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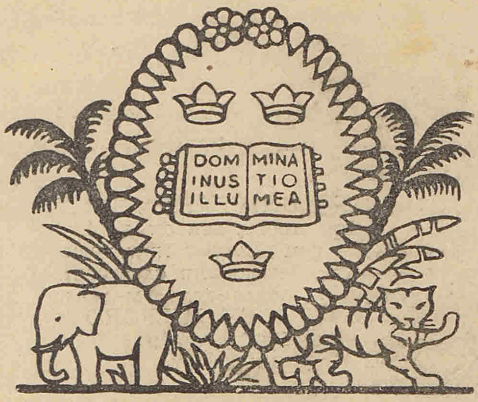
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THE STRUGGLE OF MODERN MAN

An Outline History of the World from A.D. 1450 to the Present Day

by

F. G. PEARCE



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BOOKS BY F. G. PEARCE

Footprints on the Sands of Time

Models of Comparative Prose (in collaboration with G. P. Aryaratna)

Models of High School Prose

More Models of High School Prose

Models of Prose and Verse

Yesterday, Today, Tomorrow

A Plan for Education (in preparation)

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Preface

There is need for a sketch of World History in simple straightforward language, to form a background for the study of the 'social sciences' (history, geography, civics, economics, politics) in the high school stages and beyond. It is also needed for senior basic (middle) school pupils who cannot continue their studies any further. Those who study Indian History only, with no background of World History, are at a great disadvantage. It is equally the case with those who study, for example, English History or British Empire History at the high school stage. Unless they have an idea of the broad background of world events against which the drama of their national history was played, they cannot understand its full significance.

No doubt, for those who are going to continue their studies, a quick survey of World History as a whole is the most useful. For these, the author of this book has written *Footprints on the Sands of Time—a quick survey of human history as marked by the lives of great men and women.*[1] Some teachers, however, prefer to spend more time on the modern period, and to omit the ancient. To meet their need, this book has been written. It covers the chief events of World History from A.D. 1450 to the present time. The language and treatment make it suitable for a pre-Matriculation class, and its 46 short lessons can easily be studied in the course of a single year.

A word on the subject of what is included and what is not. In concentrating the story of world events into so small a compass the main problem is what *not* to put in. In making my choice I have been guided, first, by the consideration that this book is for Indian boys and girls. I have given preference to matters, therefore, which have a bearing on Indian history or which are likely to interest Indian students. Next, in

[1] Oxford University Press, 4th ed., 1945 (Rs. 2).

restricting myself in the choice of subjects from Indian history, I have avoided the inclusion of matters which, however important to India, did not much affect the world around. But I have deliberately included the mention of events and characters of Eastern history having a direct bearing on events in other parts of the world. Thus, contact with the Chinese, resulting in the introduction of the mariners' compass to Europe, directly led to the discoveries of new sea-routes and new continents. The disunity of India after the deaths of Aurangzeb and Shivaji definitely opened the way for European aggression, and so on.

An attempt has been made, so far as is possible in so elementary a book, to indicate some of the problems which still have to be solved in ' the struggle of modern man '. The Key-Questions and Exercises will, it is hoped, help to stimulate thought as to how some of those problems may perhaps be solved in time to come. The Key-Questions will also be found useful for purposes of revision of the subject-matter, and as a help to those reading the book for pleasure or for private study.

F. G. P.

Victoria College
Gwalior
May 1945

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Note on Vocabulary

This book is written within the limits of a vocabulary of 1500 words on which the publisher has based a number of well-known series of English Readers for bilingual schools in India and other countries. All words in this vocabulary are likely to be familiar to those who have been following, for about three years, any efficient English course based on the principles of word-frequency and common straightforward usage. Extra words, numbering about 330, not included in the vocabulary of 1500, which have had to be used, are all listed in the Glossary at the end of the book (p. 187) where they are explained simply in terms of the limited vocabulary. Usages which are not the common ones have been separately listed. The total number of words employed in the book thus amounts to about 1850, being less than 2000.

1

Modern Man's Struggle to be Civilized

LESSON 1: WHAT IS 'CIVILIZATION'?

[Key-Question 1: *What four things help to make us civilized?*]

§1. Perhaps you will be surprised to read the title of this chapter. Is modern man struggling to be civilized? Are we not ourselves a part of 'modern man'? Are we not already civilized?

To answer these questions we must know what is meant by 'civilization'. What does it mean to be civilized? Does it mean having railway-trains and motor-cars to ride in, or radio-sets and telephones to send messages? There were no such things in ancient India—and would you therefore say that India was not civilized then?

Does it mean the manufacture of all kinds of articles, getting wealth through trade, being able to buy fine clothes and live in grand houses? Mahatma Gandhi does not do any of these things: he wears only the simplest hand-made clothes, and lives in a hut. Is he not civilized?

Then what does it mean to be civilized? There is a little book, written by a modern philosopher named Professor Joad, called *The Story of Civilization*.[1] Mr Joad tells us that some of the things which help us to become civilized are: *making beautiful things*; *thinking freely*; *thinking new things*; and *keeping the rules for living together*.

Just think for a moment of people you know. Are they doing all those things? Are we ourselves doing all those things?

Are we 'making beautiful things'? Yes: Indians make many very beautiful things—brass and copper vessels, fine saris, splendid temples and palaces. But look at the *ugly*

[1] Published by A. & C. Black Ltd.

things we make too. Think of our dirty villages, our ugly, crowded towns.

Are we 'thinking freely'? This means not only thinking but also saying and writing what we think. We are not completely free, but there are not many things that we are not allowed to say in public or in print. We can also listen freely to any foreign radio-stations. In Hitler's Germany, if people were caught doing that, they were sent to prison.

Are we 'thinking new things'? This means trying to get more knowledge, finding out new things about the earth and the wonders it contains, about plants and animals, about Man. Surely in this we can certainly say that modern men *are* civilized. There has never been a time when so many wonderful new discoveries were made; and India has played her part in these, too, through her great scientists. But we must admit that many of us go on thinking old things which have been proved to be untrue. There are still many people who think that Harijans are of less value than people belonging to higher castes. There are still people in America who think of negroes in that way: and there are people in England and Australia and South Africa who have the same opinion about Indians, and therefore do not treat them as equals. There are people who think that, because they have a lot of money or come from a noble family, they have the right to make poorer people work for them like slaves. Is this a civilized way to behave?

Are we 'keeping the rules for living together'? What are those 'rules'? They are the laws of the country, and the laws of good behaviour between human beings. In an uncivilized country, if a man steals the property of another man, the man whose things have been stolen takes revenge by going to the house of the robber and beating him or taking away something of his. If one man murders another on the north-west frontier of India, the dead man's relations think

it their first duty to kill a member of the murderer's family. We have learned to settle such quarrels in a better way in civilized countries. The cause of the quarrel or robbery or murder is discussed in full before a judge. When the court (that is the judge or judges) has heard all the evidence and all the discussion of the lawyers on both sides, the judgement is given by the court and both sides must accept it. This is a much more peaceful way of deciding quarrels; and a much juster one than letting the enemies fight, which only proves which of them is *stronger* in body, and not which of them is *right*!

[Key-Question 2: *How does the bad behaviour of people in one country now make a difference to all of us?*]

§2. Though we have learned to be civilized about quarrels between persons, we have not yet learned to be equally civilized about quarrels between nations. Do nations settle their quarrels with the help of a judge? Sometimes they do so. That was the object of having a *League of Nations*. But sometimes they do not agree to let a judge decide. Then the only way to decide is by war. Is that a civilized way?

So you see that we are still only learning to behave in a civilized way, as nations. We have not yet succeeded. But there is great hope; for, after a terrible and destructive war, more and more people feel determined to find a way of settling the quarrels of nations as the quarrels of persons are settled. This was the purpose of the great meeting at San Francisco in April 1945 at the end of the World War against Germany.

But there are also many small ways in which we show that we are not fully civilized in regard to 'keeping the rules'. For example, in India we are only just beginning to learn to stand in a 'queue', so that each may take his turn in buying a railway-ticket or whatever it is that all want to do.

If everyone tries to push into the first place, it is more difficult and unpleasant for everyone, especially for the weakest ones. So it is certainly a sign of civilization when people have learned to obey willingly such rules.

From all this I hope you now have some idea of what is meant by 'being civilized'. And you will of course see that no nation is yet perfectly civilized. In every country there are good men and women who behave in a truly civilized way. But there are still many who do not yet understand why they should behave in that way and who behave in a selfish way, not caring whether it harms other people or not. Sad to say, the less civilized people are still more than the civilized ones. And that is why the lives of human beings in all countries are full of suffering, much of which could be prevented if more people behaved in a truly civilized way.

Now, I think, you will understand why I have called this book *The Struggle of Modern Man*. We are all struggling to learn how to be more civilized. None of us is perfect. And every uncivilized thing that we do helps to bring suffering to our nation and to the whole world. On the other hand, every civilized thought that we think, every beautiful thing we help to make, every new discovery, every noble deed, helps to bring nearer the time when the world will *really* be civilized.

A few hundred years ago, people living in different countries—even people living in distant parts of the same country—could behave badly without doing much harm to people in other countries or other parts of their own country. If there was a cruel king in one of the European countries, it did not much matter to India or China. But it is no longer so. The 'new thinking' (which we call 'scientific invention') has joined the whole world together. The ideas of a man such as Edison, living on the other side of the world, make

a great difference to us in India. The ideas of some men in Germany and Japan set the whole world at war. A famine in Bengal made it necessary for wheat to be sent from Australia. As a famous American said, we live in *One World*, and not in scores of little separate worlds as in olden times.

Now we shall begin to study *how* this has come about. It is good to know and understand it, because by observing the mistakes which men have made in the past, we can avoid making them again. And, by studying the 'civilized' things that men have done, we can learn to increase and to spread civilization. That is one of the uses of History.

EXERCISES

1. Make one list of some beautiful things made in India, and another list of some of the ugly things.
2. Give the names of some Indian scientists. Mention their discoveries, too, if you can.
3. Mention some of the 'old things which have been proved untrue'.
4. Mention some more of the 'rules for living together'.

2

New Ways to New Knowledge

LESSON 2:

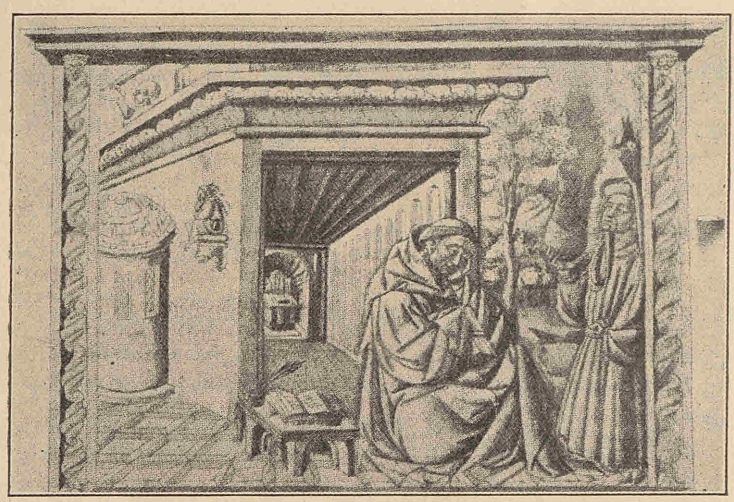
ROGER BACON; MARCO POLO; PRINTING

[Key-Question 3: *Why did clever men and women go to monasteries and convents in 'The Dark Ages' and what did they do there?*]

§3. When Yuan Chwang (sometimes spelt Hiouen Tsiang) visited India, in the time of king Harsha-vardhana, one of the things he noticed was the large number of broken temples and deserted towns. This had been caused all over North India by the invasion of the people known as *Huns*.

These attacks of the Huns went on in Asia and Europe

for several hundred years till about A.D. 500 and this time is often called *The Dark Ages*. During this time many peace-loving, studious men and women went to live in monasteries and convents[1], or in caves on islands or hills, such as Elephanta, Ellora and Ajanta. Here they were able to carry on their studies and religious thoughts with less danger of being disturbed.



ROGER BACON [*From an old manuscript*

The monks and nuns were not all interested only in religion. As we know from Ajanta and Ellora, some of them were artists in painting and stone-carving. Others were interested in science. One of the first of these, in Europe, was ROGER BACON. He was a monk at Oxford (where the University had just been started) and he spent his whole life in making experiments. About A.D. 1250 he found out how to make gunpowder, and nearly blew himself up in doing so. No

[1] Houses for colonies of religious men and women.

wonder the people of his time believed that Bacon was a magician.

At this time Asia was more advanced than Europe in many ways. China managed to keep the Huns out by means of the Great Wall, and for hundreds of years China was by far the most civilized country in the world, with India, under the Gupta kings, a good second. The Chinese had invented *paper*; they printed on it with wooden blocks; they made the most beautiful pottery the world has ever seen (even now we call it 'china'). They also invented gunpowder (Roger Bacon's discovery was without any knowledge of the earlier invention of the Chinese). And they discovered the use of *tea*. Perhaps you have read about the famous traveller from Venice, MARCO POLO, who, when he was a boy, went with his father and his uncle on a journey to the country of 'The Great Khan'. This was Kublai Khan, from whose family the emperor Akbar came. In the end, Marco got back to Venice thirty years after the start of his journey—and no one at first knew the hairy gentleman who had left home as a boy! When he told them of the wonders of China, everything was in *millions*. So he was nicknamed *Marco Milione*—'Marco the Million-man'! Marco Polo afterwards told the whole story of his travels to a friend who wrote them down in a book. It was partly the reading of this book which made Columbus wish to travel to China. So the travels of Marco across Asia helped to cause Columbus's journey across the Atlantic Ocean to America. You will read about that journey in the next chapter.

[Key-Question 4: *What discoveries and events helped to spread knowledge through Europe from* A.D. 1450 *onwards?*]

§4. The art of making paper was learned from the Chinese by the Arabs, and Europe learned it from the Arabs about this time. Printing from movable types was invented in Europe about A.D. 1450, long after it had been done in China;

but, so far as we know, the invention (like that of gunpowder by Bacon) was a separate one, not copied from the Chinese. The first printing-presses were in Holland and Germany; from Germany the art was brought to England by WILLIAM CAXTON. Both these inventions were very important for spreading knowledge. Books could be made in very large



AN EARLY PRINTING PRESS

numbers, and much more cheaply, through the making of paper and the invention of printing. Thus many people could have them, and this made the spread of education much easier.

Another thing happened about this time which also caused the spread of education. Some people known as the Ottoman Turks invaded Asia Minor, and in 1453 they took the great city of Constantinople (now called Istanbul). Constantinople, named after the Roman Emperor Constantine, had been the capital of the eastern part of the Roman empire for hundreds

of years, and it had many fine libraries of Greek and Roman books, and many schools and colleges. The Turks were Muslims, and the scholars of Constantinople, who belonged to the Christian religion, were afraid that they would be killed by the Turks when the city was taken by force. So they left Constantinople before it was taken, carrying with them their most valuable books. They fled to other parts of Europe. Many went to Italy, some to France and Germany, and some to England. Here they set up schools in order to earn their living. Some became professors in the Universities which were started about that time in several cities of Italy, and at Paris, Oxford, Cambridge, Prague[1] and Heidelberg.[2]

It was the spread of knowledge through the coming of these scholars, and through the printing of the books which they brought with them, and which they wrote, that helped the people of western Europe now to become much more civilized than they had been before. The growth of knowledge made men want more and more knowledge. They wanted to discover more about the world; and when they heard of the discovery of new lands, they wanted to know about the things and people of those lands. They began to want to live in a better way. They wanted to make and to possess beautiful things, fine clothes, books, pictures, and so on.

These are two of the ways, you see, which Mr Joad mentioned as leading to civilization: *thinking new things* and *making beautiful things*. But in the two other ways the people of Europe had a great deal still to learn. They had not learned to allow each other to *think freely*. And they had not learned to *keep the rules of living together peacefully*.

Now we shall hear about a great man who was one of those who led the way in 'thinking new things' and in 'making beautiful things'. His name was LEONARDO DA VINCI.[3]

[1] Pronounced 'Práh-g'. [2] Pronounced 'Hy-del-berg'. [3] Pronounced 'Lay-on-ár-do dah Viń-chee'.

LESSON 3: LEONARDO DA VINCI

[Key-Question 5:

What great work did Leonardo do in Florence and Milan?]

§5. Leonardo was born in 1452 in the little town of Vinci near Florence in Italy. When he was a boy, he was interested in all sorts of hobbies, particularly painting, and one day his father showed some of the boy's drawings to a friend who was an artist. The artist at once invited Leonardo to become his pupil. For seven years Leonardo worked under him and soon learned all that the master could teach. At the age of twenty he was one of the best artists of the city of Florence.

But he was not satisfied to be famous as an artist only. He was already thinking out plans for various kinds of machinery, for bridges and canals, for guns and other improved weapons, for rebuilding towns, and even for making aeroplanes. Most of these were things which a private person could not afford, so Leonardo was on the look-out to find a rich man to help him, some prince or ruler who wanted to have these improvements in his State. For a year or two he worked for the ruler of Florence. Then an offer was made to him by the Duke of Milan, and he entered the Duke's service when he was about thirty years of age.

Italy at that time was not under one ruler; it did not become a united nation till long afterwards. In Leonardo's time it was divided into a number of States, each one with its own ruler or duke. Fortunately the rulers were often rivals not in war only but also in beautifying their chief towns.

So Leonardo went to Milan. The first thing that he was asked to do by his new employer was to make a great statue of the uncle of the Duke on horseback. Leonardo was determined to do this work perfectly. He therefore spent several years in making a special study of the bodies both of men and horses. Then he made drawings of parts of the

statue and finally a model of the whole; but when it was almost finished he became dissatisfied with it, and began all over again. It was not until 1493, nearly ten years after he entered the service of the Duke, that he finished it. It was of



LEONARDO PAINTING *The Last Supper*

huge size, being no less than twenty-six feet high. Sad to say, it was not made of metal; and when a few years later, Milan fell into the hands of enemies of the Duke, the great model was first damaged, and then completely destroyed.

But during those remaining years in Milan Leonardo did other wonderful work. When plague broke out in the city, which was very unhealthy, he made plans to rebuild it on modern lines. The work for which he is most famous of all was begun in 1494; that was his great wall-painting of 'The Last Supper'. Just as in Ajanta the Buddhist monks have painted the walls of their monastery with pictures of scenes from the life of their great teacher, so in Italy the Christian monks used to have scenes from the life of Christ painted on

the walls and ceilings of churches and monasteries; and the richer monasteries often employed the most famous artists to do these. Leonardo was asked to make on the wall of the monks' dining-hall a great picture showing the Last Supper which Christ had with his twelve apostles before he was arrested by the Romans. Leonardo took four years to complete this picture. Unhappily, just as in the case of the Ajanta paintings, the weather has damaged the wall on which it was made and it is no longer perfect. But even as it is, it is one of the greatest paintings ever made by man.

[Key-Question 6: *In what ways was Leonardo a particularly great and extraordinary man?*]

§6. Leonardo then went to Venice, and took up mathematical studies, and also interested himself in geography. He wanted to find out how to use the tides of the sea to make power for machinery. Soon after this, he painted another of the pictures which have made him world-famous—the wonderful portrait of the Lady Lisa. A few days after it was finished, this picture was seen by the king of France, Francis I, who liked it so much that he bought it, and it has been safely kept in France to this day. The king became so fond of Leonardo that he invited him to spend the remainder of his life in France. Leonardo was by this time over 60 years old, and he accepted the offer. He spent the last three years of his life peacefully but busily (for he was a man whose mind could never stop working) in a castle which his royal friend kept for his use. Even during the last year of his life he was busy with plans for a new palace for the king and for a great canal to join two important rivers of France. He died in 1519.

Great men are often so busy with their own thoughts and plans that they have no time or interest for ordinary things. Leonardo da Vinci was not like that. He was lovable and fond of society. When he was young he was noted for his

good looks and strong healthy body; he had golden hair and such strong hands that he could bend an iron horse-shoe as if it had been made of lead. He liked horses very much, and was a splendid rider. He loved birds, and when he passed shops where birds were kept for sale in cages, he used to pay the price asked for the brids, and set them free. Though he used sometimes to go away alone by himself and spend days in thought or on some work that he had in hand, yet when he joined the company of others, he was the merriest of companions. He was always ready to give pleasure to others, by singing or taking part in theatricals and other entertainments. One of the last things he did in his life was to direct the entertainments at the marriage of the eldest son of his friend, the French king. So great and clever a man might have been proud; but Leonardo, though he knew what great powers he possessed, used them throughout his whole life with such kindness towards others that he made only friends.

From the study of the notes and drawings which were found after Leonardo's death, modern engineers believe that if he had been able to use some power like petrol, he would have been able to invent the aeroplane 350 years ago. He also knew a method of remaining a long time under the water, but he refused to tell it to anyone, ' because of the evil nature of man '.

Leonardo was so far in advance of his time that even now we are only just arriving at the point where his search for knowledge ended.

EXERCISES

1. Find out from books in your school library about Marco Polo, and write a short account of his adventures.
2. In what ways was Asia more advanced than Europe in A.D. 1400 and how did Europe catch up?
3. Why was it impossible for Leonardo to make an aeroplane which would fly?
4. What advantages did Leonardo have in A.D. 1500 which Roger Bacon could not have in A.D. 1250?

3

New Ways to New Worlds

LESSON 4: THE MARINERS' COMPASS[1]

[Key-Question 7:
What is 'The Mariners' Compass' and who invented it?]

§7. Look at the diagram. It shows the Eastern Hemisphere of our world—that is, all the world except the two Americas. But you will see that it is not shown as in an ordinary map. The hemisphere is cut into blocks. One big block is the Mongol Empire, made up of what is now China, with a good deal of Siberia, South Russia, Iran and Asia Minor. Then there is India. A third block is the Muslim Empire of the Middle East (Arabia, Egypt, Turkey, North Africa). The fourth block is Western Europe and European Russia. The last is all the remaining part of Africa, which is very faintly shown because almost nothing was then known about it.

This diagram shows all the parts of the world which had been heard of by educated people in Asia and Europe 700 years ago, about the year A.D. 1250. The various parts are shown just touching each other at a few points. Why? Because it was like that. The people of the different parts of the world could hardly ever meet. The people who lived in one block did not know anything about those who lived in the other blocks, except when a brave traveller, or perhaps a merchant or two, dared to cross from one block to another. Even when that happened, the traveller or merchant could be seen only by a very few people and could tell them very little about his own country because of the difference of language.

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[1] Pronounced 'kúm-pus'.

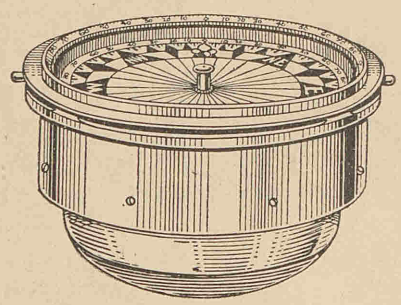
So there was very little knowledge of other parts of the world. The people in each block no doubt thought that *they* were the only civilized people in the world!



THE WORLD IN A.D. 1250

But, in spite of these difficulties, brave men did go from one block to another, from time to time. And it was due to this that some very important inventions, made by the clever people in one or other of the blocks, were carried to people in distant blocks, who made even greater use of them.

The first of these inventions was THE MARINERS' COMPASS, that is the compass used by sailors or seamen. You all know what a compass is. It is a little bit of iron or steel, which has the power (when allowed to turn freely, as when floated on water or balanced on a central pivot) to point north and south. It gets that strange power from a special sort of stone, called 'loadstone' (which means 'leading' or 'pointing stone'). This stone is really magnetic iron and it is dug out of the earth. If any bit of ordinary iron is rubbed with a piece of loadstone it will also become a magnet; it will draw very small pieces of iron (such as pins or needles) towards it; and it will point to the north and south when allowed to turn freely. I will not try to explain here *why* it points to the north and south. You must ask your Science teacher or your Geography teacher to explain that to you. You should also make a compass of your own, by magnetizing a steel needle and fixing it on a thin piece of thread so that it may turn to the north. Or you can float it on the surface of a cup of water on a thin bit of oiled paper. This was probably the way in which the Chinese first used it.



A COMPASS

[Key-Question 8: *How did the Mariners' Compass come to Europe and why was it very useful just then?*]

§8. So it was the Chinese who invented the compass? Well, nobody can be quite certain of that. But it seems most probable that it was so. They certainly sailed their ships as far as India (block No. 2) with the help of the *ting-nan-ching* which means 'the needle pointing south'. And it was

the Arab traders (of block No. 3) who learned about 'the needle pointing south' from them. The Arabs brought this valuable knowledge to the West, and it was from them that the Italians (of block No. 4) learned about it. From them it spread all over western Europe. So you see how 'thinking new things' in one part of the world was carried to another part, about 700 years ago.

I do not mean to say that this was the first time that anyone from one block had visited another. Of course, this is not so. But such visits were at very long intervals. It is only during the last 500 years that the peoples of the various blocks have begun to mix more freely and frequently. And that has been made possible through inventions such as the Mariners' Compass. Now let us see what use was made of it by the travellers in the fifteenth century (i.e. between A.D. 1400 and A.D. 1500).

In Lesson 2 you learned how the Ottoman Turks began to invade Asia Minor and other countries of the Eastern Mediterranean. They were Muslims, and they did not wish to be friends with the traders of western countries whose religion was Christianity. They therefore stopped European merchants from sailing their ships in the Eastern Mediterranean and from carrying on trade with Arab merchants who brought things from India.

This was a great loss to the merchants of Europe, for India was ahead of Europe at that time in making beautiful cotton and silk cloth; and rich people in Europe wanted to buy these, as well as spices (such as ginger, chillies, cinnamon and cloves, which cannot be grown in a cold climate). So, naturally, the shipmen of Europe began to think of finding another way to reach India.

A new discovery pointed the way. It was really an old discovery which had been forgotten for a long time. The Greek geographer Eratosthenes who lived more than 1600

years before (about 200 B.C.) had proved that the world was not flat but spherical (like a ball). His writings had been re-discovered by the scholars of Greek, and men began to wonder whether it might be possible to go to India by sailing round the globe *westwards*, now that the Muslims stopped them from going by the eastern way.

The people who most wanted to do this were, naturally, those whose trade had been upset most—the men of Genoa and Venice (the great ports of northern Italy), of Portugal and Spain, and later on, those of Holland and the British Isles. This was how CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, a shipman of Genoa, had the idea of reaching India, China and Japan, by sailing to the *west*.

LESSON 5:

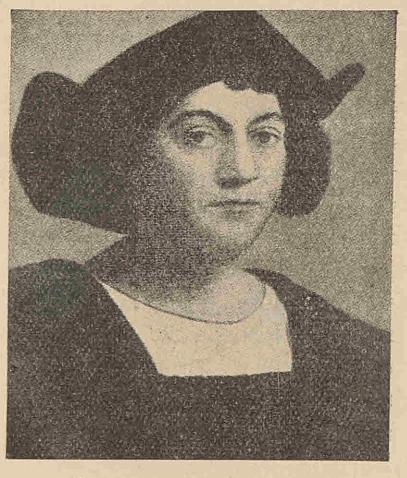
COLUMBUS: VASCO DA GAMA: MAGELLAN

[Key-Question 9: *What new lands were discovered by Columbus?*]

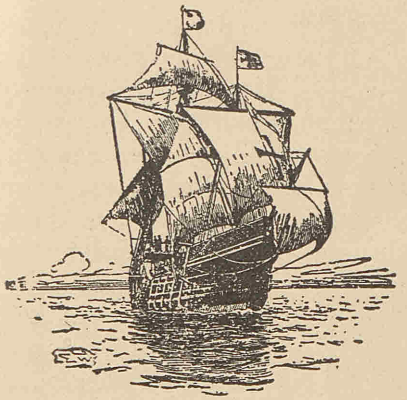
§9. Columbus was a poor man, and his only hope of having a ship big enough to sail on the stormy Atlantic Ocean was by getting the help of a rich and powerful person. But nobody would listen to his idea of sailing westwards to China. They thought it foolish. In the end he managed to persuade the King and Queen of Spain to give him three small ships. The largest of them was the *Santa Maria* of only 100 tons; it could carry 52 men; the smallest was of 40 tons and had a crew of 18. Think what this means. We now use ships of 20,000, 40,000 and even 80,000 tons. They are sometimes more than 1,000 feet in length and nearly a quarter of a mile from end to end. Columbus's biggest ship was 65 feet long, less than the length of a cricket-pitch!

He set sail from Spain on 3 August 1492, and sailed on

for two months, westwards across the Atlantic, without seeing any sign of land. After more than a month Columbus's men began to get frightened; they had seen stars falling into the sea (meteors); the ship came to a place where the sea was thickly covered with sea-weed (the Sargasso Sea). The men wanted to turn back home. They began to threaten their captain. But on 11 October some green branches and a piece of wood were seen floating on the sea. They knew that land must be near. During the night Columbus himself saw a light in the distance. How excited they must all have been! Next morning land was in sight. Was it India, China or Japan?



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS



THE *Santa Maria*

They landed, carrying the flag of Spain. Of course, it was not really part of India, China or Japan. It was an island of the Bahama group. You will find it in your atlas marked as Watling Island, in the West Indies. 'The *West Indies*!' That name shows where Columbus imagined

he had arrived—India. He found that the inhabitants were of a reddish-brown colour, so he called them 'Red Indians'. And when it was proved that the 'Indies' were not part of India at all, they were called the 'West Indies', as the other Indies were known as the 'East Indies'.

After staying for a few months, and discovering some neighbouring islands (but not the mainland of America), Columbus set sail for Spain again. He arrived safely in February 1493, bringing with him, as presents to the King of Spain, gold, cotton, some birds and animals unknown to Europe, and two 'Red Indians', to prove that he had really reached his goal.

The Spanish king was now very willing to give him more ships and men for other such voyages. He sailed the very same year with 17 ships and more than 1,500 men, with animals and material for setting up a colony in the new land. This time the voyage was made in less than six weeks.

Columbus landed his colonists on Hispaniola (Little Spain) island, now called Haiti. He himself went on to discover more places. He never reached the mainland of North America, but he explored most of the islands now called the Greater Antilles. When he got back to Hispaniola after nearly a year, he found the colony in a bad condition. The people chosen for it were not of the right sort. They were ignorant and greedy, and had begun to behave very badly to the Indians with the result that there was a rebellion. It was put down by force. And then a very bad thing was done: five shiploads of Indians were sent to Spain to be sold as slaves.

Meanwhile Columbus sailed back to Spain, and in 1498 again set out on his third voyage. On this occasion he went further towards the south-west. He discovered the island which he named Trinidad, and then sailed along the coast of South America to the mouth of the great river Orinoco (see map). The great quantity of water poured out into the

sea by this river showed clearly that it must be a *very* big one, and not just an island stream. Columbus began to understand that he had discovered a new continent.

The great explorer was now over 50 years old, but he could not rest. In 1502 he set out again on the voyage which was to be his last one. He reached the West Indies, then went on to Jamaica, and finally just touched the shores of Central America where Honduras now is. He thought he had reached the country of the Great Khan (China). But he was to see no more of it, for storms drove his ships away from the land, and after much disappointment and difficulty he got back to Spain in 1504, worn out. Two years later he died.

[Key-Question 10: *What was discovered by Vasco da Gama and by Magellan?*]

§10. Another great explorer who went on his travels at about the same time as Columbus, was VASCO DA GAMA, a man of Portugal. Setting out from Lisbon the capital of Portugal, Vasco sailed his four ships right along the west coast of Africa till he reached the Cape of Good Hope. From there he found that the coast began to



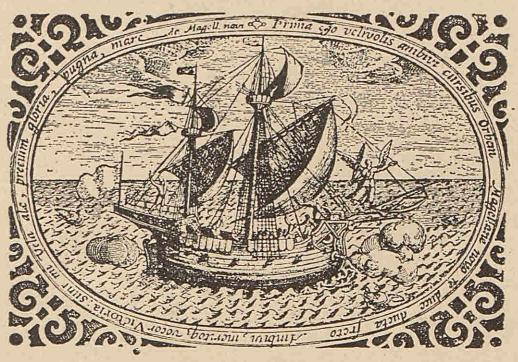
VASCO DA GAMA AT CALICUT

bend eastwards, and he followed it on and on, east and then north, until he reached Malindi (just north of where Mombasa now stands, in Kenya). Here he met Indian merchants, and with the help of a pilot lent by them, da Gama then sailed his ships right across the Indian Ocean to Malabar, landing at Calicut, where he met the ruling prince, or Zamorin, of Calicut. Da Gama got back safely to Lisbon in 1499, after having been away for more than two years. This voyage was a very important one because it was the beginning of other visits to India by the Portuguese. It is sad to have to say that on his second visit with a fleet of ten big ships he behaved with great cruelty to the people of Calicut, in revenge for the killing of some Portuguese who had been left behind earlier. He visited India a third time in 1524, and died in the same year at Cochin. Less important, perhaps, but more interesting than the voyage of da Gama was that of another Portuguese, FERDINAND MAGELLAN, the first man whose ship sailed right round the world.

In 1519, Magellan set out on his great adventure. He had five ships with him. He had made up his mind to reach India by sailing round the world to the south of America. From Portugal, Magellan sailed across the Atlantic Ocean until he reached the coast of Brazil. Going along the coast he reached the mouth of the great river La Plata. He went into the estuary, hoping to find that it was a passage through America into the Indian Ocean. Of course he was disappointed. Then he sailed south and spent the winter on the coast of a country whose people are very tall and had big feet. He called them Patagonians, which means 'Big Feet'. When the winter was over he sailed on, and at last arrived at the strait which is now named after him, the Strait of Magellan. It took him more than a month to sail through, for it is a very dangerous place, full of rocky islands, and the wind is usually from the west. At last he entered the

great western ocean. It was so calm at that time that Magellan named it the Pacific (peaceful) Ocean.

Now he was on the widest ocean in the whole world. He sailed across it for more than three months, seeing only two small islands on the way. Food and water ran short. At last the men had nothing left to eat but the rats which lived in the ship. But, just in time, they came to an island, which was probably the island now called Guam. The people were so wonder-struck to see the strange visitors that they came on to the ship and took away articles belonging to Magellan and his men. From this he named the islands the Ladrone (robber) islands, and you will see that name on the map. Westward still they sailed, reaching the islands now named the Philipines. They made friends with the king of Cebu island, but this was a most unfortunate thing. The king asked his new friends to help him to conquer a neighbouring island, and in doing so Magellan was killed. After some time Magellan's men went away with three out of the four ships. Two were lost, and only the *Victoria* managed to sail on, to Borneo and then right across the Indian Ocean to Africa, down the coast to the Cape (for there was no Suez Canal at that time), and so at last northwards back to Portugal. Magellan's ship *Victoria*, but without its brave captain, had sailed right round the world!



THE *Victoria*

EXERCISES

1. What difficulties prevented people in olden times from travelling to see distant parts of the world?
2. Make a list of invasions or famous visits of foreigners to India and mention the purpose for which each was made?
3. What events made the European merchants try to find new trade routes after A.D. 1400, and what discoveries helped them to find such trade routes?
4. What good things and what bad things resulted from Columbus's voyage?
5. Which was the more important event, Magellan's voyage round the world, or Vasco da Gama's visit to India? Give reasons for your answer.

4

The Struggle for Free Thought

LESSON 6:

TOLERANCE: THE CATHOLIC CHURCH

[Key-Question 11: *What is 'tolerance' and why is it important for civilization?*]

§11. The civilizations which grew up, long, long ago, on the banks of the great rivers—the Nile (Egypt), the Euphrates-Tigris (Sumeria), the Indus and perhaps the Ganges (India), the Yangtze Kiang (China)—were all civilizations in which men produced great 'works of art'; that is, made beautiful things.

In those ancient civilizations men also learned to 'keep the rules'. At first, no doubt, they were forced by fear of punishment to keep the rules made by their leaders or kings. But, in time, they began to see that they could live more happily and peacefully if everyone kept certain rules even without being forced to do so. It was a hard lesson to learn, and we have not all learned it yet, otherwise we should not have war.

In some ways, too, men began to 'think new things' in those days of long ago. There were great discoveries and inventions, such as the use of fire, tools of many kinds, the wheel (a

wonderful invention, surely), the discovery of metals and their use, and so on. We do not know who invented or discovered these things. Such discoveries took place very rarely, and at very long intervals. Many were made by the Chinese and the Indians, and many more by the Greeks, who, beyond all the ancient peoples, were always asking 'why?' and 'how?', and trying to find an answer.

Thus, three out of the four 'factors of civilization' can be found in several of the ancient civilizations; but what about the fourth? Let us examine it for a few minutes. '*Thinking freely*'—what does it mean, and why is it important for the growth of civilization?

It means that people should be free to get knowledge—by hearing any teacher, by reading any book, by discussion with others—and should not be forced to accept any ideas merely because the king or the government or any other powerful person believes those ideas to be true. This kind of freedom is called 'toleration', and it is very important, for Man's mind cannot grow fully without it. But it has taken men a very, very long time to understand this, and even now there are many people who do not understand it, and much trouble and suffering is the result.

It is usually in matters of religion that people are not tolerant, because religion is a thing which many people believe to be very important. Those who belong to a particular religion often believe that that religion alone is right and all other religions are wrong. They are therefore intolerant of other religions, and sometimes try to interfere with people who believe in those religions, and even to force them to change their religion through fear of punishment or death. You have probably read about kings who tried to do this, in India or in other countries. Generally, India and China have been ahead of other countries in tolerance, but even Indians have not *always* been so.

There are other things, besides religion, about which men are sometimes intolerant. Try to find out what they are. But religion is the thing about which people have most commonly been intolerant. In the lesson which follows, we shall see how people in Europe struggled to have freedom in religion, but, after getting it for themselves, they made the terrible mistake of refusing it to others who did not agree with them. If you want to be free to think for yourself, you must give the same freedom to others. That seems perfectly clear. But it was not easy to learn. And we shall now see how the people of Europe, who struggled for free thought, fought amongst themselves, and went on fighting and doing harm to each other, until at last they learned tolerance. But, before they learned it, millions of people had to die in the struggle.

[Key-Question 12:
Who was the Pope and what was the Catholic Church?]

§12. Most of the great religions have a holy book, which is believed to contain the commands of God, or rules for worshipping Him, or how to behave, and so on. The holy book of the Christians is called the Bible.

Christ was born a Jew, and lived in Palestine which at that time was ruled by the Romans, whose chief city was Rome. When the Christian religion began to spread, it was taken to Rome, and after some time the Bishop (the chief priest) of Rome became the head of the Christian religion. He was called 'Papa' or 'Pope' (which means 'Father'). The people who accepted the Christian religion under the Pope's leadership were called *Roman Catholics*. One of their beliefs was that the Pope was appointed by God and that whatever the Pope said was true and must be obeyed.

The Bible of the Christians was partly written in the language of Palestine (the Jewish language, Hebrew) and partly in Greek; but it was translated into Latin, the language of the Romans, by order of the Pope. Latin became the

language of the Roman Catholic Church, just as Sanskrit is the language used by Hindus for worship, and Arabic by Muslims. Now, just as Sanskrit is only known by learned men, who in the past were usually priests, so Latin was known only to the learned people in Europe in A.D. 1400. Most of the people of Europe at that time not only did not know Latin, but they were quite uneducated; they could not read or write any language at all.

They could not read the Bible for themselves, therefore: they had to take the help of the Roman Catholic priests, both to read the Bible for them and to tell them what was in it. This gave great power to the priests, for every good Christian believed that whatever was written in the Bible was the word of God. Therefore, if the priests said that such-and-such a thing was written in the Bible, it had to be accepted and obeyed.

Things went on well enough so long as the priests were good men. But in 1400 years it would be surprising if none of the priests, or even of the Popes, had been bad men. There were, of course, some bad ones, and it was through some of their actions that trouble began. I will not tell you here exactly what happened: you can learn that when you are older, if you want to know. But, anyhow, some orders were given by one of the Popes which seemed to some Catholics to be quite wrong. How could they decide? They decided to read the Bible for themselves, and to see whether in their own opinion, the order of the Pope was according to the Bible or not.

LESSON 7: JOHN WYCLIFFE: MARTIN LUTHER: THE JESUITS

[Key-Question 13: *What was Protestantism and why did it lead to war?*]

§13. One of the first to do this was JOHN WYCLIFFE, an English priest. To help those not knowing Latin to read or

to hear and understand the Bible for themselves, he translated it into English. This was a very important step towards giving men the right to free thought in religion. Wycliffe's example was followed by JOHN HUSS, a scholar of Prague (the capital of the country now called Czechoslovakia), who suffered a terrible death for this. He was ordered by his Catholic judges to say publicly that the Pope's orders must be obeyed as the orders of God. He refused to say this, and, as a punishment, he was tied by chains to a wooden post and burned alive. But even this terrible punishment did not stop the ideas of Wycliffe and Huss from spreading, and presently there were many people who—some openly and many secretly—read the Bible for themselves. Some of them were brave enough to protest against (that is, to speak against) the things they thought to be wrong in the Roman Catholic religion. They therefore came to be known as *Protestants*, and the religion they followed is called Protestant Christianity.



MARTIN LUTHER

The most famous of all these Protestants was a monk of Germany, called MARTIN LUTHER. Luther openly spoke and wrote against the teachings of the Pope, and he would no doubt have suffered the same fate as John Huss if he had not had powerful people to protect him. For, by this time (about 1520, when Leonardo da Vinci had just died and Magellan was on his way round the world), even the kings and noblemen of Europe had also begun to take an interest in this 'new thought'. I am sorry to say that in many cases it was not

because they were really interested in new thought about religion. The real reason was that some kings (such as King Henry VIII of England) were jealous of the Pope's power to interfere in religious affairs in all countries where Roman Catholic Christianity was the religion. Such kings supported the Protestants against the Pope. Others supported the Pope. Thus, England and Scotland, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and the northern part of Germany became Protestant countries, because their kings took the side of the Protestants against the Pope. On the other hand, France, Spain, Italy, Austria and south Germany took the Pope's side. It was this division which led to the terrible 'religious' wars which went on in northern Europe for nearly a hundred years. Germany, in particular, suffered very badly. Most of the princes and nobles of north Germany took the Protestant side, while those of the south were Catholics. They fought each other savagely in the name of religion. Towns and villages were destroyed by both sides and tens of thousands of people were killed. Fields went out of cultivation for want of men to work on them. Famine and disease spread and killed hundreds of thousands more. And when one side or the other conquered, what did it prove? Did it prove that the Catholic religion was true or the Protestant religion untrue, or vice versa? Of course not. It only proved which side had the best armed and best trained soldiers, or the most skilful leaders. It did not lead to 'thinking freely'. In fact, it often led to just the opposite. For those who won the battles thought they had the right to force their defeated enemies to change their religion. Thus *intolerance* was the real conqueror.

[Key-Question 14: *Who started the Society of Jesus and why? What have the Jesuits done?*]

§14. We must end this chapter by telling about a man who really tried to get rid of the bad things which had grown up

inside the Roman Catholic Church, without destroying the Church itself. He was a young nobleman of Spain, later known as SAINT IGNATIUS OF LOYOLA. When Ignatius was a young man, he was a brave soldier and took part in the wars. His legs were badly broken by a cannon ball, and it was thought that he would die. But he got well slowly, and, during the months he had to spend in bed, a great 'new thought' took shape in his mind. He decided to do something to help the Roman Catholic religion which he believed was the true religion. Though a nobleman, he had had no real education, and first, he decided, he must be thoroughly educated. So, when he was cured, he joined the University. After many years of study, when he was 47 years old, Ignatius founded the 'Society of Jesus', whose members are now known as Jesuits. The Jesuits made a promise that they would spend the whole of their lives in work for the Roman Catholic Church. One of the chief ways in which they worked was in opening good schools, and to this very day the Jesuits schools are noted for their thoroughness. Thousands of Jesuits went out to distant countries to convert the peoples of those countries to Catholic Christianity. They have undoubtedly done great and unselfish work for their religion. Long after his death Ignatius was declared by the Pope to be a holy man or 'Saint'. He is therefore known as Saint Ignatius of Loyola. He lived at about the same time as Luther.

EXERCISES

1. What is tolerance? Is it important for the growth of civilization? Give reasons for your answer.
2. Why did the spread of Protestantism result in cruelty and war?
3. Read something more about Martin Luther and Saint Ignatius of Loyola and write a short life of each of them and the work they did.

5

Europe Stretches East and West

LESSON 8:
THE PORTUGUESE: CORTEZ: PIZARRO

[Key-Question 15: *Where did the Portuguese set up trading-stations?*]

§15. Men like Columbus, Vasco da Gama, and Magellan went out on long and dangerous voyages because they wanted to discover unknown parts of the world. But there were others who travelled to distant lands for a different reason: they wanted to trade and grow rich.

We must not forget that, at this time—about A.D. 1500—countries like China and India were ahead of the European countries in many ways. The Mongol empire did not last long after the death of the great Kublai Khan (the emperor whom Marco Polo served), but the Mongols were followed by able rulers called the Mings, in whose time the Chinese made their most beautiful pottery as well as the finest silk, and a great deal of good sculpture (the carving of wood, ivory, metal and stone). It was a difficult time for northern India, for the Afghans had by now conquered many of the Rajput kingdoms. But, in spite of such disturbances Indian craftsmen made the finest cotton cloth in



BLUE AND WHITE MING JAR

the world, and Europeans wanted to buy this, as well as other luxuries not found in Europe, such as spices.

The Portuguese were the first Europeans to have trading stations in India, and we have already read how Vasco da Gama came to Calicut. Other Portuguese colonies were set up at Cochin, Goa, Bassein, Daman and Diu, all on India's west coast. Soon afterwards the Portuguese invaded Ceylon, and for nearly 100 years they ruled the whole coastal region of that island, converting many of the Buddhist Sinhalese[1] to Roman Catholic Christianity. That is why many Sinhalese still have Portuguese names, e.g. Pereira, De Silva, etc. The Portuguese went still further east for trade, to the islands of the East Indies called the Spice Islands or Moluccas, where they set up forts and trading stations. Finally they reached even China and set up their colony at Macao, near the mouth of the Canton river. They were the first Europeans to reach Japan. If you look at a map, you will see that many of the places named above still belong to the Portuguese. Ceylon does not, for that was taken from them by the Dutch, and later the British conquered it from the Dutch.

It is interesting to note that the Portuguese were trying to find the way to India, round Africa, when they landed on the coast of Brazil. Brazil became a Portuguese colony, and its language is still Portuguese.

[Key-Question 16: *Who conquered Mexico and Peru? How and why were they conquered?*]

§16. Columbus and Magellan, neither of whom were Spaniards, were in the service of the Spanish king. Therefore the new lands discovered by them (the West Indies by Columbus, and the Philippine Islands by Magellan, named after King Philip of Spain) were claimed for Spain. But the biggest discoveries of the Spaniards were on the mainlands of Central and South America. In 1518, a Spanish officer named

[1] *Sinhalese,* people of Ceylon (belonging to the 'Lion' race).

HERNANDO CORTEZ sailed from Cuba in the West Indies to the coast of Mexico, in ten ships with 600 soldiers and a few horses and guns. The people of that country, who were called Aztecs, had never seen horses and guns before, and they were so wonder-struck at the size of the strangers' ships that they thought the gods had come to visit them and offered them a great welcome. The Aztec religion was sun-worship, and the Aztecs thought that the Spaniards, in their shining steel armour, must be sons of the sun! Iron and steel were unknown to them; they used copper, silver and gold.

But the friendliness did not last. One of the Spaniards was killed, and, when the Aztecs saw that the newcomers were not immortal gods but men like themselves, they turned against them, and fighting began. The Spaniards, though few in number, had the great advantage of steel weapons and of guns. They had a difficult time, but in the end they won. Montezuma, king of the Aztecs, was forced to surrender and his life was spared only in return for a very big ransom in gold and jewels. Soon afterwards, Montezuma was killed by his own people who were angry with him for his surrender to the Spaniards. So Mexico passed under Spanish rule.

Cortez did not remain in Mexico after its conquest but went on to make more discoveries. He got as far as the southern part of California. Then he returned to Spain, only to find that enemies had been busy plotting to take away from him the king's favour. He never regained it and died a disappointed man. There is a story that, when Cortez was an old man, he managed to force his way into the presence of the king, who did not remember him. When asked who he was, he replied: 'I am a man who has added more provinces to your empire than your forefathers handed down to you.' But the king of Spain did not care to remember what Cortez had done for his country.

The Spaniards were also the first Europeans to make great

conquests in South America. Here also they found a great ancient civilization, that of the Inca people who lived in Peru. The name of the Spanish leader was FRANCISCO PIZARRO[1].

On a journey to Panama, Pizarro heard that Peru was a land in which gold was so plentiful that it was used, as we use silver in India, for plates, cups, etc. This news no doubt made Pizarro decide to find that wonderful country, and he did so in 1532. Alas! he behaved with great falseness and cruelty. The Inca king received Pizarro kindly, but Pizarro played a trick upon him. He made him prisoner and, after taking a great ransom in gold and jewels, murdered him. Peru came under Spanish rule, and for a long time afterwards was the chief country from which the Spaniards took all the valuable things they could find, not caring how many Incas they had to kill in doing so.

LESSON 9:

DRAKE: THE EAST INDIA COMPANIES

[Key-Question 17: *How did Spain grow wealthy and what was the result?*]

§17. The desire to get gold easily, led the Spaniards into great cruelties in America; and it also led to another great evil, that of *slavery*. In Lesson 5 we have mentioned how Columbus sent Red Indians from the West Indies to be sold as slaves. Slavery grew in Mexico and South America in another way also. When the Spaniards had taken from the Aztec and Inca temples and palaces all the gold ornaments and vessels that they could find, they found out where the gold came from —the rich mines of Mexico and Peru. First, they made slaves of the Mexicans and Peruvians and forced them to work in the mines. But they could not get enough of these. So negroes were brought from Africa. Thus began the great evil

[1] Pronounced 'pit-zár-o'.

of negro slavery in America which has given America a problem not solved even today, though the negroes are no longer slaves.

The sudden flow of gold into Spain made that country very wealthy for a time, but it soon had bad results. Other European peoples, seeing Spain grow rich, felt jealous, and wanted to get a share. In order to prevent the Spanish and the Portuguese from quarrelling for possessions overseas, the Pope in 1494 had marked a line on the map of the world dividing it into two parts.

But a line drawn on a map, even by the Pope, was not able to stop other people from trying to take away from the Portuguese and the Spanish the trade and the treasure they had found. The most dangerous rivals of Spain were the English.

Their leader, FRANCIS DRAKE, with a few small but fast and well-equipped ships, again and again attacked the big Spanish ships carrying treasure from America to Spain. It was after one such attack on the harbours of Peru that Drake sailed north, in his famous ship *The Golden Hind,* loaded with treasure taken from the Spaniards. Anxious to find a quick way home, he sailed more and more northwards, thinking that there might perhaps be an easy way round the north of America, as there was one round the south. Of course, he could not find this. When he reached a point on the American coast nearly as far north as Vancouver, he decided to go no further but to return home round the world in the opposite direction. With great bravery he sailed west, across the widest part of the Pacific Ocean. After going on and on for more than three months he at last reached the Spice Islands (in the East Indies). From there he went to Java, then right across the Indian Ocean to South Africa, round the Cape of Good Hope, and so north again to Europe and home. He had been away for nearly three years.

Not long after Drake's return to England, the king of Spain made up his mind to punish the English once and for all. A great fleet of warships was made ready, with thousands of soldiers on board, with which England was to be invaded and conquered. But before the fleet could leave its Spanish port, Cadiz, Drake sailed suddenly into the harbour and sent fire-ships among the great ships of Spain, burning many of them. But, the year after this, the Spanish Armada (the great fleet of Spain) was ready again and set out for England. In the English Channel it met with storms, and was also attacked by the lighter and faster ships of the English navy. The Spaniards were not able to land on the English coast, and presently the strong wind drove their ships northwards into the stormy North Sea. They could not return to Spain except by going right round the north of Scotland and to the west of Ireland. Most of them were wrecked in trying to do this. After this, the power of Spain grew less, while that of the English increased.

[Key-Question 18: *What European peoples started trading companies and where?*]

§18. Meanwhile, the Dutch had also joined the game of trade rivalry. They set up a colony on the coast of north America, where New York now stands, and others in Guiana and Brazil. Another was at the Cape of Good Hope in South Africa. Finding the Portuguese in Ceylon before them, they fought them, turned them out, and set up their own colonies. Many old Dutch forts and houses can still be seen in Ceylon. But, most important of all, were the Dutch colonies further East—in Sumatra, Java and the Spice Islands—from most of which they drove out the Portuguese.

It was about the year 1600 that the English began to try to start trade in India and the East. In that year Queen Elizabeth allowed some London merchants to start a trading company called 'The East India Company', and in 1614 the

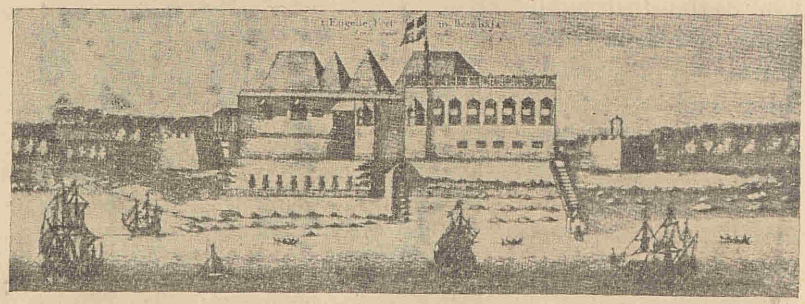
Company got permission, from the Mogul emperor Jahangir, to build a 'factory' at Surat. Such 'factories' were just a group of houses where the merchants lived and kept their goods. For safety they had a strong wall all round where guards were kept. Gradually, therefore, they became like small forts from which the merchants carried on their trade. 'Factories' were soon set up at Madras, Bombay and Calcutta. With the permission of the Mogul emperor, the Company also kept its own men at inland places, such as Agra and Allahabad, where Indian goods were collected and then brought to the factories on the coast to be shipped to Europe.



AT THE COURT OF THE GREAT MOGUL

The French East India Company was formed later than the English one. but Pondicherry in the south and Chandernagore near Calcutta soon became important trading centres. About the same time the French were also very busy exploring and trading in north America. They were the first Europeans to sail up the river St Lawrence and to discover the Great Lakes. They traded in valuable skins and furs with the Red Indians. They also set up many trading posts in the valley

of the great river Mississippi and its tributary the Ohio. We shall see in Chapter 8 how the rival claims of the English and



EAST INDIA COMPANY'S FORT AT BOMBAY

the French, both in India and in America, led to a 'Seven Years' War'.

EXERCISES

1. In what ways were the Chinese and Indians ahead of the Europeans at this time? What was one of the results of this?
2. Make a list of places in each of the continents which at this time were used for trade by each of the following European peoples: Portuguese; Spanish; Dutch; French; British.
3. What differences can you notice between these three sorts of European colonies: (*a*) The Spanish in Mexico; (*b*) The Portuguese in India; (*c*) The French in Canada.
4. Read something more about Sir Francis Drake, and write a short account of his life.

6

Shakespeare and His Time

LESSON 10: THE REVIVAL OF LEARNING: SHAKESPEARE AND HIS PLAYS

[Key-Question 19: *What great changes began at the time of the Revival of Learning?*]

§19. In some history textbooks a great deal of space is taken up by the stories of kings and their conquests of each others' countries, and this gives us a wrong idea of the importance

of kings and wars. The acts of men and women are the results of their thoughts and feelings. Therefore the struggle towards civilization has been helped more by those who changed men's ideas and feelings than by those who changed only the boundaries of the countries in which they lived. That is why in this book you will find more pages given to the stories of those who helped to spread great *ideas*—in religion, science, art, or government—than to those who built great palaces or destroyed thousands of their fellow-men.

In all the world's history up to recent times, the period of 'The Revival of Learning' or 'The Age of Wonder'—from about A.D. 1300 to A.D. 1600—was perhaps the richest in new ideas and great changes. The centre point of that period, the year **1450**, is easy to remember. It was also the time of the attack on Constantinople by the Ottoman Turks, of the escape of the Greek scholars with their books, of the beginning of printing in Europe, and of the beginning of discovery of new sea-ways to east and west. Try to keep this date in mind.

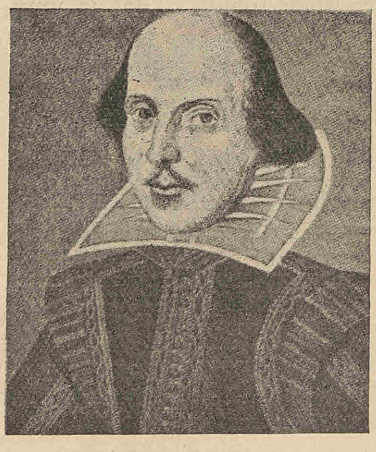
The Revival of Learning began in Italy. The greatest Italian poet, Dante,[1] was a young man when Marco Polo came back with his wonderful stories of the empire of the Great Khan. Leonardo da Vinci was born just at the time when the Greek scholars were escaping into Italy. England was so far away to the west that the changes did not happen there till much later. The English did not begin their voyages of discovery until a hundred years after the time of Columbus.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE was born in 1564 and lived right through those exciting times when new lands and sea-ways were being discovered and when King Philip of Spain sent his Armada to crush the English and force them to remain Catholics. Boys who lived in the sea-coast towns, especially, must often have heard sailors, back from voyages and wars in distant lands, telling of the wonderful adventures they had

[1] Pronounced 'Dán-tee'.

had, the extraordinary sights they had seen, the gold and treasures they had helped to win.

Life in Europe before Shakespeare's time must have been very dull and hard. It is difficult for those of us who live in modern towns to understand this. Those who have lived in an Indian village, far away from railways and post offices and newspapers, can have some idea. From the time of the Revival of Learning things began to change; first of all in the towns, of course. People began to take an interest in what was going on around them and in other countries. They began to seek for 'news' (which means 'new things'); they began to want more excitement and more entertainment. To meet this demand came, first, the *theatre*; then *novels* (which means 'stories of new things'); and, later, *newspapers*.



WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE

[Key-Question 20: *In what ways was Shakespeare a genius and why are his plays still enjoyed everywhere?*]

§20. Very little is known about the life of William Shakespeare. He was certainly a mischievous[1] boy, for it is said that when he was about twenty-one years old he took part in a small robbery and had to run away from his native place, Stratford, in order to avoid getting into serious trouble. He went to London, and began to look round for a way of earning his living. He noticed that people enjoyed theatrical shows

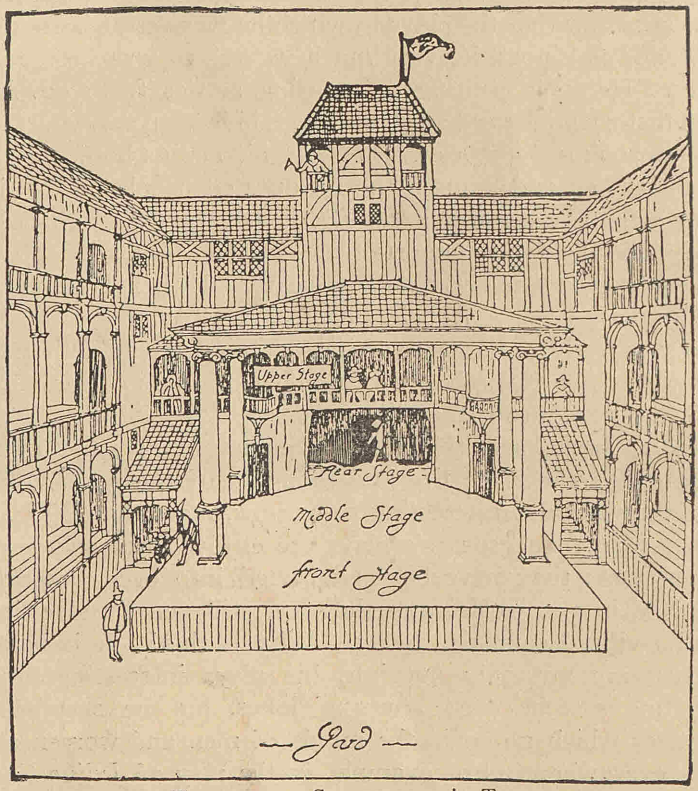
[1] Pronounced 'miss-chee-vuss'.

and he decided to try to become an actor. He was given some small parts, and succeeded fairly well. Then he began to think of trying to write better plays for the theatrical companies to act. He knew that the plays in which he was acting were often bad, and, as a poet, he very much wanted to write something better. He took exciting or amusing stories from novels or from history books and re-wrote them, inventing new characters and improving the stories. Thus by his genius he made plays which pleased and amused the uneducated people of his time, but which also contain great poetic beauty and truth which have made his fame immortal.

Shakespeare was twenty-seven years old when he wrote his first important play, *Love's Labour's Lost,* and for the next twenty years he was busy writing one play after another. At least thirty-five plays, besides a number of short poems, flowed from his pen during that time.

The extraordinary thing about Shakespeare's plays is that, though they show the life and thoughts of the people of his time, they are also interesting to us now, more than 300 years later. Also, Shakespeare's plays are enjoyed not only by his countrymen: they have been translated into every important language in the world, and they are still acted and enjoyed in all civilized countries today. Why is this? It is because Shakespeare not only put into his plays interesting stories with fine speeches and amusing jokes, but he showed the struggles which go on in the minds of men and women at all times everywhere. For example, in the play of *Julius Caesar* he has shown the murder of a great leader by his enemies. But he has also made us understand the different aims which were in the minds of each of the men who did that terrible deed—the jealousy of some, the intolerance of others, and the great struggle between love for his friend and duty to his country which went on in the mind of Brutus, the greatest of them all.

Nowadays, when we see plays acted in a theatre, there are usually painted scenes to make as real an appearance as possible.



THEATRE IN SHAKESPEARE'S TIME

The actors are dressed in the clothes of the time at which the events shown in the play are supposed to have happened. In Shakespeare's time there was nothing of this sort; there were no painted scenes. The stage was simply a platform with a roof over it and a balcony at the back (the 'upper stage' in the picture). It had plain curtains at the back and sides which the actors could stand behind, before they came on to the

stage. The dresses were the usual clothes of Shakespeare's own time. The play thus depended for its success altogether upon the words spoken by the actors and upon their skill in acting. It is another proof of Shakespeare's genius that so many of his plays contain pieces of poetry which cannot be forgotten, and which people of every civilized country, from Shakespeare's time down to the present day, love to remember and to repeat. His work is 'not of an age but for all time', and he may truly be called 'the world's immortal poet'.

The best proof of this is for you to read Shakespeare, or see his plays acted.

LESSON 11: GALILEO: SIR FRANCIS BACON

[Key-Question 21: *What discoveries were made by Galileo and what results did they produce?*]

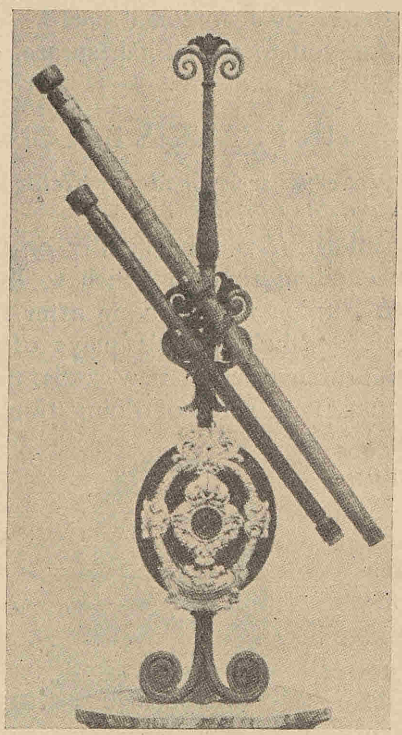
§21. This period which we call the Age of Wonder or the Revival of Learning was an exciting time in which to live. It was a period when western Europe was reviving after the long darkness of earlier times. Shakespeare's plays often mention the new wonders—the discoveries of new lands, new materials, new foods and drinks, new ways of doing things, new thoughts and ideas, and new ways of putting them into words.

We have understood something of the beginnings of this feeling of wonder in the lessons on Roger Bacon, Leonardo and Columbus. In Shakespeare's time that feeling was at its highest. Now we must learn something about two leading scientists of Shakespeare's time.



GALILEO

GALILEO, a great mathematician and astronomer, lived in Italy exactly at the same time as Shakespeare in England (and as Akbar in India); he became professor of mathematics at the University of Pisa. Long, long before, as far back as 250 B.C., Greek scientists (and Hindus too) had discovered that the earth moves round the sun. But this knowledge, and a great deal more, had been altogether lost and forgotten during the Dark Ages after the destruction of the civilizations of Greece and Rome. About a hundred years before Shakespeare's time, a Polish mathematician, Copernicus, had re-discovered it. But Galileo was able to bring forward much better proofs of this through his invention of the telescope. Through this he used to observe the moon, the planets, sun-spots, and many stars too small to be seen without a telescope.



GALILEO'S TELESCOPE

Galileo's invention of the telescope and some other discoveries of his (for example, about the increasing speed of falling objects) brought him great fame at first. But presently he found that his opinions were disliked by the authorities of the Roman Catholic Church, who still believed that the earth was the centre of

everything and that the sun and stars went round the earth. When he was 66 years old, Galileo was brought before the judges appointed by the Pope. His opinions were stated to be wrong, and he was commanded to say publicly that he no longer believed that the earth moved round the sun. If he had refused to obey, he would have probably been burnt alive, like John Huss of whom we read in Lesson 7. This was more than the old man could bear. He surrendered, and made the statement required. But the story is that, after having read aloud the statement that the earth does not move round the sun, he said in a low voice to a friend standing very near: 'But it *does* move.' Even if this story has been invented, it may show that men were at last beginning to build their opinions upon the scientific observation of facts instead of merely believing blindly whatever their forefathers had said.

[Key-Question 22: *What did Sir Francis Bacon discover?*]

§22. There lived at the same time as Shakespeare in England another great scientist, SIR FRANCIS BACON. He is quite a different person from the Roger Bacon of whom we read in Lesson 2, although his last name is the same, and he was also a scientist. Sir Francis Bacon is sometimes known as 'the father of modern science' because he was one of the first men (since the time of the Greeks) who showed the scientific method of finding out the truth. He taught that the wrong way is to start with a theory and try to make the facts fit into it: the right way is to make a large number of experiments and to note the results carefully. A theory can then be built up. But more experiments must be made, and if any of the results are found to be different, the theory must be changed to fit all the results. The true scientist is always ready to change his opinions when faced with new facts. He does not stick to his opinion like a proud man who is afraid to admit that he has made a mistake.

Bacon died as a result of one of his own experiments. He was going to London in his carriage (there were no railway trains then). It was in the depth of winter and there was snow all around. He had the idea that, if the body of a dead animal could be kept very cold, its decay would be stopped. He got out of his carriage and went to a nearby farm, where he bought the dead body of a small animal that had just been killed. He gathered a lot of snow and put it in his carriage, and covered the dead body with snow. But he was then an old man and the cold gave him a bad chill, and before he reached London he was so ill that he could not go on. He died soon afterwards. The results of this experiment were not made use of until much later. We now use exactly the same idea in keeping food from decaying by putting it in a 'refrigerator'.

EXERCISES

1. When did 'The Revival of Learning' begin in Europe, and what were some of the causes of it?
2. Why can Shakespeare truly be called 'the world's poet'?
3. Tell the story of any play of Shakespeare.
4. What methods of modern science are shown in the work of Galileo and Sir Francis Bacon?



The Beginning of Nationalism

LESSON 12: WHAT IS A 'NATION'?

[Key-Question 23: *What is a nation?*]

§23. We often use the world 'nation', and it is important to know exactly what it means. What is a nation? What do we mean when we say that '*India* wants independence', '*Japan* invaded China', 'France, England, Russia and the U.S.A. fought against Germany, Italy and Japan', and so on? Please try to think what is meant by the word 'nation', and be ready to give your answer when your teacher asks you. The teacher will write on the blackboard all the various answers you give.

In helping you to find the right answer, I shall first of all try to show you what a nation is *not*.

Is it a group of people all speaking the same language? No: for the people of the British Isles and of the United States of America speak the same language but they belong to different 'nations'. India has many different languages. Even a small nation like that of the Swiss (their country is called Switzerland) have three distinct languages—French, German, and Italian. These are used in different provinces of the country. There is no Swiss language.

What about religion? No: there are people of many different religions in nearly all countries. All the people of a nation need not belong to the same religion, if they are civilized enough to be 'tolerant'.

Is a nation made up of people whose origin is the same, i.e. people of the same race? Well, that has something to do with it, for in each of the countries China, Japan, Norway, Sweden, most of the people belong to the same race. But, on the other hand, some of the most important nations are made up of people belonging to a great many different races; for example, the U.S.A. consists largely of people whose fathers or grandfathers went to America with their families, about 50 or 100 years ago, from many different countries of Europe.

Then what really is the puzzling thing that we call a 'nation'? The answer is: it is an *idea*. It is a feeling and a thought in the minds of people who live together, making them *feel* united, even if they follow different religions, speak different languages, or belong to different races.

Now, if you are a very thoughtful person, you will say: if a 'nation' is only an idea, only a thought, it can easily be changed. It will not last. You are perfectly right. The idea of 'nationalism' (that is, the feeling of being united into a nation) is quite a recent growth. Just think of the case of

India. Fifty years ago, people in India never thought of themselves as belonging to one nation, as sons and daughters of Mother India. They thought of themselves as Rajputs, or Bengalis, or Marathas, or Tamilians—or, more probably, as Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Kayasthas, and so on. It was exactly the same in Europe in the year A.D. 1500. In the time of Leonardo da Vinci, Italians did not think of themselves as members of the Italian nation. They thought of themselves as men of Florence, or of Milan, or of Venice. Therefore, there was no Italian 'nation' at that time.

[Key-Question 24: *What caused people to unite as 'nations'?*]

§24. How did this new idea of 'nations' begin, and what made it spread all over the world? This is a very interesting and important question, and I shall try to answer it for you.

There are several factors which, multiplied together, help to make the idea of 'nationalism'. I think that the biggest one is *the need to resist a common enemy.* If people feel that they are in danger of being conquered unless they join together, they can forget that they belong to different religions, or different races, or different castes or classes. This is what helped to make the English into a nation. When the king of Spain gathered his great Armada to conquer Britain, the men of Britain forgot that they were men of Kent or men of Cornwall, or men of Yorkshire and Lincolnshire, and all joined together to resist the Spanish invasion. They even forgot their differences of religion. This was a remarkable thing; for, you will remember, it was partly because the king of Spain wanted to punish the English for their disobedience to the Pope, that he attacked England. But even the English who were Roman Catholics joined with the Protestant English to fight against the Spanish. The English had begun to think of themselves as 'the English nation'.

The same thing happened in France about a hundred years

earlier. An English king, whose forefathers had once been kings of a part of France, claimed that he was king of France too, and sent his army to invade France. For some time the English were victorious. Then a young French girl, JOAN OF ARC, aroused the French to join together. Joan put on steel armour and led the French soldiers into battle, with herself at the head, fighting like a man. Through their unity, the French were able to defeat the English army, and France also was born as a 'nation'.

When we turn to the history of India, we can see that it was the failure of the Rajputs to unite in resisting the Muslim invasion, that led to their downfall. Prithviraj the Chauhan was defeated at Tarain in A.D. 1192 by Muhammad Ghori because he was not helped by Raja Jaichand of Kanauj. Rana Sanga might have defeated even the emperor Babar in 1528 if his own nobles had not been unfaithful to him and poisoned him.

On the other hand, we can also see how successful Indians were when they were united. It was this that gave Shivaji the strength to build up the Maratha empire against so mighty an emperor as Aurangzeb. It is mainly the growing unity of Indians today that is making India into a nation.

LESSON 13:
'THE GRAND MONARCH' OF FRANCE

[Key-Question 25: *What was the aim of Louis*[1] *XIV?*]

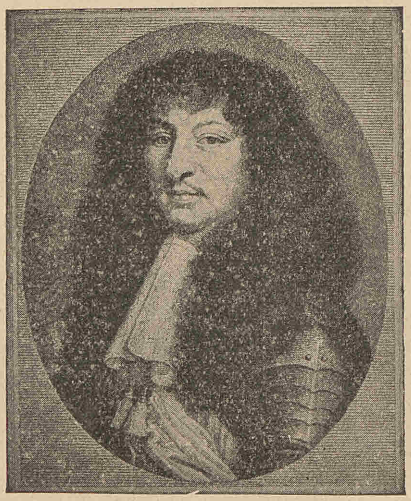
§25. When a nation becomes united under a good king or a great Prime Minister it can do wonderful things. But if the king or the minister works more for his own power and glory than for the happiness of his people, things begin to go wrong.

In the fifteenth, sixteenth and seventeenth centuries all over the world there were powerful kings, but very few of them had yet learned to think that it was their first duty to make their

[1] Pronounced 'Loo-eé'.

people happy, and not to surround themselves with luxury and splendour.

Most of the kings of this time believed that they had a 'divine right' to do whatever they pleased. God had allowed them to be born as kings, and they thought that the people of their country were there to carry out their orders. We shall see what happened in one country after another, as a result of this idea.



Louis XIV

The most famous of the European kings who believed in his 'divine right' was Louis XIV of France. He was on the throne of France for a longer time than any other king in European history. He came to the throne in 1643 and died in 1715. He ruled France just at the time when Aurangzeb was ruling India, but he came to the throne 12 years before Aurangzeb and died 8 years after him.

Louis was not a wicked man. He was able and ambitious and his aim was to make France the most powerful and most admired nation in the world. But in thinking of France, he was not thinking of the *people* of France, but of himself and his surroundings. He is famous for his saying: 'I am the State.' And it was that State which he succeeded in making the wonder of the other nations of Europe. He aimed first of all at the extension of his country from the river Rhine to the Pyrenees mountains; and secondly, at being surrounded

with such luxury and splendour as had never been seen before. Both these aims needed a huge expenditure of money; for the first, a great army; for the second, costly palaces and luxurious surroundings. The money for these could be had only by taxation, for the days of looting other people's countries were nearly over. The idea of Louis was that his people—the common people, cultivators and traders, not the nobles—existed simply to provide him with the necessary means to get what he wanted.

[Key-Question 26: *How did Louis try to carry out his aim and in what did he succeed?*]

§26. For carrying out his first aim Louis gathered a huge army and had it very well trained under good generals. Then he invaded the country to the north of France which we now call Belgium. At first his army was successful in winning battles and capturing places, and it seemed as if Louis would get what he wanted.

But other nations did not wish Louis to become so powerful that he might try to attack their countries too. So they joined together to fight against him. Gradually the armies of Louis had to go back. The chief cause of his failure was the military skill of the English general, John Churchill,[1] Duke of Marlborough, who defeated the French armies in several great battles in Holland and Belgium.

Meanwhile Louis was succeeding in his other object. He had many splendid buildings constructed, the most remarkable of all being the huge palace at Versailles[2] near Paris, which cost several crores of rupees. Although it is no longer a royal palace (because France is now a republic), it is still used for great international gatherings. The Treaty of Versailles, which ended the First World War of 1914-18, takes its name from that place, because the treaty of peace was signed there.

[1] Ancestor of the British Prime Minister, Winston Churchill.
[2] Pronounced 'vare-sie'.

It was in the time of Louis XIV that France became the leader of Europe in dress, manners, furniture, architecture, and, for a time, in literature too. Pictures of that time show the great fountains in the park at Versailles, and the courtiers, riding or walking about the gardens, dressed in tight breeches, huge wigs, and broad collars.

When Louis died, in 1715, he left France a country of outward show and splendour, but full of discontent, and poverty within.

LESSON 14: PETER THE GREAT

[Key-Question 27: *In what ways did Peter show his greatness while still young?*]

§27. Russia today is one of the largest and most powerful nations of the world, occupying a huge block of land stretching from the Baltic Sea to the Pacific Ocean, and from the Arctic Ocean to the boundaries of India and China. But it began as a small country surrounding Moscow, mostly covered with forests and with no outlet to the sea. All the coast line of the Baltic Sea was under the rule of the Swedish king, and all the southern parts, near the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea were ruled by Tartar and Turkish princes and kings. In the year 1682, when young Peter the First came to the throne of the Tsars (the Russian kings) he was only ten years old and he was only a king in name. The government was carried on by his elder sister, and Peter was left to play. His greatest delight was to sail ships, and presently he began to want to build ships, too.



PETER THE GREAT

The only sea that Peter had under his control was the White Sea, in the arctic north, which is frozen for more than half the year. But here he made his experiments, and once narrowly escaped being drowned on a stormy voyage to some islands in the White Sea. When he was old enough to be really Tsar, Peter made his former hobby into a more serious occupation. He loved to use tools and to experiment with all sorts of machines. He gathered a group of young men, chosen not because they belonged to rich or noble families, but because they were interested in the same sort of things as Peter liked. One of these was a Swiss, named Lefort. One of the remarkable things about Peter was that, though he had been brought up to be a king, he was always willing to learn by beginning at the very bottom, and working upwards till he was fit to lead and direct others. For example, in his group of companions, he was not the leader because he was the Tsar. If others showed themselves abler than him in certain things, he used to promote them to leadership and work under their command. This is certainly one of the things that helped him to become 'Peter the Great', as he is now called.

By this time Peter had begun to feel that the White Sea was not big enough for him, and he looked about for a more suitable place. There were two seas to choose from: the Baltic Sea to the west, and the Black Sea to the south. Both were under the rule of other kings. The Baltic coast was under Sweden; the Black Sea was entirely within the great empire of the Ottoman Turks.

If you look at a map of Russia you will see that the river Don flows from central Russia, not very far south of Moscow, to the Sea of Azov, which is a bay of the Black Sea. At its mouth is Azov which, at that time was a strong fortress of the Turks. Peter attacked this fortress with his army. But he could not take it. He went back to Moscow and decided that next year he would try a different plan. He gathered together

a huge number of carpenters and engineers, and at Voronezh (which, you will see, is on the river Don) he set them to work to build a navy. The workmen laboured night and day, led by Peter himself, the most skilful workman of them all. In six



RUSSIA IN THE TIME OF PETER THE GREAT

months his ships were ready, and this time he captured Azov. His soldiers surrounded the fort, and they were able to starve it into surrender because Peter's navy prevented the Turks from reaching Azov from the sea. Peter had won his opening to the ocean. He built the harbour of Taganrog as the first harbour for his navy on the Black Sea.

[Key-Question 28: *In what ways did Peter make Russia a modern nation?*]

§28. But this was only the beginning. Peter now wanted to see how things were managed in the more modern countries of western Europe. He decided to send ambassadors to the countries most advanced in the things he was specially interested in. But just to hear from others what they had seen could not satisfy a man like Peter. So Peter went, not as a leader but dressed as a common sailor, with Lefort as his chief! In this way he made certain that he would be able to spend his time learning exactly how ships were built in other countries, what tools were used, what new machines had come into use. He did not want to waste a minute in polite talk to big officials or even to fellow-kings!

And for more than a year Peter actually did go from country to country, seeing what he wanted to see and learning what he wanted to learn. He saw how guns were made at Konigsberg in Prussia, how ships were built by the Dutch and by the English; he studied anatomy; there seemed no end to all the things he wanted to know how to do. But he could not stay away longer from Russia. A rebellion started, and he had to hurry away to crush it. He did so in a few weeks, and no sooner had he finished this piece of work, than he surprised Russia in another way. Until that time the Russians had dressed quite differently from other European people. They wore long loose robes. The men all had long beards. Peter decided that Russia must become modern in appearance too. He commanded all the noblemen of his court to come to him one day, and with his own hands cut off their long beards and moustaches! The wearing of long robes was forbidden. Russians must dress like the Germans and the French. And, from that day, if anyone allowed his beard to grow long again, he had to pay taxes according to the length of his beard!

Now Peter turned his attention to the Baltic Sea. He

attacked the Swedes, and after two years of war, he forced the Swedish king to give up all the provinces which are on the coast of the Gulf of Finland on the Russian side. This gave Peter the great chance he had been longing for—to build a new capital city for Russia, on the sea-coast. He founded the city of St Petersburg (named after Peter's patron-saint) which was renamed Leningrad after the Russian Revolution of 1917.

There is no doubt that Peter deserved his title of 'The Great'. But although he possessed great and noble qualities, we must not be blind to the fact that he also did great evil too. In order to carry out what he wanted, he did not care how much pain he caused or by what means he obtained his aim. He lived in an age when cruelty was not much thought of, so perhaps we must not judge him too severely for being cruel. It was a difficult thing to make Russia into a modern nation, and Peter succeeded where a softer and kinder man might have failed.

EXERCISES

1. Make a list of things in which people can be different while still belonging to the same nation.
2. Make a list of things which prevent people feeling that they all belong to the same nation.
3. Write a short account of the life and work of Peter the Great of Russia.
4. If 'nationalism' is only an idea, is it likely to disappear? If it disappears, what idea will take its place, and why?

8

The Struggle for Empires Overseas

LESSON 15: 'NEW ENGLAND'

[Key-Question 29:
Why were the New England Colonies founded?]

§29. In Lesson 7 we learned that, in the struggle between Roman Catholics and Protestants, the kings who took opposite sides usually expected their people to accept the religion of the king. But people who were really struggling for freedom of

thought would naturally not agree to this. Thus it happened that in the seventeenth century (that is from A.D. 1600 to A.D. 1700) many people who were anxious to follow the religion they believed to be true were obliged to leave their mother-country, because their kings wished them to change religions and sometimes tried to force them to do so by imprisonment and torture.

Most famous of these people were *The Pilgrim Fathers*. When the English king took the side of the Protestants, he made himself head of the Church of England and separated it from the Roman Catholic Church. But this did not mean that he allowed people to worship God in whatever way they thought best. They had to worship in the way laid down by the Church of England. If they refused to do so, they were punished severely by being fined or imprisoned or in crueller ways such as by being whipped or having their ears cut off. About the year 1620 a group of people decided to leave England in order to have complete freedom. First they went to Holland, but then decided to make a new home in an entirely new country, America. One hundred and two men, women and children set out in a ship named *The Mayflower*, about twice the size of the ship in which Columbus sailed. They intended to land on the coast of Virginia, but bad weather drove them further north, and after a voyage of three months they landed on the coast of Massachusetts (see map) at a place a little to the south of where Boston now stands. They called the place Plymouth, from the name of the last place they saw in England. After some years of struggle the colony began to prosper. Every year more shiploads of people arrived, and villages began to spring up all along the shore of Boston Bay.

But the sad thing is that these people who had left their mother-country in order to have freedom to worship God in the way they thought right were not willing to give the same

freedom to others in their new home. They had not learned the lesson of tolerance. They behaved so cruelly to those who wished to worship in a different way that newcomers were obliged to set up colonies of their own on parts of the



THE AMERICAN COLONIES

American coast north and south of Massachusetts. This was how the colonies of Maine and Connecticut arose. Further south there were some Dutch and Swedish colonies the chief of which was New Amsterdam. This was later taken by

the British from the Dutch, and re-named New York. At this place the famous city of New York has now grown up. Still further south there was a colony started by a great man named WILLIAM PENN. Penn is of special interest to us in India because he believed in the same ideas of non-violence as Mahatma Gandhi now teaches. His colony, named Pennsylvania, was famous for allowing complete freedom for everyone to worship God in their own way, and also because the colonists were non-violent towards the Red Indians. The result was that there was friendship between the colonists and the Red Indians, instead of frequent fighting as in the other colonies.



WILLIAM PENN

[Key-Question 30: *For what is Virginia famous? Who colonized Florida, Louisiana and Texas?*]

§30. South of Pennsylvania on the map you will see Maryland. Maryland was a Roman Catholic colony, for Roman Catholics were not treated well in Protestant England. South of Maryland is Virginia, the earliest of the English colonies in America, founded in 1584 by SIR WALTER RALEIGH. It was in Virginia that Europeans found Red Indians smoking the leaf of the tobacco plant; and even now 'Virginian' tobacco is the most famous in the world. Also it was from Virginia that Sir Walter Raleigh brought the potato-plant to Ireland where it has become the chief crop of Ireland and one of the most important food plants of the world.

South of Virginia you will see North and South Carolina. These were originally colonies of French Protestants who had left France because the Roman Catholic French king treated them badly. English and Scottish settlers then came, and the colonies gradually became British. South of the Carolinas is

Georgia. This colony was started long after the others by a kind-hearted man who saved from prison a large number of people who had been imprisoned for debt. To save them from getting into trouble again, he sent them to America where they started the colony of Georgia, named after King George II of England.

Most of the colonies mentioned above were either British or became British not long after they were started. But south of Georgia you will see Florida. This part of America was first discovered by Spaniards who came from the West Indies not long after the time of Columbus. On the west side of the River Mississippi is Texas, which was also a Spanish colony, and then comes Mexico, about which we have read in Lesson 8.

But, between Florida and Texas there were some French colonies along the banks of the great river Mississippi. These were named Louisiana after the French King Louis XIV. At the end of Lesson 9 I told you that the French were also the first to sail up the great river of the north, the river St Lawrence, and to discover the Great Lakes. Now, if you look carefully at a physical map of North America you will see that many of the tributaries of the river Mississippi have their sources not far from the Great Lakes. So, it was not difficult for the French explorers, who reached the Great Lakes, to find those tributaries, specially the biggest tributary the river Ohio, and to sail down into the river Mississippi. This is exactly what they did, and we shall now see what was the result.

LESSON 16: FRENCH v. BRITISH: WILLIAM PITT: FREDERICK THE GREAT OF PRUSSIA

[Key-Question 31: *What caused the French and British to become rivals in America and India?*]

§31. In the last lesson you have seen how the British colonies in America were all along the east coast, while the French explorers went up the river St Lawrence into the Great

Lakes, and then down the river Ohio into Louisiana. Look at the map again, and you will see why the two nations, British and French, presently began to fight. The British colonies grew quickly: many people came from the British Isles and other countries of Europe to make their homes in America. What had been little villages on the coast became important harbours, and more and more people went inland to make farms and build new towns. The people of New England (as all the British American colonies were called) began to want more space to live in. But when they crossed the mountains which are all along the western coast (see map), they came to the wide valley of the river Ohio—and there were the French.

The French colonists had more space than they could use. America, before the Europeans went there, was peopled entirely by a race who came originally from north-east Asia now known as Red Indians. You learnt in Lesson 5 how they got that name. But the number of Red Indians was very small for so huge a continent as America. In the whole of north America there were probably not more people in the time of Columbus than in Travancore State at the present time. The British colonists therefore wanted to extend their lands to the west. But the French did not wish to let the British occupy the country which they had already claimed for France. They built strong forts all along the rivers St Lawrence and Ohio, and threatened to drive out the British if they came any nearer.

Just at the same time the French and British became rivals in India. If India had been a united nation under a strong ruler like Akbar or Shivaji, no foreign power would have been able to interfere in her affairs. But after the death of Aurangzeb, the Mogul power had grown weaker and weaker, and the Nizams and Nawabs of the various provinces had in many cases made themselves into independent rulers of States. In the midst of such disorder it became difficult for the French and British East India Companies to carry on their trade

without the protection of some armed forces. At first they only strengthened their forts and kept soldiers to defend them. They then began to help the Rajas and Nawabs of the neighbouring places to increase their authority. They trained Indian soldiers for the armies of the Rajas and Nawabs, supplying them with European officers and with guns. When the Rajas and Nawabs began to fight each other with the help of these armies, the French and British East India Companies often found themselves on opposite sides, one Company helping one Raja, and the other Company another. From this they began to take the Rajas' and Nawabs' help to fight each other, and so the struggle began to grow into a regular war. Thus, the French and the British were ready to fight each other both in north America and in India. We shall now see how they fought in Europe too.

[Key-Question 32: *How did Pitt win the Seven Years' War for the British?*]

§32. England at this time had a great Prime Minister, whose name was WILLIAM PITT. Pitt was only 27 years old when he first became a member of the British Parliament, and he soon became famous for his eloquence. Little by little he rose to power and when he was 48 years old he became Prime Minister. It was he who really laid the foundations of the British Empire. He saw that the struggle between England and France was sure to come, and he made up his mind that England should win. This is what he did.



WILLIAM PITT THE ELDER

First of all, he chose young and able leaders for the British navy, and for the British armies in America and India. He sent them out to fight the French, with the best equipment that could be got. It was Pitt who chose ROBERT CLIVE to lead the British in India. He was only 27 years old but he soon showed that he was a military genius. The commander chosen by Pitt for the British forces in north America was JAMES WOLFE, a young officer only 31 years old.

The second thing Pitt did was to keep the French busy in Europe, so that they could not send much help to their armies overseas. This he did by supporting the chief European enemy of France, KING FREDERICK II OF PRUSSIA. Frederick was one of the greatest military geniuses of that time, and he had trained the Prussian army until it was the most powerful in Europe. With the help of this army he planned to make Prussia the greatest nation in Europe. In order to do that he had to defeat the French who were his strongest rivals. Pitt sent some British soldiers to help Frederick, but the chief help he gave was in money which Frederick needed very badly to pay his men and to feed and equip them properly.



FREDERICK THE GREAT

The war lasted for seven years, from 1756 to 1763, and for this reason it is known as The Seven Years' War. Frederick had a difficult time at first; for Russia, Sweden, and Austria were on France's side against him. But gradually the discipline of his well-trained army brought him victory. Meanwhile, the British Navy drove the French from the seas, and British

armies under Wolfe in Canada and under Clive in India defeated the French on land. Peace was made in 1763. Under the Treaty of Paris the French had to give up all their claims to lands in North America and India. Prussia became one of the leading nations of Europe, and the British Empire was born. This was mostly due to the work of William Pitt (who was by that time Earl of Chatham) and to Frederick II, king of Prussia, known from that time onwards as Frederick the Great.

EXERCISES

1. Make a list of the European colonies in North America and say who founded each of them and why.
2. How did the French and British East India Companies increase their power?
3. Read more about Clive and Wolfe and write a very short account of the victories they won against the French.
4. Read about Frederick the Great and how he made Prussia a powerful country. Write a short note on what he did.

9

Rebellion and Revolution

LESSON 17: THE AMERICAN COLONIES REBEL: GEORGE WASHINGTON

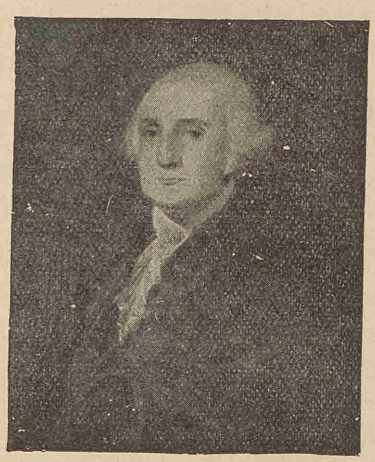
[Key-Question 33: *What did the British Government do which made the American colonists angry?*]

§33. War is a costly business, and though the British had won the war against France, they had to pay for it. Because the British colonists in America had gained advantages from the defeat of the French, some of the British ministers began to say that the colonists ought to pay a part of the cost. So the king of England, George III, ordered the American colonists to pay new taxes which would help to pay for the war. They refused to do so, and the king then ordered that they should be forced to obey. The colonists did not want to

fight against their mother-country, and they had no army of properly trained soldiers to fight with. But they refused to give in. They got ready to fight.

The first thing to do was to find a good leader. The colonies were not a united nation. Each colony had its own independent government as our Indian States have. If they had tried to fight the British separately they could not possibly have won. But *the need to resist a common enemy* made them willing to work together (see Lesson 12). They found a great leader in GEORGE WASHINGTON.

George Washington was born in Virginia in 1732. He was a farmer and a farmer's son. Until he was more than forty years old, he spent his time almost entirely in looking after his estates, on which corn and tobacco were the chief crops. He gained some military experience, however, in fighting for the British against the French. When the Seven Years' War had been won, Washington went back to his farming. Nothing would have pleased him better than to spend the remainder of his life developing a bigger and bigger colony towards the river Mississippi.



GEORGE WASHINGTON

But the British Government did not like this because it would have meant fighting against the Red Indians who lived in those parts. The British had had enough of fighting in the war against the French. So laws were passed forbidding the colonies to go beyond the river Ohio. This action of the British Government annoyed the colonists of the southern states.

At the same time the laws ordering the payment of new taxes annoyed those of the north. The colonists of the north and of the south alike, therefore, were angry with their mother-country.

When King George III sent his armies to force the colonists to obey, Washington was the man chosen by the colonists as their leader. He did not want to accept this responsible work, for he considered himself unfit for it. But when he saw that his fellow-countrymen needed his help and wanted him, he took up the task. He refused to accept any salary. At first he was faced with very great difficulties. Although the colonists were hardy farmers and foresters, and could shoot, they were not used to military discipline and had almost no equipment for a war. During the first year and a half, the Americans (as we shall now call them) suffered defeat after defeat from the more experienced British soldiers. But, in spite of this, they refused to give in. Washington went on training more men and gathering equipment for them, and in 1777 the tide began to turn.

[Key-Question 34: *How did the colonists win their independence and what difficulties did they have after having won it?*]

§34. The colonists were helped because many of the British officers and soldiers were sorry to have to fight against their brave countrymen who had settled in America. Also the French saw that this was a fine chance to take their revenge on the British. The French king sent money and soldiers to the Americans to help them in their fight. Most important of all, when a British army was almost surrounded by the Americans at a place called Saratoga on the coast, the French navy prevented British ships from coming to the rescue. In the year 1777 a whole British army had to surrender to the Americans, to avoid starvation. *The control of the sea* again proved to be the most important thing for the British, and

this time it was against them. In 1783 King George had to admit that the former British colonies of New England were free and independent states. The Canadian colonies had not joined the war, so they remained British.

The winning of independence by the small group of New England colonists began the life of the United States of America, which has since grown to be one of the largest and most powerful nations of the world. The Fourth of July is the great day of celebration for that nation, because it was on 4 July 1775 that the colonists first declared themselves to be no longer under the British Government.

Their difficulties did not end, however, with the winning of their freedom, for they had had very little experience of self-government. Until the time when the war began, each of the states had managed its own affairs quite separately. They now had to find a way to unite in managing their affairs as a single nation. This was not easy, for each state was jealous of its own freedom and did not want to give up powers to a central government. It took no less than twelve years, from the time when they declared their independence in 1775, for them to agree upon their new constitution.

In 1787 representatives of the states met to decide what should be done. Washington came as representative of his own state, and he was elected Chairman. Then it was decided that the states should unite themselves into a Federation. That is a form of government in which the federating states (or provinces) continue to manage their own affairs in matters which concern themselves only; but in matters which concern the nation as a whole—such as defence, money, postal system, telegraphs and railways, foreign trade, treaties and war with foreign countries—they agree to be ruled by a central or federal Government, consisting of representatives of all the federating states or provinces.

Most Americans, of course, hated the idea of having a king.

They decided instead to elect one of their leading men as President for a period of four years, and to hold fresh elections after every four years, so that no one man could ever become powerful for too long a time. The first man they elected as President of the United States of America was George Washington.

LESSON 18: THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

[Key-Question 35: *What was the cause of the French Revolution?*]

§35. The fight of the American colonists was what is called a rebellion, that is a struggle for independence. The French helped the Americans in their rebellion against British rule. But now in France itself a great disturbance took place. This was not a rebellion but a 'revolution', that is, an overthrow of the government of a country by its own people. The French Revolution took place because the poorer people of France were very heavily taxed by their kings, who lived in great splendour and luxury (see Lesson 13). The nobles and the priests did not have to pay any taxes at all, although they were the richest people of the country.

All the wars which the French had been fighting cost a great deal of money, and the heavier and heavier taxes which the French people had to pay made them very discontented.

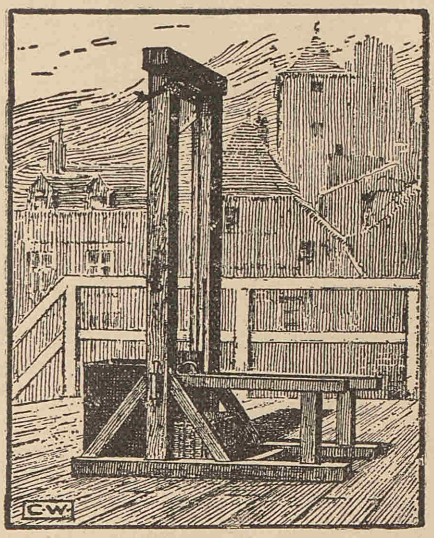
Another thing which helped to make the French people discontented was the example of the American colonists. The Frenchmen who had gone to fight on the side of the colonists against the British came back to France with new ideas of freedom, and they found it impossible to bear the tyranny of the king, the nobles and the priests, which they found in their own country.

The French revolution began in 1789. At first it was not very violent. The people demanded the calling of the French Parliament (called the States-General) which had not met for

a long time. At its meeting it was decided to change the laws so that the nobles and rich men should no longer be free from taxes, and to give the poor equal rights with the rich in cases of arrest or disputes. But though the king agreed to these changes he did not really mean to carry them out. He secretly tried to gather an army to restore his power and to crush the people again. When the people of Paris heard of this they marched to Versailles—the great palace, some miles outside Paris which Louis XIV had built for himself at enormous cost—and forced the king to come back to Paris, where they kept him a prisoner in his palace there.

[Key-Question 36: *What was the result of the French Revolution?*]

§36. In 1791, the king tried to escape in order to join an army which his noblemen-friends had gathered to help him. He was caught near the boundary of Germany. The people were now very angry with the king. They knew he could not be trusted to keep his promises and to rule constitutionally (that is, according to the constitution or laws of the nation laid down by Parliament). Many of the most powerful leaders of the people said that it would be best to kill the king and all his family, so that they could cause no more trouble. In 1793 the king was guillotined (that is, his



A GUILLOTINE

head was cut off by a machine called the 'guillotine'[1]), and in the next two years thousands of nobles, including the queen and other members of the royal family, were killed in the same manner. This period is called the 'Reign of Terror'. People were killed simply because they were of noble family. The chief leader of the Terror was a man named Robespierre.[2] Presently Robespierre began to get rid of his own rivals in the government in the same way. Other leaders were afraid that their turn would come soon, so they joined together to get rid of Robespierre, and sent him to the guillotine too. After his death, the Terror ended and a constitutional government on republican lines (that is, with an elected President, as in the United States, instead of a king) was set up.

This revolution was no doubt terribly violent and caused the death of many innocent people. But it did quickly some good things for the French people. First, it got rid of the many unfair advantages that the nobles, rich men and priests enjoyed. The same laws were laid down for rich and poor alike, and men were more justly taxed instead of the poor paying a lot and the rich paying nothing. Secondly, the great estates of the nobles, on which the poor had been forced to work, often almost like slaves, were broken up and sold cheaply to people of the middle and lower classes. Thirdly trade was improved and all occupations became open to those who were fit for them, whatever might be their family or position.

Most of the French people certainly felt that the Revolution brought them the chance of a new and better life. This was what made them support the Revolutionary Government, in spite of all its violence and bloodshed. But the kings of neighbouring countries were angry with the French for killing their king. Prussia and Austria wanted to punish them, and they sent armies to invade France. But the French defended their new Republic bravely. Although they had

[1] Pronounced 'gill-o-teén'. [2] Pronounced 'róbe-spee-air'.

hardly finished their Revolution, they managed to get together new French armies which stopped the invaders. The French then actually drove the Austrians out of Belgium and Holland, and attacked Italy which at that time was under Austrian rule.

LESSON 19: THE EMPEROR NAPOLEON: NELSON: MOSCOW: WATERLOO

[Key-Question 37: *How did Napoleon rise to power?*]

§37. And now there rose to power an extraordinary man who, for a time, ruled France as emperor—and conquered most of Europe too. That was NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

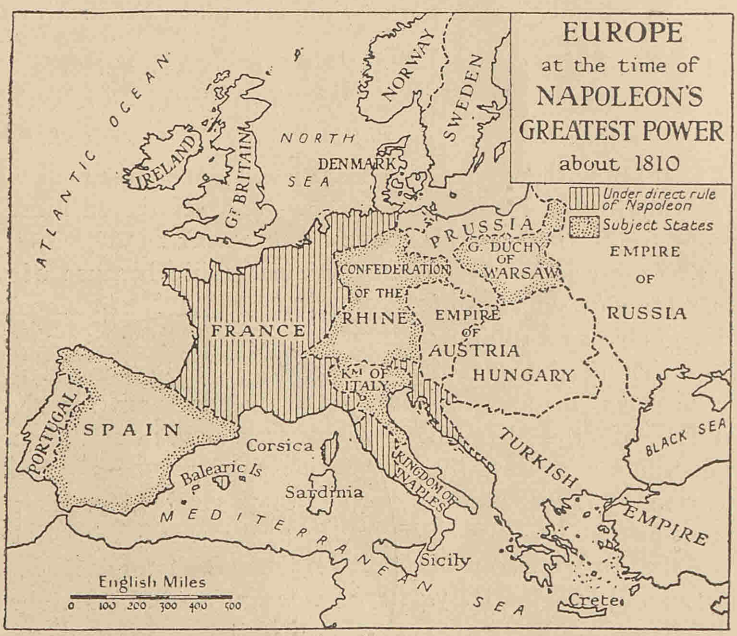
Napoleon got his first chance of leadership because of the war. He showed himself to be so able as a military officer that at the age of 27 he was made commander of the French army fighting against the Austrians. It was under Napoleon that the French drove the Austrians out of France, and invaded Italy.



NAPOLEON

By this time the British were also in the war against the French. Napoleon told the French Government that the best way to attack the British was to stop their trade and to capture their colonies, especially their empire in the East. He therefore took the French army across the Mediterranean Sea to Egypt, which he conquered. Then he began to march through Palestine. But he could not go on, because he received news from France that

things were going badly at home. The new French Government was weak. The Austrians had won back most of the country conquered by Napoleon, and the French people were getting



dissatisfied. In great haste to get home, Napoleon left his army in Palestine, where it was soon defeated by the British, when he was not there to lead it. But the people of France welcomed him back because they felt he was a strong man who would set things in order. They voted that, instead of having a republican government, the government should be in the hands of three men, called Consuls, of whom Napoleon was to be the Chief, or First Consul. Napoleon soon showed what sort of man he was, when he had all the power in his hands. First he drove the Austrians out of Italy again and made himself King of Italy. Then he captured Vienna, the capital of Austria, and

defeated the armies of the Austrian emperor and the Russian emperor at a great battle at Austerlitz in Austria. Then he went on and defeated the Prussians. In 1802 the French elected him First Consul for life, and in 1804 they gave him the title of Emperor.

[Key-Question 38: *Which countries did Napoleon conquer and why did he fall in the end?*]

§38. By 1810 almost all Europe was under Napoleon's rule, except the British Isles, Russia and Turkey. Napoleon did his best to conquer the British. He might have succeeded if he could have gained control of the sea, for then he could have stopped their trade, captured their colonies and even invaded England. He kept a huge, splendidly trained army all ready for this purpose on the French side of the channel, with boats to take them across as soon as the way was clear. But the British navy blocked the way. Then Napoleon tried to starve the British by forcing all the nations of Europe to stop trading with Great Britain. He did not succeed because of the British navy. It was during this time that the famous naval battle of *Trafalgar* was fought between the British and the French, with NELSON as the admiral of the British navy. The French navy was completely defeated, and the British kept the control of the seas.



NELSON

It was Napoleon's attempt to stop the other nations of Europe from trading with the British which really began his downfall. Though he had not actually conquered Russia, Napoleon forced the Russian emperor to be his ally, after he had defeated the Russian armies. But the Tsar refused to obey Napoleon's order not to trade with the British. Napoleon was very angry and determined to punish the Tsar by invading and conquering his country. In 1812 Napoleon marched into Russia with an army of more than half a million splendidly trained and experienced soldiers. But those men marched to their death. They were defeated not by the Russian armies but by the Russian climate and the Russian people. They defeated the Russian army; they actually entered Moscow, the Russian capital. But they found the city in flames and not a bit of food to eat in it. Everywhere, the Russian people had destroyed the crops and the food supplies before they went away. The French were starving. And then the winter came. Winter in Russia is much more extreme than in France; it is terribly cold. There was nothing to be done except to try to march back to France, two thousand miles or more, as far as from Kashmir to Cape Comorin. Not only had the French no food, but the Russians now began to attack them from behind. They died in thousands. Out of that army of more than half a million, only twenty thousand ever reached home.

Even then, Napoleon's extraordinary life was not ended. The French still admired him for his military skill and for the victories and the glory he had won for them, though at such terrible cost. He raised another army, consisting mostly of old men and boys. But the other peoples of Europe had grown tired of his rule. The British landed an army in Spain with the help of their navy, and helped the Spaniards to rebel. The Russians and the Prussians and the Austrians joined together against him. He was defeated in Germany at the great Battle of the Nations, and was driven back to France.

Paris was taken, and Napoleon was forced to give up his throne. He was sent as an exile to live on the island of Elba, off the coast of Italy; and a brother of the French king who had been killed in the Revolution was made king of France.

But the French did not like the return of a king of the old sort, and when, after less than a year, Napoleon escaped from Elba and promised to rule them constitutionally, they believed him, and welcomed him. But the Allied Nations of the rest of Europe knew that he could never be trusted to rule peacefully. They united to attack him again, and in June 1815 Napoleon's last battle was fought, the battle of *Waterloo*. Napoleon was completely defeated, and had to surrender. He was exiled to the island of St Helena off the western coast of Africa, where he died in 1821. For some years the French were ruled again by their old kings but later another republic was set up and since then France has remained a republic.

Napoleon caused the death of at least a million men in battle, and the sufferings of millions more through wounds and starvation. His work as a soldier was all undone. Yet France gained something from his rule. He planned and made fine roads and bridges and buildings, which still exist. He also revised the laws of France. But, for the good things he did, Europe had to pay terribly in suffering and death.

EXERCISES

1. Write a short account of the life and work of George Washington?
2. How did control of the sea affect the result of the American War of Independence?
3. What is meant by a 'federation' and how does it differ from a 'league' of states or nations?
4. What was the cause of the French Revolution and what were its results?
5. Read *A Tale of Two Cities* by Charles Dickens, an exciting story of the French Revolution.
6. What good things did Napoleon accomplish for France and what harm did he do?
7. How did control of the sea affect Napoleon's career?

10

The Machine Age

LESSON 20: THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

[Key-Question 39: *Why and how did the British Empire grow?*]

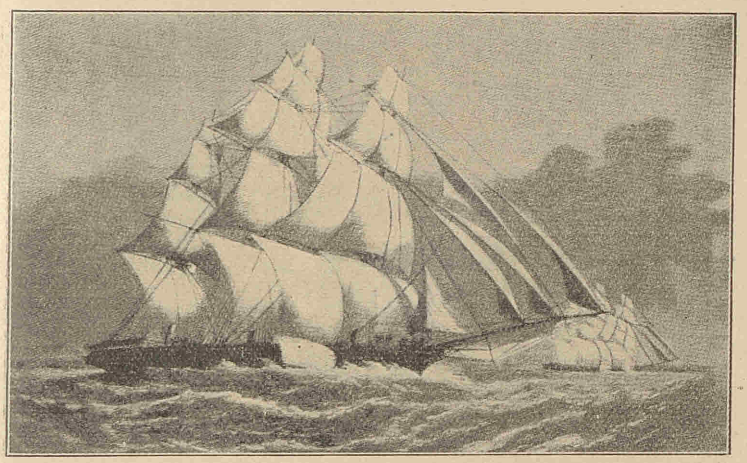
§39. We have seen in Lessons 15, 16 and 19 how the British, the people of those small islands off the north-west coast of Europe, gradually built up a great overseas empire; and how through their control of the sea they were able even to bring about the downfall of the mighty Napoleon. That empire grew more widespread and more powerful after the defeat of Napoleon, so it is worth while stopping here for a moment to see the causes of its growth.

It began and it grew, first, because the British islanders were a very adventurous people. They were used to risking their lives in small boats on stormy seas, and they enjoyed trying to discover new lands and new things. They are still like that, as is shown by adventures like the attempts to reach the north and the south poles, and to reach the tops of the highest mountains in the world. They were good colonists too: that is, they did not mind leaving their homeland and taking the risk of making a new home in a far-off country.

Secondly, they were keen traders. Most of the places which have now become parts of the British Empire were first visited by Britishers as private citizens and traders; they built trading-stations and settled there. The British Government only took charge later, as in the cases of India, Canada and South Africa.

Thirdly, they were keen seamen and built swift ships for trading, and to keep in touch with their various colonies all over the world. The ocean, instead of separating them from their friends overseas, was the means of uniting them. By

having a strong navy they were able to defend their empire and to keep rival nations from interfering with them, however



'THEY BUILT SWIFT SHIPS FOR TRADING'

strong they might be (like Napoleon) on the land. Whenever they lost control of the sea (as for a short time during the revolt of the American colonists) it was disastrous to them.

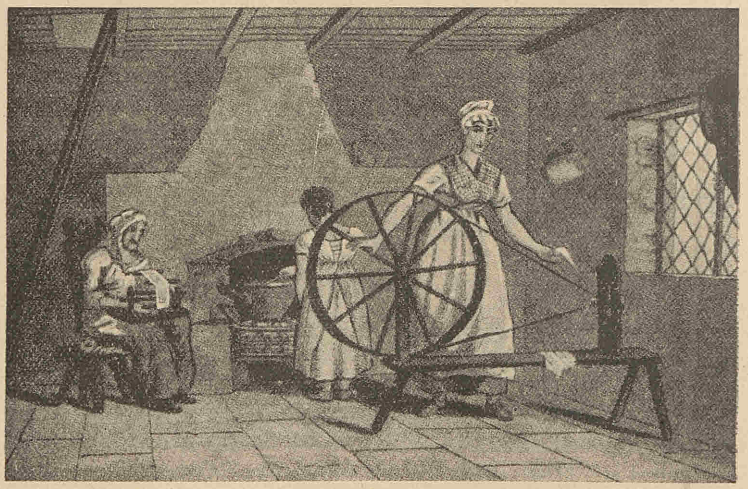
Lastly, they were very inventive, and were determined to find ways to overcome whatever difficulties came in their way.

Now we shall see how this inventiveness of the British people helped them to take the lead for a whole century from the time of Napoleon onwards.

[Key-Question 40: *What was 'The Industrial Revolution' and what inventions hastened it?*]

§40. Up to this time all manufactured goods had been made by hand (that is the meaning of the word 'manufacture'), and they were almost always made in small quantities by craftsmen working in their own homes. We call such crafts 'cottage industries' (see the pictures on page 78 and on page 79).

Every village had its own small group of craftsmen, just as many villages in India still have. Most of the women spun

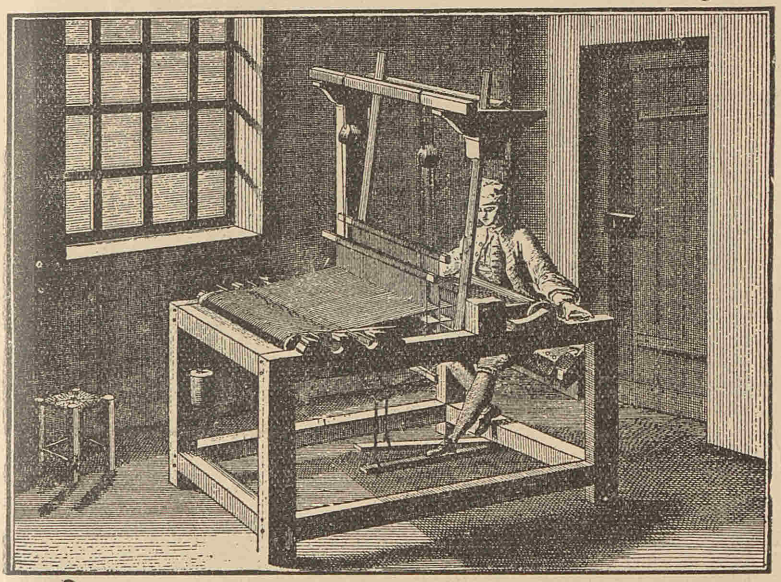


SPINNING BY HAND

yarn on their simple spinning-wheels or *charkas*; there were a few families of weavers, a potter, a blacksmith, a carpenter or two, a leather-worker. Certain districts or towns became famous for making certain things, either because they had specially skilled workers or a good supply of materials, or both. For example, Dacca in Bengal became famous for its muslin or fine cotton cloth, the south of France for its silk, north England for its woollen cloth, China for its silk and pottery, Toledo in Spain, for its swords and knife-blades. People were willing to pay high prices for these things when they were brought by traders. The makers tried to produce larger quantities as the demand grew. To do this they had to improve the tools they used, as well as increase their skill.

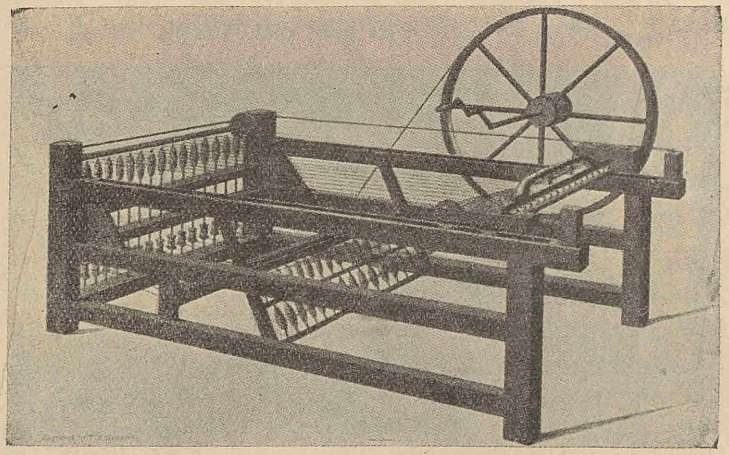
When the British began to colonize north America they

found that cotton could be grown very well in the warmer parts of that continent. It was also discovered that the damp

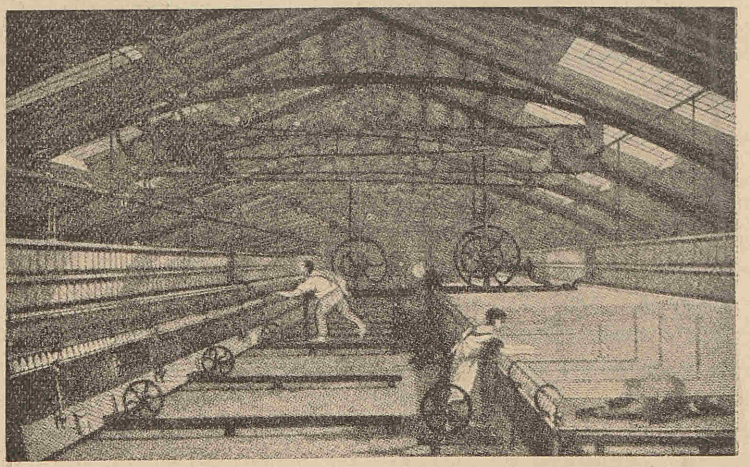


Weaving by Hand

climate of the north-west part of England (the country called Lancashire), though much too cold for cotton growing, was very good for spinning the cotton thread and weaving it into cloth. The cloth could be sold at a good profit because people were already paying high prices for the fine cotton cloth brought all the way from India. So the Lancashire people began to make cotton cloth from cotton brought from America. Owing to the demand, men began to try to find a way of making cloth in larger quantities than the hand-spinners and hand-weavers could make it in their cottages. Rich men began to hire the services of spinners and weavers, who worked on hand-looms fitted up in rows in big buildings called 'factories'.

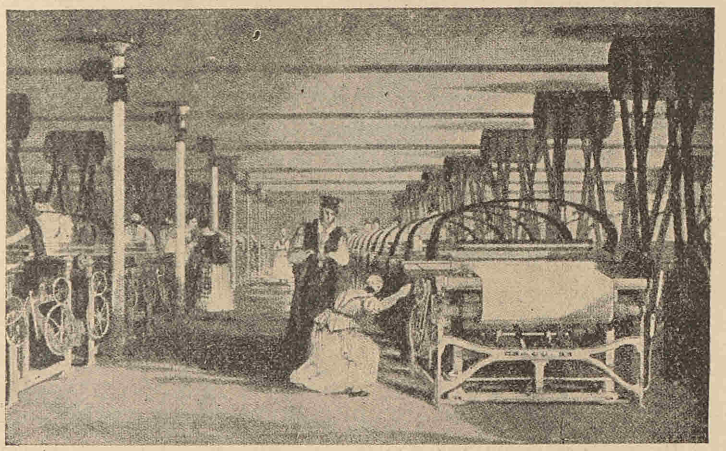


HARGREAVES' 'SPINNING-JENNY'



SPINNING BY MACHINERY

Instead of each man selling whatever he had made, the weaver was paid a fixed amount as wages, and if the factory-owner could get weavers to work for smaller wages, or to work longer hours and make more cloth, he could make more profit. Thus the factory-system caused great hardship to the people who made things in their own homes—the workers in the cottage



WEAVING BY MACHINERY

industries. If they wanted to get work, they had to leave their village homes and live near the factories. Thus big factory-towns began to spring up, in which hundreds of poor workers had to live, crowded together. This was the first step of the great change that we call *The Industrial Revolution.*

The next step was the improvement of the machines so that more cloth could be made by fewer workers. In 1766, a Lancashire man named JAMES HARGREAVES invented the 'spinning-jenny', a frame on which a large number of spindles could be worked at the same time by one man turning a handle. A few years later this was improved by another Lancashire man, ARKWRIGHT; he found that the threads could

be made much stronger if they were passed between rollers which pressed the fibres together. Arkwright built factories where rows of his machines were worked at the same time by the power of a wheel turned by the force of a running stream —a water-wheel. You must remember that water and the force of the wind, used in windmills, were the only kinds of mechanical power known at this time. The use of steam and electricity had not then been discovered.

Another important invention was now made by a man named EDMUND CARTWRIGHT. This was the making of a power-loom, that is a weaving-machine worked by mechanical power, instead of by hand. By the use of this, large quantities of cloth could be made in factories by machines which needed very few men to look after them. This again was good for the factory-owners and bad for the weavers.

LESSON 21: THE POWER OF STEAM

[Key-Question 41: *How was the steam-engine invented, and to what uses was it put?*]

§41. Then came the final step in making things quickly and in huge quantities. This was the use of the *steam-engine* for working the machines in the factories.

Steam-engines were already being used for pumping water out of coal-mines. It was very troublesome to do this by hand-labour, for, as the mine went deeper, the pumping became more and more difficult.

The first really good pumping-engine was made by a Devonshire blacksmith named THOMAS NEWCOMEN. In 1705 he brought out a form of pumping-engine which was soon widely in use for pumping the water out of coal-mines.

In 1765 it happened that one of the Newcomen engines needed repairing. It was given to JAMES WATT, then an instrument-maker to the University of Glasgow, to put right. Watt began to think how the engine could be improved. By

1774 he had made an engine which worked much better. It could be used not only for pumping, but also for driving machinery in the factories, and for turning a paddle-wheel to move ships through water. It was eagerly taken up by the factory-owners for working their spindles and looms, for it could do the work of hundreds of men, without ever needing rest, and it was much more powerful than the water-wheel.

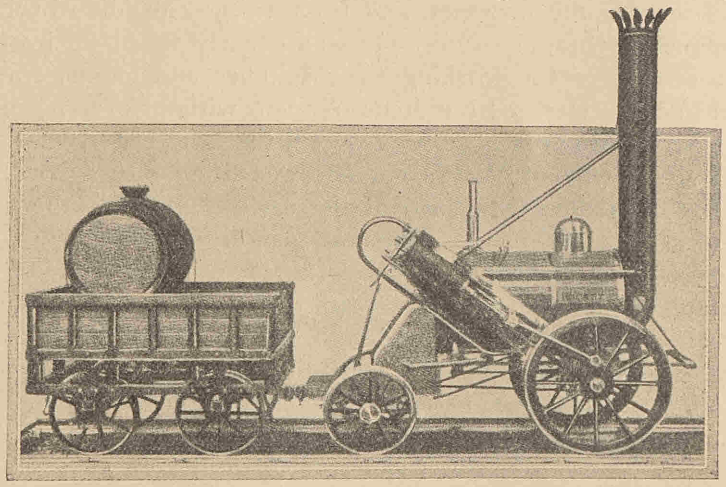
In 1801, one of Watt's engines was fitted into a boat; it turned a paddle-wheel fixed at the back. This was the first steam-boat. A few years later an American, Robert Fulton, also made a number of successful steam-boats fitted with Watt's engines. The first steamship to cross the Atlantic Ocean was an American one. The early steamships all had paddle-wheels (the propeller was invented later) and were fitted with sails also, in case their engines broke down.

[Key-Question 42: *How were railways invented and what was the result of the invention?*]

§42. When the steam-engine was fitted to a carriage on wheels, it became a locomotive (i.e. an engine which moves from one place to another by its own power). The idea of running trucks on rails, instead of on an ordinary road, had already been invented. Trucks loaded with coal were first made to run along lines of wooden planks. These wore out very soon, so flat plates made of iron were used at a coal-mine in England in 1776. Then came the idea of making L-shaped rails; and finally that of making the *flanges* of the wheels L-shaped, so that they would not run off plain rails. Meanwhile, the first steam-locomotive had been invented.

In 1801, a man called RICHARD TREVETHICK was working in a tin-mine in Cornwall. He fitted one of Watt's engines into a truck which ran on an ordinary road. Then in 1804 he made a similar locomotive to run on rails. About the same time a young man was working at a coal-mine near Newcastle. He was the son of one of the fire-men at the mine. The family

was so poor that they could not afford to send the boy to school; he had to work to add something to the small wages



STEPHENSON'S 'ROCKET'

of his father. The boy was GEORGE STEPHENSON. His job at the mine was to look after a fixed engine which pulled trucks of coal up a hill by means of a rope. Fortunately, George was not content just to do that. He started thinking how he could make a machine to do the work better, a travelling engine which would pull the trucks up the hill on rails. In 1815 he succeeded. Soon, many of the mines began to use his steam-locomotives for pulling their trucks of coal. 'But if a locomotive can be used to pull trucks of coal, then why not to pull trucks of passengers?' people began to ask. So a railway was made by George Stephenson in 1825 to carry passengers between the English towns of Stockton and Darlington. Its first engine can still be seen standing at Darlington railway-station.

In 1829 it was decided to build a railway between the big cities of Liverpool and Manchester. It was announced that a competition would be held to choose the best locomotive for

this railway. A prize of £500 was offered to the engineer whose locomotive could most swiftly pull a train of loaded trucks over a course 70 miles in length. Four inventors sent their engines. Stephenson's engine was called 'The Rocket', and it was the first to be tried. It completed the course successfully, and when the trucks were detached the locomotive by itself went at a speed of 35 miles per hour. None of the other three engines could even complete the course, so Stephenson won the prize and became the engineer of the first important passenger-railway in the world, the Liverpool and Manchester Railway.

The new form of transport immediately became successful. Within ten years not less than two hundred and fifty railway companies had been formed in England alone! Railways began to be built all over the world. George Stephenson's name became famous. The final step in the Industrial Revolution had been taken.

Since the invention of agriculture, long, long ago (perhaps 10,000 years ago), there has been no change in man's way of living so great as the change that was caused in the nineteenth century A.D., through the use of machinery to produce goods in great quantities, and to transport them across lands and oceans to every country of the world. This change can truly be called a 'revolution'—not a political revolution (a sudden change in form of government, such as the French Revolution), but an industrial revolution—a sudden change in the way of making things, and a social revolution, a great change in the way of living.

We shall learn in the following chapters what problems this revolution made for the men who owned or worked the machines and for those who were thrown out of work owing to the growth of factories.

EXERCISES

1. Why did the British Empire grow at this time?
2. What were the various stages of development of machinery which produced the Industrial Revolution?
3. Make a list of all the kinds of 'transport' you can think of, and number them in order of their usefulness and speed for carrying (*a*) goods across the Himalayas; (*b*) passengers across the Pacific Ocean.
4. 'Since the invention of agriculture there has been no change in man's way of living so great as the change caused through the use of machinery.' Discuss this.

11

Saving People from Slavery and Suffering

LESSON 22: ABRAHAM LINCOLN: THE AMERICAN CIVIL WAR

[Key-Question 43: *How did the slave-trade begin, and how did it become a cause of Civil War in the U.S.A.?*]

§43. The most terribly cruel actions done by men to their fellow-men have probably been due to intolerance, to the fear of new ideas about religion, or about government. Nowadays, in most parts of the world, men have come to see the foolishness of trying to force others to change their religion. But equally terrible cruelties have been caused for other reasons. They are the thoughtless cruelties caused by greed, by the desire to get rich quickly. The Industrial Revolution, which suddenly brought so many new opportunities for increasing wealth, was the cause of much cruelty of this sort.

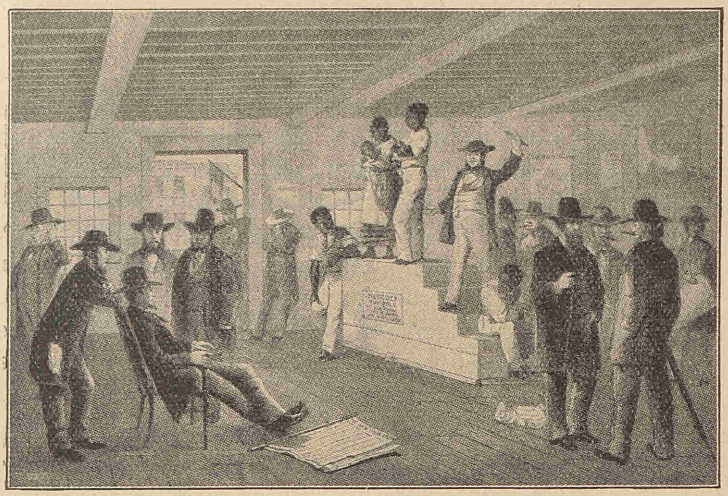
The demand for tropical products such as sugar, spices, coffee, and tobacco, made it very profitable to grow them in South America and the southern part of North America. The cheapest method was to use slave-labour, and the easiest way to get slaves was to attack the negro tribes living along the west coast of Africa, and to carry them off in shiploads across the Atlantic. Merchants belonging to all sea-loving nations,

particularly the Spanish, the British and the Portuguese, who had colonies in America, carried on this trade in slaves from about A.D. 1600 onwards. By the year 1790 there were nearly 700,000 negro slaves working in America.

But there were many people who felt ashamed that human beings should be bought and sold like animals; and at about the time of the French Revolution, laws were passed in England making it a crime to trade in slaves. The leader of this agitation against slavery was an Englishman named WILLIAM WILBERFORCE.

By 1824 laws were passed ordering that any remaining slaves in the British Empire should be set free, and no more slavery should be permitted. Other countries of Europe also passed similar laws about the same time.

But it was much more difficult for the Americans to pass



SLAVE-AUCTION IN VIRGINIA

such laws. The use of machinery for making cotton goods had very greatly increased the demand for raw cotton, and

the southern states of the U.S.A. were now covered with big estates on which cotton was grown by slave-labour. Although it was against the law to carry slaves from Africa, many were still brought secretly (and with much greater cruelty owing to the need of hiding the slaves carried by the ships). By the year 1861 there were no less than four million slaves in the U.S.A.! The southerners believed that it would be disastrous to them if they had to set these workers free. It was easy, they said, for the northerners and the Europeans to talk about freeing the slaves, for almost no slaves were employed in those countries.

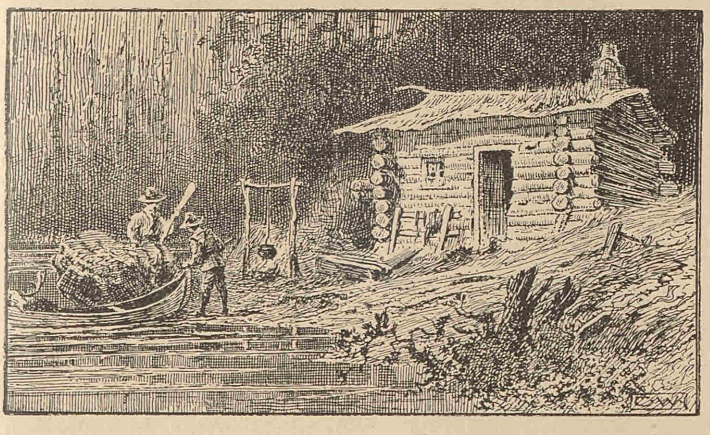
The question of slavery thus became a very serious cause of quarrel between the northern and the southern states of the U.S.A. The Industrial Revolution had spread to America, and in the northern states which are rich in coal and iron, factory-towns were rapidly springing up, and the people were eager to adopt new and progressive ideas. In the southern states were many large estates owned by wealthy country-gentlemen, who were against any change in their way of living. They wanted to go on managing their estates, in their own way, with slave-labour. Presently they began to feel that the only way for them to avoid interference by the northerners was to secede (i.e. withdraw) altogether from the United States, and form a new independent nation of their own, called the 'Confederacy'.

The election, as President of the U.S.A. in 1860, of a man who was opposed to slavery, made the southern states finally decide to secede. The name of that President was ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

[Key-Question 44: *Why did the northern and the southern states fight each other, and what was the result?*]

§44. Abraham Lincoln was born in 1809 in a log-cabin in the American state of Kentucky. That part of America was then mostly covered with forests in which Red Indians lived.

Abraham was the son of a farmer who could neither read nor write. When he was seven years old his father decided to move across the river Ohio into the neighbouring state of



A Log-cabin

Indiana. There he built a new hut of logs and cleared some more ground for farming. Again, when young Lincoln was nineteen, the family moved further west into the state of Illinois, nearer to the great river Mississippi. It was through the settlement of pioneer-farmers, like this, that the U.S.A. gradually spread towards the Rocky Mountains and finally to the Pacific coast.

In the meantime young Lincoln had taught himself to read and write. He first saw what slavery was like, when he took a shipload of goods down the river Mississippi to be sold in New Orleans, the great cotton centre. What he saw there made him determine to fight slavery. On his return he was offered a job as manager of a small shop. Being one of the few people of the neighbourhood who could read and write, he was also given work in the local elections, and this gave him the idea of taking up politics. He stood as a candidate

for membership of the state Legislative Council and was elected when he was only 27 years of age. Then he moved to Springfield, the capital of the state, and took up law as his profession. He worked hard, and ten years later he was elected to represent his state in Congress (the 'House of Commons' of the U.S.A.). He became famous for his strong support of the agitation against slavery. In 1860 he was chosen to be the Republican party's candidate for the presidency of the U.S.A. He was elected President and four days after his election the first shot of the American Civil War was fired. The southerners had decided to fight the Union and to become independent. For the sake of forcing the southerners to set free the slaves, alone, Lincoln would not have agreed to fight a terrible Civil War, in which brothers fought against brothers and fathers against sons. But there was a greater cause for which he was prepared to fight to the end. That was the question whether or not the United States should cease to be united. Lincoln believed that the Union must not be broken by the setting up of an independent Confederacy of



ABRAHAM LINCOLN

the southern states. To decide this, half a million Americans killed each other in one of the most destructive wars ever fought. The war went on and on for four long years. In the end the northerners won. But at what cost!

Lincoln was ready to treat the defeated southerners generously. But he never lived to see his plans carried out. A few days after the end of the war he was attending a celebration of the victory, when he was shot by a man who believed Lincoln had done him some small injustice. He died the next morning.

The south had to free the slaves, and the negroes were given the full rights of American citizenship—on paper. But this did not solve the problem of the negro population of America; and it has not yet been solved. There are now more than twelve million negroes in the U.S.A.—nearly one tenth of its whole population. Many of them have been well educated; some are wealthy: and none can be employed except for wages. Yet in some ways they are still made to feel that they are no better than the slaves that their forefathers used to be. Their number is increasing. Their future is one of the big problems America has to face.

LESSON 23:

PUTTING A STOP TO CRUELTY

[Key-Question 45: *What evils did John Howard, Elizabeth Fry, and Florence Nightingale try to get rid of?*]

§45. One of the signs that people are becoming more civilized is when more and more men and women protest against cruelty of various sorts, and work to put a stop to it.

A hundred and fifty years ago, if a person was sent to prison he had a terrible time. The prisons were not kept clean: there were no rules about the prisoners' food: and if they fell ill (as often happened) there was no one to do

anything for them. If the jailer in charge of the prison happened to be a kind-hearted man, he might help. But he was not obliged to do so. Prisoners who had no money and no wealthy friends therefore often died in prison. Nobody cared. Why should any care be taken of prisoners? Had they not been put in prison because they had done wrong? Sad to say, also, in those times people were sent to prison for very small acts of wrongdoing. A man could be hanged for stealing. Even little children were sent to prison sometimes.

JOHN HOWARD was a high official of one of the counties (provinces) of England, and he often had to send to prison people who had broken the laws. But one day he went to see the prison of his own town, Bedford. He was so shocked that he made up his mind to get rules laid down about the proper treatment of prisoners. He spent about fifteen years travelling to see the prisons all over England and in other countries of Europe. He wrote a book describing what he had seen, and as a result of this the laws about imprisonment and the treatment of prisoners in England were improved. Howard died in Russia from a fever which he caught when inspecting prisons there.



ELIZABETH FRY

Another generous-hearted person of the same kind was ELIZABETH FRY. Born and brought up in the midst of comfort and cleanliness, when she heard how women were treated in the prisons of that time, she went to see the prisons for herself. The horrible sights she saw made her

decide to spend her life in getting things improved. Beginning with work for the women-prisoners in London, she gradually helped more and more people, not only in England but in other countries too. She went to see the rulers of many countries in Europe, and persuaded them to make better laws for the treatment of prisoners. She also worked for the help of beggars and other homeless poor people.

Another woman, also from a high and wealthy family, gave her life to the improvement of the nursing of patients in hospitals. This was FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE, who went out to nurse soldiers wounded in the Crimean War between Britain and Russia. She found the hospitals in a terrible condition, with no medicines or arrangements for cleanliness. When she returned to England she did a great deal to arrange for the training of nurses for work in hospitals.

We have already mentioned in this chapter how WILLIAM WILBERFORCE worked to get laws passed to stop slavery. This was another great piece of work to make cruelty less.

[Key-Question 46: *What was the special work of Lord Shaftesbury and Doctor Nansen?*]

§46. But perhaps the greatest of all these workers was Anthony Ashley Cooper, who afterwards became LORD SHAFTESBURY. The worst cruelty in the new factories was in the treatment of young children, who were driven to work on very small wages for terribly long hours in the mines, the cotton-mills and other factories. Shaftesbury, though the son of a wealthy man, had been harshly treated by his own father, and half-starved at school. When he grew older, he did not forget what it felt like to be ill-treated as a child, and he made up his mind to work for children. He became a Member of Parliament when he was only 25 years old, and he worked for more than twenty years before he could persuade the House of Commons to pass a law to stop the employment of children in factories for more than ten hours

a day. Imagine what it must have been like when little children were actually chained to the looms or other machinery and forced to work even for fifteen hours daily!



LORD SHAFTESBURY—THE CHILDREN'S FRIEND

Then Shaftesbury set to work to stop the cruel treatment of children employed in the coal-mines. Here they were made to crawl along dark underground passages, pulling small trucks of coal. Another cruelty was the sending of children up tall chimneys to clean them—like Tom, the chimney-sweep, in the famous story *The Water Babies*.

From the helping of children employed in mines and factories, Shaftesbury went on to the helping of those who were homeless and hungry. In London and other great cities of that time there were thousands of children who lived by begging or stealing, as there are in Bombay and Calcutta even now. Shaftesbury got 'Children's Homes' started for the care of these children.

In recent times some of the finest work of this sort has been done by a great Norwegian scientist, DR NANSEN, who

first became famous for his voyages of exploration to the north Polar regions. After the First World War there were millions of people in Europe dying of starvation and disease. Nansen took up the great work of collecting money and food for helping them. At one time about 12 million people in Europe were being fed at centres under his control.

EXERCISES

1. Mention some of the chief causes of men's cruelty to other men and women. (Try to think of some others, besides those given in this chapter.)
2. Why did slavery increase so rapidly in America, and how did it come to an end? What results did it leave behind?
3. Why is a Civil War in some ways more terrible than any other kind of war? Why did Lincoln support the northern states in their fight against the south?
4. What signs are there that men and women are more civilized now than they used to be?
5. Read the book called *Uncle Tom's Cabin* which describes the life of negro slaves in the southern states of the U.S.A.

12

The Growth of Democracy

LESSON 24: HOW PARLIAMENT GREW

[Key-Question 47: *What is meant by 'absolute monarchy', 'limited monarchy', 'dictatorship', 'oligarchy' and 'constitutional government'?*]

§47. We have seen in Lessons 17 and 18 how the people of certain countries rebelled against the tyranny of kings who believed that they could do exactly as they pleased, whether their subjects liked it or not. But when the Government of a country is overthrown, something else has to be put in its place. Either a better king must be found or some other way of governing the country without a king must be discovered. This problem of good government is a very important one, and we must now study some of the experiments which were made to solve it.

Here are four words which we shall find very useful in our study. *Monarchy* means government by a king: *oligarchy*

means government by a few people: *plutocracy* means government by the rich: *democracy* means government by the people.

In a monarchy there is only one ruler: he is the king. But there are various ways by which a king can rule. If he keeps all the power in his own hands, having ministers or officials who merely carry out his orders, we call it an *absolute monarchy*. But if the king governs the country with the help of an elected Parliament which makes the laws, and by means of ministers chosen from among the members of Parliament, then we say that the government is a *limited monarchy*. When the government is carried on in a constitutional or regular way, according to the laws of the country, and not by the king himself but by a council of ministers, it is called a *constitutional monarchy*.

If there is an 'absolute' ruler who does not call himself 'king', we call that government a 'dictatorship' and the ruler a 'dictator'. Napoleon was really a dictator before he was crowned emperor of the French. Mussolini and Hitler were dictators. There were Parliaments in their countries, but the dictators did not rule as their Parliaments wished: they made the Parliaments say 'yes' to whatever they did, not allowing anyone to be a member who held opinions different from their own.

This, you will see, is a very important point. Unless a Parliament is *freely* elected, and can have members in it who need not agree with all the opinions of the king or ruler, it is not of much use. If all the members belong to the party of the ruler, and if the ruler chooses a few of them to assist him, the government will be an *oligarchy*, for the country will be ruled by a few powerful people, and the others will merely obey, whether they like it or not. Of course, you can have an oligarchy without any Parliament at all.

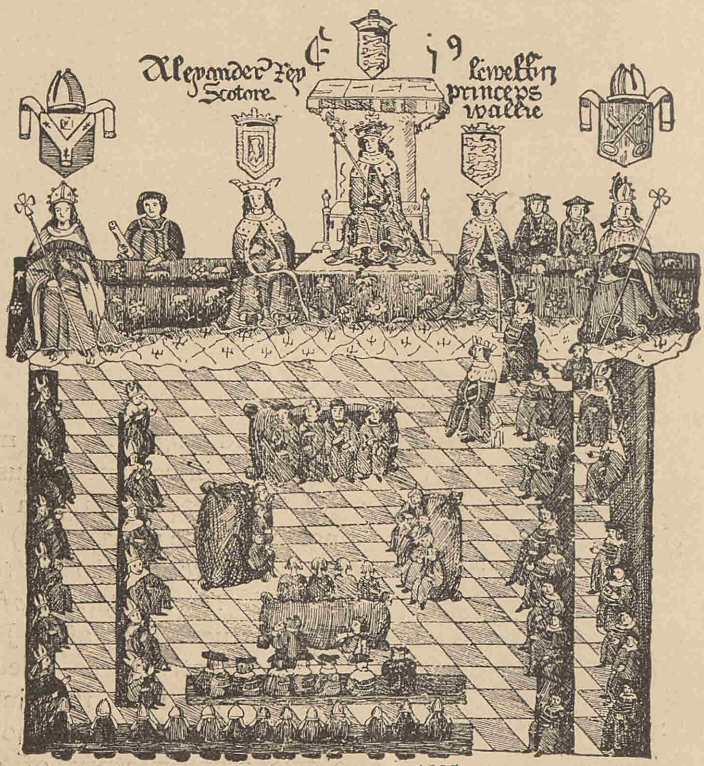
The way in which a Parliament is elected, and the people who elect it and who can stand for election, is therefore

important. In order to learn something more about this we will run quickly through the history of the English Parliament, because it is one of the oldest in the world, and also because it has been used as a model by many other nations when they set up 'constitutional government'.

[Key-Question 48: *How did Parliament begin in England, and how did the House of Commons get control over the king?*]

§48. The elected English Parliament began in the following way. In the thirteenth century the nobles of England rebelled against a king called John, who was trying to make himself powerful. The nobles joined together and forced King John to sign an agreement. Among other things, the king promised that no man's property should be taken from him except with the consent of that man's equals (i.e. according to the law and not at the pleasure of the king), and that no man should be kept in prison without a legal trial. This agreement is called *Magna Charta*, or the Great Charter, and king John was made to sign it in the year 1215. It is very important because it marks the beginning in Europe of two ideas: (i) that a *king must rule according to law*, and not just as he pleases; (ii) that *laws must be made by representatives of those who are to be governed by those laws*, that is, *by the representatives of the people*. And in the reign of the very next king after John, a Parliament consisting of such representatives was called, to decide how much money should be provided for the king to spend. Many of the members of that Parliament were nobles, or lords, but there were also two representatives of each county or province, and two from each borough or city. And, as the interests of these people (the 'commons' or commoners) were different from those of the lords, they began to meet separately from the lords. This is how the two Houses of Parliament arose, the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The House of Commons, you see, was always an *elected* body of representatives, whereas the lords were those

who were *born* as nobles or made nobles by the king. Some of the bishops, or chief men of the church, were also included in the House of Lords.



PARLIAMENT IN 1295

The king is enthroned in the centre with a royal prince on either side, with the Archbishops of Canterbury and York at the ends of the same row. The members are shown in the foreground of the picture which is drawn without regard to perspective, just as in the case of medieval Indian pictures.

When the king wanted money, he used to send a message to the House of Commons saying that he wished to order the people to pay such-and-such taxes and that he expected the Commons to agree to pay them. This meant that, really,

the House of Commons had control over the supplies of money for the king. And, presently, if the king did anything that they did not like, the Commons used to demand that the king should promise to stop doing whatever was wrong *before they would give him any more money.* This, you can see, acted as a very powerful check on the king's actions, and kings who believed in their 'divine right' to do as they pleased, did not like it at all. But it was not until the reign of King Charles I (who became king of England about twenty years before Louis XIV became king of France) that the struggle became really serious.

LESSON 25: HOW PARLIAMENT CONTROLLED ITS KING

[Key-Question 49: *What happened when Charles I defied Parliament?*]

§49. Charles I wanted to behave like an absolute monarch, and he refused to ask Parliament's permission to collect taxes: he said it was his right to take them, and he tried to do so. When the House of Commons objected, he sent his soldiers to arrest the chief members. Then he ordered the Parliament to go away, refused to allow it to hold its meetings, and tried to rule the country without it.



CHARLES I

But Parliament was too strong to put up with such treatment. It also organized an army, and there was

a civil war (1642-8)—the king against his Parliament, with most of the nobles on the king's side (though not all), and most of the townspeople on the side of the Parliament. For seven years they fought, and in the end the *king was defeated.* He was brought before the judges—a king judged by his own subjects! Because he would not rule according to the law, but claimed the right to do as he pleased, Parliament ordered that he should suffer the punishment of a traitor to the country—the punishment of death. He was beheaded publicly in 1649. This was a terrible blow to absolute monarchy.

It is interesting to know what happened afterwards. For the next eleven years England tried the experiment of being a republic. The President (or 'Lord Protector', as he was called) was OLIVER CROMWELL, the man who had led the Parliament to victory. But the experiment was not a success. Cromwell was a good man and a strong ruler, and while he lived there was no rebellion. But those who assisted him were as tyrannical and intolerant as the king's men had been. In religion they tried to force everyone to accept their own extreme Protestant views.



OLIVER CROMWELL

When Oliver Cromwell died in 1658, his son Richard became Protector. But he was a weak man and within a year there was a movement to put a king on the throne again.

[Key-Question 50: *How did Charles II keep the throne and how did James II lose it?*]

§50. In 1660 the son of Charles I, who had been living under the protection of Louis XIV in France, was invited to come

back and was placed upon the throne as Charles II. Unlike his father, he took good care not to displease Parliament. He said that he did not want to 'go on his travels again'! He was on the throne for 25 years. When he died, his brother came to the throne as James II, and he was not so wise as Charles II. He followed the footsteps of his father and tried to do as he pleased. He had not learned by his father's experience that he could not do that as king of England. He was a Catholic and he tried to force his religion upon others. The people of England had had enough of that. Parliament invited William of Orange, a Dutch prince who had been fighting against Louis in Holland, to accept the throne of England because his wife was a daughter of James II. This time there was no civil war. James II ran away—he was allowed to escape—to France, where Louis gave him protection. It was a bloodless revolution. And because William owed his throne to Parliament, he ruled according to the laws made by Parliament, and not as he pleased. England has never had any more absolute monarchs since then. It is what we call a 'constitutional monarchy', ruled by 'Parliamentary government'.

LESSON 26: THE 'MIDDLE CLASS': THE REFORM BILLS: GLADSTONE

[Key-Question 51: *How did Parliament become completely representative of the nation?*]

§51. Throughout the previous lesson we have been talking about 'Parliament'. But who exactly were the members of Parliament? Could *anybody* become a member? The answer is 'No'. There was no rule that only rich men or men in high positions could be elected, but it was impossible for a very poor man to become a member of Parliament because it was too costly. Members of Parliament were not paid any salary at that time. So only those who had enough money to live in

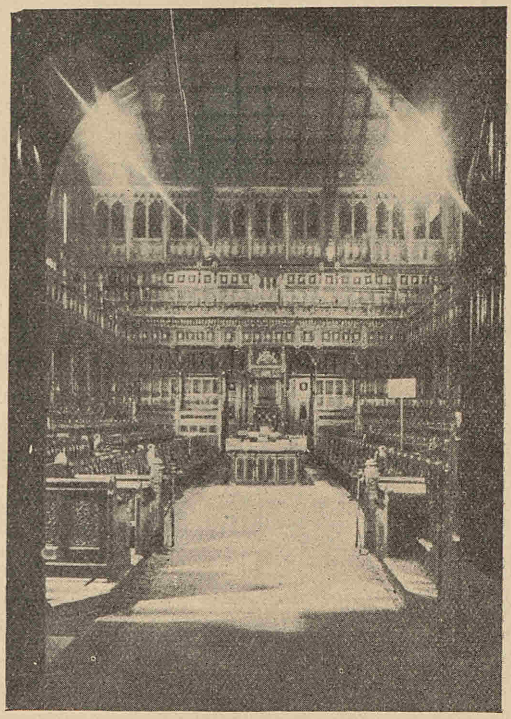
London without doing other work could possibly be members. In this way the government of the country by Parliament was really government by the rich. It was *plutocracy*.

This is one of the reasons why the British Parliament was willing to spend money on costly wars to protect the British colonies, and to prevent other nations from interfering with British trade. Many of the members themselves got money through shipping and trade, or from business which needed raw materials grown in the colonies (such as cotton, tobacco, etc.).

But after the Industrial Revolution England became a much wealthier country. There were many more people who were fairly rich. Many small factories, trading businesses, and all sorts of shops were started, and the people who owned them and managed them were neither poor nor very rich. They were the people of 'the middle class'.

The 'middle class' people were usually well educated—or educated as well as it was possible to be in those times, for there were then no schools run by the Government. All schools were run either by the Church or by private schoolmasters. In many cases children were taught by teachers at home. These educated people soon began to think that 'plutocracy' was not satisfactory, because they had little or no chance of getting their representatives into Parliament. An agitation therefore began for the 'reform' of Parliament. Parliament at that time was really representative only of the richer people, because only the rich people of the country parts and the fairly rich people of the towns were allowed to vote at the elections. It was now proposed that the vote should be given also to the 'middle class' people. After a big struggle—which nearly came to civil war—the First Reform Bill was passed in 1832. It was the new Parliament, elected after this reform, which abolished slavery and passed the bills stopping the cruel employment of little children in factories.

But the Government was still not really a 'democracy', or rule by the people, for there were no representatives at all of the 'working class', that is the people who earn their living by working with their hands, in factories and shops, in loading and unloading ships, and in farming. It was not until 1867 that the vote was given to some of these, when the SECOND REFORM BILL was passed.



INSIDE THE HOUSE OF COMMONS TODAY

The result of having a Parliament more fully representative of the whole nation was that new laws were passed which helped to improve the condition of the people in several more ways. Under the great Prime Minister of the Liberal Party, W. E. GLADSTONE, the first Education Bill was passed, setting up free national primary schools. It was Gladstone, too, who first tried to give self-government to Ireland, and it was at this time that the first great experiment in *Dominion self-government* was tried and proved successful, when Canada became a Federal Dominion in 1867.

Members of Parliament began to be paid salaries in 1911. The vote was not given to women until 1918, and in 1928 it was extended to all citizens over 21 years of age.

[Key-Question 52: *What are some of the advantages and disadvantages of Parliamentary government?*]

§52. There are several advantages of Parliamentary government. The first is that it prevents a king, or any strong leader, from becoming a tyrant. Parliament possesses 'the power of the purse', that is, the people cannot be taxed without Parliament's permission, and all money to be spent by the king and his Government has to be granted by Parliament every year (in the Budget, as it is called). Also, if anything wrong is being done by the ministers, or by any responsible person, or in any department of the nation's life and work, it is certain to be made known. It is then discussed in Parliament and, in course of time, set right.

But it is here that there are also disadvantages in Parliamentary government. It is very slow. It is not a good system for getting things done quickly. It takes Parliament a long time to make new laws. A large number of members want to make speeches, and there are many delays. Such delays are very harmful to the nation when there is a very serious difficulty to be overcome, such as a famine, or an invasion, or some such dangerous happening. Experiments are now being made in various countries to discover a way of getting the work of the nation done more quickly.

Every citizen of a nation has both rights and duties. Parliamentary government has helped a great deal to guard men's rights, and to prevent kings and dictators from taking them away. Strong rulers always think more of the duties of the people to obey them, than of the rights of the people to be well governed. That is why dictators, such as Mussolini and Hitler, hated Parliaments and democracy. One of the big remaining struggles of modern man is to find a way of

making everyone do his duty without taking away his necessary rights. Democracy is 'the government *of* the people, *for* the people, *by* the people'. We have to find out how to make this into the government of the people for the good of *all* the people, by the people who can be trusted to govern *well*. This is one of the problems which you will have to help to solve in India.

EXERCISES

1. Write down the various stages of growth of the English Parliament, showing how it was changed and when.
2. Why was king Charles I beheaded?
3. Why did England not remain a republic?
4. What other methods of government have you heard of besides Parliamentary government? What are their advantages and disadvantages?

13

Discoveries of Science

LESSON 27: THE CIRCULATION OF THE BLOOD: THE LAWS OF GRAVITATION: THE THEORY OF EVOLUTION

[Key-Question 53: *What are the 'Laws of Nature'?*]

§53. When your grandfather was a boy at school, students were not encouraged to ask questions. It is different now. Children are encouraged to ask 'Why?' and 'How?'. When they ask such questions their parents or teachers try to answer them. They do not tell the children: 'God made it so: don't ask why'; or, 'That is the truth, written down in our holy books.' That is what your grandfather was told, if he asked questions.

'Science' (a word which means 'knowledge') is the name given to all the subjects which answer the questions 'Why?' and 'How?'. Boys and girls now begin to learn something of science even when they are quite young, and many of them become scientists when they grow up. The result of this is that there are now thousands of people in every country trying to find out the answers to 'whys' and 'hows', and almost every

week there is a new discovery. For example, medical scientists have recently discovered medicines which can quickly cure dangerous illnesses such as pneumonia[1] and other fevers.

But if you want to cure a disease, you must first know what is the real cause of it. If people believe that malaria and smallpox are caused by 'the evil eye' or by the anger of a god or an evil spirit, they will try to cure the disease by magic rather than by quinine or vaccination. So the most important discoveries, at the beginning, are the discoveries of the 'Laws of Nature' or how things happen.

One of these important discoveries was the 'circulation of the blood'; that is, the work of the heart in pumping the blood all over the body through our arteries and veins. This discovery was made by the Chinese more than two thousand years ago, but the knowledge never reached the west. It was discovered again in 1628 by Dr William Harvey, the doctor of king Charles I (the king of England who was beheaded by his own Parliament—see Lesson 25).

Another very important discovery was that of the 'laws of gravitation' (or why things fall towards the earth). This was discovered by the great English mathematician, Sir Isaac Newton, about the year 1700.

[Key-Question 54: *What did Charles Darwin discover?*]

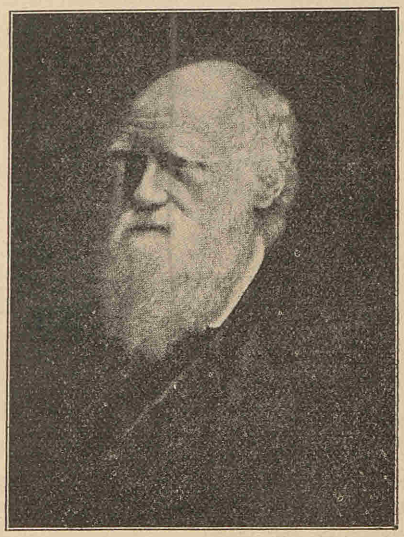
§54. A very great discovery was made about 1859 when Charles Darwin published his book *The Origin of Species*, in which he explained the 'theory of evolution'.

Charles Darwin did not like school. In the schools in England at that time the boys were taught a great deal of Latin and Greek, which they had to memorize—just as the boys in our old Sanskrit and Arabic schools in India had to do. No science was taught. But Charles was interested in collecting various sorts of stones, and flowers, and even beetles and other insects. He wanted to find out *why* there

[1] Pronounced 'new-mo-near'.

are so many different sorts of plants and animals, and *how* they have become different, and *why* they are not all alike.

Charles's father and grandfather were both doctors of medicine. So in 1825 he was sent to Edinburgh University to study medicine. After two years, he decided to give up medicine and take up the subjects in which he was really interested, botany and zoology. For this he went to Cambridge University. In 1831 he got the opportunity which was the turning-point in his life. The British Government wanted to get correct information about the coastlines and harbours of islands in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. So a ship, named *The Beagle*, was sent out with a party of scientists to get all the required information. Darwin was offered the post of zoologist on this ship. For five years he went from island to island, and was thus able to make a great collection of different sorts of plants and animals. This was just what he needed for his work of finding out how plants and animals have developed differences, or 'variations' as Darwin called them.



CHARLES DARWIN

When Darwin got home he began to work on his theory. In brief it was this: Long, long ago (perhaps millions of years ago) there must have been only a few species (sorts) of plants and animals. But different parts of the world have different kinds of climate and surroundings,

so only those plants and animals will increase which are helped by that climate or those surroundings. The other species will die out. For example, on the island of Madeira (near the north-west coast of Africa) Darwin found 550 different sorts of beetles. Most beetles can fly, but Darwin found in Madeira 200 kinds of beetles which could not fly, and many of the common flying beetles were not found there. What was the reason for the absence of flying beetles in Madeira? Darwin worked out this answer. Madeira is in the region of the strong westerly winds, and beetles which could fly were quickly blown out to sea by the strong wind, and drowned. Those which could not fly were saved, and increased. So Madeira has mostly non-flying beetles. This is known as Darwin's theory of 'natural selection', or how Nature selects (chooses) some sorts of plants and animals and causes them to increase in certain places, while others die out.

From this idea Darwin went on to another theory. In his later book, *The Descent of Man*, he says that Man has also developed through the process of Natural Selection. But I will leave that for you to study when you are older.

LESSON 28: VACCINATION: CHLOROFORM: ANTISEPTICS

[Key-Question 55: *How was vaccination*[1] *discovered? Who discovered the X-rays?*]

§55. Just before the year 1800 an important discovery was made by an English doctor named EDWARD JENNER. The disease called smallpox was then common in England, and it was difficult to cure. Most people who caught the disease died of it. Jenner's home was in a village and one day he heard a dairymaid say: 'I cannot get smallpox because I have had cowpox.' This made him think. He found out that it was true. Cowpox is a disease of cows, similar to smallpox

[1] Pronounced 'vax-in-á-shun'.

but not nearly so serious. If human beings catch that disease, they are almost certain not to get smallpox. Jenner did not know why and he could not find out. But it was a fact. The work of a dairymaid (milking cows) makes it very likely for her to get cowpox. But by that she was saved from getting smallpox. Jenner made up his mind to do a dangerous experiment. He took some of the matter from a cowpox sore and put it into the veins of a boy. The boy developed cowpox, and soon got well again. Then Jenner took some matter from a smallpox sore, and put it into the body of the same boy. He did *not* get smallpox. This was how 'vaccination' was discovered. It is used all over the world now, and smallpox has entirely disappeared in the British Isles and many other countries.



EDWARD JENNER

But Jenner never knew *why* a person who has had cowpox cannot get smallpox. This could not be found out until another discovery had been made. This discovery was not made until nearly 100 years later, when ROBERT KOCH,[1] a German doctor, found out how we get certain diseases. When looking through a microscope at drops of blood taken from persons suffering from diseases such as typhoid, cholera, pneumonia, etc., he observed certain objects in the blood, which were not seen in the blood of healthy

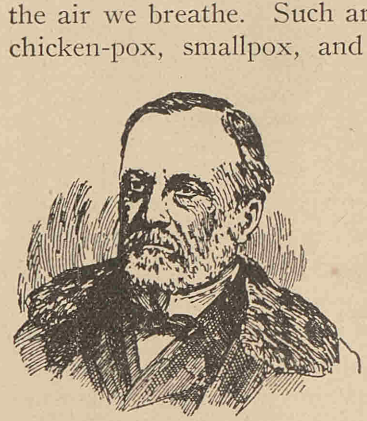


ROBERT KOCH

[1] Pronounced 'kok'.

persons. He found that these were the 'germs', or seeds, of the diseases. They were different in the cases of different diseases. The next thing was to find out how the disease-germs get into the blood, and how to stop them from doing so, and how to kill them if they get in. This was discovered by Louis Pasteur, a Frenchman.

Pasteur found that some germs get into the blood through the air we breathe. Such are the germs of influenza, measles, chicken-pox, smallpox, and tuberculosis (T.B.). Some get into us through the food and and water we take; such are the germs of cholera, typhoid and dysentery. Some get into us through the bites of insects; such as malaria and plague. It will be clear from this that if we are very careful to breathe pure air, eat and drink clean things only, and avoid bites of mosquitoes, bugs, etc., we can avoid the danger of many of the worst diseases. How to do this is shown in the science of hygiene, or how to keep healthy.



Louis Pasteur

It now became clear why vaccination prevents smallpox. When a few germs of cowpox are put into a man's blood, the blood corpuscles (you will learn more about these in your lessons on physiology) begin to make a substance which kills the cowpox germs. The same substance also kills smallpox germs; so, if the same man gets a few smallpox germs into his blood, they are killed and he does not get smallpox. But the same substance cannot kill the germs of other diseases. To kill the germs of cholera and typhoid, a very, very small quantity of the germs of those diseases is put into the blood. The blood then makes a substance which kills cholera and

typhoid germs. This is what is called 'preventive inoculation', that is something put into your blood to prevent you from getting a disease. To stop malaria, quinine is put into the blood. Quinine kills the malaria germs which have been put into the blood by a mosquito.

One of the most terrible diseases that Pasteur's discovery helped to cure is rabies, the disease caused by the bite of a mad dog. Nowadays, all over the world, the special hospitals or departments in which this disease is treated are called 'Pasteur Institutes'.

A wonderful discovery that has saved mankind from much pain was the discovery of *chloroform*, the substance which sends people into a deep sleep or unconsciousness, so that operations can be done on the body, and even parts can be cut off, while the patient is unconscious. Before this discovery was made, operations had to be done with the patient able to feel everything. Imagine how fearful it would be to have a leg cut off or a bullet taken out—or even a tooth—without any way to stop the pain!

The use of chloroform was discovered by a young Scottish Doctor, JAMES SIMPSON, in 1847.

But there was still another difficulty to overcome. It was soon noticed that even when an operation had been done successfully, and without pain to the patient, the patient often died, a few weeks later, from poisoning of the blood. JOSEPH LISTER, a young doctor working in a Glasgow hospital, made up his mind to find out the reason for this. After many careful observations Lister discovered in 1865 that the poisoning was due to germs in the air around us, and in water. These get into wounds, causing them to



LORD LISTER

become 'septic', i.e. the flesh begins to rot or decay, and the poisonous matter passes into the blood. To prevent this, it was necessary to find some substance which would be 'anti-septic'. Lister found that carbolic acid is such a substance: no germs can live in it, but it does no harm to the body, if it is put only on the outside and not in the mouth. By dressing the wounds of his hospital-patients with carbolic acid, Lister was able to save thousands of lives.

A more recent discovery which has been of great help to doctors is that of the wonderful rays known as 'X-rays'. They were discovered in 1895 by a German scientist named RÖNTGEN. These rays are so powerful that they can pass through solid substances which ordinary light cannot go through. Thus a bullet buried deeply in the body can be photographed and its exact position seen, so that the doctor can take it out more easily. Röntgen could not find out at first what caused these rays, so he called them 'X' rays, which means 'unknown' rays. He received the Nobel Prize for his work in 1901.

EXERCISES

1. Why must 'laws of nature' be found out and understood before a large number of inventions can be made?
2. What 'laws of nature' were discovered by Newton and by Darwin?
3. What is meant by 'natural selection'?
4. How does vaccination prevent a person from getting smallpox?
5. What important discoveries were made by Koch, Lister, Pasteur and Simpson?

14

Rivals for Empire and Trade

LESSON 29: GREAT PIONEERS: CAPTAIN COOK: DAVID LIVINGSTONE

[Key-Question 56:
What discoveries were made by Captain Cook?]

§56. The desire for more knowledge, which led Newton and

Darwin, Harvey, Koch and Lister to make their great discoveries, also made other men go out and explore the parts of the world still marked 'unknown' on the map. These parts were the whole of the central part of Africa, and all the lands and islands of the South Pacific Ocean.

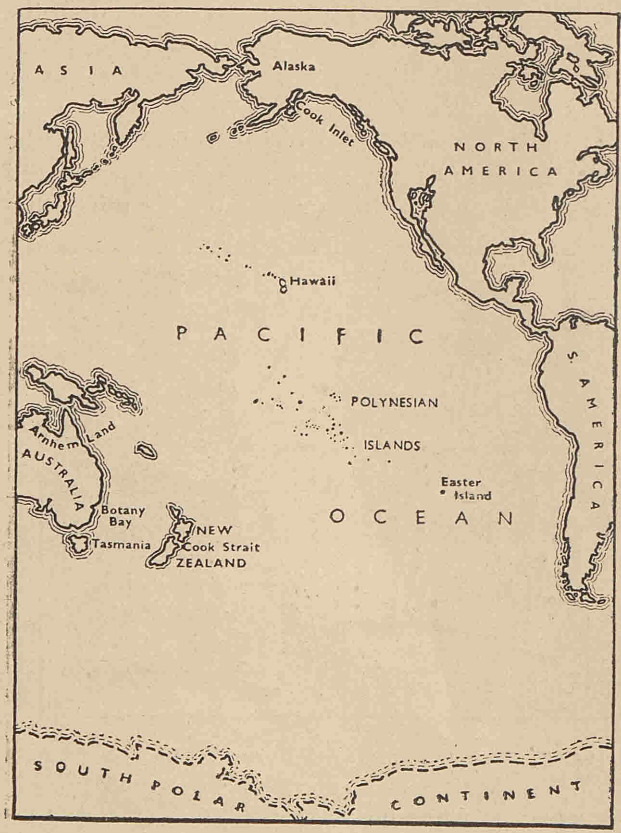
The greatest explorer of the Pacific was CAPTAIN JAMES COOK. Cook's father was a Yorkshire farm bailiff, or what we should call in India a *kamdar* to a big *jagirdar*. When he was twelve years old, James was sent to learn how to sell goods in a village shop, but he soon made up his mind that



CAPTAIN COOK LANDING ON A PACIFIC ISLAND

keeping a shop was not what he wanted to do. He decided to go to sea. His first voyage was as 'boy' on a ship carrying coal. He soon showed his worth, and when he was not much more than twenty years old he became 'mate'. When he was 27, he joined the British navy and rose to the position of captain in a very short time. He was sent on one of the

voyages of discovery of coasts and harbours for the navy, as Darwin was. His work was so good that the great British scientific society, the Royal Society (which awards the title of 'F.R.S.' — Fellow of the Royal Society — to great scientists) invited him to take charge of an expedition of scientists to the Pacific Ocean.



Cook's Voyages

On this expedition Captain Cook explored the coasts of New Zealand and of eastern Australia. He was not actually the first to have seen those lands, for they had been discovered earlier by the Dutch. But the Dutch did not explore the coasts fully or go inland at all, and New Zealand was thought to be part of a great south polar continent. Cook sailed right round the two islands and between them (through

what is now named Cook Strait), and then went on to Australia, where he landed at Botany Bay, near the place where the city of Sydney now stands. He named the land 'New South Wales', and 'Botany Bay' was so called because of the great number of new plants and flowers found there.

Returning to England, Cook was soon sent out again on another voyage of discovery. This time he was to try to discover the great continent around the South Pole. We know now that it is really there—though entirely covered with ice—but Cook was not able to find it, because all the sea round that continent is frozen over. But he discovered many of the Pacific Islands which till then had been quite unknown, going as far eastwards as Easter Island (see map).

Captain Cook began his last voyage in 1776. This time he went first to the north Pacific, to try to find out whether there is a sea-way round the north of Canada into the Atlantic Ocean. He explored the coast of Alaska, where you will find Cook Inlet on the map. But he could not find a passage into the Atlantic there. He returned to the central Pacific Ocean and discovered the islands of Hawaii. Cook was a man who risked his own life fearlessly, and always tried to show friendliness to the people of the new lands he discovered. But this time he paid for his fearlessness with his life. The natives stole one of the boats belonging to his ship, and he went with a party of his men to get it back. He was suddenly attacked when getting into the boat, and fell dead into the sea, with a spear through his body. He was a great explorer and a great leader of men.

[Key-Question 57:

Why did Livingstone go to Africa? What did he do?]

§57. Until a hundred years ago the continent of Africa was called 'The Dark Continent' because so little was known about it, except for the coastal parts. The greatest explorer of the centre of Africa was Dr David Livingstone, a

Scotsman. Livingstone's parents were poor, and David had to help them from the age of ten by working in a cotton-factory. But he was a great reader, and his reading made him want to do two things: first, to explore unknown lands, and second, to be a Christian missionary. Perhaps it would be more true to say that he wanted most of all to spread the Christian religion, and he chose an unknown part of the world in which to do that work; so he has become as famous an explorer as a missionary.



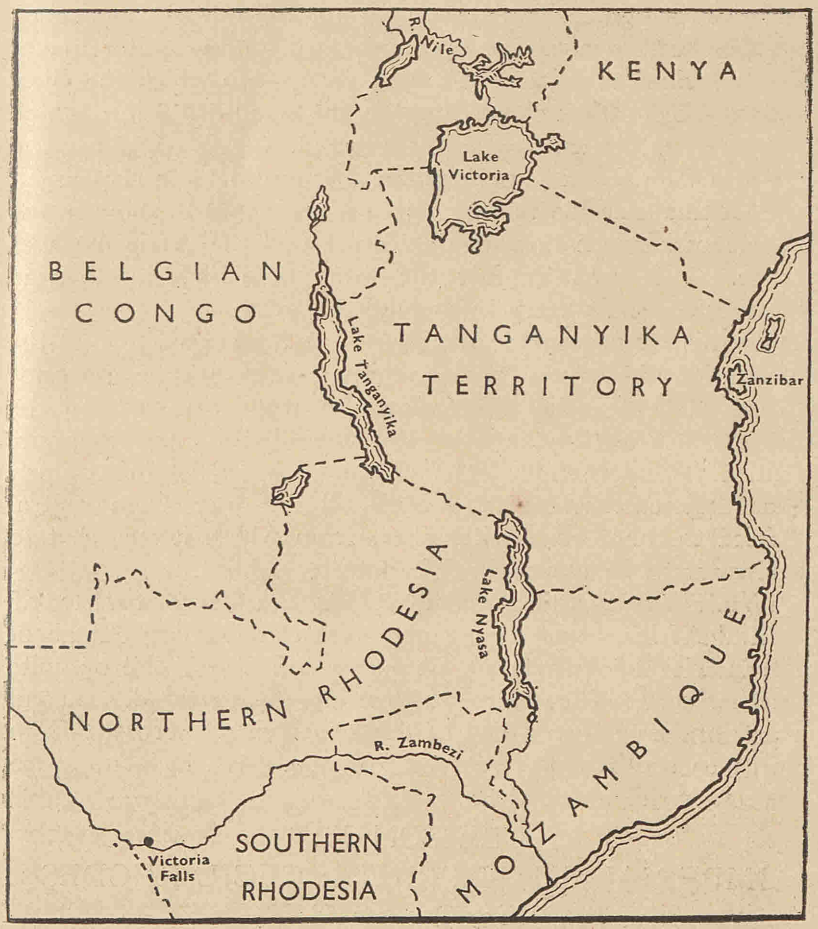
DAVID LIVINGSTONE

Thinking that he would be more useful if he was a trained



VICTORIA FALLS

doctor, he studied medicine. When he was 27 years old he took his medical degree, and set out for Africa.



LIVINGSTONE'S VOYAGES

His first great discovery was the river Zambezi, with the waterfall named by Livingstone Victoria Falls. This is

one of the greatest waterfalls in the world; for, although the river Zambesi is not as broad as the river Niagara, the fall is twice as high. The native name for the fall is 'the sounding smoke', because the great mass of falling water makes a tremendous noise, and the deep valley into which the river falls is filled with a cloud of spray, the small drops into which the water is broken by its 400-foot fall.

On a later journey Livingstone discovered Lake Nyasa. It was at this time too that he helped a great deal to show to the people of Europe how terribly cruel was the African slave-trade. This was at just the same time as Lincoln was fighting against slavery in the U.S.A.

On his last journey Livingstone set out to try to find the source of the river Nile, and for five years he was not heard of. He spent those years in wandering around the great lake Tanganyika. In 1873 he died in his explorers' tent. His native followers loved and respected him so much that they carried his dead body all the way from central Africa to the coast, at Zanzibar, from where it was sent to England, to be buried in Westminster Abbey.

While Livingstone was exploring the dense forests of central Africa, other daring explorers were finding out about the interior of Australia. Here, the difficulties were of quite another sort. The centre of Australia is a great desert, and many brave explorers died of thirst in trying to cross it from north to south, and from east to west. We have no space here to write about them.

LESSON 30:
IMPERIALISM: DISRAELI: CECIL RHODES

[Key-Question 58:
What is 'imperialism' and what caused it to develop?]

§58. Through the discoveries and explorations of men such as Captain Cook, Livingstone, and many others, the British Empire gradually grew and grew. Some parts of it also

were taken by conquest, such as Canada and the Indian possessions from the French, and South Africa and Ceylon from the Dutch. A most important part, the New England colonies, was lost in the American War of Independence. But the British went on colonizing. The newly-conquered lands, such as Canada and South Africa, and the newly-discovered ones, such as Australia and New Zealand, soon had a growing population of British colonists. They were people who went out to those empty countries prepared for a hard life at first, and willing to make the new colonies their permanent home.

But other places now began to be added to the British Empire, for reasons quite different from those of exploration and colonization. Other nations, too, began to desire possessions overseas. This growth of 'nations' into 'empires' is a thing which we must now study. It is called the growth of *imperialism.*

Let us first try to understand why nations want to become empires. Why cannot the men who form a nation be satisfied with their own country? Why should they want to conquer other people's countries?

There are several 'factors' in imperialism, as in nationalism. The first factor is the pleasure that strong rulers have in extending their power. We may call this factor the *personal ambition of leaders.*

But leaders cannot do anything unless they can get people to follow them and to do what they say. Why are people willing to follow and even to go to war for the sake of having an empire? The reason is the second factor of imperialism. It is *economic necessity.* What does this mean?

'Economic' means 'concerning the making and distribution of wealth, money or goods'. So 'economic necessity' means the need of making money or making goods. Why does this need lead to imperialism? We shall now see.

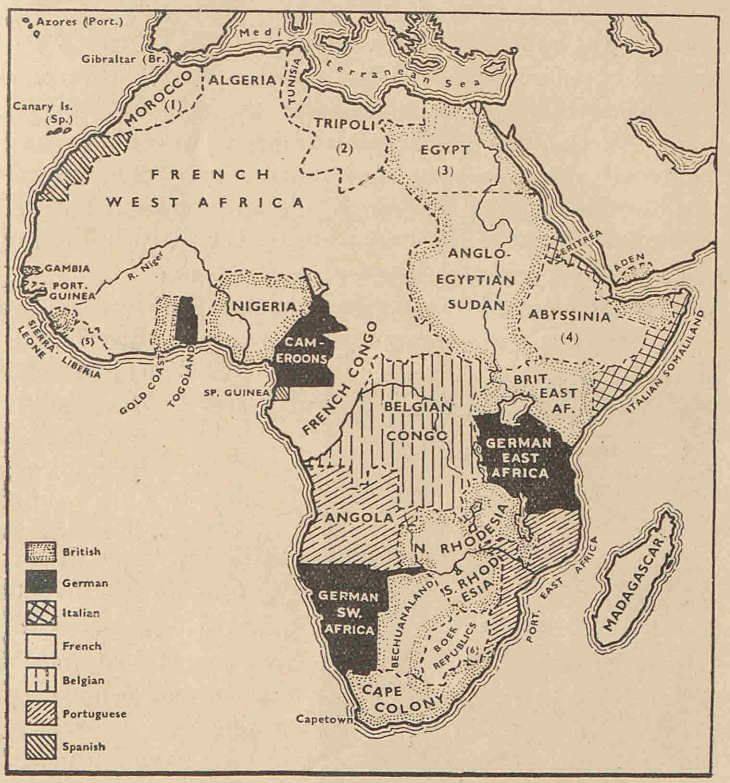
If the people of a country grow their own food and make just enough manufactured goods for their own use, they will be able to get on without trading with other countries. This is what most people did in the ancient times. The people of India did not know anything about bicycles and railway-trains and radio-sets, so they did not want them. The people of Europe did not know about tea and rubber and silk; so they did not want those things. But when more people began to travel from one country to another, they heard about the good things of other countries, and they began to want to have them. When merchants brought those goods from other countries, they got high prices for them. So trade began, and increased year by year.

Now, as you have learned in Lesson 20, a very great change took place in Europe about 100 years ago. Machines were invented which could make things very quickly and cheaply. Cloth could be made in Lancashire, England, from cotton brought from the U.S.A.; and, because it was made so quickly and cheaply by machines, it could be sold in India at a lower price than Indian cloth which was made by hand in India. The British merchants began to sell their cloth all over the world. Other western nations then also began to get machines (they bought them from England at first, and later began to make them). After 1868 the Japanese also did the same. When a country has a great many factories in which it makes all sorts of manufactured goods by machinery, we call it an 'industrialized' country. By 1890 all the big western nations, and Japan, had become industrialized, and they began to compete against each other to sell their manufactured goods. The place where goods are sold is called a 'market'. So a *struggle for markets* began.

[Key-Question 59:
What nations competed for trade in Africa and the East?]

§59. It was not only a struggle for markets: it was also a

struggle for raw materials. If you want to make cloth, you must have cotton, or silk, or wool, from which to make it. If



AFRICA AS DIVIDED AMONG THE EUROPEAN NATIONS BETWEEN 1880 & 1913

(1) MOROCCO: Arab kingdom mainly under French and Spanish protection and control. (2) TRIPOLI: under Turkish rule until 1911, then conquered by Italy and renamed Libya. (3) EGYPT: under Turkish rule until 1882, then British protectorate. Independent kingdom since 1922. (4) ABYSSINIA: independent kingdom, conquered by Italy in 1936, restored to independence in 1941. (5) LIBERIA: independent Negro republic, first established for freed Negro slaves in 1847. (6) BOER REPUBLICS: conquered in 1900-2 by the British and now forming part of the Union of South Africa, a Dominion of the British Commonwealth.

you do not produce enough cotton or silk or wool in your own country, you must buy it from another. So the industrialized nations also began to compete for raw materials.

Look at the map of Africa on page 121. There are only two small countries in that great continent which are marked as 'independent', that is, not under the rule of some other nation. All the remaining part of Africa was taken by one or other of the European nations between 1880 and 1900. CECIL RHODES (after whom Rhodesia is named) was the Englishman to whom the extension of the British Empire in South Africa is greatly due.

Imperialism spread in another way too. When you want to carry on trade with countries far away, you must be certain that your goods will arrive safely and as quickly as possible. If you are sending your goods by ship, you must have harbours in which the ships can safely stop during a long voyage, and where they can take on board coal and water and food, or have repairs done if necessary. As you have learned in Lesson 20, the British did most of their trading in ships; so the need for harbours was very great in their case. This is why so many islands and other places, scattered all over the world, were colonized by British traders, or conquered by the British navy. If you



CECIL RHODES

look at a map of the British Empire you will see that this is so. The *Suez Canal* which did so much to make the journey from England to India shorter, was made by a French engineer named DE LESSEPS and opened in 1869: but it is managed by a company of which half the shares were bought for the British Government by the great British Prime Minister BENJAMIN DISRAELI, Earl of Beaconsfield.

If your trade is overland trade, then you must have roads or railways by which it can be carried. The countries of the Russians and the Americans are so large that for a long time they did not compete for markets overseas, but they built railways from one side of their great countries to the other. The Germans wanted to trade with Turkey and India across the Middle East. Therefore they began to build a railway from Berlin to Baghdad, which might have been extended across Iran to the borders of Sind, if war had not prevented it. The real cause of that war was rivalry between two empires.

LESSON 31: THE GERMAN EMPIRE AND THE FIRST WORLD WAR

[Key-Question 60: *Who united Germany and how?*]

§60. Perhaps you have noticed that, so far in this book, there has been no mention of the German nation. We have read about the Spanish and the Portuguese, the Dutch and the British, the French and the Americans, but almost nothing about the Germans. Why is this? It is because there was no German nation until about 80 years ago.

In Lesson 16 we read about King Frederick the Second of Prussia. He was the king whom William Pitt helped to defeat the French in Europe, while the British defeated them in India and America. But Frederick was not the ruler of all Germany, but only of the northern part called Prussia. By his victory over France he made Prussia larger, and by

the thorough training of the Prussian army he made himself one of the most powerful kings in all Europe. A hundred years after Frederick's death Prussia became the most important province of a United Germany. We must now learn how this came about.

It was almost entirely the work of Prince Otto von Bismarck. Germany was at that time made up of a number of small independent states, the chief of which was Prussia. In 1862, Prince Bismarck became the chief minister of King Wilhelm (William) I of Prussia. The first thing he did was to make a law that every healthy young man in Prussia must be trained as a soldier. In a few years Prussia had the best-trained army in the whole of Europe and Bismarck was then ready for his next step. He declared war on Austria, which till then had been the leader of the German states. In three weeks he completely defeated the Austrians. In the peace terms he forced them to agree that Prussia was the chief of the German states.



Bismarck

France was at this time ruled by Napoleon III, a descendant of Napoleon Bonaparte. This Napoleon thought that he would show himself to be as great a soldier as his ancestor Bonaparte had been. He did not want the Prussian king to become so powerful. He declared war on Prussia. This was just what Bismarck wanted. Till then, the German states had never united as a nation. But now they united under the lead of Prussia to

fight the French. In a few months the French army was badly defeated by the Prussians, and Napoleon himself was taken prisoner. Paris was besieged and forced to surrender. The French suffered a terrible defeat. They were forced to give up some of their country, the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, nearest to Germany. Also the Germans made them give huge sums of money to pay for the cost of the war. Then the German states, which had united for the war, decided to unite permanently, and King Wilhelm I of Prussia was crowned as Emperor of Germany, in January 1871. Bismarck's work was complete.

[Key-Question 61:
What was Kaiser Wilhelm II's aim? Why did he fail?]

§61. The Germans thus became a 'nation' about 300 years later than the other peoples of western Europe; but, when once united, they made the most remarkable progress. This was just the time when industrialization was taking place in western Europe. Germany, with the help of her clever scientists and inventors, at once took a leading place among the industrialized nations. German goods, especially machinery, metal goods of all sorts, chemicals, dyes and medicines, began to go all over the world. Germany too joined 'the struggle for markets' and for colonies in Africa.

At the same time it happened that Germany had an ambitious king—or rather, we must now call him the 'emperor'—WILHELM II for he was both king of Prussia and emperor of Germany. He wanted Germany to be the most powerful nation in the world in every way, and with this aim he not only encouraged German trade and industry but also kept the German army and navy ready for immediate use.

The chance came in 1914. Austria was no longer the leader of the German peoples, but was the ally of Germany. Wilhelm encouraged the Austrian emperor to make Austria larger by

seizing some provinces from her neighbour Serbia (now called Yugoslavia). But Russia and France were allies of Serbia, and they threatened to fight Austria if Serbia was invaded. The emperor Wilhelm believed that, by using his powerful armies quickly against the French, he could defeat them as his grandfather had done in the time of Bismarck. Therefore, as soon as Russia declared war against Austria, Wilhelm marched his armies through Belgium against France. The invasion of Belgium was contrary to the promise which he had made to the British and the French. Therefore, as soon as the Germans entered Belgium, the British joined the war on the side of France, Belgium, Russia and Serbia, against Germany and Austria.

The German emperor had not expected the British to join in; or, if he had, he had expected to be able to defeat the French before the British could go to their help. He very nearly did succeed, for the German armies came almost within sight of Paris before they were stopped by the allied armies of the French and British. In the east, the Germans and Austrians stopped the Russian invasion of Germany and Austria.

At that time aeroplanes had only just come into use and were not used for bombing. Tanks were not invented until 1916. So the German armies on the one side, and the French and British on the other, faced each other behind the long line of trenches and barbed wire defences right across the north of France. Neither of them could drive the other out. Meanwhile the Germans tried to defeat the British by sending out submarines in large numbers to sink the British ships carrying food to England and supplies to the allied armies. Many ships were sunk, but in the end the British navy defeated the submarines, and in its turn began to besiege Germany, stopping all trade from outside Europe. Italy, Japan, and finally the U.S.A. joined the Allies, and in 1918

Germany had to ask for peace. The emperor Wilhelm fled to Holland, and the Germans set up a republican government.

EXERCISES

1. Why did Captain Cook spend his life in exploring the Pacific Ocean? Why did Dr Livingstone spend his life in Africa? What useful results did their work provide?
2. What is 'imperialism' and how and why has it grown?
3. Read how the Suez Canal was made, and write a short account of it and its usefulness.
4. How did Germany become a nation?
5. What caused the First World War, and what was its result?

15

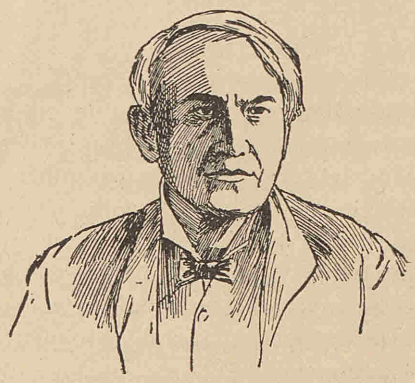
Wonders of Modern Invention

LESSON 32: EDISON: MADAME CURIE

[Key-Question 62: *What inventions were made by Edison?*]

§62. We owe a larger number of useful inventions to THOMAS ALVA EDISON than to any other man who ever lived.

Edison was born in the U.S.A. in 1847. From childhood he was very much interested in experiments of all sorts. The story is told that, when he was a tiny child, his sister came upon him sitting cross-legged in the garden with a very serious look upon his face. She asked him what he was doing. 'I'm sitting on a goose's egg', he replied, 'to see whether I can make it hatch out as well as the old mother goose can!' Another story about his early experiments is that he gave one of his playmates a big



THOMAS ALVA EDISON

dose of Seidlitz powder (a powder which, when mixed with water, produces gas), to see whether the gas produced inside the boy would lift him off the ground and enable him to fly! (If you do not know what the actual result was, you should look up 'Seidlitz' in your *Little Oxford Dictionary*.)

When he was only fourteen years old, Edison made up his mind to earn his own living, and he began to sell newspapers on one of the express trains. (American trains have a passage right through the train, along which people can walk from one carriage to the others, so Edison could go from compartment to compartment selling his newspapers.) But he was not content to do only that. The guard of the train allowed him to set up a tiny printing press in the luggage-van, and on this press he printed a little news-sheet of his own, which he sold to the passengers. And when he was not busy with this printing and newspaper-selling, he was making experiments in telegraphy, with a home-made telegraph which he had fixed up on the train.

It was his interest in telegraphy that got him his first good job, when he was 20 years old. The telegraph machines belonging to a big company in New York suddenly got out of order, and luckily for Edison he happened to be on the spot, seeking for a post. He quickly found out what was wrong and set the machines going again; and the company immediately employed him to look after all their telegraph-machines. But Edison was never content just to make money. He went on working at improvements of all sorts to make telegraphy more efficient. Through one of these improvements he got his first chance to set up a good laboratory of his own. One of his inventions caused a great saving to the company, and he was given a large sum of money for it. He now set up a laboratory of his own, and went on with more experiments.

He produced a duplicating machine, improved the type-

writer (which had recently been invented), and then turned his attention to the telephone. This had been invented by a man named GRAHAM BELL, but Edison improved it so much that it has now come into use all over the world. Then he invented the phonograph, the machine which reproduces speech and music, from which the gramophone has developed.



EDISON WITH HIS PHONOGRAPH

His next inventions were even more important: they were in connexion with electric lighting. Light produced by electricity was already in use on a small scale, but it had not become common because a suitable filament (i.e. the thin wire inside the glass bulb) had not been found. Edison made thousands of experiments to find the right substance, and he found it at last. His discovery has made it possible for electric light to be used everywhere where current is available.

His next invention was the kineto-scope, which was the forerunner of the cinema. And in 1912 he made the kineto-phone, which joined the phonograph and the film camera and made talking pictures possible. All together he made more than 1,300 inventions before he died in 1931.

[Key-Question 63: *What was discovered by Madame Curie and what use did she make of it?*]

§63. One of the greatest of all recent discoveries, that of radium, was made by a woman—MADAME MARIE CURIE. Daughter of a Polish science-teacher, Marie had determined to take up science as her profession. While earning her

living as a teacher of science in a Paris school, she studied under Dr Pierre Curie, a young French scientist. In 1895 the teacher and his pupil were married. They had no money for a good laboratory, so they made one in an old, dark store-room, and three years later, after working almost day and night, it was the pupil who succeeded in discovering the new and wonderful substance, radium. In 1904 Pierre and Marie Curie received the Nobel Prize in physics, and the University of Paris created a special department for the study of radium, appointing Dr Curie as its head with his wife as his chief assistant. Only three years later, Pierre Curie was killed in a street-accident in Paris. But Marie was determined to carry on his work. She was appointed in his place and in 1911 she won the Nobel Prize again, this time in chemistry.



MME. CURIE

Not only through her scientific discoveries did Madame Curie became world-famous. She spent the remainder of her life—more than 20 years—in using radium for the healing of disease.

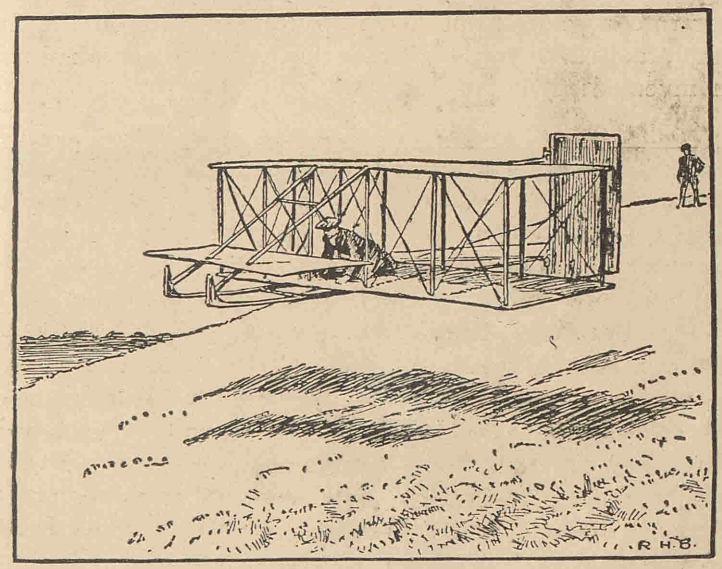
But radium is a substance as powerful to hurt as it is to heal. The need for great care in using it was not understood in the early days of the discovery, and Madame Curie gradually suffered more and more from the effects of the dangerous radium rays. Her wonderful and unselfish life was brought to an end in a French hospital in 1934.

LESSON 33: THE PETROL-ENGINE: THE AEROPLANE: RADIO: THE FUTURE

[Key-Question 64: *What inventions made flying possible, and for what purposes has the aeroplane been used?*]

§64. Perhaps the most important of all modern inventions is the aeroplane. But the aeroplane would have been im-

possible without the *petrol-driven engine*, the only kind of engine that is light enough to be used in an aeroplane. The 'internal-combustion engine' (i.e. an engine driven by an

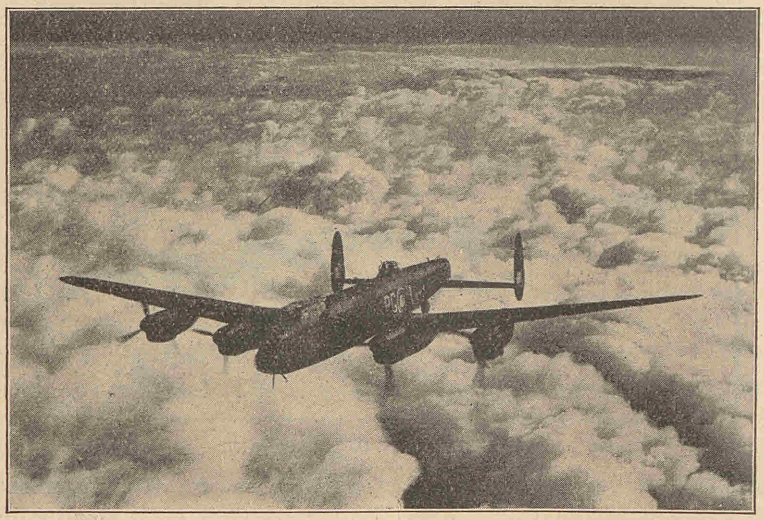


AN EARLY TYPE OF AEROPLANE

explosion which takes place inside it) is not the invention of any one man: many have helped to perfect it gradually. The first gas-engine was constructed by an Englishman named STREET, in 1794. But it was DAIMLER, a German, who, in 1886, made the first really efficient petrol-engine; this was used to drive a motor-bicycle and, in the following year, a motor-car. After the year 1890, the use of petrol-engines in motor-cars developed rapidly, particularly in Germany and France. Only then it became possible to make a machine which could be driven through the air.

Experiments in gliding (i.e. floating through the air in a machine with no engine) had been made by English, French,

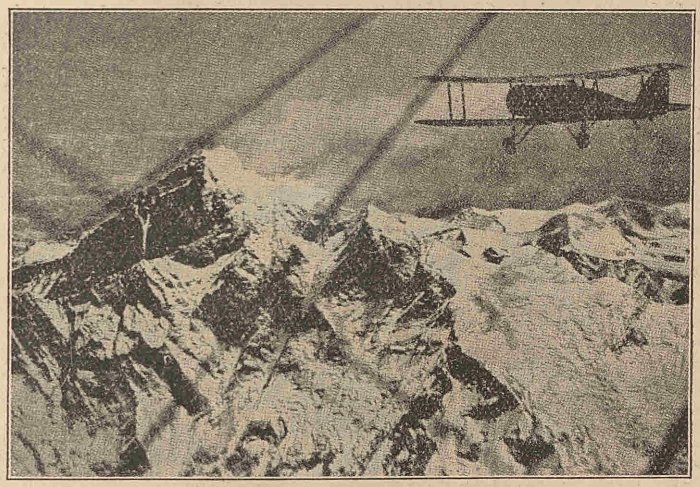
German and American pioneers, as early as 1850, and the greatest of these was LILIENTHAL, a German. Two American brothers, ORVILLE and WILBUR WRIGHT, made successful glider-flights about 1900. In 1903 they fitted a petrol-motor into a glider-plane and flew for 40 yards at the first attempt, and 270 yards a week later. The aeroplane had been invented!



A MODERN AEROPLANE

Its improvement was extremely rapid. In 1904 the Wright brothers flew three miles, and in 1918 twenty-four miles. But it was the First World War which brought the aeroplane into constant use. It was not for dropping bombs that aeroplanes were used then, but for scouting and taking photographs of the enemy's forts, roads and trenches. Much more powerful engines were made, and with these the planes were able to climb high into the air quickly and to escape being hit by bullets.

After the war men began to do wonderful things in aeroplanes. The first flight across the Atlantic Ocean was made in 1919. It was crossed in 26½ hours. In the same year two young Australians flew from England to Australia for the first time. In 1926 Admiral Byrd, of the U.S.A., flew over the North Pole; in 1929 he used an aeroplane for exploring the ice-covered lands of the south polar continent



Flying over Mount Everest

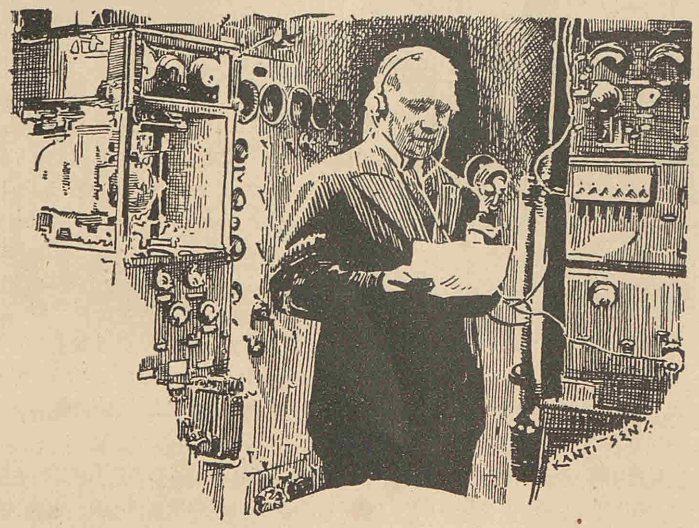
and actually flew over the south pole. And in 1933 two planes flew over the top of Mt Everest, the highest point on the earth's surface.

Experiments were also made in building very large planes which could carry twenty or thirty passengers, or an equal weight of luggage and mails. The great air-services were started, carrying mails and passengers from Europe to Australia, via India; from Europe to North and South America; and from America across the Pacific Ocean to Asia. For most of these services sea-planes were used, i.e.

aeroplanes which could come down on water. The building of these great aeroplanes made it possible for flying to be used for a new and more terrible purpose in the wars of modern times. Instead of carrying a large number of passengers or mail, aeroplanes are used to carry huge bombs to drop on the factories, railways, harbours and cities of the enemy, causing the most fearful destruction.

[Key-Question 65: *What are some of the most recent inventions of our time?*]

§65. The latest, and in some ways the most wonderful, of all inventions is radio. By switching on a button and turning a dial you can hear voices coming from all parts of the world.



MARCONI SPEAKING BY RADIO

The first steps towards this invention, like so many others of modern times, were made by many workers in various countries. But more than to anyone else the perfecting of radio was due to MARCONI, an Italian.

Marconi was born in 1874, and when he was only 21 he had invented a wireless transmitting apparatus. The next year he went to England, where he sent and received wireless messages over a distance of ten miles. By 1898, messages were sent from England to France, and in 1901 the first wireless message was transmitted and successfully received between England and the American continent. Soon after this, the great practical value of wireless became clear to the public. A criminal who had escaped by ship from England was captured while at sea through a wireless message having been sent to the ship.

As in the case of flying, it was during the First World War that great use was first made of the new discovery; and just after the war, in 1919, Marconi set up the first broadcasting station in the world, at Chelmsford, England. He died in 1937.

Fortunately there is no limit to the wonders yet to be discovered in our universe, and more and more clever men are spending their lives in such work. It is impossible to foretell what the next great discoveries and inventions will be. Men have still not found out a way of using the tides as sources of power. Perhaps the heat of the sun, too, may be used by focusing it through powerful lenses.

Wonderful work has been done recently in finding out about the matter of which our universe is made. In 1919, Lord Rutherford at Cambridge succeeded in 'splitting the atom'. It is hoped that by breaking up atoms and freeing the electricity which holds their parts together a new source of power may be found. This is necessary to take the place of the coal and petroleum dug out of the earth, which must come to an end some day.

EXERCISES

1. Leonardo da Vinci tried to make an aeroplane, but did not succeed. What inventions made after Leonardo's time were necessary in order that a modern aeroplane could be made and used with safety? Make a list of them.
2. What is radium and for what is it used?
3. Mention some inventions which have not yet been made, which will be of great value to the world. Try to think of some others, besides those mentioned in this book.
4. Read some more about the people who helped to discover how to fly, and write a short account of the history of men's attempts to fly.

16

The League of Nations, its Work and Failure

LESSON 34: PRESIDENT WILSON: MUSSOLINI AND FASCISM

[Key-Question 66:
What was the League of Nations? What did it do?]

§66. The First World War cost the lives of about seven million men killed in battle, and about fourteen million wounded. This does not include the millions of people all over the world who died of influenza, disease and famine, caused by war.

It is not surprising that such fearful destruction of life and health made many people ask whether something could not be done to prevent future wars. The leader in the first attempt to prevent war was WOODROW WILSON, President of the U.S.A. At the end of the war, a conference took place in Paris to decide the terms of peace. President Wilson placed before the conference his scheme for a League of Nations.

It has become the fashion to laugh at the League of Nations as if it were a useless thing. It was not useless, even though it failed to prevent the Second World War. The League of

Nations was a first attempt to do a great thing. It could not be expected to be able immediately to stop war completely. To do that, the causes of war must be removed, and that is not easy.

What good, then, did the League of Nations do? First of all, it was useful in bringing representatives of the various nations together, to discuss common problems and difficulties. Through the International Labour Office of the Leage, and other organizations working under it, many agreements have been made regarding the improvement of conditions of labour, prevention of the spread of diseases from country to country, and so on. Those nations which joined the League of Nations promised that they would not go to war without first consulting together, to see whether their disputes could be settled peacefully.



PRESIDENT WILSON

The weakness of the League was, first, that it had no power to *compel* nations to settle their quarrels peacefully. It was just the same sort of weakness which we noted in the first attempt of the American States to work together peacefully (see Lesson 17).

Each nation-member of the League wanted to decide its own case, and was unwilling to let it be decided by others. It is as if a prisoner, accused of a crime, were to demand

that he should act as his own judge, and refuse to accept the decision of the Court of Justice.

Another weakness of the League of Nations was that all nations were not included in it. Although it was the President of the U.S.A. who proposed its creation, the Government of the U.S.A. refused to join the League. For several years Russia was not included. (We shall see in the next chapter what had happened in Russia during the First World War.) Germany also was not allowed to join until several years after the end of the war. Nations could also resign from the League if they did not like its decisions, and this is exactly what happened. So the League became like a Judge who can decide that the prisoner is guilty of a crime, but who cannot have him punished for it. The prisoner just walked out of the court, laughing! When nations saw that this could be done, they no longer took any notice of the decisions of the League.

The first to do so was Japan. Then came Mussolini. Last, and worst of all, Hitler. We shall see now how this happened.

[Key-Question 67:
How did Mussolini rise to power and what did he do?]

§67. Italy, in the time of Leonardo da Vinci, was—like Germany before Bismarck's time—divided into a large number of small independent states. Only after Napoleon's time did Italy all come under the rule of one king. This was mainly due to the work of two great Italians, MAZZINI and GARIBALDI. For about fifty years things went smoothly, and then came the First World War. Italy took part in that war, on the same side as France and the British Empire against Germany and Austria. The German and Austrian armies invaded north Italy, and did a great deal of damage there. Italy is not a rich country, and when the war was over, the people found themselves much poorer than before.

They longed to find a leader who would make their country rich and powerful. The man who told them he could do this was BENITO MUSSOLINI. He ruled Italy from 1922 till 1943.

Mussolini improved many things in Italy, as Hitler also did, later, in Germany. He made fine roads and buildings; he drained the marshes, and made more crops grow. But he also educated the young Italians for war. He reminded them that Italy had been formerly the centre of the Roman Empire and that Romans had ruled 'the world' (that is, all the world which the Romans knew). When his army and his air force were ready, he set out to conquer an empire too. He took no notice of the protests of the League of Nations. He attacked Abyssinia, and conquered it with the help of aeroplanes which dropped poison gas on the Abyssinians. Then he attacked another weak country, Albania, in the Balkan Peninsula. He conquered that too.

Mussolini's ideas, which he called *Fascism*, were similar to Hitler's *Nazism*; and when Hitler began to try to conquer the world for Germany, Mussolini became his friend and helper. The chief idea in Fascism and Nazism is that the State (i.e. the nation) should be all-powerful. That is of greater importance than the happiness of the people. To make the State powerful, freedom may be taken away from the people, if necessary. No one may criticize or oppose the Government and its leaders. Private persons may be allowed to own and to carry on business but they must obey all orders of the State and must make and sell only what the Government allows them to make and sell. You will read in Lesson 43 how Mussolini first lost the whole of the empire he had conquered in Africa, and how Italy was then invaded and freed from Mussolini's rule. In the end, just before Germany was defeated in 1945, Mussolini was caught in north Italy, and was killed by the Italians themselves.

LESSON 35: JAPAN

[Key-Question 68: *In what ways did Japan change and in what ways did it remain the same?*]

§68. The story of the rise of Japan is very different from the stories of Germany and Italy. The Japanese are a very ancient nation. Till a hundred years ago China and Japan were quite cut off from the western world. They lived their own life in their own way under their own kings. They were wonderfully clever at painting, making pottery, silk-manufacture and embroidery. They did not want to go to war. They wanted to have nothing to do with other peoples. With great difficulty Europeans managed to carry on a little trade with them, in articles such as silk and tea. Then, in 1840, some of the European nations forced the Chinese to open a few of their ports to foreign ships, and to give up some of their land for European trading-stations, such as Hong Kong for the British, Kiao-chau for the Germans, and Port Arthur for the Russians.

Meanwhile, great changes happened inside Japan. Until about 100 years ago Japan had been ruled in the same way as Nepal is ruled now, that is by a Prime Minister who always belongs to the same powerful family, the king having no real power. But in 1868 the king (known as the Mikado) was restored to power, and under the Mikado MUTSUHITO Japan suddenly set to work to become a modern nation.

No country has ever been changed so completely in so short a time. Englishmen were employed to build railways and telegraphs; Americans planned the postal service, agricultural system, and higher education: Frenchmen trained the army and planned a new system of laws: Germans organized the medical department. It was even ordered that European dress must be worn by all officials! In twenty-five years Japan changed from being one of the most old-fashioned countries to one of the most modern.

But Japan did not set up a democratic form of government. It has a Parliament, but that Parliament does not rule the country and control the king as in modern democracies. The Mikado is treated as if he were a god. He takes no part in ordinary affairs and is hardly ever seen or heard by his people. The people are taught that the Mikado is a divine person, descended from the Sun-god. The ministers issue all orders in the Mikado's name and show extraordinary respect to him. But the real rulers of the country are the leaders of the army and navy.

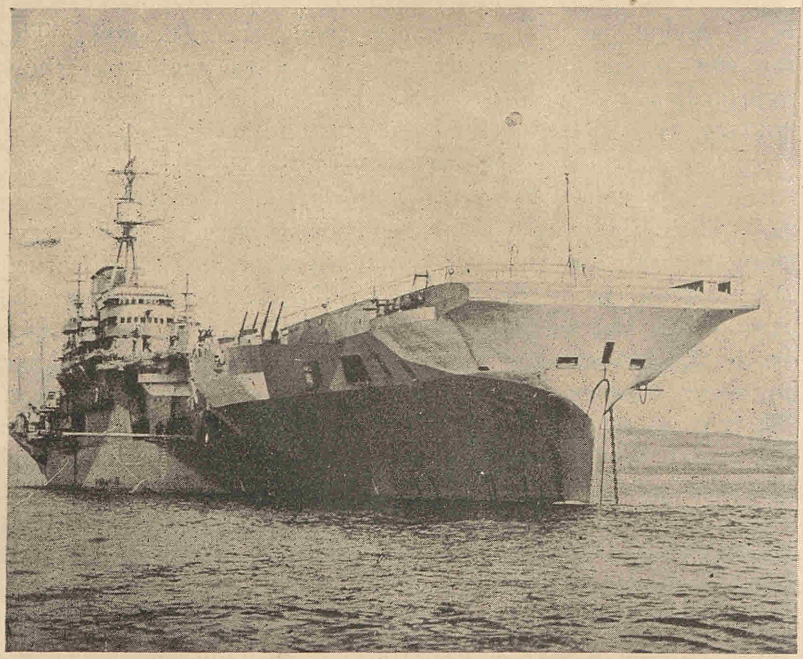
[Key-Question 69:
How did Japan try to win an empire in the East?]

§69. Since the year 1868 the Japanese have learned everything possible from the western nations. They have learned ship-building from the British, making motor-cars from the Americans, and the manufacture of chemicals and medicines from the French and Germans. They sent their students to every country which could teach them something new. Their cities now have tall buildings like the U.S.A., and even the music they send out on the radio is a strange mixture of east and west.

But the Japanese seem to be the Germans of Asia. Japan has been ruled mostly by leaders of the army and navy, and they have educated the Japanese people in the same ideas of conquest as Mussolini and Hitler taught. Japan therefore also became a warlike nation, eager to conquer and to rule the world.

The Japanese began their conquests by taking Korea and the island of Formosa from the Chinese in 1910. Twenty years later they invaded the northern part of China which is called Manchuria. They conquered that. When the League of Nations protested, Japan resigned from the League. In 1935 they began to try to conquer the whole of China. In Lesson 38 you will learn how the Chinese would not surrender. When the Second World War started,

Japan had a good opportunity. The German army was very strong, and it seemed certain that the British would be defeated, even if helped by the U.S.A. Therefore, suddenly, and without declaring war, the Japanese made a great attack on the American navy at Honolulu, the great American naval



AN AIRCRAFT-CARRIER

harbour on Hawaii in the Pacific Ocean. Many American warships were sunk or badly damaged. Then Japanese armies invaded the Philippine Islands, the Dutch East Indies, and the Malay Peninsula. They captured the great British naval harbours at Hong Kong and Singapore. They invaded Burma, and captured Rangoon and Mandalay. It seemed

certain that they would soon attack India and Australia. But the American navy had many aircraft-carriers, that is, warships carrying aeroplanes; and American aeroplanes and submarines began to do great damage to Japanese warships and to the ships carrying soldiers and supplies. The Japanese began to find it difficult to keep their armies supplied with food and war-materials in so many distant places. One after another the islands taken by the Japanese were re-taken by the Americans and Australians.

In 1944 the Japanese made a big effort to invade Assam. But they were stopped by the British and Indian Armies, the British, American and Indian Air Forces, and the Royal Indian Navy. Then the British and Indians began to reconquer Burma, and in April 1945 Mandalay was recaptured, and in the next month Rangoon. Meanwhile, the Americans recaptured the Philippine Islands, and their aeroplanes began to bomb Tokyo and all the other big cities of Japan.

Modern wars are fought mostly with the help of machines, such as guns, tanks, motor-lorries, aeroplanes and warships, and if the factories making these machines are destroyed the war-machine cannot go on working. Huge quantities of petrol, too, are necessary for aeroplanes and motor transport. Japan has no petrol-wells and all the petrol had to be brought in ships. So the bombing of Japan's factories and ships soon made it almost impossible for the Japanese to carry on the war. Thus the Japanese did not succeed in their attempt to become the rulers of all the eastern part of the world.

EXERCISES

1. What was the League of Nations and what useful work did it do? In what did it fail, and why?
2. How did Mussolini come to power? What were his ideas, and what happened to him?
3. In what ways is Japan different from all other nations? What can we learn from the story of Japan's rise and failure?
4. Why did the Japanese fail in their attempt to become rulers of the East?

17

The Russian Revolution

LESSON 36:

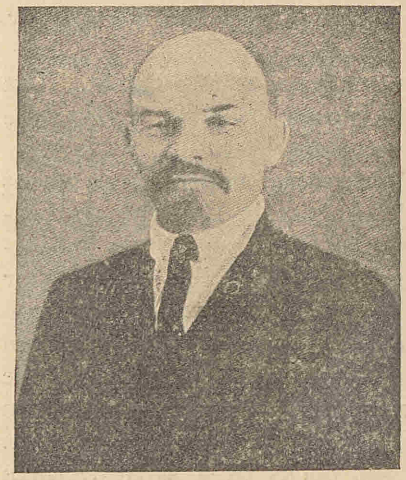
LENIN AND THE IDEAS OF KARL MARX

[Key-Question 70:
What happened in Russia after the First World War?]

§70. At the end of Lesson 31 I told you that Russia took part in the First World War against Germany. But the Russia which was left at the end of that war was very different from the Russia when the war began. A revolution even greater than the French Revolution took place in 1917 in Russia.

After Peter the Great (see Lesson 14) Russia was ruled by its Tsars until 1917. Some of them were good; some were bad; and some were very bad. Some of them tried to make the condition of their people better: most of them did not care, so long as they had grand palaces to live in. Some of them were eager to make Russia even bigger than it already was: by 1900 the Russian Empire reached the boundaries of India and China, and the Pacific Ocean. It was the greatest continuous land-empire in the world. Western Russia also began to be industrialized, like the other countries of the west. But the profits of the factories all went to those who were already rich, and the mass of the people remained terribly poor. When Russia joined the First World War, to defend Serbia from Austria and Germany, her armies had not even enough weapons though the number of soldiers was very large. The well-equipped German army therefore soon stopped the Russian advance in the east, and in 1917 the Russian army itself began to rebel. The soldiers just said they would not fight, and demanded to be sent home. If their officers refused, they killed them.

But the rebellion soon became a much bigger thing. Most of the Russian soldiers were peasants and farm-labourers who had been forced to join the army. They knew that when they got back to their homes they would be poorer than ever. They therefore eagerly listened to people who now began to promise to give them land and wealth taken from the rich landowners. The people who made these promises were known as the Bolsheviks.



LENIN

With the help of the factory-workers and the soldiers and sailors who had rebelled, the Bolsheviks overthrew the Tsar's government, and became the rulers of Russia. The Tsar and all the members of his family were killed.

The leader of the new Russian government was a very remarkable man named LENIN. No man has ever perhaps had such a tremendous responsibility to face. Soviet Russia in 1918 had a population of 142,579,900 people. The country was in complete confusion. In many parts no food had been grown because of the war, and it seemed as though famine could not be avoided. The first thing to be done was to send the peasants back to the land to grow food. The war must stop, even if the Germans demanded very hard conditions of peace. So peace was made in March 1918. It was no use asking the peasants to go home unless they went to grow food, and they would certainly not do that for the former owners of the land. So the peasants were told that the land would be

theirs if they would cultivate it. They did so; and in many cases the former owners were killed, if they had not already fled.

Then, one by one, the factories were started again. But they were not now under their former owners. They were all owned by the Russian Government.

Lenin's aim was to have everything under Government control and all production and industry in Government possession. This is what is known as Socialism. It is important for us to know something more about this system, for one of the great problems of the future (which you will have to decide) is whether the world's affairs should be run on Socialist lines or in some other way. Lenin was the first man who ever tried to govern a great country on Socialist lines, so his attempt is of the very greatest interest.

Lenin took his ideas from the books of a great German thinker named Karl Marx. Marx was driven out of Germany, because the German Government did not like his ideas; he wrote most of his books in London.

[Key-Question 71: *Why did the Industrial Revolution make the difference between the rich and the poor grow greater?*]

§71. Marx lived from 1818 to 1883, just at the time when new factories were being built in all western countries and the Industrial Revolution was at its height. In his famous book, *Capital*, he showed clearly the changes likely to take place in the life of the people as a result of the factory system and the Industrial Revolution. Some of those changes had already begun to take place, specially the killing out of smaller industries through the starting of great factories.

Suppose you have a small cotton-mill of which you yourself are the manager. You find that you cannot make cloth as cheaply as the big factories, because you do not make it in such large quantities. So you decide to make it into a *company* and have a bigger factory. To get the money to

build the factory you have to ask other people to join you and to take 'shares' in the company. They will pay a certain amount of money for each share they buy. With that money you will be able to build a larger factory and get better machinery, and so earn more profits. But the people who paid for shares will get part of the profits. Though they have not done any work, it was their money you used, and they expect to get *interest* on it. When the business grows bigger, you will probably find it easier to employ managers and experts, and pay them a salary for their work, instead of trying to do it yourself. This is how, in a big business, it usually happens that the share-holders, the people who *own* the business, do not actually do any work at all. If a man possesses many shares in many different companies, each of which gives him a part of its profits (called 'dividends') it is quite possible for him to live without doing any work at all. In the same way, a big landowner can get money by renting out his land to small farmers, or to people who want to build houses, or to a company that wants to build a factory or a railway. The name which we give to this stored-up wealth, by which people can earn more wealth, is *capital.* Capital means *stored-up wealth in any form.* It may be money which you can use to buy shares on which you will get a dividend; or it may be the factory or the houses which you possess; or land which you have and from which you can earn money either by cultivating it or renting it out to others to use.

LESSON 37: SOVIET RUSSIA TODAY

[Key-Question 72: *What changes did Marx expect as a result of the Industrial Revolution?*]

§72. Karl Marx pointed out in his book that the growth of the factory-system and the competition between the producers of goods was certain to make people get divided more and

more into two classes: (i) those who possess *capital* by which they can live without working; and (ii) those whose only possession is their ability to work and earn a living. We may call the former the *capitalist class*, and the latter the *working class*. (Of course, a man who owns a factory or a piece of land, or some shares in a company or some money in the bank, and *also* works for his living, belongs partly to both classes.) This is certainly true, but Marx went much further. He said that this division was bound to get worse and worse, the rich people becoming richer and richer, and the poor people poorer and more unhappy. Finally, Marx said, the poor will see that the only real cure is for the class of Workers to take away the capital of the class of Capitalists. The Capitalists, of course, will not give up their capital without a struggle so there will be a violent revolution.

After the revolution when the workers have taken all the capital from the rich, what are they to do with it? Are they to share it out among themselves, and all become small capitalists, and begin the same process all over again? No, says Marx: the *Government* of the country must be the owner of all that capital (land, mines, factories, houses, and so on). The Government must pay wages to the workers to carry on all the necessary work, just as it now pays wages and salaries to civil servants, judges, policemen, soldiers and post office employees. And because everyone will have to work for his living (since no one will possess capital on which to live without working), it will be possible for everyone to earn enough to live on, decently. This, in the simplest form, is the system known as Socialism, about which Karl Marx wrote. It is called Socialism because in this system the whole body, or *society*, of people living in a country possesses the capital, and not separate capitalists. It is also sometimes called *Communism*, which means that capital is owned in *common*, that is, together. The chief difference

between Socialists and Communists is that Socialists believe that this system can be brought about slowly, through people voting for socialist members of Parliament; and, when there are enough such members, by Parliament setting up a Socialist Government. Communists believe that the change will never come about in that way, but only by a violent revolution, such as occurred in Russia. Communism is also sometimes called Bolshevism because the Russian Communists, led by Lenin, were called Bolsheviks.

You can very easily understand why the kings and Governments of countries where the capitalist system was being carried on hated the ideas of Karl Marx. This was not only because most of the men who were governing countries were themselves big landowners, or shareholders in companies, or rich capitalists, but it was (and still is) also because many of them really believed that the ideas of Marx were quite wrong. They believed that less suffering would be caused by slowly trying to improve the way of living of the workers, than by destroying the whole capitalist system, and ruining and killing many people in doing so.

[Key-Question 73:
What happened in Russia after the Revolution?]

§73. Naturally, most of the people who wanted a violent change were the poorest people of the working classes; while those who were against Socialism were mostly those in power, or people who were fairly rich. So when Lenin set up a Socialist Government in Russia and refused to give back the Russian factories and mines and other businesses to the rich men who had possessed them before, the Governments of all the other nations were very angry. The French, British, Americans, Japanese, Czechs and Poles all sent their armies to occupy various parts of Russia, hoping that Lenin's Government would thus be overthrown. But it happened

just as it did after the French Revolution. When the Russian people saw that others were trying to interfere in their nation's affairs, they became more strongly united, and more determined to drive out the invaders and rule their own country as they pleased. By the end of 1920 peace was made.

For several years Russia had to face terrible difficulties. So much had been lost and destroyed in the war and the revolution, that there was not enough of anything, not even of food. But Lenin was a great leader: he shared every hardship with the people, and little by little things began to get better. He died in 1924, worn out by his tremendous work.

Since Lenin's death the greatest leader of Soviet Russia has been STALIN. Stalin was one of those who worked with Lenin before the revolution, and Lenin trusted him. The greatest work of Stalin has been the complete industrialization of Russia by means of three great Five-Year Plans. Under these plans, since 1928, great electric power-stations have been set up all over Russia; factories have been built, in which at first machinery bought from America, Britain and Germany was used; later on, Russia began to make her own machinery. Huge farms stretching for miles and miles are now cultivated with the help of motor-tractors and farming machinery made in Russia. Education is free, and is compulsory for every child up to the age of 12. Clever boys and girls, however poor their parents may have been, are helped to go on with higher studies. The health of everyone in the country is carefully looked after.

Soviet Russia has grown into one of the strongest and greatest nations of the world.

EXERCISES

1. What did Lenin do for Russia?
2. What are the differences between Capitalism, Socialism and Communism?
3. In what ways is Russia today different from other countries?

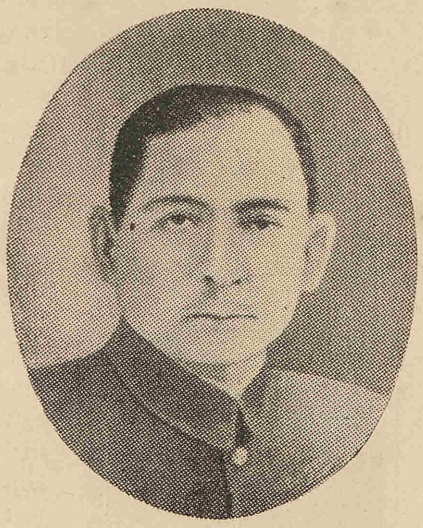
18

Re-awakening in the East

LESSON 38:
DR SUN YAT-SEN: THE CHINESE REPUBLIC

[Key-Question 74:
How was modern China divided under four parties?]

§74. China, which went on unchanged and unchanging for hundreds—almost thousands—of years, has passed through the most terrible experiences during the last 35 years. In 1911 there was a revolution; the Chinese decided to have no more kings; they set up a republic on 1 January 1912. The first president was a great leader named Dr Sun Yat-sen. But the supporters of the revolution were much stronger in the southern half of China, the fertile plains of the Yangtze Kiang, than in the northern plains of the Hwang Ho and the great grasslands of the north and west. In the northern provinces, especially after the revolution, 'war-lords' or small dictators had arisen. Each tried to raise armies to fight the others, while in the meantime the country suffered great harm.

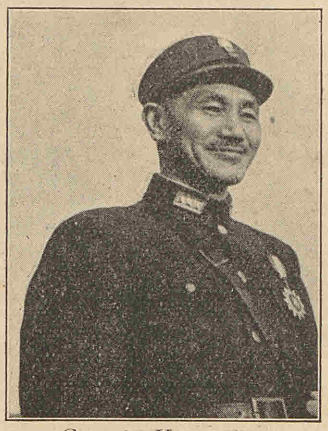


Sun Yat-sen

From 1912, until his death in 1925, Dr Sun Yat-sen worked hard building up the republic in the south with its capital at Canton. He formed a

party known as the *Kuo-min-tang* or 'The People's National Party', and did a great deal to help the poorer peasants and factory-workers. The Bolshevik revolution in Russia had taken place in 1917, and in 1924 Dr Sun got help from Russian leaders. They soon began to set up in south China a socialist system of government on the lines of the Russian system. This greatly upset the Chinese landlords, factory-owners, and the rich farmers and merchants. They feared that they would be got rid of as the landlords and merchants of Russia had been. Nevertheless the power of the Kuo-min-tang spread, and by 1927 almost the whole of central and south China was under its rule, and it was getting ready to conquer the north.

But inside the Kuo-min-tang itself there were powerful members who disliked strongly the Communist ideas spread by their Russian helpers. They saw that unless they acted quickly it was quite likely that the whole of China would come under Communist control. They therefore decided to separate from the Kuo-min-tang and to set up another government. Their leader was CHIANG KAI-SHEK, whose wife is a sister-in-law of Dr Sun Yat-sen.



CHIANG KAI-SHEK

Chiang Kai-shek, with the help of the wealthy people of the Yangtze Kiang cities, set up his Government at Nanking, and called upon all those who disliked Communist ideas to support him. This divided the Kuo-min-tang, and civil war broke out again. From then until 1935 there were four main parties each struggling against the others. First, there was the south, with its centre

at Canton, under the original Kuo-min-tang. Next, the north, ruled by various war-lords. Between these, with its capital at Nanking, was Chiang Kai-shek's Government ruling most of the Yangtze valley. And lastly, scattered in various parts of China, but more in the hilly parts between the Yangtze valley and the south, were a number of places ruled by Chinese Communists.

[Key-Question 75: *What made the Chinese unite again?*]

§75. Then, in 1935, something happened which made these parties unite, just as the Maratha states united to oppose Aurangzeb, or the American states to fight Great Britain. Japan began to invade north China!

The Japanese had alrady started this invasion as long ago as 1910 when they took Korea. Again, in 1931, they had taken Manchuria. But in 1935 they began to attack China not far north of Peking. Chiang Kai-shek was so busy fighting against the Communists that he took no notice of the invasion for more than a year. But in 1936 an extraordinary thing happened. Chiang Kai-shek was kidnapped by the Communists. This was done with the help of one of his own officers who believed that it was the only way to make his commander listen to what the Communists wanted to say. What they wanted was that all Chinese should forget their quarrels and unite to fight the Japanese. They offered to serve under Chiang Kai-shek as Generalissimo (i.e. the highest general) if he would lead them, not against their own countrymen, but against the Japanese. Chiang agreed. He was sent back with honour to his own capital in an aeroplane, and united China began to fight against the Japanese at last.

But unity had come too late to save a large part of China. The Chinese were poor, and very poorly armed. The Japanese had already landed huge armies of well-equipped soldiers and hundreds of aeroplanes. One after another the Chinese cities were taken by the Japanese: Peking, Shanghai, Nanking,

Hankow, then Canton itself. But the Chinese would not give in. Chiang Kai-shek went on moving his capital further and further west; from Nanking to Hankow; from Hankow to Chungking. Not only did he move the seat of Government; he moved whole factories, so that the Chinese might still go on manufacturing arms and equipment. He even moved universities, so that education need not be stopped by the war. And in the conquered parts of China, especially those which had been under Communist rule, the Chinese people, even the poorest villagers, carried on a secret war against the Japanese. This made it almost impossible for the Japanese to govern any part of the conquered lands, except the towns through which the railways ran, and the sea-coasts and river-ports which the Japanese navy could control. Never in all history has there been such a brave fight by a peace-loving people, so poor, and so badly armed that they could not even protect themselves against their warlike and well-armed enemies. But that struggle has been going on for *nearly ten years*. In the end the Chinese will win. But at what terrible cost of human lives, suffering and destruction!

LESSON 39:
MODERN TURKEY AND MODERN INDIA

[Key-Question 76:
What did Mustapha Kemal Ataturk do for Turkey?]

§76. A very remarkable man, who was successful in changing within a few years an old-fashioned country, Turkey, into a modern nation, was MUSTAPHA KEMAL ATATURK ('the great Turk'). Turkey took part in the First World War on the side of Germany. When the war was over Mustapha Kemal formed a Turkish Nationalist party and in 1923 the Sultan was sent away and Turkey became a republic, with Mustapha Kemal as its first President. In 1924 Kemal abolished the Caliphate, and in 1925 the use of

the fez was forbidden. Women were freed from 'purdah', and education was made compulsory for all. It was ordered that, instead of the Arabic script, the Roman script should be used. This made it easy for the Turkish language to be

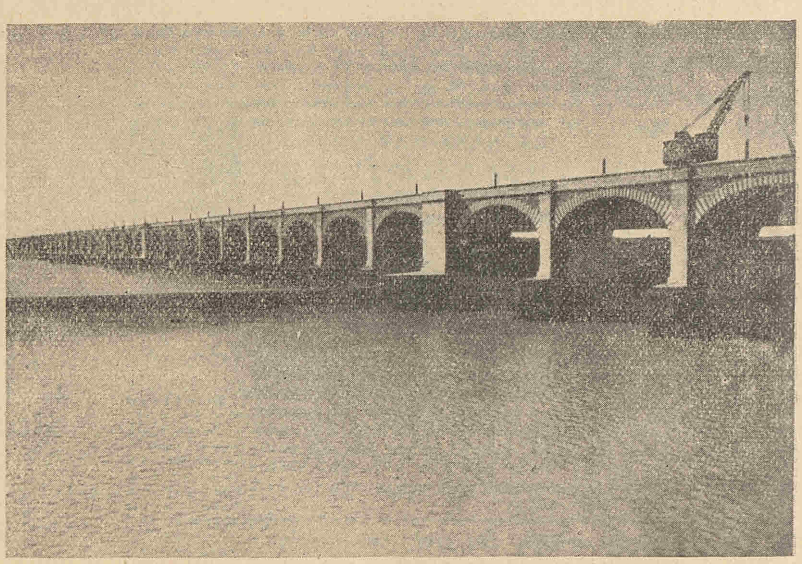


PART OF A TURKISH NEWSPAPER SET IN ROMAN TYPE
(MUSTAPHA KEMAL CAN BE SEEN ON THE LEFT)

learned by all, and also to be read by people of other nations which use the Roman script. In 1927 Mustapha Kemal was again elected President. He changed Turkey completely during his rule. His aim has been to make Turkey into a strong and united modern nation inside her own boundaries (that is, mostly inside Asia Minor) and not to waste her strength in trying to conquer other people or in making a Turkish Empire. Mustapha Kemal died in 1938.

[Key-Question 77:
What did the British do for India? What more must be done?]

§77. The other ancient civilization of the east, the civilization of India, has proved its worth in quite a different way.



SUKKUR DAM ACROSS THE RIVER INDUS

India showed in the seventeenth century that some of her people, the Marathas, were able to unite under the leadership of Shivaji against the Mogul rule. But they did not unite later against the British. The Indian princes often found themselves fighting on the side of the British against each other, or asking the British for help to protect themselves from other Indian princes. In this way, with the help of Indians, the British were able little by little to bring the whole of the great country of India under their control.

Under British rule there is no doubt that India has made progress in certain ways. For the first time in all its long

history, all fear of war inside our country has been taken away. The whole of India is under one rule, and there is no danger of an army from one province or one state attacking a neighbouring province or state. People can travel in perfect safety from one end of India to the other, and they can get to know and understand people from other provinces much more easily now that travel is so quick owing to the building of railways everywhere. People can also follow whatever religion they like without any fear that others who believe in another religion will try to force them to change. Year after year great plans for irrigation have been carried out; huge dams have been built across the biggest rivers; canals have been cut for miles across even desert country; tanks and wells have been made; waterfalls have been harnessed to make electricity; and India now has the biggest system of irrigation of all countries in the world.

But most people in India feel that this sort of progress alone is not enough. It is only in the cities and towns that people have good houses to live in, good clothes, and enough food to eat. Even in the towns there are thousands who do not have enough: while, in the villages, most of the people are so poor that they get hardly one meal a day. How can this be changed, and India be made into a nation of happy healthy people, living at peace?

All India's leaders are agreed that one thing, first of all, must be done. India must be ruled by Indians. The British have promised many times that this shall be so, but something has always happened to cause delay. Some Indians believe that the only way is to start a rebellion and fight for independence as the Americans did. But there are two strong reasons for not trying to get freedom in that way. The first is that in these days of aeroplanes and tanks, poison gas and bombs, a very small number of soldiers armed with such weapons can easily stop thousands who are not well armed. The second

reason is perhaps a stronger one. It is that if you try to do a good thing in a bad way (that is, using a method which causes harm to many people), you do not get the good result for which you hoped. The result becomes to some extent bad. This is the opinion of the man who is known all over the world as India's greatest leader of modern times. He is MOHANDAS KARAMCHAND GANDHI, whom everyone knows as Mahatma Gandhi. Whether you agree with his opinions or not, you must know as much as possible about him, to be a really educated person.

LESSON 40: MAHATMA GANDHI AND HIS IDEAS

[Key-Question 78:
What is satyagraha and how did Gandhiji use it?]

§78. Gandhiji was born in 1869, at Porbandar in Kathiawar. His father was Prime Minister of the state of Rajkot. It was decided that Mohandas should become a lawyer, and when he was 19 years old he sailed for England to study law. In London he met Mrs Besant, the Theosophist leader, who was deeply interested in India. She advised him to make a close study of the teachings of his own religion, Hinduism, as well as of other religions. He found that the ideas of Count Tolstoy, a Russian who believed in Christ's teaching of 'turning the other cheek' and returning good for evil, agreed closely with his own ideas.

In 1891 he returned to India where he set up as a barrister. In 1893 the opportunity came to him which proved the turning-point in his life. A big Indian business firm, Messrs Dada Abdulla and Co., traders in Natal, South Africa, had brought a lawsuit against another firm, and they invited Gandhiji to go out to South Africa to take up the case for them. He accepted. He had hardly been in that country a few days when he had experience of the bad behaviour of the South

African Dutch and British people towards those who were not Europeans. He found that the little colony of his fellow-countrymen, who had come from India to earn their living in South Africa, had no rights as citizens in that country, though they were British subjects. All sorts of bad things were done to them, to make it hard for them to stay in South Africa. Gandhiji felt very sorry for them. After the law-suit was finished, they asked him to remain in South Africa as their leader in a struggle to obtain justice. He consented, and in May 1894 he founded the Natal Indian Congress.



MAHATMA GANDHI

To start an armed rebellion against a powerful Government like that of the British in South Africa was impossible. Besides, this was not the kind of rebellion that Gandhiji believed in. He was determined to try an experiment of a different kind, on the lines practised long ago by followers of the Buddha in India, and by followers of Christ in Europe and America, such as William Penn (see Lesson 15). Everyone knows now how Gandhiji fought the South African Government by means of *satyagraha* or 'non-violent' resistance. After a struggle lasting 20 years, in which Gandhiji and his followers often had to suffer imprisonment, victory was won in the passing of the Indian Relief Act of 1914.

[Key-Question 79:
What is Gandhiji's aim and how is he trying to reach it?]

§79. Gandhiji then returned to India, and he has been working in the same way for Indians in their own country for

more than 30 years. He believes that you can never get a right thing in a wrong way. If you try to do so, you find that the thing you get is something different; it is not the right thing. The only sort of force which Gandhiji thinks can be rightly used is what he calls 'soul-force'. This is the power which comes to you from doing everything without hatred, and without caring whether it brings you difficulty or even suffering. You must be ready to suffer, but you must not give suffering to others in order to get something for yourself. Gandhiji believes that, in the end, people who work for what they think is good, using only such methods, and not letting themselves 'return evil for evil', will get the results they have struggled for. He thinks that 'those who take up the sword shall perish by the sword'. This was the teaching of Buddha and Christ. If it is true, we shall never get peace by making war.

This is a most important question which you must think about, and make up your mind what *you* think to be the right answer. Then you must act truly according to your decision, now and when you grow up. Only by having thousands of men and women who think clearly, and who act with determination after they have thought, can India become a leading nation of the world.

EXERCISES

1. Look up 'Chiang Kai-shek' in a modern book of reference, and write a brief account of his career.
2. How have the poorly-armed Chinese been able to withstand the Japanese invasion for so many years?
3. Have a debate on the following subject: 'It would have been better for the Chinese to have adopted against the Japanese Mahatma Gandhi's method of resistance.'
4. Why were the Marathas more successful in resisting Aurangzeb than in resisting the British?
5. Have a debate on the following subject: 'Instead of preparing a strong army, navy and air force to protect India from invasion, it would be better for India to train her sons and daughters in *satyagraha*.'

19

The Second World War

LESSON 41:

ADOLF HITLER AND HIS RISE TO POWER

[Key-Question 80 : *Why did the German Republic fail?*]

§80. In Lesson 31 you learned how the First World War ended in the defeat of Germany and her allies—Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey. And in Lesson 34 you learned about the making of the League of Nations, the first attempt of the people of all the world to put a stop to war. You also learned how the League could not stop the Japanese from invading China nor Mussolini from attacking Abyssinia and Albania. A few years later an even more dangerous enemy of peace came on the scene. That was ADOLF HITLER.



HITLER

The German people had sent away their war-like emperor and had set up a republic at the end of the First World War. But the Germans had always been used to obeying the rules made by a king, rather than making their own rules. The new German republic was not a success.

Germany's cities and factories had not been damaged, for

there was very little bombing from the air in the First World War. But Germany had no money left for buying raw materials to manufacture into goods, and she had no ships. They had all been sunk or captured by the Allies. The German colonies had all been taken by the Allies and they also took the German coal-mines in the region of the Ruhr because the Germans had destroyed those of Belgium and France. The result of this was that when the German soldiers came back from the war there was no work for many of them. The new Government did not know what to do. Things became worse and worse until, by the year 1932, there were more than 6 million people in Germany without any work and without any way of earning a living.

When things become as bad as this, people are willing to try any kind of medicine in the hope of getting better. This was how Hitler got his opportunity.

Adolf Hitler was born in 1889 at Braunau, a small Austrian town where the boundaries of Austria and Germany meet. His father was an Austrian Customs officer. Adolf did not get on well at school. He wanted to be an artist; but both his father and his mother died before he was 18 and he had to earn a living somehow. He went to Vienna and became a builder's labourer. After some time he managed to make a living by house-painting and decoration. When he was 23 he went to live in Munich. Two years later the First World War began and Hitler became a German soldier.

As a soldier he was brave, and won the Iron Cross. He was wounded and had to go to hospital, and while he was there the war came to an end. Hitler was still only a corporal. He had no home to go to, and no work to do. He remained in the German army.

According to the terms of peace, Germany had been allowed by the Allies to keep an army of 100,000 men. Most of the officers of this army did not wish Germany to

be a democratic republic. They remembered how powerful it had become under the iron rule of Frederick the Great, of Bismarck, and of King William II. So they began to plan to overthrow the German republican government. They found in Adolf Hitler just the man who could help them.

[Key-Question 81:
How did Hitler get power and how did he use it?]

§81. Hitler had found out that he possessed a great gift. He was an extraordinary orator. When he began to speak about the things he liked and the things he hated, words seemed to come to him without any effort; he grew more and more excited; he shouted and waved his hands; perhaps he himself hardly knew what words he spoke. But his excitement was somehow carried to the people listening to him. They began to feel as Hitler felt; they felt that what he said was true; they cheered; they wept; they went away determined to do as Hitler told them. This gift of oratory was of the greatest use to Hitler and to the men who made use of him.

The condition of Germany was becoming more and more terrible. People were quite ready to listen to any plan to make things better, for they felt it could not possibly make things worse. Hitler and his friends started a new party which they named the 'National Socialist Party', from which we get the word *Nazi*. Hitler himself designed its black swastika flag.

As things got worse and worse, more and more people decided to support Hitler's new party, and in 1932 it was the largest political party in Germany. In 1933 Hitler became Chancellor (Prime Minister).

He got into power through the people's votes, but he soon showed his determination to keep in power whether people voted for him or not. In less than a month after he had became Chancellor he sent out an order under which anyone who did not agree with him and his Nazis could be sent to a

prison camp without trial. A little later it was ordered that there should be no other party in Germany except the Nazi party. All newspapers, all films, all broadcasting, all education were placed under Nazi control. Any one who said a word against the Nazis was quickly taken away—and heard of no more.

But how did Hitler solve the problem of Germany's unemployment? He did it in the Nazi way.

First, he told the people of Germany that many of their difficulties would be solved if they got rid of the Jews.[1] Many of the richest people in Germany were Jews, and a great deal of the trade and industry of the country was owned by Jews. Hitler made the Germans believe that the Jews were to blame for Germany's defeat in the war and for the unemployment afterwards. He stirred up such a hatred of the Jews that many of them were killed, and the Nazi Government sent most of the others to prison camps. A few managed to escape to France, England and America. Among them was the great mathematician, Einstein. Germany lost many of her greatest scientists, doctors, musicians, and inventors in this way. But the non-Jewish Germans got possession of their money and their jobs.

Next, Hitler told the Germans that they had never really been defeated in the war, and that they must get ready another great army and air force to take back all the parts of Germany which had been lost. They believed this too; or, even if they did not believe that it was true, they did as Hitler told them.

So Hitler was soon able to give work to all the unemployed of Germany, by sending the young men into the new army, and by setting the factories to work again making new weapons and machines for war.

[1] The ancestors of the Jews lived in Palestine, but the Jews have spread all over the world. They are very clever at business and many are bankers and money-lenders. Many are scientists and artists, too.

LESSON 42:
HITLER AND THE SECOND WORLD WAR

[Key-Question 82: *What was Hitler's plan and why did it fail?*]

§82. Why did not the other nations stop Hitler from preparing for another war? Partly, no doubt, because they were themselves so tired of war that they did not want to fight, and they did not believe Hitler would really go to war again. Also, they all had their own difficult problems to face, for every nation was poorer after the war, and in all countries there were huge numbers of unemployed.

Hitler saw, too, that the League of Nations could not stop a nation that was determined to do as it pleased. Japan did as it pleased in 1931. Mussolini did the same in 1935. So Hitler got ready, and in 1936 he began. He marched his armies into the Ruhr coal-field region which had been taken away from Germany at the peace.

Next he began to add more land to Germany by claiming, one by one, all those parts of Europe where people of German birth had gone to live in large numbers.

The first was Austria. In 1938 the German army marched into Vienna. Hitler claimed those parts of Czechoslovakia nearest to Germany, where many Germans lived. He took them by force in 1939.

Hitler had promised, over and over again, in agreements which he signed with other nations, that he would not do these things, and after taking the Czechoslovakian lands he promised again. He said that he did not wish to have any more land in Europe for Germany. But by this time other nations had begun to understand that he made these promises only in order to deceive them, and to get time to prepare his armies and aeroplanes for the next attack.

It came a few months later, in September 1939. Hitler invaded Poland. He expected that the other nations would still be afraid to try to stop him.

But Hitler was mistaken this time. The British and French were not ready to fight, but they saw clearly that if they did not try to stop Hitler now, they might not be able



EUROPE IN 1939

to stop him at all. They told Hitler that, unless he took his armies out of Poland, they would declare war on Germany. He refused, and the Second World War began on 3 September 1939.

Hitler tried to deceive the Russians, too, as he had deceived the nations of western Europe. In August 1939 he signed an agreement with Soviet Russia promising that he would not attack Russia, if Russia did not attack Germany. Stalin was too clever a man to trust Hitler, however, and when Hitler's armies invaded Poland, Stalin sent the Russian

armies into Poland too, so that the Germans might not be able to take the eastern part of Poland which is nearest to Russia. All the remaining part of Poland the Germans quickly seized.

[Key-Question 83: *What happened in the battle of Belgium and France and in the battle of Britain?*]

§83. Now, for several months, all the nations waited to see what Hitler would do next. The French had expected him to try to invade France, so they had made a very strong line of forts along the boundary between France and Germany. The armies of Belgium and of Great Britain were got ready too. But in April 1940 the Germans attacked Denmark and Norway, and in May they entered Holland and Belgium. The new German armies were supported by huge numbers of aeroplanes, tanks and guns, and it was impossible for soldiers, however brave, but armed mostly with rifles only, to stop the German advance. The Belgian army surrendered. The British were forced back to the Channel coast at Dunkirk. With the help of the British navy most of the soldiers were taken safely across to England, but all their guns and motor-transport were lost. The French armies were smashed, one after another. Mussolini then joined Hitler, declaring war on France and Great Britain. Hitler made a victory march into Paris in June, and France asked for peace.

It seemed as if the war was almost at an end. Britain had not been conquered, but the British had hardly any well-armed men, and her new aeroplanes were only just beginning to arrive from the factories. If Hitler had invaded England then, he might have won. But Hitler had not expected an attack on England to be necessary so soon. His invasion-craft[1] were not ready, so he decided to try to finish off the

[1] These are special flat-bottomed boats which can land soldiers and war-equipment on the enemy's shore for an invasion.

British in another way. In August the Battle of Britain began. It was an attack by German aeroplanes, which dropped bombs on England for nearly two months continuously. Hitler hoped that this would force the British to ask for peace.

But the new British aeroplanes began to come from the factories just in time. The famous 'Hurricane' and 'Spitfire' fighters were much faster than the German bomber-planes, and, though the Germans were much greater in number, they were completely defeated. On a single day no less than 185 German planes were destroyed, and all together more than 2,000 German planes were lost, while the British lost only one-sixth of that number.

This was the first turning-point of the war, for, if Hitler had been able to invade Britain or to destroy British cities and factories by bombing, the war would almost certainly have ended with victory for Germany. Neither Russia nor America had joined the war at that time, and Hitler would have been able to attack them separately with the whole of western Europe and its factories under his control.

LESSON 43: THE UNITED NATIONS

[Key-Question 84:
What was Hitler's new plan when he failed to crush the British?]

§84. The British now did a bold thing. At the end of 1940, leaving just enough aeroplanes and armed men in England to prevent an invasion, they sent out all the remainder to Africa, where Mussolini was now getting ready to strike at Egypt. Instead of waiting for Mussolini's attack, the British general (Sir Archibald Wavell, now Viceroy of India) struck first at the Italians. The Italian navy was attacked and many ships were sunk. Then, with only 30,000 British Empire and Indian troops, Wavell defeated the whole Italian army in north Africa, and took more than

130,000 prisoners. In 1941 Wavell invaded the Italian colonies of Eritrea and Somaliland, and then Abyssinia. In May 1941 these countries were entirely freed. (See map on p. 171.)

But, in the meantime, Hitler had been preparing for another blow in Europe. He forced all the eastern European countries, except Turkey, to join the 'Axis'. The 'Axis' was the name given to the alliance of nations with Germany, most of them being in central Europe, except Japan. His armies invaded eastern Europe in March 1941 and occupied Greece. All this, however, was a preparation for a much bigger blow in the east. For, on 22 June 1941, Hitler invaded Russia.

We have already seen that he had promised not to do this, and, up to the last moment before the invasion, he went on telling the Russians that he was their best friend. But, having failed to crush the British, his plan now was to conquer Russia. Then, with the help of Russian industries, food-supplies, and men, he would have attacked Britain again, later, and thus become master of all Europe.

His attack was so sudden that it succeeded at first. The German armies quickly occupied all the eastern part of Russia, and surrounded Leningrad. They came within 30 miles of Moscow; they captured the coal and iron region of the rivers Donetz and Don, and all the fertile southern plains of the Ukraine, the greatest food-supplying region of Russia. (See map on p. 166.)

It seemed again as if Hitler would surely win the war. With most of Russia and all the remainder of continental Europe under his control, his supplies of everything needed for war were enormous. Only the U.S.A. was left to help the British and Russians in the fight. The U.S.A. was in fact sending much help, though it had not actually joined the fighting.

The war now suddenly became really a world-wide war. For, probably because it seemed as if the Axis were sure to win, the eastern partner of the Axis, Japan, now joined in the fight. Like Hitler with his false promises to Russia, the Japanese went on trying to deceive the U.S.A. until the last moment. Then, all of a sudden, without any declaration of war, on 7 December 1941, the Japanese made a tremendous attack by air upon the American navy in Pearl Harbour, the great naval port in the island of Hawaii (see Lesson 35).

[Key-Question 85: *How did the war in Europe end?*]

§85. In 1942 the whole force of the Axis powers tried hard to finish off the war, but failed. It was a hard year for the United Nations, the name by which all the nations fighting against the Axis then became known. The United Nations included the British Empire, the U.S.S.R., the U.S.A., Free China, Free France, with armies from most of the European countries occupied by Germany: namely, Poland, Norway, Holland, Belgium, Denmark, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia and Greece.

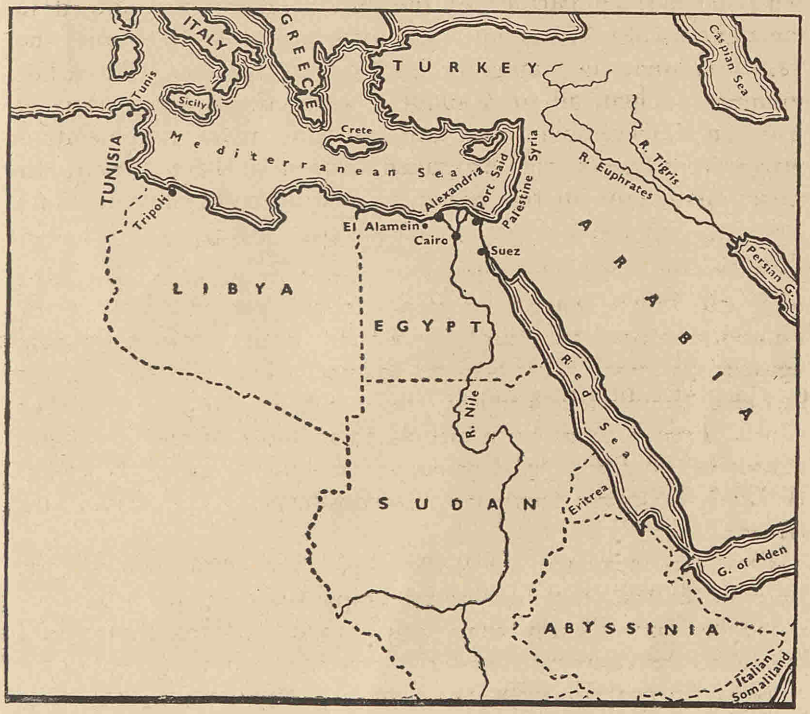
First, at sea, the Germans sent out their submarines to sink British and American ships faster than new ones could be built. Many were sunk, but at last the submarines began to be destroyed faster than they could be replaced.

Next, in north Africa, the Germans regained all that their Italian allies had lost, and they were only just stopped at El Alamein, west of Alexandria, the great port and naval base of Egypt.

Then the Germans made another advance further into Russia. This time they captured a great part of the northern Caucasus, with some of the precious oil-wells there. They reached the river Volga at Stalingrad. *This was the second great turning-point of the war.*

It Stalingrad had been taken, most of the Russian oil-fields would have been captured soon after, and it would have been

very difficult for Russia to recover from that loss. If Alexandria had been taken, Egypt and the Suez Canal would



NORTH AFRICA

soon afterwards have been in German hands too. The way to India and the Far East would then have been open, and the Germans would have been able to join forces with Japan. If the submarines had been able to stop American supplies coming across the Atlantic, both Britain and Russia would have been unable to hold on.

But none of these things happened. And at the end of 1942 the tide began to turn.

In the winter of 1942 the United Nations again drove the Axis out of north Africa, this time finally and completely. Tripoli and Tunisia were captured in the spring of 1943, and in July the invasion of Sicily began. At the same time the Russians were having their greatest success. The whole of the Caucasus region was set free; Stalingrad was not only retaken, but German armies numbering more than 300,000 men were destroyed or taken prisoner there. Then the Russians began a great advance into the parts of their country held by the Germans, getting back nearly all they had lost in the previous year.

In September 1943, the United Nations invaded Italy, and in the following month Italy surrendered. Mussolini escaped to join his German friends in north Italy, where he held out for a year and a half more.

In the early part of 1944 the Russians drove the Germans right out of Russia, and began to invade Rumania and Hungary. The other United Nations made a great landing on the coast of France in June, and in August Paris was retaken. The next month Germany's western boundary was crossed, and in November the river Rhine was reached.

Meanwhile, throughout the year 1943, British and American bombing planes had been making continuous day and night attacks on German factories, submarine harbours, and communications. It became impossible for the Germans to move their supplies; it became impossible even for them to go on manufacturing. But they made a last attempt to damage England by sending over 'flying bombs' and 'rocket aeroplanes', loaded with huge quantities of explosive, guided by radio instead of a human pilot. These did much harm but were too late to save the Germans from defeat.

At the beginning of 1945 the Russians retook Warsaw, and began to invade Germany from the east. Budapest, the capital of Hungary, was taken in February, and in March the

western allies crossed the Rhine. In April the great manufacturing region of the Ruhr was surrounded, and 100,000 prisoners were taken. On 13 April the Russians took Vienna, and on 24 April they surrounded Berlin. On 29 April Mussolini was captured by Italian patriots and immediately shot. On 1 May it was said that Hitler was dead. Germany surrendered unconditionally to the United Nations on 7 May 1945.

EXERCISES

1. Write a short account of Adolf Hitler, his aims, how he tried to achieve them, and why he failed.
2. What were the 'turning-points' of the Second World War?
3. In what ways was the Second World War like the First and in what ways was it different?

20

Problems of the World Today

LESSON 44: 'THE BIG FOUR': WORLD INTERDEPENDENCE

[Key-Question 86: *In what way are leaders of democracies different from dictators?*]

§86. In the previous chapter the name of Adolf Hitler was mentioned a great deal. So also was the name of Mussolini. Very little mention was made of the leaders on the side of the United Nations. There is a reason for this.

Mussolini and Hitler were both men who made themselves leaders of their nations, and kept their position of leadership, by force. It is true that both of them first gained the votes of the people in order to get their parties into power. But having got that power, they held on to it by putting an end to any possible rival party. To do this they even had their possible rivals murdered. Among these, in the case of Hitler, were some who had been his closest friends.

Such leadership and such ways of keeping the leader in power are impossible in a free and democratically governed country. The leader of a democracy has great powers so long

as he holds his official position. But he holds that position only so long as he is trusted by the people who have placed him there. He cannot become a dictator, or do exactly as he pleases. He leads the nation; he does not drive or force it.

It was just because of this that Neville Chamberlain, who was Prime Minister in Great Britain at the beginning of the war, had to give place to a new Prime Minister in 1940, when Hitler drove the British armies back to Dunkirk. The British people wanted a man who would be a good leader in time of war. They found him in WINSTON CHURCHILL.

Churchill may well be compared to the great Prime Minister of the Seven Years' War against France, William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, of whom we learned in Lesson 16. He had the same power of choosing the right men as leaders. He had also the power of making people feel that if they went on working bravely and patiently, everything would come out right in the end.

It was a lucky thing for the world that, at the same time, the U.S.A. had a President who was as great a leader as Churchill. FRANKLIN DELANO ROOSEVELT had first been elected President in 1932. An American President is elected for a period of four years, and no President had ever remained in office for more than two such periods continuously, that is for a period of eight years all together. But in 1940 the American people elected Roosevelt for the third time, and this was of great help at the most dangerous period of the war, when Hitler was doing his best to bomb Britain into surrender. Though the U.S.A. was not at war with Germany, Roosevelt sent supplies from America to help the British, and lent them American aeroplanes, ships, and machinery. In 1944 Roosevelt was again elected for the fourth time. By then the U.S.A. was fighting both Germany and Japan. Unhappily Roosevelt did not live to see victory. He died suddenly only three weeks before Germany surrendered.

[Key-Question 87:
What did Stalin and Chiang Kai-shek do for their countries?]

§87. The great leader of Soviet Russia is JOSEF STALIN, about whom we have already learned something in Lesson 37. Stalin has been the chief leader in Russia since the death of



CHURCHILL, ROOSEVELT AND STALIN AT YALTA

Lenin in 1924. As Churchill was able to make the British people feel that the struggle must go on even when Hitler seemed sure of victory in 1940, so Stalin did the same for his people in 1941 and 1942 when nearly all the richest parts of European Russia were under German control. By moving quickly a great many of the Russian factories to the eastern parts of the Soviet Union, where they were safe from attack

by the Germans, Stalin certainly saved his country from defeat in 1941.

Mention has already been made in Lesson 38 of the chief leader of the Chinese people, Generalissimo CHIANG KAI-SHEK.

In December 1943 there was a meeting of Stalin, Roosevelt and Churchill at Teheran in Iran (Persia). In February 1945 they met again at Yalta in the south of Russia. These meetings were to decide upon plans for working together during the war. But at the Yalta meeting it was also decided that a Conference of all the United Nations should meet at San Francisco in April 1945, to make plans for a League of Nations on better lines than the old one which had failed to prevent war.

At the time of writing this book the San Francisco Conference is still going on, and it is not yet known exactly what plans it has made. But, it is clear, that if war between the peoples of the world is to be prevented in future, the *causes* of war must be got rid of, so that no nation will want to go to war. In our next lesson we shall try to understand, among other things, what those causes are, and what hope there is of getting rid of them completely, so that mankind may henceforward live in peace.

LESSON 45:
THE AGE OF SCIENCE AND SPEED: INDIA AND THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH

[Key-Question 88:
In what ways are we all now living in 'One World'?]

§88. What sort of a world do we live in today? What part can we and our country play in that world and its future?

More than ever we are living in 'One World'. More than ever we cannot live in a separate little world of our own, however much we might wish to do so. Today, in a moment of time no longer than a flash of lightning, messages can be sent from one side of the world to the other, or right round

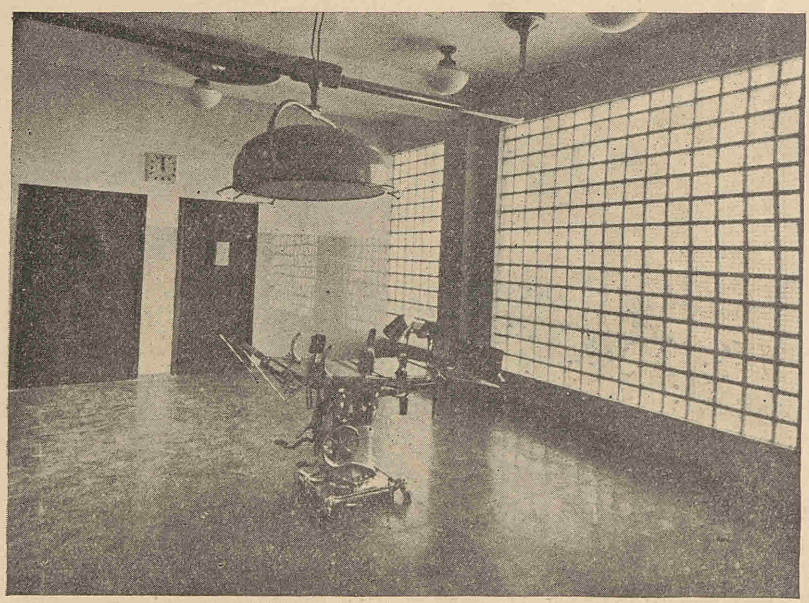
the world, by means of the wonderful invention of radio. People in Australia can hear the actual words spoken by the British Prime Minister in London. Within a few years



INDIAN VILLAGE ROAD TODAY
AND VILLAGERS' USUAL MODE OF TRANSPORT

another wonder, already invented but not perfected, will be added to this. We shall be able to see on a screen a moving picture of the person while he is actually speaking. When we speak to each other by telephone, we shall be able to see each other, even though the other person may be hundreds of miles away. The speed of travel, too, has greatly increased during the last few years. It is possible to fly from India to America in less than three days. Quite soon we shall have air-services carrying passengers and mails from Bombay to Calcutta and Madras in a few hours. What is much more important for

the Indian villager, we shall soon have good roads leading to every village, and motor-bus services from village to village and to the nearest railway-station. Travel by railway-train



Operating Theatre in the Tata Memorial Hospital, Bombay

will be much cleaner and more comfortable than it is now. The villager will not be able—and will not wish—to go on living in his own little world.

Education will also help to change the villager of the future. It seems safe to say that within twenty or thirty years from now every child will be in school and most people will be able at least to read and write. Each school will have a library and a radio-set, and these will also help to make us live in 'One World' whatever language we may use.

There is not the slightest doubt that, when people know what

is going on in other parts of the world, and can go from place to place so easily to see things for themselves, they will not be satisfied to go on living as our villagers live now. It is man's desire for something better which really makes him change. Change which is brought about in any other way—such as by order of a dictator—is not so certain or so lasting in its effect. The Government can help the change to begin, by making good roads, setting up more schools, and so on. But it is the people's desire that will make the change quick or slow. In thinking of this we must not forget that a hundred years ago a few men were taking just the first steps towards the great changes we are now expecting in our own country. At that time the villagers all over the world were in very much the same sort of condition as the villagers in India now. The towns and cities were as dirty (probably dirtier) than most of the big towns in India now. Railways had only just begun to join the towns. There were no good roads to the villages. There were no government schools (not even primary schools) and no government hospitals. All the great changes, spreading education and improving health, have taken place in the last 80 years. They were just beginning when your grandfather was as old as you are. Imagine, then, what India will be like when your grandson is a boy in school! The change will be much greater, because things happen much more quickly now than they could happen 80 years ago.

[Key-Question 89: *Will India become industrialized? Will India remain in the British Commonwealth?*]

§89. Will India become a great industrialized country, with farms cultivated by means of tractors instead of bullocks and buffaloes, and with factories making everything of steel and of wonderful materials now being invented? So far as I can judge, India will have to industrialize if her people want to have the great changes of which we have spoken above.



OLD-FASHIONED FARMING IN INDIA TODAY

Roads and motor-services and schools and hospitals cost a lot of money if you wish to have them in all parts of the country, and India cannot make all the money necessary for such things if her people go on farming in the present way. Also, when Indian farmers begin to know what American farmers and Russian farmers have been able to do, they will not be satisfied to go on growing one maund of food or cotton in a field which, with the help of science, could be made to grow three or four or ten maunds.

Will India decide to live in her own world, politically; that is, in the matter of government? Will she join up with other countries, or will she prefer to try to stand alone? At present she is a part of the British Empire, and many of her people would like her to get out of it and be quite independent. This is a question which you will have to decide. Now the war against Japan is over, India will become a Dominion of the British Commonwealth of Nations, and will be free to decide to remain in it or to go out of it as Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Ireland are free. Ireland has had as bad a time in the past as India has had. Ireland actually refused to take part in the Second World War, and yet she did not separate from the British Commonwealth of Nations. Why? The main reason was that Ireland knew that by remaining in the British Commonwealth she would have the protection of all the armed forces of the Commonwealth Dominions, and would be safe from invasion by Hitler. That proved to be the case. Armies and navies and air forces are now so costly to make and to keep in good condition that a single country, even a big country like India, would find it difficult to keep enough soldiers and aeroplanes and warships to defend herself without any help from others. If all share the cost together, it becomes much easier, and the money saved can then be used for building more roads and hospitals and schools. These

are some of the things which you will think of when the time comes for you to decide.

LESSON 46: THE FUTURE OF CIVILIZATION

[Key-Question 90: *Are we becoming more civilized?*]

§90. Let us turn back for a moment, in this last lesson, to the question we asked in Lesson 1, and see how far we have been able to answer it. The question is: Are the people of today doing the things which will help to make the world (including ourselves) *civilized*?

The four things we mentioned in Lesson 1 were these: *making beautiful things; thinking freely; thinking new things;* and *keeping the rules for living together.*

I think we shall agree that the world is progressing in the making of beautiful things. It is true that we have made many ugly things too, such as crowded factories and dirty cities, but we are beginning to try to get rid of them or to make them cleaner. The use of electricity has helped a lot in this.

The world has also progressed a great deal in thinking and inventing new things. Even in time of war, and sometimes even as a result of it, great new inventions have been made. The perfection of the aeroplane has been largely due to the need for using it to carry heavy loads over long distances at the highest possible speed, for war. The science of medicine and surgery has also improved wonderfully. By the help of new medicines, wounds are now healed and diseases cured which would have surely been fatal a few years ago. Great improvements, too, have been made in keeping people safe from disease. This has come about because of the need to protect the huge armies from sicknesses such as typhoid and malaria from which thousands used to die in former wars.

But in the two other ways to civilization the world has

not progressed so much. In thinking freely there has been a setback rather than progress during the past ten or fifteen years in many countries of Europe. We have seen in Chapters 16 and 19 how Mussolini and Hitler kept their own parties in power by getting rid of all those who dared to disagree with them. Only in countries which have a really democratic form of government are people allowed to hold public meetings freely or to publish books and newspapers in which the actions of the Government of the country can be criticized without fear.

And in 'keeping rules for living together' the modern nations have almost completely failed. Let us try to understand *why* they have failed to make good rules for living together peacefully, and why they have failed to keep such rules when made.

The first and simplest reason is the one which I mentioned to you in Lesson 34. Each of the nations wanted to act as Judge in its own case. None was willing to let the League of Nations decide, and to accept the decision of the League if it was not in its favour. And the old League had no power to compel them to accept its decision, as a Judge has power (through the police) to compel a prisoner to accept his judgement. Unless the new League planned at San Francisco has this power, it will not be able to stop war.

But let us try to go a little deeper into this. Why do nations quarrel with other nations? Why can they not agree to leave each other in peace?

Two of the causes are those we mentioned in Lesson 30 on 'Imperialism'. The first is when nations are led by men who are ambitious for more power, or who want to take land from other countries to make their own country greater.

The second cause is 'economic necessity', and this is a very very difficult one to get rid of. Please read Lesson 30 again very carefully and make sure that you understand what

'economic necessity' means. You will see that 'economic necessity' begins to grow when one or more of the following things happen in a country:

1. When the number of people in the country grows larger and larger, more quickly than the country can grow food for them to live on.

2. When a country which is highly industrialized makes more goods than it can sell in its own markets, and wants to sell them in the markets of other countries.

3. When a country cannot grow some sorts of raw materials which it needs for its industries, and wants to make sure of getting those materials.

[Key-Question 91:
How can the problem of living together peacefully be solved?]

§91. Now let us try to find out, in each of these cases, whether there is any possible way of solving the problem peacefully.

1. It is clear that, unless the country takes more land from some other country or sends its people to other countries to live, there is only one thing that can be done. The land must be made more fertile, and more crops must be grown on every bit of land that can possibly be brought under cultivation. It is still possible to make great improvements by having better irrigation, better cultivation, better seeds, better fertilizers, and by saving every bit of land from being destroyed by floods. The progress of science will certainly help men to do this.

2. Why do people want to make more goods than they can use? The reason is that by selling the extra goods, extra money (or 'profit') can be made, and other things can be done with that extra money. This need can be made much less if people are not allowed to make goods for *profit*, but, instead, all goods are made by the Government, and only enough are made for the nation's *use*. This is what has

been done in Soviet Russia. But many people in other countries do not wish to give up making goods for profit. They believe that if everything were done by the Government it would make people lazy and the goods would not be so well made. Which way is the best for your own country and for the world? That is one of the important questions which *you* will have to decide when you grow up. Think about it carefully.

3. Scientists can now do such wonderful things that it may be possible for them to solve this problem. For example, rubber will not grow in cold countries, but it is possible now to make it anywhere from certain chemicals. A few years ago this was impossible. After some time, it may be possible to make almost any material by chemical methods. It will be possible also to get materials from new plants, and to make plants grow in places where they could not be grown before. For example, rubber can now be made from plants which grow in very cold climates, sugar is made from beet. Wheat is now grown in lands inside the Arctic circle. Science will do more and more of these wonders every year.

In giving you the above answers I do not wish to make you think that these are the only possible answers to the three questions, or that the world will at once have peace when these three problems are solved. But the idea I should like to leave with you in coming to the end of this history book is this. *Do not let yourself become downhearted because mankind is not able to solve all these problems immediately.* Remember that a million years or more have gone by since Man first stood upright on the ground, and stopped behaving like an animal only. Out of those million years Man has begun to be civilized for only about ten thousand years at the most. Ten thousand years out of one million is the same as one year out of a hundred. So Man is now like a child of less than one year old. He is just beginning

to lift up his head and move a few inches along the floor, like a baby learning to use its muscles and limbs. After some time, he will stand up and try to walk. He will fall many times, but in the end he is certain to be able to walk, for he will learn balance through trying over and over again to save himself from falling.

It is just the same with Man's struggle to be civilized. The struggle has only just begun, and in this book I have told you only about *the first few minutes of the struggle.* In the five hundred years since A.D. 1450 man has really made the most extraordinary progress. It is as if our baby of one year old had suddenly got up on his feet and, with a great effort, made several stumbling steps. Is it surprising that he falls down after that? But he will get up and try again. And presently he will walk without falling.

Man has a wonderful brain, and he is learning to use it more and more. The more he uses it, the faster he will progress. He makes many mistakes, but he is slowly learning from them. We feel sad because the mistakes make us all suffer, and we forget how young Man is, and how difficult it is to learn.

So this is my message to you in this book: be patient with the baby; do not be angry when he falls. Help him to get up, and he will try again, until at last his struggle makes him into a full-grown man.

EXERCISES

1. Write a short account of each of 'The Big Four' leaders.
2. In what ways will the life of the Indian villager be changed within a few years and why?
3. How can the problems of 'economic necessity' be solved?
4. How can World Peace be secured?

Glossary

In this glossary simple explanations are given of all words not included in the list of 1500 words on which the publishers have based several of their well-known series of English books for use in schools.

able (*adj.*) : having skill or ability.

absolute (*adj.*) : complete; unlimited.

adventure (*n.*) : exciting experience.

agitation (*n.*) : excited condition of mind; attempt to excite people's minds.

ahead (*adv.*) : in front; in advance.

ally (*n.*) : pronounced 'al-eye' rhyming with 'shall I': person or State joined to another as helper.

ambassador (*n.*) : official sent to represent his nation's Government in a foreign country.

ambition (*n.*) : strong desire to do something well.

anatomy (*n.*) : the science of the parts of the body and how they are fitted together.

ancestor (*n.*) : any member of one's family who lived before one's father or mother.

anti- (*prefix*) : against; opposed to (as in anti-septic).

armour (*n.*) : metal coat or covering for protecting the body.

arrest (*v.*) : stop; hold as a prisoner.

artery (*n.*) : small tube of the body, carrying blood from the heart.

ascent (*n.*) : going up.

assist (*v.*) : help.

atlas (*n.*) : book of maps.

attach (*v.*) : fix on; join.

axis (*n.*) : the line on which an object turns when going round itself.

balcony (*n.*) : part of a building which sticks out from the main walls and usually has a railing.

behead (*v.*) : cut off the head.

besiege (*v.*) : attack and surround on all sides.

boundary (*n.*) : line marking the limit or extent.

budget (*n.*) : public statement of income (money to be received) and expenditure (money to be paid).

calm (*adj.*) : peaceful.

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adj.—adjective. *adv.*—adverb. *c.*—conjunction. *n.*—noun.
prep.—preposition. *pron.*—pronoun. *v.*—verb.

candidate (*n.*) : one who offers himself for a position or an examination.
cannon (*n.*) : great gun.
carve (*v.*) : cut into pieces (usually of beautiful shape).
catholic (*adj.*) : belonging to the whole world.
ceiling (*n.*) : inside roof of a building, usually of wood or cloth.
celebrate (*v.*) : make a splendid show in public.
chain (*n.*) : line of joined things; iron rings for tying things or persons firmly.
character (*n.*) : (1) qualities of a person or thing. (2) person in a story or play.
chemical (*n.*) : substance made by the help of chemistry.
chemical (*adj.*) : belonging to chemistry.
chemistry (*n.*) : the science of substances and their qualities.
chill (*n.*) : condition of being cold; sickness caused by cold.
chimney (*n.*) : tall pipe through which smoke is carried out of a building.
circulate (*v.*) : send round.
citizen (*n.*) : person who has full rights as a member of a city or a nation.
civilize (*v.*) : bring up to a high level of behaviour.
civil war: war between people belonging to the same country.
colonist (*n.*) : one who lives in a colony.
colony (*n.*) : group or society people living together.
companion (*n.*) : member of the same company or party.
compete (*v.*) : try to do better than others.
competition (*n.*) : trying to do better than others.
confuse (*v.*) : put into disorder.
conquer (*v.*) : take by force or in war.
consent (*v.*) : agree to.
constitution (*n.*) : regular system; system working according to laws.
convert (*v.*) : make a change.
corpuscle (*n.*) : very very small living thing.
costly (*adj.*) : costing much money.
craft (*n.*) : hand-work.
crawl (*v.*) : go on hands and knees or with bent body; go slowly.
cricket-pitch (*n.*) : the level ground on which the game of cricket is played, the distance between the stumps being 22 yards.
crime (*n.*) : act for which there is a serious punishment.
criticize (*v.*) : judge; point out the mistakes of.
crown (*v.*) : put on the king's head-dress as a sign of being the ruler.
crush (*v.*) : break by force.

culture (*n.*) : high development of mind (through studies, arts, crafts, etc.)
dairy (*n.*) : place from which milk is supplied.
dairymaid (*n.*) : girl who milks cows or works in a dairy.
damage (*v.*) : do harm to.
debt (pronounced 'det') (*n.*) : payment which one has to make to another, and has not made.
decay (*v.*) : go bad; become rotten; fall to pieces.
deceive (*v.*) : give a false idea.
defeat (*v.*) : conquer; overcome.
defy (*v.*) : oppose openly.
descendant (*n.*) : a son or daughter or later member of one's own family.
detach (*v.*) : take off; make separate.
develop (*v.*) : grow; make better or bigger.
diagram (*n.*) : a drawing to explain something.
disappoint (*v.*) : make sad at not getting what is hoped for.
disaster (*n.*) : great and sudden trouble.
disciple (*n.*) : one who takes another as his teacher or leader.
discipline (*n.*) : training which produces self-control.
disturb (*v.*) : upset; cause trouble to.
down-hearted (*adj.*) : sad.
duty (*n.*) : that which one ought to do; that which one is responsible for doing.
dye (*n.*) : substance used for colouring.
dye (*v.*) : make coloured.
eager (*adj.*) : very willing; full of desire.
earn (*v.*) : get as reward or payment for work.
efficient (*adj.*) : working well.
eloquence (pronounced 'él-oh-kwence') (*n.*) : the power of making fine public speeches.
encourage (*v.*) : give courage to; help.
entertainment : performance to amuse people.
equip (*v.*) : make ready with necessary things.
estate (*n.*) : great amount of land or property owned by one person or company.
estuary (*n.*) : wide mouth of a river where it enters the sea.
evidence (*n.*) : proof.
exile (*n.*) : one who is sent away from his country as a punishment.
experiment (*n.*) : attempt to do something new.
extend (*v.*) : make wider or longer.

factor (*n.*) : one of the causes helping to produce a result.

faint (*adj.*) : not clear.

false (*adj.*) : not true.

famine (*n.*) : starvation; great shortage of food.

favour (*n.*) : kind feeling; act of showing approval.

feast (*n.*) : joyful gathering to eat food together.

fibre (*n.*) : material which has threads that can be twisted to make yarn (such as cotton, wool, silk, jute).

final (*adj.*) : last to take place.

fine (*v.*) : take money as a punishment.

flange (*n.*) : flat edge projecting from a wheel for keeping it in position on rails.

fleet (*n.*) : a number or group of ships.

float (*v.*) : support or move on water or in air.

forefathers (*n.*) : members of one's family who lived before one's father.

foreign (*adj.*) : belonging to another nation or country.

fort (*n.*) : place made strong for protection against attack by enemies.

found (*v.*) : make the beginning of.

foundation (*n.*) : the beginning (usually of a building or society); the lowest part of a building.

freeze (*v.*) : make into ice.

frozen (*adj.*) : made into ice.

generous (*adj.*) : kind-hearted; giving freely.

genius (*n.*) : (1) great power of doing something well. (2) person possessing the above power.

goal (*n.*) : place aimed at, or desired to reach.

goodwill (*n.*) : kind feeling.

grant (*v.*) : give what is asked for.

greedy (*adj.*) : wanting too much for oneself.

group (*n.*) : number of persons or things near together.

guilty (*adj.*) : having done wrong.

haste (*n.*) : quick action.

hobbies (*n.*) : arts or handicrafts done for pleasure and not to earn a living.

hollow (*adj.*) : having space inside it.

horizontal (*adj.*) : flat; parallel to the level surface of the earth.

huge (*adj.*) : very great.

ignorant (*adj.*) : not educated; not wise.

immortal (*adj.*) : not mortal; not able to be killed or to die.

increase (*v.*) : grow greater.

inland (*adj.*) : away from the coast of a country.
instrument (*n.*) : tool; thing by which one does work.
interfere (*v.*) : get in the way; try to stop or upset.
interval (*n.*) : space or time between two objects or events.
invade (*v.*) : attack with force.
invent (*v.*) : discover how to make.
inventive (*adj.*) : clever in discovering how to make things.
irrigate (*v.*) : water the fields.
ivory (*n.*) : the material of the teeth of elephants and other animals.
jailer (*n.*) : officer in charge of a jail or prison.
jealous (*adj.*) : feeling angry at the better position or happiness of another.
jewel (*n.*) : precious stone.
job (*n.*) : bit of work.
just (*adj.*) : fair; right.
kidnap (*v.*) : take away a person by force, against the law.
labour (*n.* and *v.*) : work.
legal (*adj.*) : of law; according to the law.
leisure (*n.*) : time free from work.
liquid (*n.*) : a watery material.
literary (*adj.*) : learned through books; concerning books.
loom (*n.*) : machine for weaving.
luxury (*n.*) : things or conditions giving great pleasure and comfort to the body.
magnet (*n.*) : object having the power to draw other objects towards it.
mainland (*n.*) : chief part of the land, not counting the islands round it.
malaria (*n.*) : fever caused by the bite of a mosquito.
marble (*n.*) : beautiful stone used for costly buildings or for statues.
mariner (*n.*) : sailor or seaman.
mate (*n.*) : ship's officer below the captain in authority.
meanwhile (*adv.*) : in the time between.
mechanical (*adj.*) : for machines; of machinery.
memorize (*v.*) : keep fixed in the memory; remember.
microscope (*n.*) : instrument by which one can see very small objects.
military (*adj.*) : for the army or war on land.
mine (*n.*) : deep hole made in the earth to get coal, metals, precious stones etc.
minister (*n.*) : person at the head of a department of government.
mischief (*n.*) : small wrongdoing; tricks causing trouble to others.

missionary (*n.*) : person whose work is to convert others to his own religion.

mosquito (*n.*) : small fly causing malaria fever.

movable types: separate letters of the alphabet cut in wood or metal, so that they can be put together to make any word.

murder (*v.*) : kill in anger or hate.

native (*adj.*) : belonging by birth to a place.

naturally (*adv.*) : by nature; according to nature.

necessity (*n.*) : need; condition of needing.

needle (*n.*) : small pointed piece of steel used for sewing.

negro (*n.*) : black-skinned African man.

neighbour (*n.*) : one who lives near.

nicknamed (*adj.*) : named for fun.

noble (*adj.*) : from a high family; worthy of persons belonging to a high family.

object (pronounced ' ob-jéct ') (*v.*) : express dislike or disapproval.

occupation (*n.*) : work which takes up most of one's time.

occupy (*v.*) : live in.

operation (*n.*) : way of doing; cutting of the body in order to help to cure a disease or injury.

orator (*n.*) : one who is skilled in public speaking.

order (*n.*) : (1) command. (2) discipline.

organize (*v.*) : put into working order; make a system for working.

orthodox (*adj.*) : holding the usual opinions.

otherwise (*adv.*) : if it were not so.

outlet (*n.*) : opening or passage to get out.

overcome (*v.*) : get the better of; conquer.

overthrow (*v.*) : put an end to.

paddle (*n.*) : wooden instrument for striking the water in order to make a boat move.

palace (*n.*) : house of a king or ruler.

patron-saint (*n.*) : the holy man by whose name a person is called.

percentage (*n.*) : so much for each hundred.

period (*n.*) : part of time.

permanent (*adj.*) : unchanging; going on always

permit (*v.*) : allow.

persuade (*v.*) : make a person willing.

pilot (*n.*) : one who guides a ship or aeroplane.

pioneer (*n.*) : one who goes in front to clear the way; one who takes the lead in doing a new thing.

pivot (*n.*) : centre pin on which a wheel turns.

plague (*n.*) : a very bad sickness caused by dirt.

planet (*n.*) : world which moves round the sun like our own world.

plank (*n.*) : flat piece of wood.

platform (*n.*) : raised part of the floor of a room or of a railway-station.

plentiful (*adj.*) : in great quantity.

plot (*v.*) : make a secret plan.

poison (*n.*) : substance which may cause death if it is taken into a living body.

polar (*adj.*) : of or near the north or south pole of a globe or of the earth.

politics (*n.*) : the art of government.

portrait (*n.*) : picture of a person.

present (*n.*) : gift.

priest (*n.*) : leader in religion; head of a church.

problem (*n.*) : difficult question to answer.

prodúce (*v.*) : grow or make something.

próduct (*n.*) : something grown or made.

prodúction (*n.*) : growing or making of something.

profession (*n.*) : way of earning a living.

profit (*n.*) : something extra (usually money) gained.

progressive (*adj.*) : aiming at progress, moving forward.

promote (*v.*) : give a higher position to.

propeller (*n.*) : piece of machinery which, by turning rapidly in water or air, makes a boat or aeroplane move.

prosper (*v.*) : get on well.

protest (*v.*) : speak against.

province (*n.*) : large part or division of a country.

publish (*v.*) : put before the public; print for public use.

puzzle (*n.*) : problem which is difficult to solve.

quarrel (*n.*) : angry exchange of words or blows.

queue (pronounced 'kew', rhyming with 'new') (*n.*) : line of people standing one behind another.

quinine (*n.*) : medicine for curing malaria fever.

race (*n.*) : (1) competition in running or in doing something quickly. (2) large group of people originally from the same family.

raid (*n.*) : sudden surprising attack.

ransom (*n.*) : payment made in exchange for setting a prisoner free.

rare (*adj.*) : precious; not often found.

rebel (pronounced 're-bél') (*v.*) : fight against the Government or those in authority.

rebel (pronounced 'réb-el') (*n.*) : one who fights against the Government or those in authority.

rebellion (*n.*) : fighting against the Government.

refrigerator (*n.*) : machine for keeping things very cold.

remarkable (*adj.*) : worthy to be noted or spoken about.

representative (*n.*) : one chosen to act on behalf of others.

resign (*v.*) : give up a position or office.

resist (*v.*) : keep off an attack; not give way to.

responsible (*adj.*) : trusted; able to be trusted.

restore (*v.*) : put back; give back.

revenge (*v.*) : do harm to a person in return for harm he has done to you.

revive (*v.*) : bring back to life.

rid (*v.*) : free.

right (*n.*) : that which a person can have or ought to have according to law or justice.

risk (*n.*) : danger.

risk (*v.*) : put in danger.

rival (*n.*) : one who tries to be better or stronger than another.

rivalry (*n.*) : trying to be better or stronger than another.

rob (*v.*) : take wrongfully the property of another person.

robber (*n.*) : one who robs.

robbery (*n.*) : act of robbing.

roller (*n.*) : piece of wood or metal shaped like a cylinder.

row (pronounced 'roh') (*n.*) : long line of objects or persons.

row (pronounced 'roh') (*v.*) : make a boat move by oars.

row (pronounced to rhyme with 'cow') (*n.*) : disturbance, great noise.

savage (*adj.*) : cruel; violent; uncivilized.

scene (*n.*) : (1) what one sees. (2) painted cloth used in a theatre for giving the appearance of a real place.

scholar (*n.*) : student; one who studies deeply.

severe (*adj.*) : hard; not gentle.

shock (*n.*) : hard blow causing surprise or hurt.

similar (*adj.*) : like.

skill (*n.*) : cleverness; ability.

slave (*n.*) : person who is another's property or is used as a possession and not paid for his work.

smallpox (*n.*) : very bad disease.

solve (*v.*) : find out an answer.

sort (*n.*) : group; kind.

source (pronounced to rhyme with 'horse') (*n.*) : beginning.
spice (*n.*) : plant used to give a good taste in food.
spin (*v.*) : make thread by twisting fibre.
spindle (*n.*) : thin piece of wood on which yarn is wound.
spray (*n.*) : very small drops of liquid which look like smoke.
stage (*n.*) : raised part of a room or theatre where the speakers or actors stand.
starve (*v.*) : cause to die for want of food.
statue (*n.*) : model of a person in clay, stone or metal.
strait (*n.*) : narrow natural passage joining two seas.
struggle (*n.*) : strong effort against difficulties.
stumble (*v.*) : almost fall down.
subject (*n.*) : (1) person under a ruler. (2) matter discussed.
substance (*n.*) : material.
supply (*n.*) : things needed.
supply (*v.*) : give things needed.
surrender (*v.*) : stop fighting and give oneself up to the enemy.
survey (*v.*) : carefully look at; measure and make a map of.
swing (*v.*) : move freely backwards and forwards when hanging.
system (*n.*) : regular way of working; plan.
task (*n.*) : difficult work.
tax (*n.*) : payment to be made to the Government.
telescope (*n.*) : instrument for seeing objects at a great distance.
temple (*n.*) : building where God is worshipped.
theatricals (*n.*) : dramas or plays acted in a theatre.
theory (*n.*) : statement of ideas about something.
thread (*n.*) : long thin piece of material, usually of cotton or some other fibre.
threaten (*v.*) : say that one will do harm to another.
throne (*n.*) : special seat of a king or ruler.
tolerate (*v.*) : allow to do freely.
tool (*n.*) : instrument made for helping the hands to do work.
torture (*v.*) : give great pain purposely.
traitor (*n.*) : one who works against his own people or nation.
transmit (*v.*) : send out.
transport (pronounced 'tránsport') (*n.*) : carrying goods or persons from one place to another; means of carrying goods or persons.
transport (pronounced 'transpórt') (*v.*) : carry goods or persons from one place to another.

treasure (*n.*) : store of gold and other valuable things.

treat (*v.*) : behave towards; do an action to.

tributary (*n.*) : small river which flows into a greater one.

trick (*n.*) : action intended to deceive or mislead a person.

tropical (*adj.*) : belonging to the hot parts of the world, the parts between the tropics.

truck (*n.*) : wheeled cart for transport.

tyrant (*n.*) : ruler who behaves cruelly and does whatever he pleases.

tyranny (*n.*) : behaviour of a tyrant.

unconscious (*adj.*) : not having knowledge of; not awake.

unfortunate (*adj.*) : unlucky, having bad luck.

unlimited (*adj.*) : having no limit.

unselfish (*adj.*) : not thinking of oneself.

vaccination (*n.*) : the method of preventing smallpox discovered by Jenner.

valuable (*adj.*) : having great value; precious.

vein (*n.*) : small tube in the body carrying blood back to the heart.

vertical (*adj.*) : upright; at right angles to the level surface of the earth.

vessel (*n.*) : thing made of clay, wood or metal, to hold liquids.

vice versa (pronounced 'vy-say verse-ah') (*adv.*) : the other way round.

violent (pronounced 'ví-o-lent' not 'voil-ent) (*adj.*) : using great force.

wage (*n.*) : payment for work.

weapon (pronounced 'wep'n') (*n.*) : tool or instrument for war.

weave (*v.*) : make cloth by putting threads over and under each other.

weed (*n.*) : useless plant.

whip (pronounced 'wip') (*n.*) : stick with a piece of rope fastened to it for giving blows.

worship (pronounced 'wér-ship') : (1) (*v.*) show respect to God. (2) (*n.*) way of showing respect to God.

wreck (pronounced 'reck') (*v.*) : completely destroy.

yarn (*n.*) : twisted threads of fibre, such as cotton, wool or silk.

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