became in 1844 the wife of the greatest of all British missionaries, Dr. Livingstone. Along with Dr. Moffat, as pioneer missionaries to the Kaffirs, may be named W. R. Thomson, John Bennie, and John Ross.

Dr. Moffat's son, Rev. John S. Moffat, C.M.G. (b. Kuruman, 1835), after many years of missionary work held for half a generation the post of resident magistrate of Bechuanaland. He is the author of the *Lives of Robert and Mary Moffat*. His son, Robert U. Moffat, C.M.G. (b. Kuruman, 1866), an Edinburgh medical graduate, entered the service of the East African Company, and from 1898 till 1906 was principal medical officer to the Uganda Protectorate. He was decorated for his services during the Uganda Mutiny.

Another son of John S. Moffat is in charge of the United Free Mission Station at Chitambo's village, where his uncle, Dr. Livingstone, died.

When the famous J. W. Colenso went out as first Bishop of Natal in 1855, he was accompanied by Charles F. Mackenzie (1825-62), a native of Peeblesshire, and younger brother of W. Forbes Mackenzie (Chapter XXXI.). In 1861 Mackenzie's zeal as a missionary was rewarded by his consecration as Bishop of Central Africa, but he died in the following year.

David Livingstone, born at Blantyre in Lanarkshire, in March 1813, was of West Highland lineage. At the age of ten he was sent to the cotton factory near his home, but by dint of almost superhuman perseverance he worked his way through Glasgow College, and at the age of twenty-seven had qualified himself for his lifework as a medical missionary, receiving the diploma of the Glasgow Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons. In the same year he went to Africa at the behest of the London Missionary Society.



He established a mission two hundred miles farther north than Dr. Moffat's, but was frequently forced to remove owing to the bigoted opposition of the Boers, who regarded him as a British spy. Three intrepid expeditions across the Kalahari desert resulted in the discovery first of Lake Ngami, then of the Zambesi River.

During the years 1852-54 he travelled from Cape Town to the Zambesi and thence to Portuguese West Africa with an expedition consisting entirely of blacks, through land never before visited except by slave-traders. He brought back his men without the loss of a single life. In November 1855 he started to trace the Zambesi to the sea. To the great cataract in the course of that river, a mile wide and 300 feet in height, he gave the name of the Victoria Falls. In May 1856 he reached the east coast at Quilimane. In December he visited Britain, and was everywhere received as a hero. The proceeds of his book on *Missionary Travels* rendered him independent of the help of the London Missionary Society, and he now severed his connection with that body. In March 1858 he again set out for Africa, commissioned by the Government to explore the Zambesi. His brother Charles this time accompanied him. In 1862 his wife was cut off by malarial fever, and buried at Shupanga on the south bank of the Zambesi. Having explored the Shiré River up to Lake Nyasa, and the river Rovuma, he was recalled by Earl Russell in 1864. Acting as his own captain and engineer, he successfully accomplished a voyage of forty-five days' duration to Bombay, in the hope of selling a steamer which had been built at his own expense and had cost him £6000.

Sir Bartle Frere, the Governor of Bombay, who made his acquaintance at this time, wrote of him that he had "never met a man who fulfilled more completely



Photo by Annan & Sons.

DAVID LIVINGSTONE.

his idea of a perfect Christian gentleman." In July 1864 he returned to Britain, and urged by voice and pen his three great objects in regard to Africa—the uprooting of the slave-trade, the introduction of Christianity, and the establishment of lawful commerce. Setting out again in 1865 he spent the next six years in constant travel, discovering Lakes Moero (Mweru), and Bangweolo (Bangweulu or Bemba), and exploring Lake Tanganyika on behalf of the Royal Geographical Society. He also reached the headquarters of the Congo, but did not know them to be such.

On 28th October 1871 he met H. M. Stanley at Ujiji on the eastern shore of Tanganyika. The world had heard nothing of Livingstone for many a day, with the exception of vague rumours of his death, and Gordon Bennett, of the *New York Herald*, had sent Stanley to "find Livingstone." Now after eight months he had succeeded. In the four months which the two great men spent together, Stanley in vain urged Livingstone to return home to recruit his health. He failed in that object, but he himself became infected with the spirit which later was to lead him to do for the Congo what the Scotsman had done for the Zambesi ; and he acquired an unbounded admiration for Livingstone himself. He wrote : " You may take any point in Dr. Livingstone's character and analyse it carefully, and I would challenge any man to find a fault in it." They parted at last, the younger man to return to civilisation, the elder to finish his career among the people to whom he had devoted his life-work.

Stanley's thirteen months in Africa had so altered him that his friends scarcely knew him, while Livingstone had given over thirty years of his life to the service of the Dark Continent ! His sixtieth birthday, 19th March 1873, found him exploring Lake Bangweolo

in canoes. On the morning of the 1st of May he was found dead in the attitude of prayer in the improvised hut erected by his "boys." His heart was buried where he died, at Chitambo's village in the Ilala country, and there a monument was erected to his memory in 1902. His faithful blacks embalmed his body and conveyed it by a nine months' march to the east coast, whence it was brought home to Britain and interred in Westminster Abbey.

Joseph Thomson thus summarises Livingstone's work: "Briefly it may be said that he travelled 29,000 miles, and opened up a million square miles of territory; and this he accomplished, not like some travellers at the head of hundreds of armed men, but patiently working his way onward, and, when stopped in one direction, turning aside to take another."

In 1872 the Royal Geographical Society had commissioned Lieutenant V. L. Cameron (1844-94) to lead an expedition in search of Livingstone. In August 1873 Cameron met Livingstone's followers carrying the body of the great missionary. Cameron now proceeded to survey and map Lake Tanganyika, and thereafter crossing the Continent he reached Benguela in Portuguese West Africa by November 1875.

Dr. Livingstone's reports of the slave-trade, and especially of a massacre of natives by plundering Arabs, witnessed by himself, at last stirred Britain to end this inhuman traffic, and even as he lay dying a message was on its way from the Government to that effect. In 1889 the Government's promise was fulfilled by the declaration of a British Protectorate over Nyasaland.

Little more than two years after his death the Livingstonia Mission was founded by the Free Church of Scotland at the lower end of Lake Nyasa. (The headquarters of this mission were afterwards transferred

to Bandawé on the western shore of the lake, and at a later date still farther northwards.) A year later (1876) the Church of Scotland established its Blantyre Mission in the Shiré district south of the lake. In furtherance of missionary work and of commercial expansion, there was formed the Stevenson Road (constructed at the expense of a Glasgow merchant of that name) to connect Lake Nyasa with Lake Tanganyika.

Livingstone's third ideal, of fair trade with the natives, was given effect to in the foundation of the African Lakes Corporation by James White of Overtoun and other Scotsmen. For his munificent encouragement of mission and industrial work in Livingstonia, as well as for his generosity in other philanthropic works, John White (1843 to February 1908), son of James White of Overtoun, was raised to the peerage as Lord Overtoun.

The United Free Church has shown its high appreciation of the noble work done by its missionaries in this district by appointing as its Moderator (1908) Dr. Robert Laws, an Aberdonian (b. 1851), who went to Livingstonia in 1875. Soon afterwards he became head of the Livingstonia Mission, and he it was who removed its headquarters northwards to what is now the site of the Overtoun Institution (founded 1894), where a staff of nearly twenty Scotsmen and Scotswomen combine industrial, medical, and educational work with the evangelisation of the natives. There are over 600 pupils and students in this institution. To him is largely due the fact that the whole of that region, in notable contrast to the sanguinary record of many other parts of Africa, came peacefully into the British sphere, the British Central Africa Protectorate being constituted in 1891. Sir H. H. Johnston has characterised Dr. Laws as "the greatest man who has hitherto appeared in Nyasaland."

We may take leave of missionary work in South Africa by mentioning the admirable Lovedale Institution in Cape Colony, forty miles west of King William's Town. Founded in 1841 on the basis of a mission settlement dating from 1824, this centre of religious, educational, agricultural, and industrial training for natives is supported by the United Free Church, and is inseparably associated with the name of Dr. James Stewart. Born at Edinburgh in 1831, the son of a Perthshire farmer, Stewart was with Livingstone's Zambesi Expedition in 1862, prospecting for a new mission, for which, however, he found the time was not yet ripe. From 1870 till his death in 1905 he was Principal of Lovedale. It was he who, in the Free Church General Assembly of 1874, proposed the Livingstonia Mission, and for the first two years of its existence it was directly under his charge. He was Moderator of the Free Church from 1889 to 1900. Like Dr. Laws, he was a keen student of the native languages, and he compiled a Kaffir Grammar.

Returning to political matters, it may be mentioned that the first Parliament of Cape Colony was convened in June 1854 by Sir George Cathcart, son of William Cathcart (afterwards Earl Cathcart), who commanded the British land forces at Copenhagen, and brother of Charles Cathcart (Lord Greenock), commander-in-chief in Canada from 1846 to 1849. Sir George (b. 1794) had seen service at Waterloo, and had helped in the suppression of the Canadian Rising of 1837. He was sent to the Cape as governor and commander-in-chief in succession to Sir Harry Smith, whose mismanagement of the natives had led to the Kaffir Rising of 1850. In 1852 Sir George organised a force of mounted police, and by March of the following year he had pacified the

disaffected districts, including Basutoland. This distinguished Scot met his death at Inkermann.

Among South African statesmen mention must be made of Sir Henry Brougham Loch (1827-1900), who was Governor from 1889 to 1895, and afterwards became Lord Loch, and of Dr. Jameson, whose career has appealed to popular imagination to an extent surpassed by that of few living men.

Leander S. Jameson, born at Edinburgh in 1853, first made a name in South Africa as a doctor, President Kruger being among his patients. He became Administrator to the South African Company in 1891, in succession to Mr. Archibald Ross Colquhoun (b. 1848), a distinguished administrator, diplomatist, traveller, and author, and one of the greatest living authorities on China and Burma. A. R. Colquhoun is the son of an Edinburgh doctor.

Dr. Jameson did service in Matabeleland until 1894, one of his tasks being the suppression of Lobengula's Rising in 1893. His "Raid" at the end of 1895 undoubtedly helped to precipitate the second Boer War. Dr. Jameson subsequently became Prime Minister of Cape Colony, holding that high position from 1904 till the beginning of 1908.

In presenting Dr. Jameson for the LL.D. degree of Edinburgh University in April 1907, Sir Ludovic Grant described his career in Rhodesia as a "tale of triumphant diplomacy and victorious military skill—a tale of resolution and promptitude, of self-devotion, pluck, and endurance. The fruits of Dr. Jameson's enterprise are to be seen in territorial expansion, railway extension, and the spread of civilisation to desert places." Dr. Jameson in his reply remarked that "he had been a quarter of a century over the seas; but once a Scotsman always a Scotsman: they were a clannish

people. When he said he was a Scotsman, he did not mean that he was not a South African, because being a member of the British Empire included both."

In providing facilities for the development of South Africa, yeoman service has been done by that grand old man of enterprise and philanthropy, Sir Donald Currie, of Castle Line fame, who was born at Greenock in 1825, and educated at Belfast. After being a valued servant of the Cunard Company from 1843 till 1862, he started a line of sailing vessels between Liverpool and Calcutta, and in 1872 he established his excellent fleet of steamers plying between Britain and South Africa. His line merged in the Castle Mail Packets Company in 1881, and in January 1900 this Company amalgamated with the Union Steamship Company (founded 1856) to form the Union Castle Line, which now owns over forty steamers.

No man has combined in a greater degree the wide outlook of a great manager with the most thorough mastery of minute details. In our various South African wars his steamers have rendered the British position tenable, and it was largely at his advice that the cable from Aden to Natal brought South Africa into "all British" connection with our Indian and other dominions. The honour of knighthood conferred on him in 1881 was but a paltry recognition of services so vast, and of abilities and energy so remarkable. (Sir Donald died on 13th April 1909.)

One of the most justly honoured citizens of Natal is Sir Duncan Mackenzie (b. 1859), whose parents emigrated from Scotland. Bred to a farming life, Sir Duncan is proficient in all manly exercises. During the Boer War he raised two troops to help General Buller in Natal. Lord Dundonald placed him in command of the 2nd Imperial Light Horse, and his

intimate knowledge of the country earned him the distinction of leading the relieving column into Ladysmith on 28th February 1899. At the close of the war the Natal Government appointed him commander of the militia of the colony. Towards the end of 1907 he stamped out a native rising without any help from the regular army. For his services he has been made C.B. and K.C.M.G., and his profound knowledge of the Dutch and Zulu languages, life, and thought, is one of the greatest assets at the command of the Colonial and Imperial Governments.

It is an open secret that the Boers found Scotsmen more congenial persons to deal with than Englishmen, and it is not without significance that at the outbreak of the last war both Boer States were represented in Britain by Scotsmen—Sir William Dunn and Dr. Gavin B. Clark—while a Scot, Sir John G. Fraser, had stood for the presidency of the Orange Free State in 1896 against President Steyn. It is believed that, but for President Kruger's influence and machinations, the popularity of Mr. Fraser (as he then was) would have secured his appointment.

In South African church life a remarkable family has been that of the Murrays, one of whom, Dr. Andrew Murray, is well known as an author. Dr. Andrew's father, a native of Inch, Aberdeenshire, went to South Africa along with several other Scottish ministers in response to a call from the Dutch settlers for such help. He made Graaf Reinet his headquarters. His family numbered six sons and six daughters. Of the sons one became a farmer, and the other five became ministers. Five of the daughters married ministers, and the remaining one is head of a large High School for girls. Most of old Mr. Murray's family had numerous children, and many of these entered the

ministry, while over a dozen became missionaries. As Dr. Laws says: "The work that family did for the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, as well as for Cape Colony, has been marvellous, and it still goes on."

Speaking at Edinburgh in 1907, as Premier of the Transvaal, General Botha remarked how Scottish people "had always fought for liberty both as regarded ordinary civil rights and also religious rights, and he therefore felt entirely at home among them. The Boers had much in common with the Scottish, and the Scots in South Africa had always maintained the name and fame of Scotland. They had done much for the State and for the Church. They had explored unknown parts, and brought civilisation to the dark places of that great continent." Let us trust that in the future development of the Transvaal and Orange River Colony the very considerable leaven of Scottish teachers and administrators introduced in late years may act as a strong, reconciling, and unifying influence between the two great white races of the South African land!

CHAPTER XLIV

SCOTSMEN AS PIONEERS: POLAR REGIONS AND AMERICA.

“FROM the lone shieling of the misty island
Mountains divide us, and the waste of seas ;
Yet still the blood is strong, the heart is Highland,
And we in dreams behold the Hebrides.
Fair these broad meads, these hoary woods are grand ;
But we are exiles from our fathers' land.”

*Variouſly attributed to EARL OF EGLINTON, and
to PROFESSOR JOHN WILSON.*

BEFORE dealing with America, we may cite a few names from the roll of Scotsmen who have left their mark in the annals of Arctic and Antarctic exploration. First among these stands Admiral Sir John Ross (1777–1856), a native of Wigtownshire, who had served in the navy during the wars with France. In 1818 he explored Baffin Bay on behalf of the Admiralty. It was in this expedition that the famous Parry gained his first experience. In 1829 Ross explored Boothia, receiving knighthood four years later. His nephew Sir James Clark Ross, also a native of Wigtownshire (1800–62), accompanied Sir John on his Arctic voyages, and also sailed with Parry on other expeditions. In 1831 he established the position of the true magnetic pole. The voyage of the *Erebus* and *Terror* to the Antarctic seas in 1839, when Victoria Land was discovered, was under his command. He was knighted in 1843. Sir John Richardson (1787–1865), a native of

Dumfries, served with Parry and Franklin, and took part in the subsequent expeditions in search of the latter. Dr. John Rae (1813-93) was an Orkney man, who became doctor to the Hudson Bay Company in 1833. During 1845-47 he conducted an Arctic expedition, and in 1848 was associated with Richardson in the search for Sir John Franklin. Later he undertook a voyage of discovery to King William's Land, and in 1854 he was the first to obtain from Eskimos authentic information as to Franklin's fate, thus earning unexpectedly the £10,000 offered by the Admiralty for news of the lost explorer. The further details as to Franklin's ill-fated expedition were subsequently established by M'Clintock. Rae also visited Greenland, and conducted surveys for overland and submarine telegraphs in North America. In the early part of the nineteenth century great tracts of the Arctic coasts of Canada were surveyed by the brothers Simpson from Ross-shire, two of whom held important positions in the Hudson Bay Company.

The most important scientific expedition ever dispatched from Britain was that of the *Challenger*, which performed a voyage of nearly 70,000 miles for the purpose of deep-sea investigations (1872-76). The scientific head of the expedition was Sir Charles Wyville Thomson (1830-82), a native of Linlithgow, who was knighted for his eminent services to marine zoology. Thomson held at different times the professorships of Botany at Aberdeen, of Natural History at Cork, of Geology at Belfast, and of Natural History at Edinburgh.

Among living British explorers none ranks higher than Captain W. S. Bruce, LL.D., a native of Edinburgh. Bruce was naturalist to the Dundee Antarctic Expedition of 1892, at which time he was only twenty-five years of

age. From 1895 he had charge for two years of Ben Nevis Observatory, and later served as zoologist to the Jackson-Harmsworth Polar Expedition. He acted as leader of the Scottish National Antarctic Expedition in 1902-4, which discovered Coats' Land and made a bathymetric survey of the South Atlantic and Weddell Sea. Bruce's vessel, the *Scotia*, of which Captain Thomas Robertson of Peterhead was first officer, was designed by Mr. G. L. Watson of *Thistle* fame, and was uncompromisingly Scottish in every respect. There is probably greater distinction in store for this gallant explorer in the years to come.

Among early explorers of the mainland of North America, a premier position belongs to Sir Alexander Mackenzie, a native of Inverness (1755-1820), who had gone to Canada as a fur-trader. Starting from Lake Athabasca he traced the Slave River to the Great Slave Lake, and thence followed to the sea (in 1789) the great river which now bears his name. Three years later he succeeded in crossing the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific, being the first European to cross North America from ocean to ocean. The district he thus entered became known as New Caledonia before it gained its present name of British Columbia, and the names of its rivers, Fraser, Simpson, and Thomson, bear witness to the nationality of its early settlers. The first of these rivers takes its name from Simon Fraser, who explored it in 1808.

In the early history of Canadian settlements, some interest attaches to the attempted Scottish colonisation of Nova Scotia.

In 1621 Sir William Alexander (1567-1640), afterwards Earl of Stirling, received from King James VI. a charter to colonise the land south of the St.

Lawrence, which the French called Acadie, and to which the name New Scotland (latinised into Nova Scotia) was now given. The object of the colony was to furnish an outlet under British rule for the energies of the roving spirits who were emigrating in large numbers from Scotland to Poland, Sweden, and Russia. By 1622 colonists began to go out, and in 1628 they repelled the attempts of the French to annex the land. James VI., and later Charles I., in order to encourage the colony, sold baronetcies of Nova Scotia. The title of baronet, together with a grant of 30,000 acres of land in the colony, was obtainable either by paying 6000 merks Scots, or by sending out six skilled workmen and paying their expenses for two years. In 1632 the country was restored to the French by King Charles. After "see-sawing" between French and British rule, the colony became definitely British by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. Many of the descendants of these early colonists are to be found to-day in Cape Breton Island, whose capital, Sydney, publishes a Gaelic newspaper, *MacTalla*. The same island received a large influx of Scots nearly two centuries later.

As a result of the depression in Britain owing to the Napoleonic wars, emigration was resorted to by large numbers of people, and it is calculated that in a few years no fewer than 25,000 Scottish peasants settled in Cape Breton Island alone. In 1804 Glengarry County, between the rivers Ottawa and St. Lawrence, was occupied by 800 evicted Highlanders.

The opening up of Manitoba as a home for white men dates from 1811-16, when the Honourable Thomas Douglas, Lord Selkirk, Governor of the Hudson's Bay Company, founded a colony of Highlanders. This "Selkirk Settlement" developed into the Red River Settlement, and its capital, Fort Garry, was the nucleus

of Winnipeg, now a city of 120,000 people. By 1819, after untold privations, and after the expenditure of enormous sums by Selkirk himself, the colony began to flourish, and from that day to this the progress of these great prairie lands has been one of the wonders of the world. Selkirk County in Manitoba preserves the name of this benefactor of his race. Selkirk also settled some 4000 Highlanders in Prince Edward Island, who greatly advanced the prosperity of that colony, and to-day a very large proportion of the population (calculated at forty-five per cent.) claims descent from Highland settlers.

In February 1813, when the Americans perpetrated a series of ravages on the Canadian frontier, it was a Major Macdonell who successfully repelled their attacks.

In the opening up of Ontario, mention must be made of John Galt, the Scottish novelist, who crossed to Canada in 1826 as first Secretary of the Canada Land Company. He founded the town of Guelph, now the seat of the Ontario Agricultural College.

In the sphere of early political reform in Canada two Scots are noteworthy. In 1818, Robert Gourlay, for denouncing official corruption, particularly the evils connected with the disposal of public lands, was imprisoned for seven months, and later he was banished. In 1842 tardy justice was done to Gourlay's character, when the Assembly of the united Canadas declared that his arrest had been "unjust and illegal," and his sentence null and void. William Lyon Mackenzie (1795-1861), a native of Dundee, emigrated to Canada in 1820. Four years later he established a newspaper, the *Colonial Advocate*, and in it he mercilessly exposed the abuses of the "Family Compact," or system of government by nepotism. He entered the

Assembly in 1828, but, though four times elected to that body, he was expelled each time for attacking the Government. In 1832 he visited Britain and protested with some success against the abuses of which he had complained. Two years later he became first Mayor of Toronto. The Canadian reform movement, to which Mackenzie was committed, became complicated by the French desire for an independent Canada. In December 1837 he fled to the United States and organised the invasion of Canada known as the Patriot War. This rising was promptly suppressed by the energy of Colonel Sir Allan M'Nab, who later became Prime Minister of Canada. Mackenzie was imprisoned for a year by the United States authorities. In 1849 he was allowed to return to Canada, and he sat in the Canadian Parliament from 1850 till 1858. In the end he had the satisfaction of seeing most of his cherished reforms peacefully accomplished under British rule.

The most influential newspaper in the Dominion, the *Globe*, was established at Toronto in 1844 by an Edinburgh Scot, George Brown (1818-80), who henceforth exercised great influence as one of the leading reformers in Canada. He may almost be regarded as the earliest exponent of the federal principle of union afterwards embodied to so great an extent in the Canadian constitution.

The gradual change from autocratic government to popular rule is reflected in the various Scottish Governors of Canada. In 1820 Lord Dalhousie became Governor-General. His rule was of too high-handed a character for Canada, though the similar attitude of his distinguished son in India proved in general so successful. From 1845 to 1847 Canada was in charge of Lord Cathcart as commander-in-chief.

In the beginning of the latter year, Lord Elgin (1811-63) arrived as Governor-General, and during his eight years of office the Government was greatly liberalised, especially in the direction of opening official posts to colonists, whether of French or British extraction. He had to brave the opposition of a stupid faction of self-styled "loyalists," but he introduced that enlightened policy which has made loyal British subjects out of the potentially hostile French "habitants." To him, in short, is due the credit of giving practical effect to the enlightened political ideas of his distinguished father-in-law, Lord Durham. At a critical period (in 1854) Lord Elgin staved off serious difficulties between Canada and the United States by going in person to Washington, U.S.A., and in a fortnight engineering a reciprocity treaty with the United States, which ended for a time the fishery disputes of a generation. So favourable, however, was the Treaty to Canada that the arrangement was repudiated by the States in 1866.

By far the greatest of Canadian statesmen, and perhaps of colonial statesmen, was Sir John A. Macdonald, a native of Glasgow (1815-91). He it was who carried through the details of the federation scheme, and to him more than to any one man is due the credit of having welded Canada into a nation. He entered the Canadian Assembly in 1844, and in 1856 was Premier. In 1867, when the Dominion Parliament was definitely constituted by the British North America Act, Macdonald formed the first Government and acted as Premier. The development of the country proceeded by leaps and bounds from this time, and Macdonald urged on the formation of the Inter-colonial and Canadian Pacific railways, clearly seeing that a country nearly as large as the mainland of

Europe could not be held together in any other way.

In 1887 Sir Edwin Watkin, M.P., gave voice to an opinion shared by multitudes regarding Macdonald: "He is *the* statesman of Canada—one of the ablest men on the continent. I wish he administered the colonial relations of the whole empire."

It is a striking fact that, when Macdonald went out of power from 1873 till 1878 on account of his protectionist policy, the post of Premier was filled by another Scot, Alexander Mackenzie (1822–92). Born in Perthshire, Mackenzie had been in succession mason, contractor, and editor, and since 1867 he had been leader of the opposition.

As Governor-General from 1878 till 1883, the Marquess of Lorne (b. 1845, now Duke of Argyll) approved himself a genial and courteous representative of the Crown in Canada, and gave sensible advice to the homeland as to emigration. "Fine ladies and fine gentlemen will find themselves altogether out of the race. For women there is plenty of space and places; but the women who will succeed must be the women who will work." The Marquess of Lorne saw the beginnings of the Canadian Pacific Railway, leaving it well on its way to completion when he returned to Britain.

The present Earl of Aberdeen (b. 1847, grandson of the British Premier of 1852–54), now lord-lieutenant of Ireland, was Governor-General of Canada from 1893 till 1898. He was succeeded by Lord Minto, who held office till 1904.

In 1880 Sir Alexander T. Galt (son of the novelist), who had already distinguished himself as a brilliant financier, and as a keen advocate of Canadian unity and of railway enterprise, became first High Commis-

sioner for Canada in Britain,—the post now adorned by Lord Stratheona.

Before detailing Lord Stratheona's services to Canada, a few words may here be said as to the Hudson's Bay Company, of which he was the last resident-governor. In 1670 Charles II. gave a charter to Prince Rupert and others as "The Governor and Company of Adventurers of England trading into Hudson's Bay." In return for a monopoly of trade throughout a district of over two million square miles, the Company was to give the king two elks and two black beavers per annum. In 1783 a rival Company, the North-West Company, was founded by Scottish and French merchants, with headquarters at Quebec. This stirred up the energies of the older Company, which now endeavoured to open up the interior by sending energetic young men, very largely Scottish Orcadians, to found centres of trade. Blood was sometimes shed in the keen rivalry between the two Companies. At last, in 1821, the North-West Company merged in the larger concern, and British Columbia was now added to its sphere of operations. The forts of wood or stone dotted over the country as centres of communication were to an enormous proportion in charge of Scots. In 1858, on the discovery of gold, the Company had to relinquish British Columbia, hitherto known as New Caledonia. Sir James Douglas, who had held sway over this territory, including Vancouver Island, became Governor of the new Crown Colony of British Columbia, retaining that office till 1864. The Hudson's Bay Company were allowed to retain the rest of their territory until 1869, in which year the Canadian Confederation bought out the Company's right of monopoly, but otherwise left it free to continue its trading operations. The great

region thus added to the Canadian Dominion was named the North-West Territory, and its first lieutenant-governor was the Honourable William Macdougall (1822-1905), who, next to Macdonald, was one of the most prominent statesmen in advocating the unity of British North America.

Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal was born in 1820 at Forres, in Banffshire, where he began life as plain Donald A. Smith. His career has been one long record of success due to talent and perseverance. Entering the service of the Hudson's Bay Company at the age of eighteen, he rose to be the last governor of that body as a political corporation. During Louis Riel's Rebellion of 1869-70, as special commissioner in the Red River Settlements, he did excellent service in pacifying the disaffected area, and was accorded the thanks of the governor-general in Council. He played a leading part in the formation of the Canadian Pacific Railway, which opened up for cultivation millions of acres of the most productive land in the world. Since 1896 he has been High Commissioner for Canada in the homeland, and in 1897 he was elevated to the peerage. The empire will not soon forget the patriotic spirit which inspired the raising for the Boer War of that useful body of men,—Strathcona's Horse. Such a man, with his broad, healthy outlook on life, and his generosity of disposition, will scarcely be suspected of "parochialism," and his testimony to the work of the Scottish race may therefore be safely quoted: "I do not think it would be possible to overrate the benefits that have been conferred upon the empire by Scotsmen. . . . They have had the opportunity of acquiring an education not afforded in most countries. I look upon our educational system, that system which was so good and so thorough long before such



Photo by Elliot & Fry.

LORD STRATHCONA.

advantages were recognised in other parts of the kingdom, as the foundation of the success of the Scottish character. . . . Many young Scotsmen have gone out in days gone by to India, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the Cape, the West Indies, and elsewhere, and their sterling characteristics, their capacity for hard work, and their determination to succeed, have had much to do with the development of the different parts of the empire. What may be termed the roll of honour of Canada contains many familiar Scottish names. The men who have been connected with the administration of the Hudson's Bay Company for the last two centuries have been mostly drawn from Scotland. But for their watchfulness and their determination to look after British interests, it is quite certain that Western Canada to-day would not be a part of the empire." And he adds significantly: "Scotsmen in the Colonies retain that pride of country which is innate in the race. Scottish literature, Scottish poetry, and Scottish song retain their hold upon the people as much as, perhaps more than, they do at home. All these mean much to the Scotsman away from his native land."

Lest his lordship's words in praise of his countrymen's qualities be suspected of being coloured by his nationality, we may here quote from John Morley (Lord Morley), who, after a recent trip to Canada, remarked: "I never was more interested in my life than in my short scamper through Canada. It struck me, seeing the names on the shop fronts and so forth, and the important men that I met, that it might have seemed like a border province of Scotland. All the important men in certain branches are Scots, Scots of the Scots, and carry with them all the fervid ideas which belong to this part of the island."

It is said that for a considerable time in recent years all the governors of provinces in Canada were either Scots or of Scottish descent, until the appointment of an Irishman about the beginning of 1907 made a breach in this political phalanx.

Speaking at Edinburgh in January 1909, the Honourable Duncan Cameron Fraser, Lieutenant-Governor of Nova Scotia, remarked: "People in Canada could complain as they might, but it was the fact that in some way or other the descendants of the Scots in Canada, without any resolutions passed or meetings called, held their own with any other outsiders that came into the Dominion. As a small indication of that, he might mention that in the nine provinces of the Dominion to-day out of nine governors six were Scotsmen or of Scottish descent."

That the Scot, with all his intense nationalism, is not too aggressive in his ideas, but proves quite a reasonable citizen in the country of his adoption, is certified by one of the most recent writers on Canada, Mr. H. A. Kennedy in *New Canada and the New Canadians*: "The Englishman in Canada, it has often been remarked, is neither so popular nor so successful as the Scot. So far as popularity is concerned, it is partly due to the greater reticence of the Scot. He is on the whole more cosmopolitan than the Englishman: and even when he feels just as strongly that his ways are better than Canadian ways, he more often keeps that opinion to himself—till he changes it. As for success, the average Scot is better educated, more accustomed to discipline, and fonder of work." This opinion quite agrees with Professor Lodge's dictum that "the Scots have proved themselves the most adaptable nation in the history of Europe,

the most eager and the most ready to learn from their neighbours and allies."

Closely associated with Lord Strathcona in the Canadian Pacific undertaking, and similar to him in public spirit and philanthropy, is his cousin, Lord Mount-Stephen, born at Dufftown, Banffshire, in 1829, George Stephen was the son of humble Scottish parents, and began the work of life as a herd-boy. Emigrating to Canada in 1850, he became director and president of the Bank of Montreal. In 1879 he became first president of the St. Paul, Minneapolis, and Manitoba Railway. After the formation of the Canadian Pacific Railway, he remained at the head of that vast concern till 1888. In 1891 Stephen was raised to the peerage, and took his title from a lofty peak in the Rocky Mountains which had been named after him during the making of the Canadian Pacific Railway. He is now one of the richest men in the world, and likewise one of the most generous, as a few of his donations will show. He has given £35,000 to Aberlour Orphanage, and an endowment of £1000 a year to Edinburgh Infirmary. From first to last he has given close on £100,000 to Aberdeen Royal Infirmary. He and Lord Strathcona gave £200,000 to erect a hospital at Montreal in commemoration of Queen Victoria's Jubilee, and afterwards added £160,000 for its endowment. In 1902 they invested on behalf of the King's Hospital Fund a sum sufficient to produce £16,000 a year of endowment.

The Canadian Pacific Company, which Mr. H. A. Kennedy not unnaturally calls a "Scotch Canadian Company," promised in 1880 to have trains running across the American continent within ten years. By a display of energy and enterprise surely unique in the history of great contracts, the work was entirely completed

by 1886! Among prominent Scottish directors of the company, apart from Lords Strathcona and Mount-Stephen, and Sir R. G. Reid (to be shortly referred to) there fall to be enumerated Sir George A. Drummond (for many years president of the Bank of Montreal), Sir Sandford Fleming, Messrs. D. M'Nicoll, and R. B. Angus. From the latter, the name of the "Angus Shops" is given to the great construction works at Montreal, with nearly 6000 workmen, from which two hundred complete trains are annually turned out by the Company. Sir Sandford Fleming (b. 1827 at Kirkcaldy) was engineer-in-chief in the construction of the Canadian Pacific railroad, and he also constructed the Intercolonial Railway connecting Nova Scotia and New Brunswick with the northern bank of the St. Lawrence. He has taken a leading part in advocating State-owned telegraphs to encircle the whole world by all-British routes.

Among Canadian philanthropists one of the greatest and earliest was James M'Gill (1744-1813), a native of Glasgow, who made his fortune in the fur-trade and later as a Montreal merchant. He left £40,000 for the foundation of the university at Montreal which bears his name. His example bestirred others to acts of generosity, and the numerous bequests to this college, including the Redpath Museum, are largely from Scotsmen. Within the past four or five years Sir William C. Macdonald, born in Prince Edward Island in 1831 of Highland lineage, has given three quarters of a million to this university alone, besides building a great Agricultural College, establishing consolidated schools for country districts, and endowing at Guelph, Ontario, a department for the training of teachers for rural schools.

Newfoundland, of which possession was formally

claimed in 1583 on behalf of Queen Elizabeth, is the first in date of the old English Colonies. This fact explains why her people have steadily refused to join the Canadian Dominion, which by 1873 embraced every other British colony in North America.

The first agitator for popular government in the colony was an Edinburgh medical graduate, Dr. William Carson, whose ideas were carried out in 1832 after more than twenty years' advocacy. Strange to say, Carson himself was defeated as candidate for St. John's in the new representative body.

Towards the end of the nineteenth century Newfoundland experienced perhaps the most serious financial crisis that ever faced any of our Colonies. In December 1894 the banks suspended payment, and by January 1895 the *Times* correspondent described St. John's as "a city to let." Probably he himself would have been surprised had he known that ere long he might have described the colony as "an island to let," and that the island would actually find a hirer. After various expedients to restore the colony's credit had failed, a desperate bargain was entered into by the colonial Government, by which a Scotsman, R. G. Reid, undertook practically the whole responsibility for the development of the island. He took charge of, or had conveyed to him, as the case might be, "all the railways, the docks, telegraph lines, mineral, timber, and agricultural lands of the colony." In return, he became sponsor for the whole financial responsibilities of the colony, and undertook the development of steamer traffic.

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, when appealed to, as Secretary for the Colonies, as to the legitimacy of the bargain, wrote: "Such an abdication by a Government of some of its most important functions is

without parallel. . . . I can only conclude that they have satisfied themselves that the danger and evils resulting from the corruption which has attended the administration of these services by the Government are more serious than any evils that can result from those services being transferred unreservedly to the hands of a private individual or corporation." The whole transaction was indeed a tremendous testimony to the "energy, capacity, and character of Mr. Reid," whose "interests in the colony," as Mr. Chamberlain points out, "are already so enormous that he has every motive to work for and to stimulate its development." Robert Gillespie Reid was a native of Coupar-Angus in Perthshire. After some time spent in Western Australia, he removed to Canada, where he became a contractor on the grand scale, executing great part of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and bridging the Colorado and Niagara rivers. He constructed the famous Lachine Bridge, three quarters of a mile long, across the St. Lawrence, as well as the bridge from Cape Breton Island to the mainland. In 1907 he was knighted for his services to North America, and, as we have seen, the history of Newfoundland, for the ten years prior to his death in 1908, may be regarded as being summed up in the "Reid Contract."

In the roll of Canadian geologists, prominent names are those of Sir William E. Logan (1798-1875), the son of a Scottish baker, who, after executing geological survey work in South Wales, directed the Canadian Geological Survey from 1842 to 1871, and of Sir John W. Dawson (1820-99), who was born in Nova Scotia, and educated at Edinburgh. Having acted for some years as assistant to Sir Charles Lyell, Dawson returned to Canada well equipped for the geological researches which he carried out in Eastern Canada. He held the

post of Superintendent of Education in Nova Scotia, and later for thirty-eight years was Principal of the M'Gill University. The Royal Society of Canada owes its origin chiefly to Dawson, and he was its first president.

Among other famous Scotsmen who have held high university posts in Canada may be named Sir Daniel Wilson (1816-92), a native of Edinburgh, who became President of Toronto University. Among his works are *Prehistoric Man* and *Prehistoric Annals of Scotland*.

Of Scottish-Canadian poets, it must suffice to name Alexander M'Lachlan of Ontario and Evan M'Coll of Toronto. The national anthem of Canada, the "Maple Leaf," was written and composed by Alexander Muir of Lesmahagow.

"In days of yore, from Britain's shore,
 Wolfe, the dauntless hero came,
 And planted firm Britannia's flag
 On Canada's fair domain.
 Here may it wave, our boast, our pride;
 And joined in love together,
 The Thistle, Shamrock, Rose entwine
 The Maple Leaf for ever."

We may take farewell of Canada by quoting the words of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the Premier, who has been known to describe the Scots as "the salt of the earth," and who recently told an audience that "wherever they went in Canada they found the Scot leading in most things. If he had not been of French descent, he would have liked to be a Scotsman."

Crossing the Canadian frontier into the territory of the other great English-speaking Power, we find Scots-

men meeting with equal approbation, and occupying positions almost equally important.

The Honourable Whitelaw Reid, United States Ambassador to Britain, recently declared that "American esteem for the Scots amounted to a habit," and a few years ago Mr. Jenkinson, United States Consul in Glasgow, said, "If the Americans believed in liberty and independence, it was mainly due to what the Scots had taught them. If they tried to elevate mankind morally and socially by a thorough system of popular education, they but followed the example of Scotland. If they refused to put on and wear the shackles which bound the consciences of men and prevented a full and free religious worship, they but accepted the results of the long and severe contest waged by the people of Scotland."

The New England States received a large number of Scottish immigrants during the Commonwealth period, and again at the end of the Seven Years' War, when many Highland soldiers remained as colonists. The original colonists of New Jersey, in particular, were largely Scots who had fled from religious persecution.

In the War of Independence there were Scots on both sides. Special mention must be made of Dr. John Witherspoon (1722-94, b. near Haddington), who from 1768 had been President of Princeton College, New Jersey, and who is recognised as having been the father of the Presbyterian Church in the States. In the Continental Congress of 1776 his impassioned eloquence overcame many waverers who hesitated at the bold step of signing a Declaration of Independence. So much importance was attached to his attitude that Horace Walpole laid the blame of the whole revolt upon him: "Our cousin America has run off with a Presbyterian parson."

When the war did break out, three of the four men who formed George Washington's Cabinet were Scots—Hamilton, Knox, and Randolph; and his physician was Dr. James Craik, who organised hospitals during the war. Most closely associated with Washington in the command of the provisional army was Alexander Hamilton (b. 1757) who, until his death in 1804, played a foremost part in American politics, and who, among other achievements, rehabilitated American credit by his sound finance while Secretary to the Treasury. The foundation of the national Bank was due to him. The constitution of the United States was mainly drafted by a Scotsman, Judge Wilson.

Another Scot on the American side was William Alexander, who claimed to be Earl of Stirling, and who "had command at different times of every brigade in the American Army except those of South Carolina and Georgia." The part played by Paul Jones in organising an infant navy for the United States is referred to in the general course of our narrative (Chapter XXV.), and the architect of the navy when it was attaining more formidable dimensions was Harry Eckford (1775-1832), a native of Irvine. There were prominent Scotsmen, too, on the "Loyalist" side in the struggle with the American colonies. When an invasion of Canada was attempted by Americans under General Arnold, the Canadian frontier was mainly defended by the Royal Highland Emigrant Regiment which Colonel Allan Maclean had raised for the purpose. After the war, most of the soldiers of this regiment settled in Canada on allotments of land granted for their services, the settlement of Douglas in Nova Scotia originating in this way.

The defeat of Washington at Brandywine in 1777 by the British forces was mainly rendered possible by

the breech-loading rifle invented by Patrick Ferguson of Aberdeen, in the previous year, with which a British soldier could load and fire in less than ten seconds. It is interesting to note that in later days the percussion cap, which again added enormously to the speed of firing, especially when the cartridge had developed from it, was the invention of another Aberdonian, the Rev. Dr. A. J. Forsyth. Forsyth broached the idea in 1807, it was realised in 1816, and adopted by Government in 1839.

The towns of Patterson (New York), Paterson (New Jersey), Pittsburg, and actually Chicago, were founded by Scots, the last-named by John Kinzie, or Mackenzie. The famous Muir Glacier in Alaska is named after its discoverer, John Muir, a Californian Scot. The second oldest American college, that of William and Mary, was founded by a Scot, James Blair, and the first bank of Chicago was founded in 1839 by George Smith, a native of Old Deer, Aberdeen. (See note, page 840.)

At the outbreak of the Civil War between the north and south, the Secretary for War was Simon Cameron. The 79th Highlanders of New York, organised in 1861, did notable service for the north, "fighting more battles and marching more miles than any other New York regiment," as the official State record declares. Colonel Cameron, their commander, was killed at Bull's Run, and was succeeded by Colonel Morrison, a Glasgow man. In the war with Spain at the end of the nineteenth century, Admiral Sampson (1840-1902), who "bottled" the Spanish fleet at Santiago in Cuba, was of Forfarshire lineage.

Scottish men of letters in America naturally lose much of their identity in the general stream of literature, but two names deserve mention. Lindley Murray wrote a well-known English Grammar in 1795. Dr.

James M'Cosh (1811-94), a native of Ayrshire, left the Church of Scotland at the Disruption, and, after holding a professorship in Belfast, he was President of Princeton College (New Jersey) for twenty years. He is well known as the historian of Scottish philosophy.

Washington Irving, though born in New York, was the son of a native of Orkney.

A Scotsman, William M'Luce, is regarded as the "father of American geology," while the earliest systematic botanist in America was Dr. C. Colden (1688-1776), a native of Duns, who was in close communication with the great Linnæus, and sent him much valuable information on American plants.

The most remarkable of newspaper men are the two Bennetts, father and son. James Gordon Bennett (1795-1872) was born at Keith in Banffshire, and trained for the priesthood. Going to America in 1819, he became teacher and journalist. He published the first number of the *New York Herald* on 6th May 1835, the paper being sold at one cent. By the time of his death the annual profits were over £100,000. His son, of the same name (b. 1841), has well maintained the family reputation for enterprise and for lavish expenditure in securing up-to-date news. He it was who sent Stanley to search for Livingstone, and, along with the proprietors of the *Daily Telegraph*, he provided the funds for Stanley's journey across Africa (1874-78). The Gordon Bennett Motor Races take their name from the latter of the Bennetts, who presented the cup for competition. British meteorology has been greatly advanced by his system of sending weather forecasts from the United States.

The Moderator of the Congregational Church in America at the time of writing is the Honourable T. C. Macmillan of Chicago, a distinguished journalist and

parliamentarian, who emigrated from Scotland in early life, and boasts of Covenanting lineage.

In banking, insurance, mining, textile manufacture, printing and publishing, and as tobacco and iron "lords," Scotsmen are prominent.

The second richest man on earth is reckoned to be Andrew Carnegie (b. at Dunfermline in 1837). His father was a handloom weaver, who emigrated to America on the decay of that industry. Andrew was in succession bobbin-boy in a cotton factory, telegraph boy, telegraphist, and railway employee, in which capacity he served on the lines of communication during the Civil War. When the Pennsylvania Railway Company decided to substitute iron bridges on their lines for wooden ones, Carnegie found the opportunity of his life, and the Steel Works founded by him in 1868 at Pittsburg grew steadily in size and in prosperity until, at his retiral in 1900, their capital stood at twenty-eight million pounds. His estimated income is two or three million pounds a year, and he now acts as a kind of "special providence" in the advancement of many excellent schemes. Foremost among these must be placed the endowment of free libraries, which spread his gospel "Let there be light" to such a degree as to merit the name of the poor man's university. Through this channel he has spent eight million pounds. His gift of two million pounds to the Scottish universities has freed higher education in Scotland to all who are capable of receiving it, though his generous doles are accepted by many who could well afford to do without them. He has set apart £300,000 to build the Palace of Peace at the Hague. Museums, art-galleries, sanatoria, and organs absorb much of his boundless wealth, while enormous sums have been devoted to the welfare of his Pittsburg



Photo by ALVERT & SOLO.

ANDREW CARNEGIE.



workers. The Carnegie Trust of his native town has at its disposal £25,000 a year, "to be used in attempts to bring into the monotonous lives of the toiling masses of Dunfermline more of sweetness and light." Besides various books on social and economic questions, Mr. Carnegie has written the volume on *James Watt* in the "Famous Scots" series.

Another United States merchant prince was John S. Kennedy (1830–Nov. 1909), who was born at Blantyre and educated at Glasgow, where he was for a time an errand-boy. He stood in the very forefront in American banking and railway affairs. Among his public benefactions during his lifetime are to be noted £120,000 for the premises of the United Charities Association of New York, £200,000 to the New York Presbyterian hospital, and £100,000 to Columbia University. In his will he bequeathed over thirty million dollars to various educational and charitable institutions, including £20,000 to Glasgow University.

Chas. A. Hanna of New York has calculated that, of the twenty-five American presidents, nine have been of Scottish or Scoto-Irish descent, and even ex-President Roosevelt owes some of the energy of his "strenuous life" to his Scottish blood on the maternal side. The secretaryship of agriculture—the most responsible position of its kind in the world—is ably filled by an Ayrshire man, James Wilson. By a combination of Scottish practicality with American up-to-dateness, Mr. Wilson hit upon the excellent idea of connecting isolated farmhouses by telephone, and he has thus done much to stay the influx of population to the towns by adding interest to country life.

Glasgow's connection with the States has been a very close one since the days of the "tobacco lords," shortly after the union of Scotland and England. In 1906

Glasgow sent eight million dollars' worth of goods to the States, and in the first six years of the twentieth century she sent in all thirty-seven million dollars' worth. Glasgow is felt by our transatlantic cousins to be the "most American city" in Britain, or perhaps in Europe. In 1905, when Mayor Dunne of Chicago invited Glasgow's tramway manager, Mr. Dalrymple, to "come over and help" the municipality of that city, he thus explained the step he had taken: "I desired to be advised by the man who has been selected as expert in a city that is a recognised pioneer in municipal ownership. Scotchmen are proverbially the best business men of Europe, if not of the world, and if any one is capable of aiding Chicago aright in her efforts to obtain public ownership of the street railways it is Glasgow's expert."

An American Roman Catholic prelate, quoted by Dr. Peter Ross in his *Scot in America*, declares: "It is wonderful, especially in view of the scarcity of population, the comparative poverty of the soil, and the unfavourable situation of Scotland with regard to the rest of Europe, what a noble and world-wide history she has, and how many great men she has produced. While Scotland was ultimately benefited by the Union in the sense of material prosperity, the smaller and poorer country exerted far more influence on the politics, literature, and commerce of the wealthier one. It is no idle boast that Scotsmen reduced Canada, conquered India, suppressed the Sepoy Mutiny, and have furnished the United States with an immense number of the most intelligent and loyal citizens."

With less of rhetoric, but with equal emphasis, Mr. H. Casson, in *Munsey's Magazine*, lately wrote: "Probably no other nation has sent us so many men of rank and so few deadheads in proportion to the number of its immigrants."

The sentiment of Scottish nationality is kept alive in the States by numerous St. Andrew's Societies, Clan Societies, and Burns Clubs. These exist partly to help the few weaker brothers who fall out in the race, but still more to foster the love of Scottish literature and music. The oldest is the Scots Charitable Society of Boston, founded 1657, while the St. Andrew's Societies of Philadelphia and New York boast a history of over one hundred and fifty years.

Regarding the West Indies there is but little to note. Trinidad was captured from the Spaniards and French in 1797 by a British expedition under Sir Ralph Abercromby, who had previously crushed in St. Vincent the Carib Rising fomented by Frenchmen. Sir John Moore similarly saved St. Lucia in 1796.

In 1796 Sir Ralph Abercromby, with a small fleet, took possession of the "Three Rivers," now British Guiana, our only South American possession. The seizure was intended as a punishment to the Dutch for their alliance with Napoleon. The settlement was restored by the Treaty of Amiens in 1802, but became British again in the following year.

In the naval operations against the French during the Napoleonic period, especially in the West Indies, a prominent part was played by Sir David Milne (later Admiral Milne), a native of Edinburgh.

As most people are aware, Defoe's immortal *Robinson Crusoe* was suggested by the experience of Alexander Selkirk (1676-1721), a native of Largo in Fifeshire. Selkirk was marooned, and lived from 1704-09 as the only white inhabitant of the island of Juan Fernandez, over 400 miles west of South America. After his return to Scotland, Selkirk became a lieutenant in the navy.

CHAPTER XLV

SCOTSMEN AS PIONEERS: INDIA, AUSTRALASIA, AND THE FAR EAST.

“THE palm tree waveth high
And fair the myrtle springs,
And to the Indian maid
The bulbul sweetly sings ;
But I dinna see the broom
Wi’ its tassels on the lea,
Nor hear the lintie’s sang
O’ my ain countrie.”

R. GILFILLAN.

THE nominal connection of the British race with India dates from 31st December 1600, when the East India Company was incorporated, but not till 1612 did the Company gain a footing on Indian soil. Charles II. received Bombay as part of his consort’s dowry, and transferred it to the company for £10 a year. The real development of India as a British possession begins with 1757, when Clive’s brilliant victory of Plassey secured the possession of Bengal. From that date onwards Scotsmen have wielded much influence and performed many distinguished services in our great dependency.

Shortly after Plassey Sir Hector (then Major) Munro of Novar (1726–1805) defeated the Emperor of Delhi (Shah Alum) and the Nawab Wazir of Oude in the hard-won and decisive battle of Buxar (or Baxar). This great victory (in 1764) secured the

upper Ganges basin for Britain. The emperor (or Mogul) visited the British camp, and sued for terms of peace. Oude was allowed him, but the British were confirmed in possession of Bengal, Orissa, and Behar.

In August 1780 during the first Mahratta War, the fortress of Gwalior, declared by Sir Eyre Cote to be impregnable, was taken by Captain Bruce (brother of "Abyssinian Bruce") in one night with two companies of Sepoys and twenty British soldiers.

In the epoch-making siege and battle of Seringapatam in 1799, when Tippoo Sahib was slain, and Mysore came under British rule, the storming column was led by Sir David Baird (1757-1829), a native of Haddingtonshire.

One of the most outstanding names in Indian administration is that of Mountstuart Elphinstone (1779-1859). He first gained distinction in Sir Arthur Wellesley's campaigns, riding beside the future "Iron Duke" at the great victory of Assaye. In 1810 he became British resident at Poona, and in 1817, with the help of Colonel Thomas Munro and Sir John Malcolm, he brought the Mahratta War to an end. From 1819 till 1827 he was Governor of Bombay, and his tenure of office was distinguished by enlightened public policy and by the enthusiastic encouragement of education. The Elphinstone College at Bombay fitly commemorates his services in the latter respect. He put down the "dacoits," or robber-assassins, of the Deccan; and he was the foremost authority of his day on Indian and Afghan affairs. He was offered the governor-generalship of India, but declined the post.

It is satisfactory to know that the administration of Central India and the Deccan was entrusted to the men who had borne the brunt of the period of strife and warfare. Elphinstone, as Governor of Bombay, was

succeeded by Sir John Malcolm (1769–1833), a native of Langholm. Malcolm had in 1801 protected the north-west frontier of India from the imminent risk of an Afghan invasion fomented by the French. Subsequently he had acted as British Ambassador to Persia, and he now held office in Bombay for three years. Sir Thomas Munro (1761–1827), whose name we have found coupled with Malcolm's, was a native of Glasgow. He was made Governor of Madras in 1819, and he is held in remembrance for introducing a system of peasant-proprietorship in that district.

The Governor-General of India from 1807 to 1813 was Lord Minto (Sir Gilbert Elliot, 1751–1814), a native of Edinburgh. During his term of office, in 1810, the island of Mauritius was captured from the French by Sir John Abercromby, a son of Sir Ralph Abercromby.

Sir David Ochterlony (1758–1825), though born at Boston, Mass., was of Scottish descent. In 1804 he saved Delhi from attack, and in 1814–15 he took charge of the Nepal War against the Gurkhas. The treaty made by him after forcing his way to the native capital, Khatmandu, still forms the basis of our relations with those brave mountaineers, who now furnish our native army with its best personnel. Sir David afterwards did good service in pacifying Rajputana.

In March 1824, owing to attacks on British settlers in Rangoon and encroachments on Assam by the Burmese king in the previous year, a force of 11,000 men under General (later Sir Archibald) Campbell was sent up the course of the Irawadi. In June the stockade defences of the natives were overcome, but some months of inaction followed owing to the rainy season and the consequent flooding of the river-basin. In

December an advance was made up stream to Ava. In April the chief native commander was defeated and killed, but not till February 1826 was Campbell's task ultimately completed. By the treaty then made, the native monarch ceded to Britain various coast provinces, which formed the nucleus of our Burmese dominions. Campbell was Governor of Burmah from 1826 till 1829. Among Governors of Burmah (since the dethronement of Thebaw in 1885), Sir Alexander Mackenzie is gratefully remembered.

The tea-plant was discovered growing wild in Assam in 1826 by two brothers Bruce, and thenceforth that province developed into one of our most fertile sources of tea supply. The successful fostering of the tea industry in India was largely due to Hugh Falconer (1808-65), a native of Forres, who went to the East as a surgeon, and devoted great attention to botany, becoming superintendent of the Calcutta Botanical Garden. In the history of tea-growing in India another prominent name is that of the Scottish botanist Robert Fortune (1813-80), a native of Berwickshire, who investigated the flora of China and Japan.

The first Scottish missionary to India was Donald Mitchell, who resigned a commission in the army, and settled in 1823, about sixty miles south of Bombay, as an emissary of the Scottish Missionary Society. Within a year he died, but his work was carried on by Rev. John Wilson, D.D., F.R.S. (1804-75), a native of Lauder, who removed the mission headquarters to Bombay itself. There he was subsequently joined by Robert Nesbit, and in 1838 by Dr. Murray Mitchell (to whom fell the honour, as late as 1900, of moving the Uniting Act between the Free and United Presbyterian Churches). The work was taken over by the Church of Scotland in 1835, and, after the Disruption, by the Free

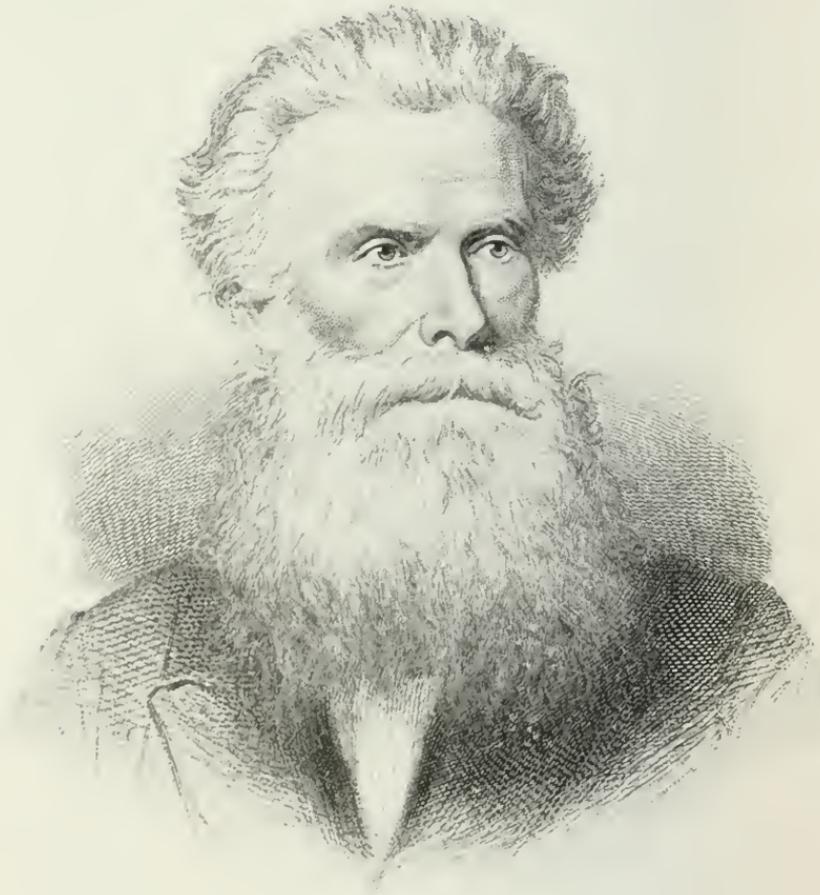
Church. Dr. Wilson busied himself with every possible form of philanthropy, and during the stormy days of 1857 his intimate knowledge of native life was of great service to the Government. His name is commemorated by the splendid Wilson College at Bombay.

Dr. Alexander Duff (1806-78), a native of Pitlochry, went to India in 1830, and ere long effected a revolution in missionary methods. He saw the necessity for general enlightenment as well as for religious instruction, and his plan of combining scientific, linguistic, and literary education with mission work, while it met for a time with bigoted opposition, has now found general acceptance. His methods gave a new impetus to Christian teaching, and as one of the founders of the University of Calcutta, Duff was largely responsible for the introduction of English as the main vehicle of higher education in India. His methods were adopted in Bombay in 1835 by Dr. John Wilson (above mentioned), and in Madras in 1837 by Rev. John Anderson. At the Disruption of 1843 Duff, through adherence to the Free Church, lost his mission property and had to commence anew. He returned to Scotland in 1863, permanently impaired in health, and became the first occupant of the Missionary Chair in New College, Edinburgh, for which he had himself collected the funds.

The school founded by Anderson at Madras has now developed into the admirable Madras Christian College, presided over by Dr. William Miller (b. Thurso, 1838). This college is acknowledged to be the largest and best equipped college in the East.

The highly successful Nagpur Mission was founded in 1845 by Stephen Hislop (1817-63), a native of Duns, in whose honour the Hislop College has been erected.

John Crawford (1783-1868), a native of Islay, who



ALEXANDER DUFF.

The First Foreign Missionary of the Church of Scotland.

went to India as an army surgeon, did important service to British interests in the East by his *Grammar and Dictionary of the Malay Language*, and other compilations dealing with Eastern matters.

In the opening up of Kashmir to Christianity, the pioneer was William J. Elmslie (1832-72), a native of Aberdeen, who, besides acting as a medical missionary for the last seven years of his life, compiled a dictionary of the native language of that district.

Sir Alexander Burnes (second cousin of the poet) was born at Montrose in 1805. He travelled in Afghan dress through what is now the north-western frontier district of India, as well as through Afghanistan and Persia. In 1837 he was stationed at Kabul with a view to furthering British commercial interests. In 1839 he was appointed British political resident at Kabul, but he was murdered along with his brother and others by the Afghans in 1841, a punitive expedition being dispatched in the following year under General Pollock. It is only bare justice to Burnes to mention that he had entirely disapproved of the fatal policy of expelling Dost Mohammed and restoring Shah Soojah, but that, to hide this fact, his dispatches had been "doctored" by the British Government before being presented to the House of Commons.

Sir Charles J. Napier (1782-1853), though generally reckoned an Irishman, was a descendant of Napier of Merchiston. His first acquaintance with war was made during the Peninsular campaigns. To his lot it fell to subdue the Mohammedan rulers of Seinde, and to secure to Britain the lower basin of the Indus. His greatest and most decisive victory was that of Meanee (or Miani) in February 1843, where he led his men sword in hand. In this battle, with less than 3000 men, he defeated over 20,000 Baluchis. He became

first Governor of Scinde, and in a few years this province was able to export grain, and entered on a career of industry and prosperity. He served later as commander-in-chief in India until 1851, when he quarrelled with Lord Dalhousie on the question of army reform. M'Carthy characterises Napier as "one of the most brilliant, daring, successful, eccentric, and self-conceited captains" who ever served the British Government.

In 1849, when the news of Lord Gough's repulse by the Sikhs at Chillianwallah reached London, the Duke of Wellington sent for Napier, who was then in Britain, and declared: "You must go, or I must go." Napier went, but, before his help was needed, Gough had redeemed his reverse by the victory of Gujerat, and ere long the Punjab was annexed.

Napier and his two brothers, George and William, were known as "Wellington's Colonels." Their mother was Lady Sarah Lennox, to whom George III. had been engaged before his accession to the throne.

William (Sir William F. P. Napier, 1785-1860) is best known as the historian of the Peninsular War. These Napiers were cousins of Admiral Sir Charles Napier, mentioned in Chapter XXXI.

Sir Robert G. Sandeman (1835-92), a native of Perth, saw service in the main actions of the Indian Mutiny, and in 1859 became assistant-commissioner of the Punjab. In dealing with the border tribes on the north-west frontier, and in his administration in general, his success was such that his name is a household word in Indian executive history.

The name of James Ramsay, Earl of Dalhousie, ranks as one of the three greatest in the history of British rule in India, alongside of those of Clive and Hastings. He was born in 1812 in Midlothian. His period of

office as Governor-General of India (1847-56) was marked by tremendous activity in every department of government and in all parts of the country. The Second Sikh War occurred during 1848-49, and secured the British hold of the Punjab. Under his rule Oude was annexed, and Pegu, with its excellent port of Rangoon. From 1850 onwards, railways were rapidly constructed over the main trade routes, and the Ganges Canal dates from the same period. Irrigation works brought fertility to districts hitherto barren, thousands of miles of roads and telegraphs were constructed, forestry and mining received a new impetus, while lighthouses and harbours made navigation possible and safe. Many of the abuses of native life, such as the sacrificing of widows, were put down with a firm hand; but in return the Civil Service was thrown open by competition to both blacks and whites, instead of being filled by nominees of the Company. By the time he left India he had well earned the title of "the greatest of Indian proconsuls." His health had been undermined by the too zealous performance of his arduous duties, and he died in December 1860.

Dalhousie's guiding principle, that "rulers exist only for the good of the ruled," while it led to the beneficent labours above detailed, caused him also at times to use towards native chiefs high-handed measures which fostered a hatred of British rule in such circles, and so far may have in some degree encouraged a mutinous spirit in certain quarters. On the other hand, it must be credited to his foresight that he had protested against the small proportion of British to native troops, in some districts as low as one to six. The Bengal army for instance had 118,000 natives to 22,700 Europeans; and it is now recognised that this tremendous disproportion, and the confidence thereby

engendered in the Sepoys as to their own power, were the main causes of the almost disastrous mutiny of 1857. In the general course of our narrative we have seen the part played by Scottish troops, and by the supreme genius of Lord Clyde, in the quelling of that rising.

After the transfer of India from the Company to the Crown, the first Scottish viceroy was James Bruce, Lord Elgin (whose father had in 1812 brought the "Elgin marbles" from Athens to the British Museum). He had already governed Jamaica and Canada. His promptitude in diverting his forces to India, while at Singapore on the way to China at the time of the outbreak of the Mutiny, had done much to save the British situation at that most critical period. Later on he secured an agreement with Japan for the opening of some of its ports to British commerce. Taking office in India in 1862, he died of heart disease in the following year while on a journey in the Punjab.

After the assassination of Lord Mayo in 1872, Lord Napier, Governor of Madras, became interim viceroy.

The present Lord Elgin, who was born at Montreal in 1849 during his father's tenure of office in Canada, was made Viceroy of India in 1894. During his five years in office Lord Elgin had to deal not only with various frontier campaigns, but with plague and famine, and with stupid native riots in Bombay and Calcutta in opposition to most necessary medical and sanitary measures.

The present viceroy, who has held office since 1905, is Lord Minto. Born in 1847, of the famous Elliot family, his lordship was Governor-General of Canada from 1898 till 1904.

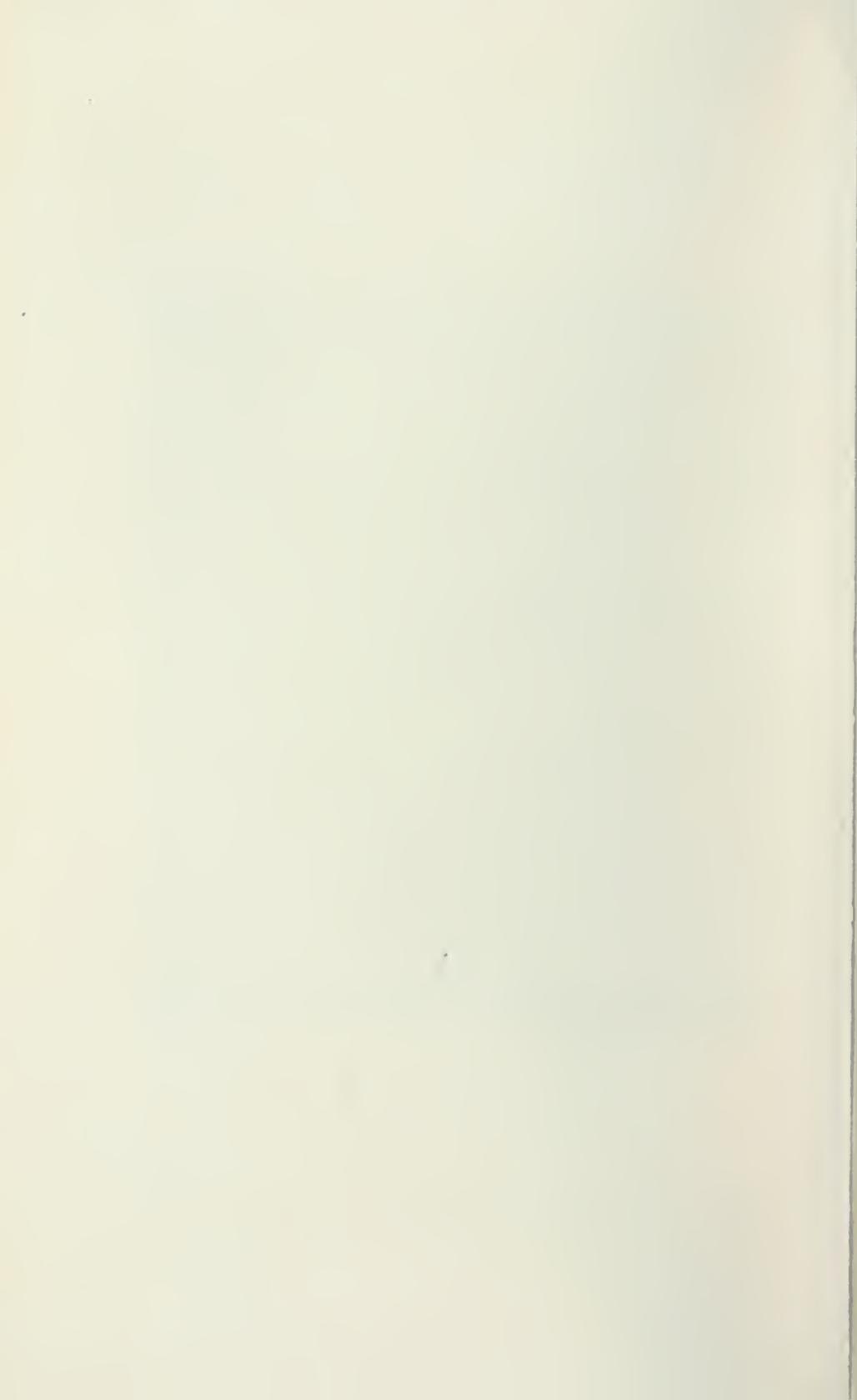
Among historical works on India a premier place is held by the *History of the Mahrattas*, by James



Sir John Watson Gordon, P.R.S.A.

Photo by Emery Watson.

THE MARQUESS OF DALHOUSIE.



Grant Duff (1789–1858), a native of Banff, who served under the East India Company.

Sir William W. Hunter (1840–1900), an Aberdonian, as director-general of Indian statistics, carried out the first census of our huge dependency, and supervised the exhaustive *Statistical Survey of India*, besides writing various historical and geographical works on the country, and compiling a *Dictionary of the Non-Aryan Languages of India*.

John Muir (1810–82), a native of Glasgow, ranks as one of the greatest Sanskrit scholars. After twenty-four years in India he wrote numerous works dealing with India and its languages, and founded the Sanskrit Chair and lectureship in comparative philology at Edinburgh.

Sir William Muir (1819–1905), his brother, held numerous high administrative positions in India, and for the last seventeen years of his life was Principal of Edinburgh University.

Scotsmen at the present day fill many of the foremost positions in the military, administrative, and commercial life of India. In the jute trade of Calcutta they hold a special pre-eminence, and in indigo, cotton, and tea concerns they are frequently found as managers. In railway administration they stand high, and the British India Line of steamers belongs to a Scottish firm.

One of the most startling illustrations of the prominent positions occupied by Scotsmen was afforded on St. Andrew's Day 1904, as the following extract from next day's *Englishman* (of Calcutta) will show: "It must be confessed that, whether by merit or by luck, Scotsmen have a remarkable knack of getting to the head of affairs, especially in India. Last night, for example, the presidents of the St. Andrew's

dinners in the three presidency towns were the governors of the presidencies—Sir Andrew Fraser in Calcutta, Lord Lamington in Bombay, and Sir James Thomson in Madras. Nor is this coincidence a thing very much out of the common. The Scottish race has two virtues which are not soon likely to forsake it. It is intensely patriotic; and it is fraternal to the point at which sentiment ceases to be such, and becomes almost a religion. The Scottish have a national idea which the English have either lost or never attained." Among the telegrams received at the Calcutta function was one from the viceroy, Lord Curzon: "Nobody appreciates more than I do the parts that Scotsmen have played and are still playing in the work of the empire."

Among Arabic scholars a prominent place belongs to Ion Grant Keith-Falconer (b. 1856 at Edinburgh), son of the Earl of Kintore, who became Hebrew lecturer and Professor of Arabic at Cambridge. He determined to utilise his knowledge of the Arabic language by founding a mission in the Arabian peninsula near Aden, but within five months of settling there he succumbed to fever (May 1887). The "Keith-Falconer Mission" of the United Free Church carries on his work.

No story of romance is more striking than the history of the rapid development of the great Australian continent into a British Colonial Commonwealth within the past century. The first white men to discover and to covet this enormous island were the Dutch, and well into the nineteenth century the island figures in maps as New Holland. The first Briton whose name is associated with Australia is the Englishman, Captain Cook, who rediscovered Australia and explored New

Zealand in 1769-70. The loss of the New England States in 1783 closed America as a receptacle for convicts, and the British Government decided to use Australia for this purpose. The first white settlement therefore consisted of a thousand convicts sent out in January 1788 to Port Jackson Harbour, and ere long "Botany Bay" became a household word as a synonym for banishment. By the year 1800 the whites in Australia numbered only 6000.

The first four governors of New South Wales were naval officers, one of them (governor from 1795 to 1800) being Admiral John Hunter, a native of Leith, who had won distinction at the taking of Quebec and the defence of Gibraltar. These governors applied to the settlers under their control the disciplinary methods natural to naval minds, and it was not till the period between 1810 and 1821, during which Colonel Lachlan Macquarie was first civil governor of New South Wales, that the premier settlement of Australia began to emerge into something like settled prosperity. Macquarie was a Highlander, of Mull ancestry, and he enjoys the honourable distinction of being the first governor who endeavoured to raise the convicts into worthy citizens instead of merely exploiting them as money-making machines. Under his beneficent rule roads were made, and public works begun. Sydney was remodelled and rebuilt, and hospitals and public buildings were erected. The Blue Mountains were crossed and surveyed, and the valuable pasture land behind them was discovered. The improved conditions of life encouraged free settlers to arrive from the home-country, and a foundation was thus laid on a better basis for the future advance of the colony. The Lachlan and Macquarie Rivers preserve the name of this pioneer of good government. From about 1840

the transportation system fell into disuse in Eastern Australia, and in 1868 it was finally abolished even as regarded Western Australia.

The development of Australia's prime industry, sheep-farming, owes most of its conspicuous success to a Scot, Captain John M'Arthur, of the New South Wales Corps, who spent years in studying the effects of the Australian climate on various breeds of sheep. At first ordinary breeds of sheep from Britain and South Africa were tried, but in 1797 M'Arthur introduced some Spanish merinos from the Cape of Good Hope, and later he was privileged by obtaining some of the best specimens from King George III.'s own flocks. Ere long Australia was able to compete in wools with the finest produce of Saxony and Spain, and in 1804 M'Arthur was rewarded by a grant of 10,000 acres of land in New South Wales. About 1820 M'Arthur likewise introduced the vine to Australia, plants being brought from France and from the Rhine, and found to do well.

Governor Macquarie was succeeded by General Sir Thomas Macdougall Brisbane (1773-1860), who was born at Brisbane House, near Largs. While fulfilling his duties as governor from 1821 to 1825, Brisbane likewise devoted his attention to astronomy, and performed a valuable service to that science by cataloguing 7000 stars. In this work Brisbane had the invaluable help of James Duncan (1795-1848), a native of Ayrshire, who later became head of the Paramatta observatory in New South Wales. In 1823 the hitherto absolute power of the governor was limited by the appointment of a Legislative Council,—the first germ of constitutional government in Australia. In 1842 this Council developed into a local Parliament.

In the exploration of the interior of Australia the

difficulties met with consisted neither in wild animals nor usually to any serious extent in hostile natives, but in the arid climate and in the great tracts of barren soil to be crossed. The main quality required was therefore endurance rather than dash, and it is not surprising, in view of this, to find numerous Scotsmen among the pioneers of Australian travel. The first internal exploring expedition of importance was that organised by Macquarie in 1817, and commanded by Oxley. Among the Scottish members of the expedition were Allan Cunningham (who completed the work so well begun by Robert Brown in classifying and describing the Australian flora), and Charles Fraser, another distinguished colonial botanist.

This expedition traced the course of the Lachlan River, and ten years later (1827-29) Cunningham explored the district watered by the Brisbane River, and discovered the excellent pastoral districts of the Liverpool Plains and the Darling Downs, the paradise of the agriculturist and the sheep-farmer. The pass by which he entered the Darling Downs is still named Cunningham's Gap. In 1822 Lieutenant Johnston, of the Royal Navy, discovered and named the river Clyde, and learned the fate of Captain Stuart, who had preceded him, but had been murdered by unfriendly natives.

Next in time came the three expeditions by the Englishman, Captain Sturt, 1828-45, from the last of which he returned blind. He received a well-merited pension in 1851 from the newly constituted South Australian Parliament.

During the same period occurred the expeditions of Major Mitchell (later Sir Thomas L. Mitchell, 1792-1855), a native of Stirlingshire. In 1828 he became surveyor-general of New South Wales. In

four expeditions, between 1831 and 1847, he did much to explore south-eastern Australia ("Australia Felix," as he called it) and parts of the tropical interior, especially in the neighbourhood of the Darling, Murray, Glenelg, and Barcoo Rivers. During Mitchell's 1835 expedition, Richard Cunningham (brother of Allan) was killed by natives. In 1836 Mitchell crossed from Sydney to the south coast, by way of the Lachlan and Murray Rivers, reaching a point one hundred and fifty miles west of Port Philip Bay. In 1845 he discovered the Victoria or Barcoo River, which constitutes the upper course of Cooper's Creek, one of the "continental" rivers flowing into Lake Eyre.

In 1840 Angus M'Millan (1810-1865), a Skye man, along with a companion named Cameron, explored the fertile district of Gippsland in south-eastern Australia, between Wilson's Promontory and Cape Howe, and established its value for squatting purposes.

Francis Cadell (1822-79), a native of Cockenzie, after seeing military service in China, went to Australia in 1848. During the next eleven years he carried out a series of expeditions in the south-eastern part of that continent, and his name is especially associated with the exploration of the Murray River, as well as of the Darling and other tributaries.

From specimens of rock from the Australian Alps the famous Scottish geologist, Sir Roderick Murchison, predicted in 1840 the discovery of gold, and the first nugget actually discovered was found by a Scottish shepherd named Macgregor. The "gold-rush" began about 1850, and owing to the influx of population it soon became necessary to subdivide New South Wales. Two new colonies were accordingly constituted, Victoria in 1851, and Queensland in 1859. Tasmania and South Australia also received constitutions in the

former year, and New Zealand a year later. The white population of Australia was now nearly half a million, and within about ten years it trebled itself.

The development of the silver-mining industry owed its beginnings to a Glasgow man, George M'Culloch (b. 1848). After attempting sheep-farming in South America, M'Culloch arrived in New South Wales, and spent many years there in the same pursuit. On the discovery of silver in the now famous Broken Hill district, M'Culloch at once threw all his energies into the new industry. Although he had arrived in Australia a very poor man, he left, at his death in December 1907, estate amounting to close on £400,000. Like many wealthy Scots, he was a generous patron of Art, and he amassed what was admittedly the best collection of pictures by British artists of the present generation, together with an excellent hall of sculpture.

Returning to the roll of Australian explorers, we next meet the names of the brothers Augustus, Charles, and Frank Gregory, sons of Lieutenant Gregory of the 78th Highlanders. The first-named was sent in search of the unfortunate Leichhardt Expedition, lost in north-eastern Australia in 1848. Later, in 1855-56, and again in 1858, he explored enormous tracts of what now forms Queensland.

Second only to Sturt in daring, and second to no one in success and in the importance of his work in Australian travel, ranks John MacDouall Stuart (1816-66), a native of Dysart, in Fifeshire. Stuart arrived in South Australia in 1839, and in 1844 he was with Sturt on his travels. The South Australian Government having offered a reward of £2000 to the first man who should cross the continent from south to north, Stuart set out in 1860 with only

two companions, and reached a point within four hundred miles of his goal, but was forced to return owing to the hostility of the natives. Next year he reached to within 250 miles of the north coast. In December 1861 he set out for the third time, and on 24th July 1862, he at last accomplished his task, and planted the Union Jack on the shores of the Indian Ocean. He returned successfully in December of the same year. The journey had been performed without loss of life, in which respect Stuart was almost a unique explorer. His own right hand, however, had become practically useless, and his sight was almost gone, as the results of scurvy. He reported with cheery optimism on the possibility of laying a telegraphic connection from sea to sea, and his advice was accepted. It is impossible to estimate the commercial results and the sentimental value of the link thus rendered possible between the homeland and the Australasian colonies, and it is satisfactory to know that Stuart's work met with due appreciation. Besides rewards from the South Australian Government, he received the Royal Geographical Society's gold medal. Ordered to Britain for his health's sake in 1864, Stuart only survived till two years later, having literally given his life to the cause of Australian exploration. His name is preserved in "Central Mount Stuart" in the heart of Australia.

While Stuart had succeeded in crossing the continent and returning in safety, a similar expedition under Burke and Wills had ended in disaster. In the search for news of this expedition, two Scots, M'Kinlay and Landsborough, did valuable service in exploring the interior.

John M'Kinlay (1819-72), a native of Sandbank, on the Firth of Clyde, started from South Australia in 1861, and travelling by way of Cooper's Creek, reached

the Gulf of Carpentaria by May 1862. Thence he returned through Queensland, arriving at Melbourne in September. In the course of his travels he had discovered the Diamantina River.

William Landsborough (d. 1886), the son of an Ayrshire doctor, and himself a native of Stevenston in that county, was sent in 1861 in search of Burke and Wills. In 1862 he crossed Australia from the Gulf of Carpentaria to Melbourne.

We may round off our list of Scottish explorers by the mention of the fact that Captain Stirling (afterwards Admiral Sir James Stirling), a native of Lanarkshire, was the first to decide (in 1827) on the suitability of the Swan River as a place for settlement. In 1829 he was made the first governor of what has now developed into the colony of Western Australia.

In Australian politics one of the very foremost names is that of the Rev. Dr. John D. Lang, born at Greenock in 1799, and minister of the Scots Church in Sydney from 1823 till his death in 1878. For twenty years, from 1850 till 1870, he was in the hottest of the fight in the arena of parliamentary life, figuring throughout as a sincere and ardent reformer, opposing the transportation of criminals to Australia, and encouraging free immigration. His advocacy of autonomy was not dictated by a selfish parochialism, as he was one of the prime movers in the separation of Victoria and Queensland from New South Wales. It has been well said of him: "He saw the foundations of a nation laid, and was an instrument in the work."

Sir James M'Culloch (1819-93), a native of Glasgow, was four times Prime Minister of Victoria.

James Service (1823-99), a native of Ayrshire, emigrated to Melbourne at the age of thirty, and founded a prosperous commercial firm. In 1883 he

became Premier of Victoria, and in 1884 he carried a Bill for the formation of a Federal Council for Australia, one of the most important steps towards the formation of the Commonwealth Parliament.

Duncan Gillies (1834-1903), a native of Glasgow, emigrated to Australia during the "gold rush." From 1859 to 1894 he sat in the Victorian Parliament, holding numerous posts, including those of Premier and Treasurer. In 1890 he presided at the Federal Conference held in Melbourne. From 1894 to 1896 he was agent-general in London for his colony.

Sir Thomas M'Ilwraith (1835-1900), a native of Ayr, went to Australia as a railway engineer. He was three times Premier of Queensland, and during his first term of office New Guinea was annexed.

Sir John Forrest (b. in Western Australia in 1847) was the first Premier of that colony, holding office from 1890-1901. In the Commonwealth Government he was Minister of State for Home Affairs, 1903-4. He represented his colony at both of Queen Victoria's Jubilees, and his power in his own district is so great that in the united Parliament he is known as the "Emperor of the West."

Sir John Alexander Cockburn (b. 1850), a native of Duns, who settled in South Australia as a doctor, entered the South Australian Parliament, and became Minister of Education and Agriculture. He has at various times represented his colony at international and intercolonial conferences.

The Earl of Kintore (Sir A. H. T. Keith-Falconer, b. Edinburgh 1852), the representative of the old Earls Marischal, became in 1889 governor and commander-in-chief of South Australia.

The most prominent Scot in the present-day politics of Australia is the Honourable George Houston Reid,

born in 1845 at Johnstone, in Renfrewshire. He became Minister of Education in the New South Wales Legislative Assembly in 1883, and Premier in 1894. He was a strong advocate of federation, and was Premier of the Commonwealth of Australia from 1904 till 1905. He is the recognised leader of the Free Trade party in Australia.

Negotiations for the federation of the Australian colonies were carried on at intervals, and in 1895 a conference of the various premiers was held at Hobart. The enthusiasm of the Diamond Jubilee year helped the movement forward.

When the Australian Commonwealth, combining the five Australian colonies and Tasmania, was constituted at the end of the nineteenth century, the first Governor-General was a Scotsman, the Earl of Hopetoun (1860-1908), who had previously been Governor of Victoria (1889-95). Not being endowed with the ideas of frugality and absence of display usually attributed to his countrymen, he relinquished the post in 1902 on the ground of the insufficiency of the allowance placed at his disposal. He was created Marquis of Linlithgow, and for a short period in 1905 was Secretary for Scotland.

In 1908 Sir Thomas D. Gibson Carmichael, a well-known Scottish politician and Art patron, was appointed Governor of Victoria. Among distinguished visitors to Scotland in July of the same year were two prominent Australian politicians,—Sir Joseph H. Carruthers, ex-Premier of New South Wales (1904-7), the son of a Glasgow man, and the Honourable William Kidston, Premier and State Treasurer of Queensland, a "Falkirk bairn," who has been a member of the Queensland Parliament for a quarter of a century.

The best-known of Australian poets rejoiced in the

typically Scottish name of Adam Lindsay Gordon (1833-1870). In Australian journalism no names have ranked higher than those of the brothers Ebenezer and David Syme, natives of North Berwick, and sons of a Scottish school teacher. Their paper, the *Melbourne Age*, has been since 1859 the most influential paper in Australia, attaining a daily circulation of over 100,000. Its fearless Liberalism is credited with having led public opinion, instead of merely following it, as so many newspapers do. The recent death of David Syme (1907), who survived his brother by more than a generation, severed one of the most interesting links between the period of struggle and that of attainment in Australian politics.

The great Australian prima donna who has risen to fame and wealth under the name of Madame Melba, drew her assumed name from Melbourne, where she was born in 1865. She is the daughter of David Mitchell of Forfarshire and of Isabel Dow, and her married name is Armstrong. She first appeared in public in her native country, and her reception encouraged her to come to Europe, where she studied under Madame Marchesi in Paris. Her European début was made in the Brussels opera-house in 1887, and in turn thereafter she captivated Paris, London, and St. Petersburg. She is to-day one of the most noted social hostesses in London.

In every sphere of commercial life in Australia the Scot is well to the front. Whether in the great business concerns of Melbourne and Sydney, or in the quieter pursuits of the squatter, his intelligence, honesty, and perseverance have gained him places of honour, influence, and profit.

Speaking at Edinburgh in 1907, Mr. Deakin, Premier of the Commonwealth, remarked how Scotsmen

were "highly prized in every one of the dominions over sea. . . . The Scotsmen who went out there remained ardent Scotsmen, but they became and continued most loyal and faithful Australians; and they were ardent Imperialists also to a man. And it was because they had this double or triple nationality, and showed that they could be at the same time faithful to their Scottish memories and traditions, faithful to the obligations of the new land in which they lived, and faithful to the empire under the protection of whose flag those countries were enabled to grow and prosper,—it was because in their own person the Scotch united these three loyalties that they went so far to help them to solve that problem of Empire which, so far as they were concerned, was the greatest present practical problem in the world to-day."

In connection with New Zealand—the "Britain of the Antipodes"—Scottish interest centres chiefly in Dunedin. This town, which disputes with Christchurch the position of supremacy in the South Island of New Zealand, owes its origin to the Free Church of Scotland. Captain William Cargill, a Peninsular veteran, and a descendant of Donald Cargill, founded the Otago Settlement in 1848, under the auspices of the Otago Association connected with the Free Church; and in the same year Dunedin was founded by a body of Free Kirk Scots under Rev. Thomas Burns of Portobello, a nephew of the poet Burns. It was at first proposed to name the town New Edinburgh, but on the suggestion of Dr. William Chambers of Edinburgh, the name was given the Celtic form which it still proudly bears. The harbour was named Port-Chalmers. In 1861 an impetus was given to the growth of Dunedin by the discovery of extensive gold-fields in its neighbourhood, and to-day it ranks as

the principal commercial centre in the whole colony of New Zealand. In its sturdy Presbyterianism, its architectural beauty, and its high regard for education, the city has proved itself worthy of its greater namesake. It was the first town in New Zealand to found a university college. It is interesting to note that, at the time of the jubilee of Otago, the chief magistrate of Dunedin, now a town of 50,000 people, was a son of Captain Cargill.

In regard to Scotsmen in New Zealand as a whole, Sir Joseph Ward, the Premier, recently observed how "their friends from the old land had carried into the new one of New Zealand the arts, sciences, and commerce that they were taught before they went from Scotland."

Mr. W. P. Reeves declares that "in proportion to their numbers the Scots are more prominent than other races in politics, commerce, finance, sheep-farming, and the work of education," and he notes that the "Celtic element" in New Zealand is "larger than in England or in the Scottish Lowlands."

Sir Robert Stout (b. Shetland Islands, 1844), who returned to Britain in 1909, after forty-six years' stay in New Zealand, having held the offices of Premier and Minister of Education (1884-7), and Chief Justice (from 1899 onwards), declares: "New Zealand might appropriately have been called New Scotland. It is the most Scotch of all the Colonies. Two-thirds of the Ministers are Scotch to-day."

Prominent among Scotsmen who have served the colony well stands General Sir Duncan A. Cameron (1808-88), who commanded the Black Watch at the Battle of the Alma, and who was sent to New Zealand in 1863 to quell the Maori Rising. After a first skirmish in July, he waited till October before advancing against the Waikato and Tauranga tribes, and

only by February did he finish his task. The result was a quarrel between Cameron and the governor, Sir George Grey. Cameron received the support of the Colonial Office, which favoured a merciful policy towards the natives, in opposition to Grey's desire for a more energetic and masterful attitude.

For our later success in dealing with the native question, prime credit is due to Sir Donald MacLean, a stalwart Highlander, who, as governor from 1869 till 1876, earned the confidence of the Maoris by his thorough understanding of their character. Since his time there has been no serious native difficulty, and Britain has some reason to be proud of the presence of native members in the New Zealand Parliament. MacLean showed much energy and enterprise in pushing on the construction of roads, railways, and telegraphs.

The death of Sir James Hector in 1907 robbed New Zealand and the world of one of the foremost geologists of this generation. A native of Edinburgh, he first gained pioneer experience in the Palliser expedition to North America, which he accompanied as surgeon, naturalist, and geologist. To this expedition fell the credit of discovering the pass by which the Canadian Pacific Railway crosses the Rocky Mountains into British Columbia. From 1865 till his death he was director of the Geological Survey of New Zealand.

As Scotsmen who have been Governors of New Zealand there fall to be mentioned Sir James Fergusson (1873), who had formerly been Governor of South Australia, and who later became Governor of Bombay; Sir A. H. Gordon (son of the fourth Earl of Aberdeen), governor in 1880, and the Earl of Glasgow (1892).

About 500 miles to the south-west of Java lie a group of coral islands known as the Cocos or Keeling

Islands, inhabited by Malays. These came into the ownership of a Scotsman named Ross, who acted as "king" of the group. Since 1886 they have been connected with the Straits Settlements.

Among pioneer missionaries a prominent place may be claimed for Rev. James Chalmers (1841-1901), a native of Ardrishaig, who devoted his energies first to the island of Raratonga for ten years from 1866, and afterwards to the southern parts of the great island of New Guinea, lying to the north of Australia. R. L. Stevenson characterised Chalmers as "a man that took me fairly by storm for the most attractive, simple, brave and interesting man in the whole Pacific." After giving much help to the British Government in the establishment of its Protectorate over the south-eastern district of New Guinea, Chalmers was killed by cannibals.

Perhaps even a more famous name is that of the Rev. John G. Paton, the intrepid missionary to the New Hebrides. Born in Dumfriesshire in 1824, Paton was in succession field labourer, school teacher, and Glasgow city missionary. In 1858 he was sent by the Reformed Presbyterian Church as its missionary to the group of cannibal islands known as the New Hebrides, lying to the west of the Fiji Islands in the South Pacific. Successful work had already been done on the island of Aneityum by Dr. Inglis, a missionary sent out by the same body, and by Dr. Geddie from Nova Scotia. Paton laboured for four years against hopeless odds on the island of Tanna, and at last left it in despair, barely escaping with his life. In 1865 he was taken over by the Presbyterian Church of Australia, and in November of the following year he took up his quarters on the island of Aniwa. For over fifteen years he did remarkable work in reclaiming that part of the

heathen world, and he had the satisfaction of seeing missionaries at last accepted by his old enemies in Tanna. In his later years, till his death early in 1907, Dr. Paton lived chiefly in the Australian colonies, paying occasional visits to the scenes of his former labours, and undertaking world-wide journeys to plead for support on behalf of the mission schemes which he had so much at heart.

Politically and religiously Scotsmen have made their mark on China. During the Chinese War of 1839 the island of Hong Kong, whose harbour of Victoria is now one of our most valued possessions, was taken by Captain Elliot, and the neighbouring Kowloon Peninsula became British by the Treaty of Tientsin, concluded by Lord Elgin in 1861. Lord Elgin's brother, Mr. Fred. Bruce, had been sent in 1859 as Minister Plenipotentiary to China, to enforce the ratification at Peking of a treaty made in the previous year. Though supported by Admiral Hope, he failed to force a passage up the Peiho River. Next year Lord Elgin, with Sir James Hope Grant (1808-75) as commander-in-chief of his expedition, captured the Taku Forts and enforced the British Government's demands. As a punishment for the kidnapping, ill-treating, and murder of thirteen British envoys, Lord Elgin destroyed the Summer Palace of China, one of the greatest repositories of antiquarian treasures the world has ever seen. His action has often been severely criticised, but has been defended on the ground that it was necessary to punish the ruling house directly, instead of allowing them to thwart European vengeance by a mere sacrifice of unoffending natives chosen at random and made to suffer for the real culprits.

Sir James Hope Grant (above mentioned) was a native of Perthshire. He had played a prominent part in the suppression of the Indian Mutiny, and later he introduced the "war game" as a training for officers, and instituted the autumn manœuvres of the British Army.

The founder of Protestant missions in China was Robert Morrison, born in England of Scottish parents in 1782. He began the work of life as a last-maker. In 1807 he was sent to Canton by the London Missionary Society, but after a time he had to remove to Macao, where he was joined by another Scot, William Milne. He laboured in the East till his death in 1834. Apart from his missionary work, which included the translation of the New Testament, finished in 1813, and of the Old Testament, finished with Milne's help by 1819, Morrison wrote a *Chinese Grammar*, and was commissioned by the East India Company to compile his *Chinese Dictionary* in six volumes, which is still a standard work.

William Chalmers Burns (1813-68), born in a Scottish manse near Brechin, devoted his life after 1846 to the cause of Chinese missions, ending his days in Manchuria, where he had spent his last year as a pioneer of Christianity. There are now about 4000 Christian missionaries in China.

During 1863-64 the Chinese Government had to deal with a serious native outbreak, the Taiping Rebellion. This rising was effectively dealt with by General C. G. Gordon ("Chinese Gordon"), who organised a Chinese force under British and American officers, and crushed the rebels in a series of over thirty battles. The history of Gordon's *Ever-Victorious Army* was written by Andrew Wilson, a Scotsman who travelled extensively in Baluchistan and Tibet, besides editing at different periods the

Bombay Times and the *China Mail*. His father, Dr. John Wilson, has already been mentioned as one of the earliest Scottish missionaries to India.

Sir Halliday Macartney (1833-1906, b. Kirkcudbrightshire), or, as he is oftener called, "Chinese Macartney," after twenty years of work on behalf of the native Government in China, became in 1876 Secretary to the Chinese Legation in London. After nearly a generation of service there, he retired in 1903 to spend his well-earned leisure in Scotland, which he had left in 1858 after taking his medical degree at Edinburgh University.

The most striking phenomenon in the Far East in recent years has been the astounding progress of Japan. By her frank acceptance of western civilisation she has sprung in less than a generation into the position of one of the world's great Powers. In no respect has her development been more rapid than in the various branches of engineering activity, and in her acquisition of naval efficiency, as shown in her struggle with Russia in 1904. Her first real impetus in these directions was given by a Glasgow man, Dr. Henry Dyer (b. 1848), now a prominent member of School Board and a governor of the Technical College in that city. For ten years, from 1873, Dr. Dyer was engaged in organising the Imperial College of Engineering at Tokyo, and in setting afoot classes in various departments of engineering science, such as civil engineering, mechanical engineering, naval architecture, electrical engineering, mining and metallurgy. Personally, besides being Principal of the college, he acted as Professor of Engineering and as director of engineering works in the Public Works Department. Incidentally it is worthy of mention that this college was the first in the world to have a properly equipped

engineering laboratory. The students of the Tokyo College are the men who have worked as pioneers of the great awakening of Japanese energy which has so arrested the world's attention. Dr. Dyer was awarded the Order of the Rising Sun, the highest honour hitherto bestowed on a foreign employee of the Japanese Government, and recently the emperor has conferred on him the second class of the Order of the Sacred Treasure in recognition of the great work done by his students in the making of modern Japan. Marquis (later Prince) Ito, Premier of Japan, thus expressed his appreciation of Dr. Dyer's work: "That Japan can boast to-day of being able to undertake such industrial works as the construction of railways, telegraphs, telephones, shipbuilding, working of mines, and other manufacturing works, entirely by the hands of Japanese engineers, is mainly attributable to the college so ably established and set in motion by you." James A. Ewing (b. Dundee, 1855), who from 1878-83 was Professor of Mechanical Engineering at Tokyo University, was appointed to a similar position in Dundee, and next became Professor of Applied Mechanics at Cambridge. Since 1903 he has been Director of Naval Education under the British Government.

In the same year as the Imperial College was founded, Commander Douglas (b. 1842 at Quebec, now Admiral Sir Archd. Douglas), assisted by a staff of British naval officers, took charge of the instruction in the new Naval College at Tokyo. The students of this college were the admirals and officers of the victorious Japanese navy of 1904.

Sir Claude Macdonald (b. 1852) was British Minister at Peking from 1896-1900, and in that capacity sustained the Boxers' siege in 1900. For the past few years he has served as British Ambassador to Japan.

CHAPTER XLVI

IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

“GOD of our fathers, known of old,
Lord of our far-flung battle-line,
Beneath whose awful hand we hold
Dominion over palm and pine,—
Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet,
Lest we forget,—lest we forget!”

KIPLING.

THE first month of the twentieth century witnessed the passing of the great queen, who had so long been as a mother to the British people.

The succession fell to her son Albert Edward, born 9th November 1841. It may be remarked that he had been for a time a student of Edinburgh University. In 1863 he had married Princess Alexandra of Denmark. He was proclaimed as king on 24th January 1901, and in his speech to Parliament he declared his intention to follow his mother's example as a ruler. “I need hardly say that my constant endeavour will be always to walk in her footsteps. In undertaking the heavy load which now devolves upon me, I am fully determined to be a constitutional sovereign in the strictest sense of the word, and, as long as there is breath in my body, to work for the good of my people.” The promise thus clearly made has in general been loyally fulfilled by the king since ascending the throne. Guided by a sincere desire to cultivate the

best relations with other Powers, he has earned the title of Edward the Peacemaker, and has in many respects proved himself a worthy successor to the late queen.

Unfortunately, almost his first official act gave just cause of displeasure to his Scottish subjects. It was believed that in dropping the name of Albert, and choosing to be known as Edward, he was fulfilling his mother's desire, and at any rate this change was not open to any serious objection. But in affixing "the Seventh" to the name Edward he for once deviated from his proverbial tactfulness. To any person who has a clear apprehension of the meaning of the Act of Union of 1707 it is of course obvious that the United Kingdom was a new creation, superseding the kingdoms of both England and Scotland. Over that new kingdom no Edward had ever ruled, and the numeral VII. by which the king attached his reign to that of the six Edwards of England, evoked loud protests in Scotland, and awakened many Scottish people to a sense of the extent to which the English mind had come to ignore Scotland, or to regard it as a mere province of England itself. Among other practical results of this awakening may be mentioned the founding of the Scottish Patriotic Association, which, although small in numbers, has played a prominent part in that undoubted re-awakening of Scottish sentiment which is so obvious a feature of the past few years. This association formally protested against the title at the field of Bannockburn, on the anniversary of that battle in June 1901. Copies of the protest were signed by large numbers of people throughout the country, and the Glasgow corporation accepted the custody of the protest with its five bulky volumes of signatures, placing these in the Art Gallery

of the city. That the objection to the title was not the act of any mere section of extremists was proved by the deliberate omission of "the numeral" in the Church of Scotland's loyal address to the king, and in every printed or oral official reference to his title when he visited Glasgow in May 1903. In Parliament, unfortunately, the protests and questions on the matter were solely made by Scottish Liberal members, and in consequence the Ministerialists, such as Mr. A. Graham Murray¹ as Lord Advocate, seemed to regard the question as a subject for shallow ridicule. Hence the very men who should have seen the injustice righted enlisted themselves in its defence, and every coin issued from the Mint now bears on its face this unfortunate historical blunder. That it was not impossible to alter the title had those in power so chosen, was shown by the augmentation of the king's title some months after his accession to "King of Great Britain and Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the seas, Emperor of India."

The king manifested much public spirit in deciding that the tour of the Duke and Duchess of York (now Prince and Princess of Wales) to the various British Colonies and Dependencies should proceed in spite of his natural desire to have his son at hand in his new and arduous duties. Setting out in the *Ophir*, the royal pair received a hearty welcome on their long journey, and the duke on his return summed up his impressions by the oft-quoted statement that "the old country must wake up." He again, with his partner, paid a visit to India from October 1905 till the spring of the next year.

The census of 1901 revealed the fact that the population of Scotland had at last outstripped that

¹ Now Lord Dunedin.

of Ireland. It totalled 4,483,880 souls. Somewhat serious reflections are called forth by the fact that in round numbers 70 per cent. of Scottish people live in towns, 10 per cent. in villages, and only 20 per cent. in rural districts.

The Glasgow Exhibition of 1901, which was aided by an exceptionally fine summer, proved one of the most successful on record, there being eleven and a half millions of admissions, while a surplus of about £40,000 was left available for the encouragement of Art in the city.

The Coronation had been fixed for 26th June 1902, but the event had to be hurriedly postponed owing to a serious illness of the king, which necessitated an operation. After a delay of six weeks the ceremony took place on 9th August in Westminster Abbey.

It was a matter for national satisfaction that the long, weary struggle in South Africa had ere this come to an end by the signing of terms of peace with the Boers at Pretoria on 31st May.

In July 1902 Lord Salisbury resigned the premiership, having held that high office for a longer aggregate time than any other statesman since the passing of the Reform Act. Although a staunch Conservative by training and instinct, he had earned the respect of all parties by his transparent honesty of purpose, and by his admirable hold on foreign politics. He was succeeded by his nephew, Mr. Arthur James Balfour.

Born in 1848, Mr. Balfour had when a lad succeeded to his father's estate of Whittinghame in Haddingtonshire. Entering the House of Commons in 1874 he was for a time associated with Lord Randolph Churchill's "Fourth Party." He became in 1885 President of the Local Government Board, in 1886 Secretary for Scotland, and in the following year



W. E. Lockhart, R.S.A.

Photo by Annan & Sons.

ARTHUR J. BALFOUR.

Secretary for Ireland. It was in this capacity that his sterling abilities were first fully recognised, and even the Nationalists who baited "Bloody Balfour" were forced to recognise the cleverness and the good intentions of their ever-courteous opponent. During 1891-92, and again from 1895-1902, Mr. Balfour was Leader of the House of Commons, and in the latter year Parliament accepted in his person the fourth Scottish Premier in British history. Apart from politics Mr. Balfour is known as a litterateur and philosopher of no mean power, as his *Defence of Philosophic Doubt* and *Foundations of Belief* testify. In the House he was recognised as a splendid debater, while his Conservatism was infused with a moral purpose which placed him on an entirely different plane from such predecessors as Disraeli. He is one of those men who have helped to raise the whole tone of parliamentary and social life, and no better proof could be desired of the improved relations of parliamentary leaders than the graceful tributes paid to the new Premier in a speech of welcome by his chief opponent, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman. In 1898, in the absence of Lord Salisbury, Mr. Balfour firmly refused to embarrass the United States in its quarrel with Spain, when Germany and other powers wished to form a combination against the States. His resolute attitude left the Americans a free hand in dealing with their Old World opponent, and not only cemented the friendship of the two great kindred powers, but prevented a precedent which would doubtless on occasion have been used with deadly effect against Britain itself.

In spite of such excellent credentials, Mr. Balfour, in his tenure of the premiership, was on the whole unfortunate. His first important measure was the English Education Bill of 1902, which abolished all

School Boards in England and Wales except that of London. The measure was regarded by the Non-conformists as a surrender of the broad principles of 1870 to the uncompromising narrowness of the High Church party in the Episcopal communion, and they instituted a campaign of "Passive Resistance," by which they ostentatiously suffered restraint or imprisonment rather than pay rates under the new conditions. In the following year Mr. Balfour completed his work by abolishing the London School Board. A passing reference may be made to Mr. Balfour's brother, Gerald W. Balfour (b. 1853), who among other Government posts has held the offices of Chief Secretary for Ireland, and President of the Board of Trade.

In the middle of the year 1902, by the influence of Lord Balfour of Burleigh (b. 1849, Secretary for Scotland 1895-1903), who is universally recognised as the keenest and most patriotic Scot on the Conservative side of politics, a Commission was appointed to consider the position of Art in Scotland, and the report of this Commission in the following year showed the gross injustice of the treatment meted out to Scotland. Money was paid out of her "equivalent" for purposes which in the sister-kingdoms were served out of imperial funds. The National Gallery of Edinburgh contained only one-third of the space provided in the National Gallery of Ireland, or of the space allowed in the Glasgow Corporation Art Galleries to pictures alone. The whole arrangement was fifty years behind the times, yet not till 1906 was a bill introduced to rectify to some extent the injustices thus revealed.

In 1903 a court was held at Holyrood for the first time in eighty years. In May the king visited Paris, and was received with a cordiality which showed that the mutual respect of France and Britain, which had

fallen almost to zero in the year of the 1900 Paris Exhibition, was now steadily rising to a more genial glow. A practical turn was given to the renewed feeling of friendship by the Brito-French Agreement of 1904.

The year 1903 was signalled in home politics by the remarkable campaign set afoot by Mr. Joseph Chamberlain against the Free Trade policy of Britain. He resigned his position in the Cabinet in order to enter upon a missionary crusade on behalf of what he now declared to be a necessary policy of Protective Tariffs. His first vigorous pronouncement was made in a speech at Glasgow. Mr. Balfour, as Prime Minister, seemed unwilling to commit himself definitely either to support or oppose his former colleague's ideas, and while Mr. Chamberlain had left the Cabinet because Mr. Balfour could not go far enough towards adopting his views, another exodus was made from the same body by various statesmen, who considered Mr. Balfour too much inclined towards Protection, which he chose to disguise as "Retaliation." The seceders comprised the Duke of Devonshire, Lord Balfour of Burleigh, and Charles Thomson Ritchie (1838-1906), a native of Dundee, who was at this time Chancellor of the Exchequer, and who had previously held the offices of President of the Local Government Board, President of the Board of Trade, and Home Secretary. To him had fallen the duty of introducing the Local Government Bill of 1888. Mr. Ritchie was raised to the peerage at the end of 1905, but died early in the following year.

Incidentally the raising of the Tariff question by Mr. Chamberlain served to reunite the Liberal party, who, amid all shades of opinion on other matters, were unanimous in defence of Free Trade principles.

The question of Tariff Reform seriously embarrassed Mr. Balfour, and in 1904 he tackled another thorny question in his English Licensing Bill. This measure for the first time explicitly admitted the claim of publicans to compensation in the event of the withdrawal of licences. It created a new vested interest, and Mr. Balfour's refusal of even a time limit in the tenure of licences showed how far he had surrendered public interest to that of "the trade." Coupled with his Education Bill the new measure aroused the "Non-conformist conscience" of England, and rendered inevitable the early fall of the Government.

Meanwhile two events, which both occurred in August 1904, deeply moved Scottish national feelings, and directed attention to the unsatisfactory results of the present system under which purely Scottish matters are in the last resort dealt with in London.

The first of these events is referred to in Chapter XXXV. The Free and United Presbyterian Churches of Scotland had joined forces as the United Free Church of Scotland. A minority of about two dozen Free Church ministers and their people opposed the union, and now claimed to be the legal Free Church. The Court of Session, both Outer and Inner, had unanimously denied the claim of this minority to the funds of the Free Church, but the smaller body carried their case to the House of Lords. Owing to the death of Lord Shand, who was known to be favourable to the United Free Church, the decision in this appeal rested with seven judges, only one of them a Scot, and that one an Episcopalian. On 1st August the astounding verdict was announced by the Lords that the small body of dissentient Frees constituted the legal Free Church, and was therefore entitled to the vast patrimony of the pre-union Church. This decision would have meant that in Edinburgh

and Leith, 55 ministers and 23,000 members would have had to give place to one minister and a somewhat problematical congregation, while in Glasgow 103 congregations with 70,000 members would have been dispossessed in favour of two congregations! The decision was calculated to recall J. S. Mill's remark as to "that extraordinary want of knowledge of human nature and life which constantly astonishes us in English lawyers." Owing to the peculiar rearrangement of judges in the case after Lord Shand's death, it was impossible to hush the suspicion that political influence or prejudice was not altogether absent in the final decision. The most charitable feeling possible in Scotland was voiced by Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman when he remarked in November 1904, that "to us in Scotland it seemed that much that we should deem of prime and vital importance to the religious interests of our country had been beyond the ken, or at all events had been absent from the vision of the distinguished and capable men who gave the decision which now has the force of law."

The extraordinary state of matters created by this verdict could not of course be allowed to remain, and in 1905 a Scottish Churches Bill was passed, appointing a Commission to right as far as possible the wrong done to the United Free Church by the Lords' decision. A fifth clause was tagged on to this Bill, giving power to the Established Church of Scotland to revise the formula of subscription required of its ministers. This Bill furnishes an excellent example of the congestion of business in the House of Commons. It was the only Scottish measure of the Session, and yet its passage was secured only by arrangements being made for adjusting its provisions outwith the House.

Having followed the Lords' decision to its over-

throw, we now return to August 1904, with its second object-lesson to Scotland of the impossibility of properly managing Scottish business in London under present conditions. From 1900 onwards a Scottish Education Bill had been promised almost annually, but quite as regularly dropped owing to want of time. The Bill of 1904, introduced by Mr. A. Graham Murray, met with general acceptance in Scottish educational circles, and was loyally supported by many Scottish members on the Opposition side, who rose superior to party for the sake of the national advantage so eagerly awaited at home. But in August, through pressure of business, the Government announced that they could not proceed with the Bill. Dr. Charles Douglas, M.P., very properly said in this regard that "if a week is too much to devote to a Scotch Education Bill, then the House of Commons is not fit to deal with Scotch Education at all."

Two provisions of the lost measure were urgently desired and needed in Scotland. The first was the setting up of Provincial Councils to deal with educational matters. While one National Council would be in many ways preferable, Scottish educationists would even now welcome the somewhat half-hearted provision of 1904 for a check on the irresponsible actions of the Department. Secondly, the Bill would have restored to School Boards the power taken from them in 1898 of pensioning deserving teachers on their retiral. The Superannuation Act of 1898 was a purely English measure, but was hastily and inconsiderately made to apply to Scotland, in spite of the fact that the English Departmental Commission had reported: "In Scotland, where School Boards are universal, and have the power of granting pensions to the teachers, the conditions are different, but Scotland is not included in the terms of

our reference." Up to 1872 the right of a teacher to a pension of two-thirds of his salary had been statutory in Scotland. After 1872 the granting of pensions had been left to the discretion of the local School Boards, but the Act of 1898 withdrew even this discretion, and actually prohibited Boards from supplementing the trivial allowance to be accorded henceforth on a contributory basis.

In 1905 practically the same Bill as that of 1904 was again dangled before the eyes of Scotsmen, being the fourth Scotch Education Bill of the Unionist Government. This time the Bill was in charge of the new Lord Advocate, Mr. Charles Scott Dickson, who showed a genuine desire to pass the measure into law. But Scottish business was once more held to be too unimportant to occupy the time of the House. In April Mr. Balfour could only offer half a day for the Bill, although, as Dr. Douglas pointed out, during the previous three years the Scottish educational estimates received less than one and a half hours for discussion. On the Committee Stage of the Education Bill in July, only five hours were allotted for the discussion of a measure of such prime importance, and two hours were wasted on a wholly irrelevant discussion as to area by English Tory members. At the end of the short period the Bill was talked out by Scottish Liberals.

In reference to such repeated disappointments, the president of the Scottish Association of Secondary Teachers struck the true note when he said that "it would serve them but little to attempt to fasten responsibility for the loss of the Education Bill on either political party. Rather let every Scotsman lay to heart the obvious lesson that only when our over-worked legislators were relieved by a large measure of local government would it be possible to secure for

Scottish affairs a due share of attention in the Imperial Parliament."

On the general question of hurried decisions and insufficient discussion in Parliament, Lord Rosebery pointed out that £50,000,000 of the annual expenditure of the nation was passed, under the "gag," undiscussed, and almost unvoted upon.

The Scottish Local Veto Bill, in reference to the liquor traffic, in May 1905, revealed another defect in the present parliamentary arrangements, — a defect exposed by Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman in this same month, when he pointed out how often "the votes of Scottish members by large majorities, sometimes two, three, and even four to one, were overturned by the votes of English, Irish, and Welsh members, who knew nothing about the subject." In the case of this particular measure, 43 Scottish members out of 72 were pledged in its favour, yet the Bill was rejected by 142 votes to 109. Sir Robert T. Reid, in supporting the Bill, had well said that "Scotland was capable of leading the thought of mankind throughout the world, and would do so if it were not for this cursed drink, which they themselves were only too anxious, but were not allowed by the majority, to check and control." In 1880 the Scottish representatives had voted 38 to 3 in favour of Local Veto, in 1881, 37 to 3, in 1883, 36 to 2, and in 1899, 40 to 15. When it is remembered that about two-thirds of the charges of crime in Scotland are due to drink, and that alongside of and because of this terrible curse there exists in Scotland a much more advanced temperance sentiment than in England or Ireland, the callous injustice of the English members in the Imperial Parliament in defying Scottish opinion appears in its true colours.

Two more pin-pricks of different kinds were

administered to Scottish sentiment in the course of the year 1905.

One of these was in a matter of public and scientific interest. The meteorological observatory on the top of Ben Nevis, which for twenty-one years had not only furnished many valuable scientific data, but had served as a training-ground for scientific men, had been closed in 1904 by the Scottish Meteorological Society, whose funds had become exhausted. An appeal was now made for Government support or assistance, but the Government refused to provide a few hundred pounds annually for its upkeep. In Antarctic exploration the training gained on Ben Nevis had proved of incalculable value, Captain W. S. Bruce among others having served in the observatory, and now the national asset of this training was to be at the service of the first country with enough official interest in science to carry on such work. And hence, as was stated in a public meeting on the question, "Argentina had decided to establish a Ben Nevis station in the Antarctic, manned by Ben Nevis men, and directed by a Lochaber brain,"—the last reference being to Mr. Angus Rankin.

The other pin-prick was administered by the king to the Scottish nobility on the question of precedence. Charles I. had decided that the Scottish and English nobility should be regarded as of equal rank, those of any given degree taking precedence of each other in their respective countries. No subsequent command had issued from the royal "fountain of honour" in successive reigns, but now, on 9th March 1905, Lord Linlithgow, as Secretary for Scotland, issued by His Majesty's commands a warrant for precedence in Scotland, placing dukes, marquesses, earls, viscounts, and barons of England before those of Scotland, Great Britain, or the United Kingdom, and Knights of the

Garter before Knights of the Thistle. The arrangement of course was natural in England, but in Scotland, to which the new pronouncement also applied, it meant that a junior English earl would take precedence of all Scottish earls, even at a Court in Holyrood! Comment is needless.

In this year the Scandinavian peoples furnished an illustration of the fatal results of any tampering with equal justice on the part of a larger State united to a smaller but spirited country. Sweden and Norway had been united on equal terms since 1814, but a series of attempts by Sweden to emphasise her position as "predominant partner" ended in June 1905, after a plebiscite of the Norwegian people, in the declaration by the Norwegian Storting that the union with Sweden was dissolved "in consequence of its king having ceased to act as Norwegian king." The crown of Norway was offered to Prince Haakon, of the royal family of Denmark, who now reigns with his queen, Maud, daughter of King Edward. Although Scotland and England have been too long and too cordially united to render any such separation possible, the lesson is none the less valuable that only by a scrupulous regard by the greater partner for the just aspirations and sentiments of the smaller can cordiality of union grow and prosper.

In September the king held a review of Scottish Volunteers at Edinburgh.

In the final year (1905) of the Unionist Government's tenure of power, a certain amount of flirtation took place with the principle of Devolution, or modified Home Rule. The proposals for devolution emanated principally from the Earl of Dunraven and the Irish Reform Association, who were loyal supporters of the Union between Great Britain and Ireland, but who realised the inevitable neglect and mismanagement of

affairs in a Parliament which had to control the interests of the empire, and which at the same time professed to manage the local affairs of the four home countries within the British Isles, with their widely divergent needs and interests. Public opinion, at least in Wales and Scotland, has steadily veered in recent years in the direction of such an ideal as that enunciated by Lord Dunraven in 1905: "One Parliament is my centre: its ultimate effective supremacy is my circumference; but emanating from that centre, and within that circumference, I desire to see the largest possible freedom of action and self-governing power delegated to Ireland." By such means, it was hoped, Irish matters would be dealt with more economically and more efficiently by those who had interest in and knowledge of the actual conditions involved.

When it was discovered that not only a paid official of the Dublin Castle administration, Sir Antony MacDonnell, but even the Chief Secretary for Ireland, Mr. George Wyndham, were cognisant of this scheme, and in varying degrees sympathetic towards it, the Irish Unionist party raised such a clamour against their "betrayal" by the Government that Mr. Wyndham thought it prudent to resign office in March 1905. As in the case of the Tariff Reform question, Mr. Balfour was felt to have sacrificed his colleague too easily, while taking no very firm position himself.

At last, in December 1905, the legal term of office of the Unionists having nearly expired, Mr. Balfour's Government resigned, and the king invited the leader of the Opposition, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, to form a Government.

At the General Election in January 1906 a tremendous defeat was inflicted on the late Government.

Many questions contributed to this, apart from the usual swing of the pendulum after a long tenure of office by either political party. The new Tariff proposals, ill-defined as these were, the English Education Bill and the Licensing Bill, united great tracts of northern England against Mr. Balfour. In Wales and Scotland the cynical neglect, or callous defiance, of local opinion by the late Government, caused a complete rout of the Unionist-Conservative party. Scotland returned 60 Liberals and 12 Unionists, while Wales *en bloc* supported the new Government. The new House of Commons consisted of 385 Liberals, 43 official Labour representatives, 83 Irish Nationalists, and 159 Unionists, the Liberal majority over all other parties thus being 100, while the Unionists were placed in a minority of 352 by the other parties combined.

The new Premier, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, was born at Glasgow in 1836. From 1868 he represented Stirling burghs. He was Chief Secretary for Ireland in 1884-85, and Secretary for War in 1886, and again from 1892 till 1895. During the dark days of Liberalism he showed almost incredible perseverance and grit in holding the remnants of the party together. Firm, outspoken, and clear in his opinions, he yet possessed an admirable fund of Scottish humour and pawkiness, while manly honesty stamped every feature of his face and every action of his life. He was consequently a man universally respected, and no better chief could have been found for the party thus suddenly pitchforked into almost absolute power.

The new Ministry contained an unusually large number of Scotsmen, several of whom had already achieved distinction in various spheres.

Sir Robert T. Reid, who had previously filled the positions of Solicitor-General and Attorney-General

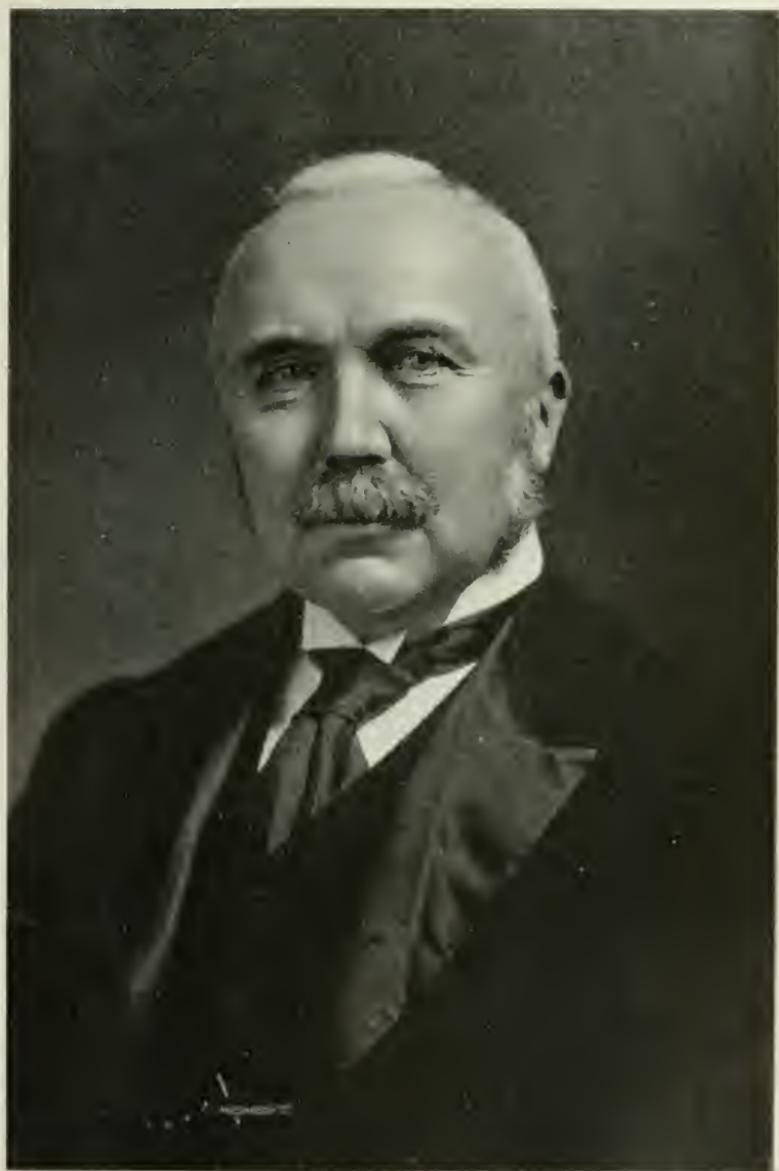


Photo by Elliot & Fry.

SIR HENRY CAMPBELL-BANNERMAN.

for England, became Lord Chancellor, adopting the title Baron Loreburn of Dumfries. Sir Robert's father, a Dumfriesshire man, had acted as a judge in Corfu, and there the future Lord Chancellor was born in 1846.

The high office of Lord Chancellor, the blue ribbon of English jurists, had previously been held at least four times by Scotsmen, namely by Alexander Wedderburn, Lord Loughborough, from 1793 till 1801; Thomas, Lord Erskine, during 1806-7; Henry, Lord Brougham, from 1830 till 1834; and John, Lord Campbell, from 1859 till 1861. Another Scot, William Murray, Earl of Mansfield (1705-1793), a native of Perth, who rose to be Lord Chief Justice of England, is by many regarded as having been perhaps the foremost authority on English law. As a final example of eminent Scottish lawyers in England, we may mention Sir Robert B. Finlay (b. 1842 at Edinburgh), who in 1895 became Solicitor-General for England, and from 1900 to 1905 was Attorney-General in the Unionist administration.

Returning to Sir Henry's Cabinet, we find as Colonial Secretary the Earl of Elgin (b. 1849), the third politician in succession from that ancient noble family. Lord Elgin had acted as Viceroy of India (1894-99).

The First Lord of the Admiralty was Edward Marjoribanks (1849-1909), who had succeeded to the peerage as the second Baron Tweedmouth in 1894.

The new War Secretary was Richard B. Haldane (b. 1856 at Edinburgh), member for Haddingtonshire since 1885. Mr. Haldane belongs to the Imperialist wing of the Liberal party. He was already noted as a jurist, a philosopher, and a literary man of high ability. Among other distinctions he acted for a term as Gifford Lecturer at St. Andrews University. These famous courses of lectures on theology at the Scottish

universities were endowed to the extent of £80,000 by Adam Gifford (1820-87), a native of Edinburgh, who passed from being sheriff of Orkney and Shetland to a seat in the Court of Session.

The new Chief Secretary for Ireland was James Bryce, born at Belfast in 1838, but descended from Ayrshire people, and educated at Glasgow, where his father was rector of the High School. Mr. Bryce represented south Aberdeen in Parliament. As author of *The Holy Roman Empire* and of *The American Commonwealth* he held a prominent place in historical literature. He has since been made British Ambassador to the United States, his warm sympathy for whose people secured him a most cordial welcome.

The Secretary for Scotland was as usual a Scotsman, Mr. John Sinclair (b. 1860). Mr. Sinclair had seen service in the Soudan War. (In January 1909 he was raised to the peerage as Lord Pentland.)

The most remarkable appointment to the Cabinet was that of Mr. John Burns (b. 1858, of Scots descent). Pushing his way up from the status of a working engineer, Mr. Burns won distinction as a fearless Labour leader, being imprisoned in 1887 for holding a public meeting at Trafalgar Square in spite of the prohibition of the authorities. He now became President of the Local Government Board.

Of Scottish ministers outside of the Cabinet, besides Mr. Thomas Shaw and Mr. Alexander Ure, the Scottish law officers of the Crown, there falls to be noted the Earl of Aberdeen (b. 1847), who resumed the post of Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland previously held by him in 1886. He had been Governor-General of Canada (1893-98). Lady Aberdeen has won golden opinions by her keen interest in Irish women's industries.

Scotland could now make the proud boast that the only three living men who had attained to the premiership of Britain were Scotsmen.

The official leader of the socialistic Labour party, with its ever-growing influence, was also a Scot, James Keir Hardie (b. 1856), an Ayrshire coal-miner, who is recognised as a hard fighter and a man of thorough honesty even by those who are most shocked by what they consider his lack of discretion.

Mr. T. W. Russell, who has figured so prominently among Ulster members for his sterling manliness and his independence of party, is a native of Cupar-Fife.

To resume the course of our narrative, the first Session of the new Parliament ended in August 1906, and with very little cheer for Scotland, her share of the time of the House having amounted to less than a day and a half. The principal measure of the new Government had been the Employers' Liability Act,—which contained drastic enactments in the direction of fixing greater responsibility on employers in case of accidents to their employees. Taken in conjunction with the Workmen's Compensation Act, passed by the Unionists in 1897, this Act places workmen on an entirely new footing of security. In June the Scottish Office decided that the buildings of the Royal Institution in Edinburgh were henceforth to be devoted to the Royal Scottish Academy. The arrangement came in force in April 1907. This decision, welcome in itself, had the unfortunate result of dislodging the Royal Society of Edinburgh, which had occupied the buildings since 1826. The latter body was in receipt of a nominal grant of £300 a year from Government, but this was paid back as rent through the Board of Manufactures. Altogether Scotland has been miserably treated in grants for Art and Science as compared with

England and Ireland. The Lord Advocate (Mr. Thomas Shaw) remarked in June 1906 that "the action of the Treasury with regard to Scotland was sometimes extremely dexterous," and he directed the attention of members to the speeches of Mr. James Caldwell, M.P., as "a quarry for Scotsmen in search of financial grievances." From the other side of the House Sir Henry Craik pointed out how the grants to University Colleges in England and Wales had grown since 1889 from £15,000 to £100,000 per annum, while Scotland received no corresponding advantage. He appealed "not to the graciousness or the generosity of the Treasury; it was a matter of simple justice." Evidently matters had not essentially improved since 1871, when Mr. Gladstone "admitted without the least hesitation that the present condition of the action of Parliament with regard to Scottish business is unsatisfactory."

Before the year 1906 was out, another episode occurred which fanned the flame of Scottish discontent regarding her treatment in the imperial partnership. It was decided by the War Office, on the pretext that the barracks at Piershill, Edinburgh, were unfit for cavalry, to withdraw the headquarters of the Scots Greys to England, and so to leave Scotland denuded of cavalry. Public indignation found vent in a great meeting of protest held at Edinburgh on 3rd December 1906, at which Lord Rosebery was the principal speaker. In his eloquent address he rightly laid stress on the national and sentimental aspect of the matter: "There is a tendency among statesmen of both parties to ignore the claims of Scotland. It is a tendency constantly increasing, and it increases because you are too good and too submissive. We in Scotland are treated as if we were of no account at all. Is our nationality of no importance to the army? I hold

that if you take Scotland out of your military history you will have cut out some of the most precious pages in the volume." He humorously pointed out that if Scotland "ceased to be a quiet, law-abiding, God-fearing kingdom, and became an unruly and rebellious people, it would soon have plenty of Scottish cavalry regiments," as the very origin of the Greys suggested. In words momentous from an ex-Premier, he proceeded: "I do venture to think, standing in the midst of this ancient capital, that we have been ill rewarded for our attachment to the House that sits upon the throne, and even to the Government that is at present in charge of our destinies, by the cruel decision which deprives us of the cavalry regiment of which we are most proud."

Nor did he neglect the very important financial bearing of the decision. He remarked that the Treaty of Union was intended as "a generous contract between two great nations for common purposes, which enabled them both to achieve an Imperial work which neither could have achieved without the other. It was not intended to be interpreted as a pettifogging deed between a usurer and a debtor, in which every stipulation was put down in black and white."

"I admire frugality," he continued, "but why is frugality always to be exercised at the expense of Scotland? The green island of Erin is green chiefly, I think, because it is so profusely watered with British gold. England gets whatever it wants. But Scotland, if she asks for ever so little, is always stinted and always starved."

In words that have become proverbial he asked, "Are we always to be treated as a sort of milk cow of the empire? Are we simply to be milked, and receive nothing in return?"

That these words were no mere rhetorical flourish

is proved by such facts as the following:—In the previous year there had been expended by the Liberal Government on barracks and training in England £875,000, in Ireland £124,000, and in Scotland £21,000. During a period of ten years of Unionist rule, over nine million pounds were spent on barracks in England and Wales, and two millions in Ireland, while Scotland had been put off with less than a quarter of a million! Of the four million pounds allocated under the Barracks Act of 1890 for the building, erection, or reconstruction of barracks and camps, Ireland absorbed a million, while Scotland got nothing. Out of a total of over thirteen million pounds spent in the United Kingdom and Colonies between 1897 and 1905 under the various Military Works Acts, Scotland's share had been £113,000.

During the year 1905-6 Scotland raised sixteen million pounds of taxes. Of this sum £5,700,000 was expended in the country, leaving over ten million pounds to be transmitted to London for imperial purposes. In Ireland out of nine and a half millions, £7,600,000 were spent locally, leaving a balance of less than two millions. This meant that Scotland's contribution per head to imperial expenditure was £2, 6s. 6d. as against £2, 8s. for England, and 8s. 5d. for Ireland. In return, England got back in the form of army expenditure 13s. 5d. per head of the population, Ireland £1, 7s., and Scotland only 5s. 7d. For the year ending September 1905 there were quartered in England almost 100,000 troops, in Ireland 26,000, and in Scotland 5,290. Taking cavalry alone, the figures were England 8015, Ireland 2586, Scotland 446! The practical bearing of such figures to the tradespeople of the respective countries is too obvious to require comment.

In view of such inequitable treatment of his native land, the reply of Mr. Haldane, in his capacity as War Minister, to the Edinburgh protest, sounded feeble and excessively cautious: "I can at present see no reason why Scotland should cease for more than a time to have cavalry stationed in it; but I cannot now say how long the interval will be, though I undertake to do all I can to make that interval as short as possible consistently with my duty to the House and to the Army." It is only fair to add that within two years Mr. Haldane was able to take the first step towards implementing his promise by purchasing for the War Office in 1908 the estate of Redford, near Colinton, on the outskirts of Edinburgh.

The fact is that Scottish members at Westminster have all along been too prone to forget that they had duties to their native land, and to act instead purely as political spaniels, ready to perform at the crack of the party whip, and so neutralising one another's influence. As Burns in his *Twa Dogs* says of the M.P.'s of his own day:

"Haith, lad, ye little ken about it;
For Britain's guid? guid faith! I doubt it.
Say, rather, gaun as Premiers lead him,
An' sayin' *ay* or *no* 's they bid him."

In 1907, Parliament met on 12th February. On the 25th of that month Mr. Haldane introduced his Army Bill, providing for a Regular Army of 160,000 men and a Territorial Force of 300,000. His scheme is generally admitted to mark a great advance on the proposals of the numerous Ministers who had previously dabbled with the question. With various alterations in details it was passed into law, and on 1st April 1908 the Territorial Army definitely came into existence, taking the place of the Volunteer Force.

The year 1907 witnessed various experiments in the direction of devolution. Home Rule was granted to the late Boer States, and a Bill was introduced by Mr. Birrell for the establishment of a local legislature in Ireland. The Bill met with scant approval, being not only opposed by the Unionists, but repudiated by the Nationalists as totally insufficient in its scope. It was therefore abandoned.

In March the Prime Minister introduced various new rules of procedure, and as part of his scheme he established in April a Scottish Grand Committee, to consist of all the Scottish representatives, together with fifteen other members of Parliament. When a Bill dealing with Scotland has passed its second reading, it will henceforth be sent automatically to this Committee for the discussion of its details. This arrangement is an important step in the direction of devolution, and along with the Private Bill Procedure Act carried by Lord Balfour's influence in 1897, ought to give Scotland a much more audible voice in its own affairs. The Premier, in introducing the measure, reminded the House that "in Scotland they had a different law, a different religious organisation, and different habits. What his countrymen had complained of ever since he had been in Parliament was that the opinion of Scotch members was overridden in the lobby by the opinion of the English members,—if they had an opinion, because very often they voted without an opinion; and this was an unfairness which vitiated, from the Scotch point of view, the course of Scotch legislation."

In this connection it is worthy of note that, during the ten years from 1890 till 1900, only 188 statutes were passed by Parliament referring to the whole United Kingdom, while no fewer than 341 referred

to one or at most two of the four countries composing the British Isles.

In the working of the new arrangement much will depend on the extent to which members will subordinate party spirit to national loyalty. The first business dealt with by the new Committee, consisting as it did of Mr. Sinclair's Small Landholders' Bill, did not show the new procedure to much advantage. The application of the principles of the Crofters' Acts to the Lowlands lent itself to fractious discussion, and the most was made of the opportunity thus afforded to the opponents of devolution to make the Committee appear unworkable. It may well be hoped that with better material for discussion the success of the Scottish Grand Committee may be such as to encourage further experiments in devolution.

In April 1907 there was held a Colonial Conference, following upon those of 1887, 1894, and 1902. Lord Elgin, as chairman, pointed out that the conference was not between individuals but between governments, and an important step forward was taken in the decision that henceforth the name "Imperial Conference" should be applied to these meetings, and that a permanent Imperial Secretariat should be established. It was further agreed that the defence of the empire should be re-organised on one general plan, and the idea of an Imperial General Staff was thus foreshadowed.

In early summer some consternation was caused in Scotland by what appeared to be a complete prohibition to private individuals and societies to use the national flag,—the Lion Rampant. Owing to the indignation generally expressed, the Scottish Secretary explained away the order as implying only certain restrictions of a very trivial nature; but the episode

served to show how much more alert Scottish opinion had become within recent years.

In August a Scottish Education Bill was brought in by the Liberal Government, but it shared the fate of its Unionist predecessors, being sacrificed in the annual "slaughter of the innocents." It was felt that such a measure might profitably have occupied the energies of the Grand Committee. In spite of governmental neglect, the Education Department proceeded with an important scheme for improving the training of Scottish teachers. The new scheme practically sounds the death-knell of the pupil-teacher system, which almost every civilised country has abandoned as obsolete. The energy and courage of the Department deserve due recognition even from those who consider its power, and its methods of employing that power, much too arbitrary for a democratic country like Scotland.

That Scottish education has not been allowed by the Department to fall behind in the international race is attested by the report (1908) of Mr. Frank Tate, Director of Education for Victoria, Australia, after an official visit to the schools of Europe and America. He says: "The schools which impressed me most during my tour were the elementary, the higher grade, and the secondary schools of Scotland," and he points out how our Scottish arrangements "offer the fullest facilities for children of all classes to make the most of their natural abilities."

As in 1872, the two great Scottish Churches loyally fell in with the new national scheme for the training of teachers by handing over their training colleges to the new representative committees. It may here be mentioned that the Chairs of Education in Edinburgh and St. Andrews have grown out of the Bell Lecture-

ship on Education, founded by Andrew Bell (1753-1832). Bell was a native of St. Andrews, and as a teacher in Madras he evolved the "Madras" or "monitorial" system of staffing schools, out of which grew the pupil-teacher system. The National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor, founded in 1811, opened over 12,000 schools on his system. Before his death he handed over to trustees £120,000 for various educational purposes, including the foundation of Madras College, St. Andrews.

Two actions of the Government in the year 1907 met with hearty approval north of the Tweed. The first was the decision to proceed with the naval base at Rosyth, on the north coast of the Firth of Forth. This base had been decided on by the Unionists when in power, but its preparation had hung fire. The new base will not merely be of enormous strategical value, but it ought to create in Scotland a more hearty interest in the navy, besides in some measure equalising the expenditure in the various parts of the kingdom. Various naval authorities, such as Admiral Sir Charles Campbell (b. St. Andrews, 1847), are strongly of opinion that the scheme ought to be combined with a ship canal, uniting the Forth and Clyde, either on the route of the present shallow canal or by a new route embracing Loch Lomond in its course.

The second of the actions above referred to was the purchase by the Government of 12,530 acres in Argyllshire with a view to afforestation. It is calculated that ten times as many people are required in a forest district as on a sheep-farm of corresponding size, and it is hoped that the example of the Government will induce landowners to experiment in the same direction, and thus provide a profitable outlet for part of the hardy population of the Highlands.

Scotland's national pride in the Prime Minister was evidenced by his admission in this year as an honorary burgh of Glasgow, Edinburgh, Montrose, and Peebles.

The year 1907 was the bicentenary of the Union of England and Scotland. The Union had, however, come to be regarded as so much a matter of course that in England the anniversary was simply ignored, while the attempt at a celebration in Scotland evoked little enthusiasm, and occasioned only a few very tame speeches.

Two manifestations of the revived Celtic feeling of recent times had Scotland as their scene in this year.

The first of these was the Third Pan-Celtic Congress at Edinburgh. The previous conferences had been held at Dublin and Carnarvon. In this Celtic movement differences of politics and religion are dropped, and an attempt is made to encourage Celtic literature, music, and art. The most striking episode of the four days' congress was the quaint ceremony of erecting the Lia Cineil, consisting of six stones representing the Celtic population of six "nations,"—Ireland, Scotland, Wales, Brittany, Isle of Man, and Cornwall.

The other Celtic event of the year was the great Feill a' Chomuinn Ghaidhealaich in October. This great bazaar was held in St. Andrew's Halls, Glasgow, and realised £7000 for the promotion of Gaelic language, literature, music, and art, and for the encouragement of Highland industries.

Early in 1908 a Royal Commission was appointed to inquire into the condition of ancient buildings in Scotland, to inventory the "ancient and historical monuments and constructions connected with or illustrative of the contemporary culture, civilisation, and conditions of life of the people of Scotland from

the earliest times to the year 1907, and to specify those which seem worthy of preservation."

This action on the part of Government coincides with the marked awakening of interest in and enthusiasm regarding the national history which has become manifest in Scotland since King Edward's accession.

Another indication of the same renewal of Scottish sentiment was apparent both in the name and in the nature of the Scottish National Exhibition opened at Edinburgh in May 1908. A striking feature of this exhibition was the excellent Scottish Historical Pageant on 13th and 19th June, while the picture collection constituted admittedly the most complete object-lesson as yet afforded to the public in the development of Scottish Art.

The Parliamentary Session of 1908 had not proceeded far when it became evident that the strain of work and of years, joined to the recent loss of his wife, had told with fatal effect on the hitherto buoyant health of the Prime Minister. In March the king, before leaving for the Continent, graciously waived the usual forms of etiquette in order to call personally on Sir Henry. In the beginning of April, to the great regret of all parties, the Premier tendered his resignation. He was succeeded by Mr. Asquith, a north-country Englishman, who has for many years represented a Scottish constituency, and whose wife is a Glasgow lady, daughter of the late Sir Charles Tennant. Since his accession to the highest office in the Government, Mr. Asquith (in May 1908) has expressed his gratification at having so long been a representative of the Scottish people,—a people noted for "integrity of judgment, clearness of logic, and unswerving devotion to principle."

The retiral of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman,

followed by his death on 22nd April, involved a serious loss to British political life, and, closely preceded as it was by the death of the Duke of Devonshire in March, marked the end of an era in parliamentary history.

In the legislation of the year 1908 Scotland shares with the sister-kingdoms the benefits of the Old Age Pensions Scheme and of the "Children's Act," the latter of which is full of humane provisions for the moral and physical well-being of the young. The Miners' Eight Hours Act marks another stage in industrial legislation. The Small Holdings Bill for Scotland was passed by the Commons, but thrown out by the Lords.

A Scottish Education Bill, after detailed discussion by the Scottish Grand Committee, passed its third reading in the House of Commons on 24th November, and was accepted by the Lords. The new Act was described by the Lord Advocate, in perhaps too glowing colours, as placing Scottish education thirty years in advance of that of England, and sixty years ahead of that of Ireland. It embodies many philanthropic provisions on behalf of children, giving School Boards the right to assist underfed or otherwise neglected children, and to institute medical inspection of schools. Boards are also granted the power to make attendance at continuation schools compulsory under certain conditions, and to deal in a more summary way with neglectful or refractory parents. Boards are encouraged to combine their energies for the fostering of higher education, and in general the correlation of educational funds is better provided for. The old Scottish right is restored to School Boards of pensioning teachers who have grown old in the service, and they are now also at liberty to pension officials other than teachers. An improved superannuation scheme is foreshadowed. Teachers are granted a right of appeal to the Education

Department in cases of threatened dismissal. Politically the new Education Act provided a surprise in the retention of the cumulative vote.

Educationally it has the blemishes of adding to the already drastic powers of the Department, and of failing to provide any national council to control the Department in accord with popular opinion or with the views of educational experts. It further leaves the great question of educational areas practically untouched.

In connection with the Scotch Education Department, a small but significant change was made earlier in 1908. For the four previous years an assistant-secretary of the Department, Dr. George Macdonald (a distinguished authority on numismatics and archæology) had been stationed in the Royal Scottish Museum at Edinburgh, but premises were now taken in Queen Street, whither much of the clerical work hitherto done in London will henceforth be transferred. The advisability of extending this arrangement is evident from the fact that there are in Scotland, including inspectors, 118 officers of the Education Department, while the clerks and other officials in London number 50. Much inconvenience would be obviated by having the latter officials in closer touch with the Department's servants in Scotland, not to speak of the School Boards. In intimating the present modicum of reform to the House of Commons, the Secretary for Scotland said: "It is not possible, even were it desirable, that the whole work of the Department should be transferred to Edinburgh *at present*."

The last phrase perhaps foreshadows a time when the ridiculous centralising tendency of recent generations will have given place to a reasonable measure of devolution.

CHAPTER XLVII

SOME PRESENT-DAY QUESTIONS.

“O SCOTIA! my dear, my native soil,
For whom my warmest wish to Heaven is sent,
Long may thy hardy sons of rustic toil
Be blest with health, and peace, and sweet content!
And oh, may Heaven their simple lives prevent
From luxury's contagion, weak and vile;
Then, howe'er crowns and coronets be rent,
A virtuous populace may rise the while,
And stand a wall of fire around their much-loved Isle.”

BURNS.

WE have now brought the story of Scottish affairs down to our own time, and it remains to deal with only a few general questions. On two points legislation is urgently needed in Scotland.

The first of these concerns the drink traffic. The great Scotland of the past was a sober country. The Scotland of to-day occupies a “bad eminence” among the hard-drinking countries of the world. The Scottish national drink bill is sixteen million pounds per annum, and it is computed that in Glasgow working men spend more on drink than on rent. The fatal aspect of the case at present is the proportion of the drink bill that goes to liquors of the strongest and deadliest kind. While England's consumpt of drink per head is £3, 19s. 9d. per annum as against Scotland's £3, 3s., the average annual consumpt of spirits in Scotland is 1·6 gallons, as against ·8 gallon in England.

The larger total expenditure in England is explained by what has been called "industrial drinking,"—the habitual consumption by workmen of beer and other liquors which they consider essential to the success of their daily work. From this cause there are in England more cases of lunacy and physical degeneracy from drink than are proportionately to be found in Scotland. The Scottish drinking-bout, on the other hand, leads more directly to breaches of the peace and other crimes.

Lord Ardwall, in March 1908, stated it as his conviction that but for drinking in Scotland "there would be almost empty prisons," and Lord Guthrie has spoken to much the same effect. The agricultural districts of Scotland have in general a good reputation for sobriety, and it is rather in the great centres of population, where the native strain has become mingled with the Irish element and with foreign immigrants, that the drinking orgies of the week-end attain their most deadly dimensions. The hideous scenes in our cities cry out for legislation of the most sweeping kind, but, as we have seen, even the moderate proposals of Scottish opinion are consistently thwarted by English and Irish votes in Parliament.

The land question is the second most serious problem in Britain, and particularly in Scotland. One-third of the whole of Britain belongs to the six hundred members of the House of Lords. To suit this landed class our land-laws have been framed, and by this class any serious attempt at improvement is thwarted. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, as Prime Minister, pertinently asked: "Who is to control the legislation with regard to the vital interests of the people of Scotland? Is it those who are authorised by the people of Scotland to speak for them, or is it noble

lords in another place, and a small section of the House of Commons who sympathise with the noble lords?" Meanwhile that question remains unanswered to an extent that places upon Scotland, as compared with America and many other lands, a handicap too grievous to be borne indefinitely.

A third political question, that of Home Rule or Devolution, has steadily forced itself to the front in recent years. In the course of our narrative we have met with various instances of the neglect of Scottish business, or the overruling of Scottish opinion, which have served to give an impetus to the demand for granting to Scotsmen a greater control of their own purely Scottish affairs.

That Scotland is in many ways ripe for such a change is evidenced by the number of bodies required outside of Parliament to attend to her interests. These may here profitably be enumerated.

1. The Local Government Board (since 1894) dealing with Poor Law and Public Health matters, and presided over by the Secretary for Scotland. This Board consists of six members, and always includes the solicitor-general, an advocate, and a medical man.

2. The Fishery Board, the oldest fishery department in Europe, dating from 1808, but reconstituted in 1895.

3. The Lunacy Board, instituted 1857.

4. Prison Commissioners (1877). It is to be noted that since 1887 the Secretary for Scotland has taken over from the Home Secretary the departments of "law and justice" as regards Scotland.

5. The Crofters' Commission, consisting of three members, one of whom must be Gaelic-speaking.

6. The Congested Districts Board, with the Scottish Secretary as chairman.

7. The Commissioners of Northern Lights.

8. The Board of Manufactures (created 1727), originally intended to watch over the interests of commerce and manufactures, but of late years concerned chiefly with the fine arts. This Board became, in 1907, the Board of Trustees for the National Galleries of Scotland.

9. The Scotch Education Department.

It is widely felt that Scotland ought also to possess a Board of Agriculture. Ireland has such a Board, costing £200,000 a year; and a country like Scotland, standing in the forefront in agricultural energy, ought to have the advantage of a guiding body in this domain.

When to all the above-mentioned bodies is added the Convention of Royal Burghs, with its somewhat undefined sphere of influence, it does seem reasonable that over and above all these there should be some Scottish National Council to which all the others should be responsible. Whether the Scottish Grand Committee may acquire much of that controlling power, or whether ultimately a Scottish Parliament may be re-instituted as part of a general Home Rule or Devolution scheme, it is impossible as yet to predict. But it is at any rate an obvious fact that the desire for devolution has greatly increased in Scotland within the new century. In 1890 the idea of Scottish Home Rule was regarded as visionary, or even humorous. To-day it is a question of practical politics.

On the analogy of Canada, Australia, and, in a modified degree, of South Africa, a good case can be made out for Scottish, Irish, Welsh, and English Councils or Parliaments, each with its own well-defined sphere of control over national affairs, but all strictly centred in and subordinate to the British Parliament. At the other end of the ladder there is obvious need for a

still more inclusive Imperial Council or Parliament, which shall not merely represent the British Isles, but include representatives from all our great self-governing Colonies and from India. The very question of imperial defence renders such a body essential. It cannot be expected that South Africa, Canada, and Australasia either need expect or will desire to escape much longer with the sums at present contributed to the necessary military and naval expenditure of the empire, but the moment they realise and acknowledge their liability to a fair share of imperial expenditure, they must and will claim also a voice in imperial policy.

Imperial federation may be a long or a short time in coming, but come it must in some form if our empire, which Lord Rosebery has called "the greatest secular agency for good known to the world," is to exist in undiminished vigour and to remain an undivided whole. The possibility of local patriotism in the Colonies, or of national patriotism in the various countries within the British Isles, co-existing with an imperial patriotism, was well voiced by Mr. George Wyndham in his rectorial address to the students of Glasgow University in November 1904: "Any nation, and therefore every nation within the State, needs character, if only to redeem the State from a featureless cosmopolitanism. The perfected Empire-State of the future, to evoke universal allegiance, must appeal to particular sentiment."

This is in thorough accord with the view advanced throughout the present work, that the fostering of Scottish national sentiment, while it would add backbone to the present somewhat invertebrate national life of Scotland, would in no wise militate against imperial patriotism, but would nourish it as nothing else is capable of doing.

In various matters outwith the reach of legislation, thoughtful Scotsmen and Scotswomen recognise a need for improvement.

In the aristocracy and among the upper classes in general there exists a tendency to ape English manners, ideas, and methods. The Highland laird is now seldom a power for good among his people. London is more to his taste than Inverness, and his visits to Scotland are simply with a view to such "sport" as drives the crofter to Canada or to our great cities, and peoples his glen with deer. The late Marquess of Bute estimated the annual loss to Scotland from this London-ward tendency at eight or ten million pounds sterling. Boys are sent to England to be educated and to acquire a veneer of gentility; and in order to complete the undoing of any "Scotchness" about them they are trained up in the Anglican faith. The result is a serious lack of sympathy between the mass of the people and those who might well have become its natural leaders or advisers.

In our Scottish universities there is too often apparent a tendency towards the deliberate restriction of appointments to men of English training. This is most noticeable in the case of the Arts chairs. Here it might almost explicitly be affirmed, "No native-trained Scot need apply. For professorships a preference will be given to Englishmen *pur sang*, while for assistant professors, Scotsmen who have an Oxford or Cambridge training will be favourably considered." The result is to make these Arts Faculties mere appendages to the English universities, and to represent the Scottish degree as a mere vestibule to an English college. It was not always thus, nor need it be so even now if the Scottish universities would provide some outlet, other than the back door, for their most talented students. Lord Morley's words are worth pondering :

“What has made the Scotch people the powerful nation they have been in the history of the world is that their universities have been seats, centres, nurseries of the very highest and broadest and widest culture. I am afraid that in Oxford in my day we could not show such width of interest, such depth of insight into the facts of human life and the mysteries of human nature, as has been shown by the Scotch universities.”

In the commercial and working classes, especially among the younger generation, the great defect at the present time is a lack of serious purpose in life. While the continental artisan or mechanic is perfecting himself in the knowledge of his own technical pursuits, the young Scot, like the young Englishman, is too eager to cast aside all thoughts of work at the earliest possible moment, and to devote himself to his favourite sport. In so far as this is of a health-giving kind, such as the pursuit of a good healthy game, there is some degree of compensation in the improvement of the national physique. Scotland, as the nursing-ground of golf, of curling, to a great extent of bowls, and probably of football, and as the home of such Highland tests of skill as tossing the caber, putting the stone, and throwing the hammer, has profited well in the past in this regard. On such grounds as these a justifiable pride may be felt in the long line of Scottish athletic champions, from Donald Dinnie (b. 1837 in Aberdeenshire) to Alexander A. Cameron (b. 1877 in Inverness-shire), the Scottish and world's professional champion of to-day; George H. Johnstone (b. 1864 in Kincardineshire), who accompanied Cameron on his triumphant colonial tour; and Alexander Munro (b. 1876 in Sutherlandshire), an inspector in the Govan Police Force, who ranks as being easily the champion wrestler of Britain.

But no such defence can be offered for the strange

infatuation which draws crowds, numbering scores of thousands, week after week to witness the play of paid footballers. The various "points" of the players become a matter of absorbing study. The sole subject of interested conversation in many circles consists in the discussion of last week's game or the prospects of the next. With this "study" a large element of gambling is frequently associated.

The same craving for amusement without the expenditure of energy has led to a rapid increase in the number of music-halls in our Scottish towns. These are usually run by English promoters, and their results are in many cases deplorable, not only in the neglect of our excellent Scottish songs, elsewhere referred to, and not only in the blunting of the taste for anything better than sensationalism, but in the actual vice which too often associates itself with these institutions.

In a lower stratum of society a similar spirit finds an outlet for its distorted sense of humour in that hooliganism which has become so serious a problem in city life.

But these blemishes in present-day Scottish life are none of them so far advanced as to be beyond the possibility of reform. Most of the old distinguishing qualities of the Scot—his honest workmanship, his thrift, his superior education, his thoughtfulness, and his hatred of pretence—remain as a possession of the nation in general. The comparative purity of Scottish electioneering is in itself eloquent testimony to many of these qualities. The political centre of gravity in Great Britain has shifted distinctly northwards. It is not so much the opinion of London, as that of the North of England and of Scotland, that serves as the true index to the political barometer of to-day, and it is from the hard-headed men of the north that we may hope for

such political reforms as the times may decree to be ripe.

In the course of our narrative we have met with ample proof that the educated Scot continues to command the respect and confidence of his fellow-subjects within the British Empire. As further evidence of this fact, a few names still fall to be mentioned of Scotsmen who at present hold, or have recently held, positions of eminence in England.

The present Archbishop of Canterbury is Randall Thomas Davidson, born at Edinburgh in 1848. The only Scotsman who had formerly risen to this position was Archibald Campbell Tait (1811-82), another Edinburgh man. Tait succeeded Dr. Arnold as headmaster of Rugby in 1842, became Bishop of London in 1856, and Archbishop of Canterbury in 1868. He left the reputation of being one of the broadest-minded and hardest-working prelates that ever adorned the Church of England.

Still another native of Edinburgh, William D. Maclagan (b. 1826), held the high office of Archbishop of York from 1891 till his retiral in 1908. He has been succeeded by a Scotsman, Cosmo Gordon Lang (b. 1864), the distinguished son of Principal J. Marshall Lang of Aberdeen University. Another notable Scot in the Anglican Communion is William Macdonald Sinclair, Archdeacon of London, and Canon of St. Paul's.

Several Scotsmen possess outstanding influence in the English Nonconformist Churches.

Andrew M. Fairbairn (b. 1838 near Edinburgh) was appointed the first Principal of Mansfield (Nonconformist) College at Oxford, founded in 1886. He held this position until his retiral in 1908.

Dr. Alexander MacLaren (b. 1826), the son of a Glasgow merchant, retired after fifty years' ministry in

Union Baptist Chapel, Manchester. He and the late Dr. John Maclaren Watson (Ian Maclaren) of Liverpool, stood pre-eminent as Nonconformist preachers in Lancashire.

R. J. Campbell (b. 1867), who succeeded Dr. Parker as pastor of the London City Temple, is best known as the apostle of the "New Theology."

The late Rev. Dr. Gunion Rutherford, headmaster of Westminster School for eighteen years, was a native of Peeblesshire.

Professor Edward Caird left the Moral Philosophy Chair of Glasgow to succeed the famous Dr. Jowett as Master of Balliol College, Oxford, and on his retiral in 1907 he was succeeded by another Scot, Dr. J. L. Strachan Davidson.

In 1908 Mr. R. F. Scott, the son of a Fifeshire minister, was promoted to the high position of Master of St. John's College, Cambridge.

The first chairman of the London County Council was Lord Rosebery, and the same post has been held by Mr. T. M'Kinnon Wood, Sir A. M. Torrance, and Sir John M'Dougall.

The last chairman of the London School Board was Lord Reay (Donald John Mackay, b. 1839), chief of the clan Mackay. Lord Reay was Governor of Bombay from 1885 till 1890, and chairman of London School Board for the seven years preceding its abolition in 1904. Former distinguished members of the same family were the General Mackay who commanded for the Government at Killiecrankie, and Captain Mackay of the Mackay regiment in the Netherlands service.

Even the Lord Mayorship of London was recently (1904) held by a Scot, Sir James Thomson Ritchie, brother of C. T. Ritchie.

The chief cashier of the Bank of England is John

Gordon Nairne, and the secretary of the same bank for the ten years preceding 1908 was Kenneth Grahame.¹

The Scottish spirit in London is kept alive by many admirable institutions. The Royal Scottish Corporation, founded shortly after the Union of the Crowns and incorporated by Royal Charter in 1664, is primarily a charitable society for assisting "brither Scots" in necessitous circumstances. Its St. Andrew's Day dinner is an annual event of great importance. The Highland Society of London, a similar body, established in 1815 the Royal Caledonian Asylum for the children of slain or disabled Scottish soldiers and sailors. The interests of the Gaelic Society of London, founded in 1777, are more of a literary nature. The annual Caledonian Ball assists in providing funds for Scottish charities, while the crack regiment known as the "London Scottish" has provided an outlet for Scottish citizen-soldiers in the Metropolis.

Within Scotland itself there has been, as we have had occasion to note, a stirring of the national consciousness within the last few years. The work of the Young Scots Society, whose propaganda combines Scottish sentiment with advanced Liberalism in politics, deserves

¹ *Note on Banking.*—George Smith, referred to on page 764 as founder of the first Chicago bank, was assisted in his gigantic enterprise mainly by a fellow-countryman, Alex. Mitchell, and by the Scottish financial firm of Strachan & Scott. The name of the firm of George Smith & Co. became a household word in banking and insurance circles throughout the United States. Smith himself returned to Britain in 1860, and died at London in 1900 at the age of ninety-one. His estate was valued at fifty million dollars.

Chicago to-day is naturally a prime centre of banking business, and as illustrating the persistence of Scottish enterprise in this sphere, it is worthy of mention that the Presidents of the First National Bank of Chicago and of the National City Bank of Chicago are two brothers, James B. Forgan and David R. Forgan, both of whom were born at St. Andrews and entered on their banking experience in their native town.

mention in this regard alongside of non-political societies such as the Scottish Patriotic Association (Glasgow), the St. Andrew Society (Edinburgh), and the Scottish Rights Association (Greenock).

In no respect has the work of these societies proved more successful than in the very important matter of cleansing the fountain-head of Scottish public sentiment by ensuring an increased attention to truthfulness, and a renewed appreciation of Scottish patriotism, in the domain of history as taught in schools.

The Scottish Patriotic Association was the first body to direct public attention to the shameful neglect of our noble history in the schools of the country, and to the cruelly garbled accounts of our national status given in many of the text-books in common use. A few of the more important School Boards, including those of Glasgow, Edinburgh, Dundee, and Greenock, took action with a view to ensuring that the children under their charge should not grow up ignorant of their national heritage, or leave school with the idea that their country was to be regarded as a mere appanage, or even a mere part, of "England." In 1904 the Association called the attention of the Convention of Royal Burghs to the matter, and in the following year a strongly worded representation was made by that body to the Scotch Education Department. In August 1905, Dr. Struthers, secretary to the Department, replied most sympathetically, and promised to instruct the inspectors to attend to this important matter. He even went so far as to appeal to the English Board of Education for its co-operation, but that authority refused to take any action. Since the Scotch Education Department's opinion was made public, much attention has been directed to the question. Publishers have found it to their advantage to issue new text-books with the national names cor-

rectly used, and in Scottish public examinations Scottish history has suddenly come into deserved prominence.

The reform has not come a moment too soon. Dr. Struthers, in his general report on Scottish education, published in October 1906, stated that the result of investigation by his Department was to show that "history as studied in Scottish schools is practically English history from 1066 to 1815!" He added that "it was disappointing to note a widespread ignorance of Scottish history, even among those picked pupils who may be supposed to represent the outcome of the most advanced teaching in Scottish schools."

A volume could be written on the gross perversion of British history in many of the books recently or still used in Scottish schools, especially in those by English writers such as Oman, Ransome, and Gardiner.

Out of hundreds of available examples five will suffice.

1. Sir William Wallace is frequently subjected to crass abuse, being branded as a "traitor" and a "savage barbarian," while one text-book actually declares that Edward marched hurriedly northwards, "and won a *decisive victory over Wallace at Stirling!*"

2. Speaking of the battle of Harlaw, Lyde's *History of Scotland* has this astounding piece of logic: "Henceforward, the Scots were an English-speaking race; and *as Scotsmen have done most to carry the English language by trade and travel to the far places of the earth, it is perhaps surprising that some Scotsmen still resent being called English.*"

3. From another text-book we read that "the *English army*" at Balaklava consisted of "the 93rd Highlanders, under Sir Colin Campbell, the Scots Greys, the Enniskillen Dragoons," etc.

4. In the *Oxford and Cambridge History of*

England, the remarkable perversion of truth occurs of stating, as one of the Union arrangements in 1707, that England should *pay off the Scottish National Debt!*

5. Oman's *History of England*, used in many Scottish schools, accuses Bruce, "who commenced his reign by treason, murder, and usurpation," of having, by a display of "ambition, masquerading as patriotism," "estranged two nations which had hitherto been able to dwell together in amity, and plunged them for nearly three centuries into bloody wars."

It may confidently be hoped that, in view of the increased vigilance of School Boards, teachers, and inspectors, the Scottish children of the rising generation will be protected from contact with such historical garbage.

The revived interest in Scottish history could not stop with the schools, and ere long a proposal was mooted to found a Chair of Scottish History and Literature at Glasgow University. At the time of writing, public subscription has brought this idea well within prospect of realisation, while the forthcoming Scottish Historical Exhibition, to be held at Glasgow in 1911, renders its fulfilment practically a certainty. At any rate, the stage of argument on the subject has been easily passed, from the very absurdity of any opposition to such an obvious desideratum in a Scottish university. We may surely trust with confidence to finding a Scottish History Chair ere long in every one of our four universities.

CHAPTER XLVIII

CONCLUSION : THE SCOTTISH CHARACTER.

“THE rank is but the guinea stamp ;
The man’s the gowd for a’ that.”

BURNS.

“WHAT can ennoble sots, or slaves, or cowards ?
Alas ! not all the blood of all the Howards.”

POPE.

At the end of our chronicle of Scotland’s story we may confidently claim that Scottish history furnishes an inspiring record, worthy of the most loving study by the present generation of Scotsmen. Whether in such romantic episodes of warfare and deeds of knightly prowess as illumine the pages of Scott, or in the admirable consistency of purpose that welds into a unity the general trend of Scottish effort from the days of Alexander III. and Wallace, down through the Reformation, the Covenanting struggle, and the later efforts for political freedom and religious purity, the tale is one of entrancing interest.

“What’s Hecuba to him, or he to Hecuba ?” asks Hamlet when he sees the travelling actor work himself into a frenzy of passion over the imaginary wrongs of the Trojan queen, while he—the Prince of Denmark—fails to arouse himself to avenge his “dear father murdered.” In a similar vein we may well ask,—What boots it to become engrossed in novels or dramas—good, mayhap, in themselves—but unworthy to take pre-

cedence over the records of the sufferings and struggles, the glorious victories and the no less honourable defeats, of our forefathers in the field of battle, on moors and in caves, in the council-chamber or on the scaffold, in the paths of industry or in the flights of scientific and philosophic ecstasy? "A dull and muddy-mettled rascal" truly is the Scot who can hear or read of the deeds of "Scotland's ancient heroes," or of her heroes in more modern times in war or peace, without a thrill of pride and gratitude,—without a bracing of his whole moral fibre. Well worthy is he of Scott's condemnation :

"The wretch, concentr'd all in self,
Living, shall forfeit fair renown,
And, doubly dying, shall go down
To the vile dust, from whence he sprung,
Unwept, unhonour'd, and unsung."

Much in trouble, oft in conflict, the character of the Scottish nation came forth gradually but surely ennobled.

In the formation of national traits no small part was played by the somewhat churlish soil and by the changeable, austere, yet withal healthy climate of northern Britain. This is especially true of the Highlands, whose inhabitants are well described by Waller as :

"A race unconquer'd, by their clime made bold,
The Caledonians, armed with want and cold."

If the land itself tended to bring out the manlier strain of character, the history of the nation emphasised and perpetuated that strain still more inevitably. In the desperate struggles for national existence, and later for religious and political freedom, the Scottish people was severely hammered on the anvil of adversity, and

it has come out a very tough piece of metal, with excellent wearing qualities. In this regard it is the Lowlander who has been chiefly affected. Sir Archibald Geikie declares: "In the formation of the national character, and in the development of the material prosperity of the country, the dominant influence has undoubtedly been that of the Lowlands. This little strip of territory became the battlefield on which the struggle for liberty was fought and won. Its smallness of size kept its people within touch of each other from sea to sea, and engendered, or at least nurtured, that spirit of standing shoulder to shoulder which is one of the distinctive national traits. And thus, not alone by the contact of man with man, but by the very conditions of the topography, were fostered that ardour of resistance, that stubbornness of purpose, that faculty of self-help, that love of country, that loyalty of Scot to Scot, which through good and evil report have marked off the nation from other men."

As might be expected in a nation bred in such a country and with such a history, the outstanding feature of Scottish character is a rugged genuineness like that of the oak,—coarse and unrefined to outward touch, but solid and capable of great things. Or, again, the Scot is like his native thistle, forbidding to those who know him but slightly, not softly waving welcome to all who spy him from afar, but to those who can see within the rugged exterior he has an inner sanctuary of grace and loveliness, like the sweet kernel of the thistle itself.

Such, too, is Scotland in its mental atmosphere. Its people are severely intellectual to a degree explainable only by the lead given to the nation centuries ago in education and in an intellectual type of religion. They dearly love an argument, and the time-honoured

custom of "heckling" is a truly indigenous growth. But withal they are tolerant and good-natured towards opponents. Foreigners and religious dissentients find Scotland a comfortable home. Conversely, no man more quickly takes his proper level and settles down as a law-abiding citizen in an alien land than the Scot,—not that he weakly adopts the characteristics of his new neighbours, but that he possesses the self-detachment and the imaginative sympathy necessary towards assessing himself at his true value in his novel surroundings.

In commerce the Scot is honourable, if keen. If he drives a hard bargain, he holds to it when arranged. As for his proverbial caution or "canniness" in his dealings with others, it is usually based on the not unreasonable principle, "He that cheats me ance, shame fa' him: he that cheats me twice, shame fa' me!"

The Scots are traditionally a religious people. Religious ideas are, and to a greater degree were till recently, "familiar in their mouths as household words." The homeliness of many of the phrases applied to the most sacred matters attests the reality of Scottish religious feeling. If, in the bustle of modern life, a phrase like "He's faur ben," as applied to a saintly character, finds less common employment than of yore, such an expression, in the presence of death, as "She's won awa'" retains a wealth of spiritual meaning which renders accurate translation almost impossible. Being bare of all ceremony or formality, the Scottish religion leaves little play to emotionalism. This has reacted on the national manners and character. To be seen under the influence of emotion is, in Scotland, to be so far disgraced. Is there another country on earth where less "gush" or display is shown in the sacred relationships of the family? Yet it would be a dire

mistake to attribute the seeming coolness to indifference. Nay, the emotions pent up through the reticence of years are often the main tie that binds the Scot to the auld folks by the ingle, and to auld Scotia itself, with a firmness that makes him one of the hardest of men to denationalise. The Scot loves his country and his kindred not from any mere shallow sentiment, but from a conviction of their true lovableness; and he is ready in general to render a reason for the faith that is in him. An American author, who, a few years ago, carefully studied the idiosyncrasies of the various kindred races within these isles, thus humorously, but with the substratum of truth that genuine humour always possesses, summed up his observations of the various types of patriotism: "If you abuse England to an Englishman, he growls. If you abuse Ireland to an Irishman, he knocks you down. If you abuse Scotland to a Scotsman, he *laughs*—so convinced is he that his country is the best."

As for the much-disputed question of the Scot's own appreciation of fun, we may well accept the very competent verdict of Max O'Rell (Paul Blouët): "In the matter of wit the Scot is an epicure, and only appreciates dainty food." He is not witty in the shallow sense. "The Scot is too natural to aim at being amusing, and it is just this simplicity, this naturalness, which disarms and overcomes you."

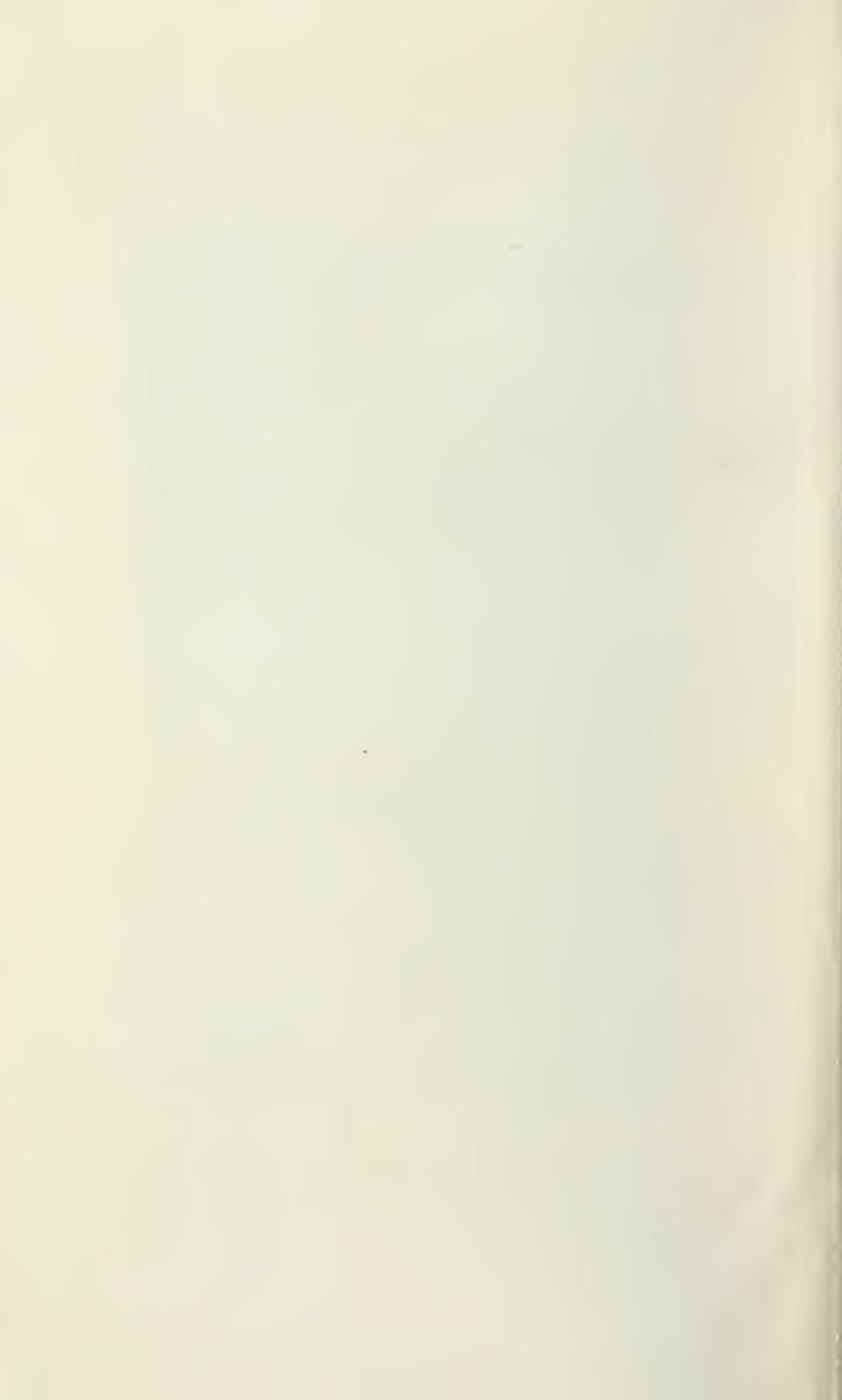
To glance at the reverse side of the shield, it must be frankly admitted that the average Scot is capable of improvement in the direction of developing a little more surface courtesy. Being able to fend for himself, he is apt to expect others, especially in the smaller matters of life, to do the same. He is consequently in many cases somewhat disobliging. Moreover, in the privacy of his home, among his own kith and kin



Thomas East, R. A.

WHEN THE DAY IS DONE.

Photo by Annan & Sons.



around the hearth, he might profitably allow the chill crust of reserve to thaw, and grant an outlet of expression to some measure of that affection which he feels as truly as any man.

The canker of drunkenness, which affects so large a portion of the nation, has been often enough referred to in these chapters, and we need not dwell upon it here except to remark how utterly this unlovely vice is opposed to every quality worthy of admiration in the Scot,—his intelligence, his thrift, his self-restraint and modesty, his resourcefulness, his reliability. Mr. Andrew Carnegie, as one of the world's greatest employers of labour, has certified that the sober Scot cannot be excelled as a workman. The pity is that so many cannot honestly claim that designation. Patriotism, common sense, and decency alike cry shame upon this foul blot on the national escutcheon.

No better or more sympathetic analysis of Scottish life and characteristics has been given by any outsider than by J. A. Froude, who clearly recognises that the Scottish character, while primarily one of grit, has not been without its kindlier side. "Among other good qualities," he says, "the Scots have been distinguished for humour,—not for venomous wit, but for kindly, genial humour, which half loves what it laughs at. I should say that the Scots had been an unusually happy people. Intelligent industry, the honest doing of daily work, with a sense that it must be done well; the necessaries of life moderately provided for; and a sensible content with the situation of life in which men are born, this through the week, and at the end of it the Cottar's Saturday Night,—the homely family, gathered reverently and peacefully together, and irradiated with a sacred presence.—Happiness! such

happiness as we human creatures are likely to know upon this world, will be found there, if anywhere."

He thus sums up the gist of the Scottish character: "There have rarely been seen in this world a set of people who have thought more about right and wrong, and the judgment about them of the upper powers. Long-headed, thrifty industry,—a sound hatred of waste, imprudence, idleness, extravagance,—the feet planted firmly upon the earth,—a conscientious sense that the worldly virtues are, nevertheless, very necessary virtues, that, without these, honesty for one thing is not possible, and that without honesty no other excellence, religious or moral, is worth anything at all,—that is the stuff of which Scotch life was made, and very good stuff it is."

Mr. Lloyd George, addressing a Welsh audience in London in December 1908, referred to the Scottish people as being "at the present moment the strongest race in the British Empire." "They had won," he continued, "the regard and the confidence of other kindred nationalities. The Scottish accent was almost as good as a testimonial."

In a similar strain, Professor Humphrey of Cambridge has said: "I always feel—what I think is by many admitted—that the Scotch are the finest people on the earth's surface: that the grandest combination of the physical, the mental, and the moral is produced here,—the sturdiest, halest bodies, with the largest brains, the strongest minds, and the best morale,—the qualities best calculated to thrive in every quarter of the globe."

The Scottish national character is a blend of many elements. Into it have entered the daring and resourcefulness, the romance and poetic imagination of the Borders, the stalwart courage and the fiery zeal of

the Highlands, the industrial and commercial ability, the clear reasoning and logical intelligence of the Lowlands. Taken all in all, its influence in British affairs has been a power for good.

It is not without good reason that Scotland has been described as "the sinew of the British Empire." Macaulay declares that "in perseverance, in self-command, in forethought, in all the virtues which conduce to success in life, the Scots have never been surpassed." But the sinewy, practical side of Scottish energy has been throughout guided by high principle, and it is just this unique combination of the glamour of romantic chivalry and lofty idealism with an eminently practical disposition and eminently practical capacity in her people, that has made Scotland of such value to the empire and to the world.

Not in wild bursts of contradictory impulses, not usually amid the ebb and flow of passion, but with a conscious aim and steady purpose, the genius of Scottish life has mapped out its plans, "precept upon precept, line upon line, here a little, and there a little," yet ever in the main forward in the direction of intelligent and well-ordered freedom.

Modified as it inevitably has been by modern conditions, the Scottish character is still well worthy of preservation in its main features, and not only every true Scot, but every loyal subject of the empire, and every well-wisher of the human race, may well echo the prayer of George Adam Smith—

"God keep Scotland Scottish, and save us from any false or servile imitation of our neighbours."

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