ABRIDGED GEOGRAPHY AND INDIAN HISTORY.

ANONYMOUS.

1. GEOGRAPHY.

No one can understand geography without an atlas, and the reader will find it much easier to follow the descriptions given in this chapter, if he will take the trouble to study occasionally the map of India and surrounding countries.

India may be roughly described as a great triangle, two sides of which are washed by the sea whilst the third is walled in by the giant range of the Himalayas. This chapter deals only with the frontiers of India.

COAST LINES.

The greater share of the duty of protecting the shores of India must naturally fall on the Navy, but great assistance is given by providing strongly defended harbours, in which warships can re-fit and merchant ships take shelter. With this end in view, the fortifications of Bombay, Karachi, Calcutta, Rangoon and Aden have been erected, and sufficient garrisons provided to render them secure against any probable attack. So long as these strong places remain in our hands, the Navy is left free to operate in its proper sphere—the open sea.

HIMALAYAS.

By far the most important of the land frontiers is the great mountain region, which stretches from Burma in the east to Afghanistan in the west and is known as the Himalayas or "Abode of Snow." It consists of a number of parallel ranges from which numerous branches are thrown off to either side, and extends for a distance of 1,500 miles along the northern frontier of India, with a breadth varying from 150 to 220 miles. The height of the main ranges averages about 18,000 feet, but many peaks exceed this altitude. Mount Everest (29,000 ft.) is closely pressed by Kinchinjunga (28,180 ft.), Nanga Parbat (26,620 ft.) and many other giants. Whilst the southern slopes of this huge range descend comparatively abruptly to the plains, a vast table land, 10,000 ft. to 18,000 ft. high, extends for many hundreds of miles to the north of it. The greater part of this plateau lies within the country of Tibet, which runs parallel to the northern frontier of India for over 1,000 miles. The western portion is generally known as the Pamirs and extends from the wild and still imperfectly explored tracts in the north of Kashmir into Chinese and Russian territory.

The country surrounding the main Himalayan range has characteristics which are of considerable importance from a military point of view. The roads across the mountains are nothing more than tracks, worn by the feet of generations of pedestrians and pack animals. The passes themselves lie at a height of from 12,000 to 19,000 ft. above the sea, and are entirely blocked by snow during the greater portion of the year. The approaches from the north cross
hundreds of miles of desolate tableland which can but ill support the scattered population already inhabiting it, much less an invading army. In short, Nature has provided a gigantic rampart which protects India against an approach from the north more effectually than the most elaborate fortifications or any art of man could do.

N.-W. FRONTIER.

This Frontier of India runs from a point north of Gilgit where Afghan Wakhian and Chinese Turkistan meet. To the north of Chitral the line is nearly due west and east. Thence to the Khyber Pass, it runs in a southerly direction through mountainous country. From the Khyber to the Paiwar, at the head of the Kurrum valley, the direction is west along the range of mountains called Saied Koh. From the Paiwar, the line runs back S. E., thus forming the Kurrum salient. From Thal in the Kurrum to the Gomal River, the frontier line is approximately south. Thence to New Chaman, west, then south to Nushki whence it runs west to Persian territory. Throughout practically its whole length, the frontier runs through mountainous country, the possession of which, from the earliest times has been the bone of contention of nations, tribes and races. At one time or another, before the rise of British power, over thirty invasions of India took place—Assyrians, Persians, Greeks, Arabs, Afghans, Tartars and others have poured into the plains, and in almost every case their line of advance has been through these mountains to the valley of the Indus. In this frontier therefore, without a doubt, are found the "Gates of India."

This frontier line is called the "Durand Line," after Sir Mortimer Durand who in 1893 made an agreement with the Amir of Afghanistan in Kabul, one of the clauses of which was the demarcation of a frontier between India and Afghanistan. At the foot of the mountains on the Indian side runs throughout the North-West Frontier Province what is known as the "Administrative Border." The "Durand Line" forms the border between Afghanistan and India, whilst the "Administrative Border" marks the limit of complete control by the Government of India over the inhabitants. Between these two lines we have the "Independent" or "Non-administered" territory. It is a well-known fact that where this "Independent" territory is broadest there is most trouble. In Baluchistan where the "Durand Line," and the "Administrative Border" are, owing to Sandeman's wise policy, one and the same, peace and quiet reign.

As the main range of the Himalayas leaves Indian territory to the north of Gilgit, it throws out a large branch known as the Hindukush, which crosses Afghanistan in a south-westerly direction as far as Herat. This mountain range with its minor spurs, and the great river Indus with its tributaries, are the dominating physical features of the North-West Frontier.

Four rivers pierce through the mountains of the frontier, the Kabul, Kurrum, Tochi, and Gomal. They all rise in Afghanistan and their valleys form the four main thoroughfares between India and that country. On the Indian side of the frontier, forts and small posts guard the approaches.
The main line of communication with Afghanistan is via the Khyber Pass from Peshawar, which is connected with the rest of India by a railway which crosses the Indus river by the important bridge at Attock. From Peshawar to the frontier via the Khyber, a broad gauge railway has lately been opened.

The next main thoroughfare is via the Paktia Kotal. The approach to this from India is by railway to Kohat, crossing the Indus by a bridge at Khusalgarh, and thence by a narrow gauge railway to Thal. From Thal to the frontier the valley of the Kurram is followed. Lord Roberts marched by this route in 1878.

The third thoroughfare is via the Tochi Valley which runs through the northern portion of Waziristan. This route is not used to the same extent as the others. Troops are stationed at Bannu and Dardoni, and the road is also protected.

The fourth river thoroughfare is via the Gomal river which forms the boundary between the North-West Frontier Province and Baluchistan. This route is much used and leads through Dera Ismail Khan, the Indus being crossed by a bridge of boats in winter, or ferry in summer when the river is in flood.

The Gomal is joined, just before issuing into the plains, by the Zhob river which runs through Baluchistan. On this river stands Fort Sandeman, guarding the main route from Quetta to Dera Ismail Khan.

Having passed South of the Gomal we enter Baluchistan. There are no important routes across the frontier in this province until we reach New Chaman. Here a road crosses from Quetta, from which place to Chaman a railway runs which after crossing the Indus at Sakkur, winds up the Bolan Pass to Quetta, and thence runs North passing through the Khojak tunnel. The road from New Chaman runs to Kandahar and thence to Herat to the N. W. and Kabul to the N. E. An alternative rail runs from Sibi to Bostan via Harmal.

This, in peace time, is little used, but in the event of a breakdown on the main line it would be of considerable importance.

From Quetta a railway runs to Duzdap in Persian territory, along the Southern border of Afghanistan.

AFGHANISTAN.

Across the North-West Frontier lies Afghanistan. This country since the third Afghan War in 1919 has made great strides towards civilisation. The making of main roads has been taken in hand, and also the connecting-up of the chief cities by telephone. A telegraph line from Kabul to the Khyber was built in 1923.

Afghanistan possesses a regular army, the strength of which it is difficult to estimate at present owing to great reductions and re-organisation.

THE EASTERN FRONTIER.

The north-eastern land frontier which divides Assam and Burma from China may be dismissed in a few words. The country on either side of the border is mountainous, intersected by rapid streams and ill-provided at present with means of communication.

Such roads as exist are mere mountain tracks, unsuitable for wheeled traffic, and pack mules and ponies are employed by traders for carrying their goods between the markets of Burma and China.
The southern boundary of Burma marches with that of Siam, and does not call for special mention.

2.—HISTORY.

The history of India may be roughly divided into four periods, i.e.,
The period of pre-history or mythology from 3000 to 600 B.C.
The period of Overland invasions and Mahommedan dominion from B.C. 600 to A.D. 1526.
The period of European Settlement from 1498 to 1760 and the Development of British rule 1760 to Modern times.

Detailed history of India starts from the time when Alexander the Great invaded India in B.C. 327. His army included fifty thousand Europeans and his main body moved from Kabul by the Kabul River route on to the Peshawar plain whilst he himself took a more northerly route and reached the Indus upstream of the point where it leaves the hills. By B.C. 323 he had fought his way through the Punjab and Sind to the sea. Large numbers of his force ultimately perished in the desert of Baluchistan during the return journey.

After the withdrawal of Alexander a great Empire rose in Northern India under Chandragupta Maurya, who ruled extensive dominions from a capital near Patna. His administration was highly centralised, militaristic and “Prussian” in type; and his son extended the Empire until it included almost all India. His grandson, Asoka, ruled every part of India except the extreme south and is remembered as the man who made Buddhism (founded in the sixth century B.C.) a world religion. After Asoka’s death in B.C. 232 the great empire broke up and Northern India suffered during the next four centuries from barbarian invasions. About A.D. 320 another strong kingdom arose under the Gupta dynasty, and the golden age of Hindu art and letters began. This kingdom disappeared as a result of invasions from the north-west, and India split into a number of petty states. Meanwhile Islam started on its career of a world conquest in A.D. 620. Mesopotamia, Persia and Khiva were overrun, and Sind was invaded early in the eighth century.

The first great Mahommedan conqueror of India was Sultan Mahmud of Ghazni, son of Sabuktakin, a Turki slave. The rule of the Turkis of Ghazni which began in A.D. 977 lasted until A.D. 1152, when the dynasty was exterminated by the second conqueror Shabab-ud-Din, known as Muhammed Ghori. The Afghans of Ghori held sway until A.D. 1206 when Muhammed Ghori died. He was followed by Kutb-ud-Din, at one time his slave, whose slave ‘dynasty,’ which ruled from Delhi, came to an end in A.D. 1299.

The third great Mahommedan conqueror was Ala-ud-Din, nephew of Kutb-ud-Din. He founded the Khilji (or Ghilzai) family and in his reign the Mahommedans penetrated into southern India. In 1321 Ghazi Khan Tughlak, then Governor of the Punjab, wrested the power from the Khiljis and the Tughlak rule lasted until 1398 when Amir Timur, known as Tamerlane, was proclaimed Emperor of India.

Timur’s invasion reduced all Northern India to chaos, and when after a few months he returned to Central Asia, a period of anarchy set in, until in 1414 Saiyid Khizr Khan founded the Saiyid dynasty which lasted until 1450.
The last of the four Saitid kings abdicated in favour of Bhellal Lodi and the Lodi, an Afghan dynasty of the Ghilzai tribe, reigned until 1526, when Ibrahim Lodi was defeated and killed by Babar at the decisive battle of Panipat.

Babar, who was a sixth in descent to Timur or Tamerlane, had been driven from his former kingdom of Ferghana by the Usbeks in A.D. 1504. Crossing into Afghanistan he had then seized the throne of Kabul, vacant by the death of his cousin, and later invaded India by way of the Khyber Pass at the instigation of the Lodi Governor of the Punjab. He founded the Mogul Empire which lasted, at any rate in name, until 1857. His memoirs of the India of his time are unique in oriental literature.

Babar was succeeded in 1530 by Humayun who is chiefly known as the father of Akbar the Great, who ascended the throne in 1560. He was driven from the throne in A.D. 1540 by Sher Shah the Afghan ruler of Bengal, but returned in A.D. 1556 after the death of the latter. Akbar greatly increased his territory during his reign, which is remarkable also for the great advance made in considering the welfare of the people and the establishment of an organised empire. Books were translated, the religion of his Hindu subjects respected, and the control divided into three sections, Judicial and Police, Military, and Revenue. The country was divided into provinces under Governors. Akbar died in 1605 and was succeeded by his son Jehangir, who was in turn followed by Shah Jehan in 1627. The latter's reign is chiefly conspicuous for the magnificence of the royal court and the erection of many famous buildings, notably the Taj Mahal at Agra and the Moti Masjid or "Pearl Mosque" in the Agra Fort. The Moti Masjid is said to be the most lovely house of prayer in the world.

Aurungzeb became emperor in 1658 and his long reign of 49 years was occupied mainly with the subjugation of southern India, and in wars with the Mahrattas and the Rajput clans. After his death the Sikhs, a religious sect, came into military prominence under Guru Govind Singh. Rajputs and Mahrattas began to close in on the Empire and from that time onwards the Mogul dynasty gradually dissolved.

Portuguese influence in India was heralded by the arrival of Vasco da Gama in 1502 when he landed in Cochin. He was followed in 1503 by d'Albuquerque and in 1505 by d'Almeida. The Portuguese held for a time Cochin, Goa, and the island of Diu but were continually fighting for their retention. Their dominions never increased and in face of Dutch and English opposition their influence declined until they held only Goa, Daman and Diu, and these constitute their only possessions in India at the present day.

The English East India Company was incorporated by Royal Charter in 1600 and although constituted at first on a purely commercial basis, it gradually acquired considerable military and political power (about 1688). It was at once brought into conflict with the French under Dumas and Dupleix who were successively Governors of the French factories and possessions in the East. The siege and subsequent defence of Arcot by Clive in 1731, and the battle of Plassey in 1757, firmly established the fact of English power throughout India, and sealed the fate of French competition. Dupleix was recalled to France in disgrace in 1754.
The beginning of British rule in India dates from 1765 when Clive arrived in India as Governor of Bengal for the second time. By 1767 when he finally left India he had obtained administrative powers over Bengal, Orissa and Bihar. These possessions were brought definitely under our administration by Warren Hastings, first Governor-General of India (1774). British supremacy in India was henceforth only maintained by a series of strenuous, but successful campaigns. These campaigns included the 1st and 2nd Mysore Wars (1780 and 1799) culminating in the defeat and death of Tipu Sultan of Mysore at Seringapatam in 1799, and the 1st and 2nd Mahratta Wars (1775 and 1802), Sir Arthur Wellesley operating in the Deccan and Lord Lake in Hindustan proper. It is worthy of note that in these wars the majority of the troops were Indians. Further territory now acquired included part of Mysore, the Carnatic, and what is roughly the modern Madras Presidency. Lord Minto in the years following 1808 opened relations with the Punjab, Persia and Afghanistan. By 1816 the Gurkhas of Nepal had been defeated by General Ochterlony and a treaty was drawn up which defines British relations with Nepal at the present day. The last Mahratta War occurred in 1817 and by 1823 all the native states outside the Punjab had become parts of the British Political System.

In 1824 the First Burmese War broke out and Tenasserim was annexed.

From now on until the time of Lord Dalhousie (1848) the map of India remained substantially unchanged.

The 1st Afghan War (1839), due to the distrust of Russian and Persian aims, engendered by the Treaty of Turkmanchay between Russia and Persia in 1825, sharpened by the siege of Herat, and magnified by the pro-Russian sympathies attributed to Dost Mohammed, led to the British occupation of Kabul. In 1842 however, the British were attacked and there followed the disastrous retreat towards India in the depth of winter, resulting in the almost complete annihilation of the force of four thousand troops and twelve thousand camp followers. Kabul was recaptured in 1842 by Generals Pollock and Nott. The first Lord Hardinge was Governor-General of India when the 1st Sikh War broke out in 1845, and the Sikhs were driven back to the Sutlej by Sir Hugh Gough, and a Sikh Protectorate established. Lord Dalhousie, one of the greatest of our Indian Governors-General or Viceroys, succeeded in 1848 but had scarcely arrived when the 2nd Sikh War broke out.

At the drawn battle of Chillianwallah (1849) the British lost 2,400 officers and men, four guns and the colours of three regiments. Lord Gough succeeded, however, in restoring his reputation by the victory of Gujrat, which destroyed the Sikh Army. Lord Dalhousie laid the foundation of our administrative success in India and among other achievements initiated Railway, Postal and Telegraph services and founded the Public Works Department.

In 1855 the Second Burmese War was conducted and the Line Thayetmyo-Toungoo was annexed.

Lord Dalhousie was succeeded by Lord Canning in 1856 and in the following year the great Sepoy Mutiny broke out. From Meerut in May 1857 the revolt quickly spread to Delhi, Lucknow and Cawnpore and the saving of British power in India was almost entirely due to fearless and prompt repressive
measures carried out by Sir John Lawrence assisted by such men as John Nicholson, Herbert Edwards and Neville Chamberlain.

The outstanding features of the Mutiny were the massacre and re-occupation of Cawnpore, the Siege and Relief of Lucknow and the Capture of Delhi.

Fighting continued in Oudh and the Central Provinces for eighteen months but was concluded successfully by Sir Colin Campbell and Sir Hugh Rose.

With the end of the Mutiny, the Act for the Better Government of India came into force, which transferred the entire administration from the East India Company to the Crown.

After re-organisation of the Army by Sir John Lawrence, India passed to a period of steady progress. The Russian menace on the North-West again led to a war with the Afghans in 1878, which included the capture of Kabul by Sir F. Roberts and his subsequent famous march from Kabul to Kandahar, which ended in the total rout of Ayub Khan’s army in 1880.

In 1885, as a result of the 3rd Burmese War, King Theebaw was deposed.

Under Lord Lansdowne’s rule the defences of the North-West Frontier were strengthened but in 1895 the British Agent in Chitral was besieged and an expedition was undertaken to rescue him. Two years later war again broke out against the tribesmen, this time in Tirah, where in 1898 General Sir William Lockhart finally compelled them to accept our terms.

During Lord Curzon’s second tenure of office as Viceroy, Bengal was divided into two Provinces, the second or eastern portion being known as Eastern Bengal and Assam. This partition led to great unrest and an outbreak of sedition during Lord Minto’s rule, which immediately followed. In 1911 the King and Queen visited India and held the Coronation Durbar in Delhi. At this ceremony the transfer of the capital to Delhi, the annulment of the partition of Bengal and other administrative changes were announced.

The outbreak of war in 1914 afforded India the opportunity of taking her place as a recognised unit of the British Empire. The loyalty, bravery, and endurance displayed by the Indian troops on Service, and the spontaneous and generous spirit of the Ruling Chiefs are now matters of common knowledge and fully indicate the manner in which this opportunity was taken advantage of.

Indian troops fought in France, Salonica, Palestine, East Africa, Persia and Iraq (Mesopotamia), materially contributing to the success of the allied arms.

In 1918 the Rowlett Act designed to deal with seditious crime, was passed. Resistance to this Act culminated in civil disturbance all over India, which could only be met by military interventions.

Exaggerated reports of these riots may be presumed to have had some influence on the Amir of Afghanistan when, in 1919, he attacked India but sued for a peace after a short campaign.

H. R. H. the Duke of Connaught, uncle of the King-Emperor, visited India during the winter 1920-21, and H. R. H. the Prince of Wales visited India during the winter of 1921-22.

In 1921 the Legislative Assembly and the Legislative Council were created, giving Indians a greater power and responsibility in the Government of the country.
THE essence of poverty is more than a chronic state of economic want. It is mental as well as physical. The poverty line must not be drawn merely at the minimum required for physical existence. There are other human wants which must be satisfied, other deprivations which must be supplied. The bulk of poverty is however due to social causes, and represents the neglect of society in dealing adequately with preventable sickness, avoidable accidents, insanitary housing, and especially the various forms of industrial distresses such as unemployment.

The philanthropy which relieves, must be seconded by the philanthropy which goes on to remedy and to right conditions. There must be a progressive raising of the standard of habit with the co-operation of economic and Municipal forces, a raising of the standard of living conditions, and of technical education, whereby people shall be qualified to meet the new demand of modern industry.

Society has eliminated slavery, and it will ultimately eliminate poverty. Not the poverty which arises from individual causes, for incapacity and misconduct will endure, but a resourceful people will see to it, that the poverty which is due to causes which are dominatingly social, will pass away.

Sir William Osler knew the joy of work and could inspire others with the love of it. If you have not known him, you can at any rate turn to his writings at any public library, and receive a world of inspiration in an hour of quiet reading. He speaks of work as "The Master Word," the great secret of life, the Open Sesame to every portal. He tells us "With the magic word in your heart all things are possible and without it all things are vanity and vexation. Not only has it been the touchstone of progress, but it is the measure of success in every day life. With it Vichow smote the rock, and the waters of progress rushed out, while in the hands of Pasteur it proved a very Talisman to open to us a new heaven in medicine, and a new earth in surgery." If opportunity then beckons us toward this "Master Word" let us consider it as his choicest invitation, and we his favoured ones.