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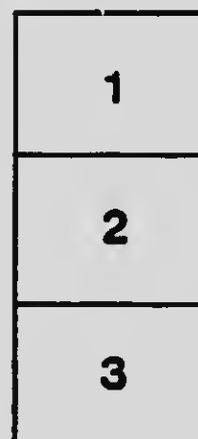
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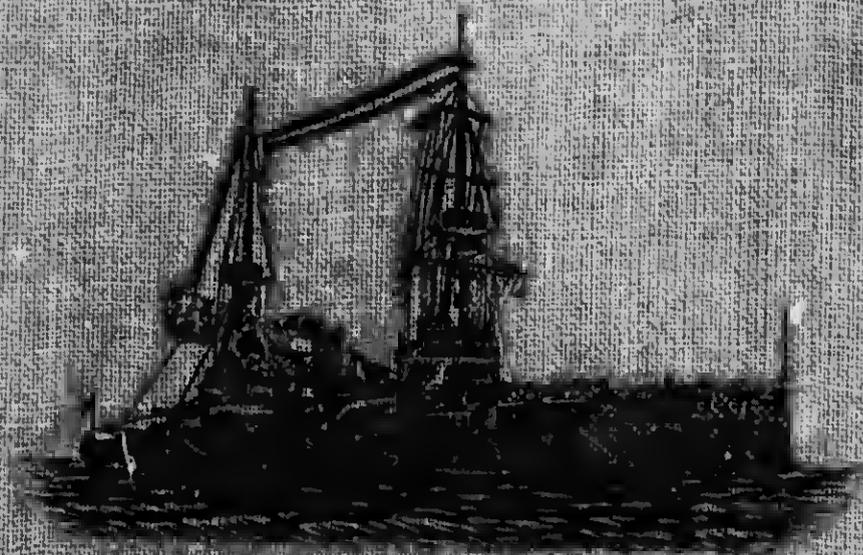
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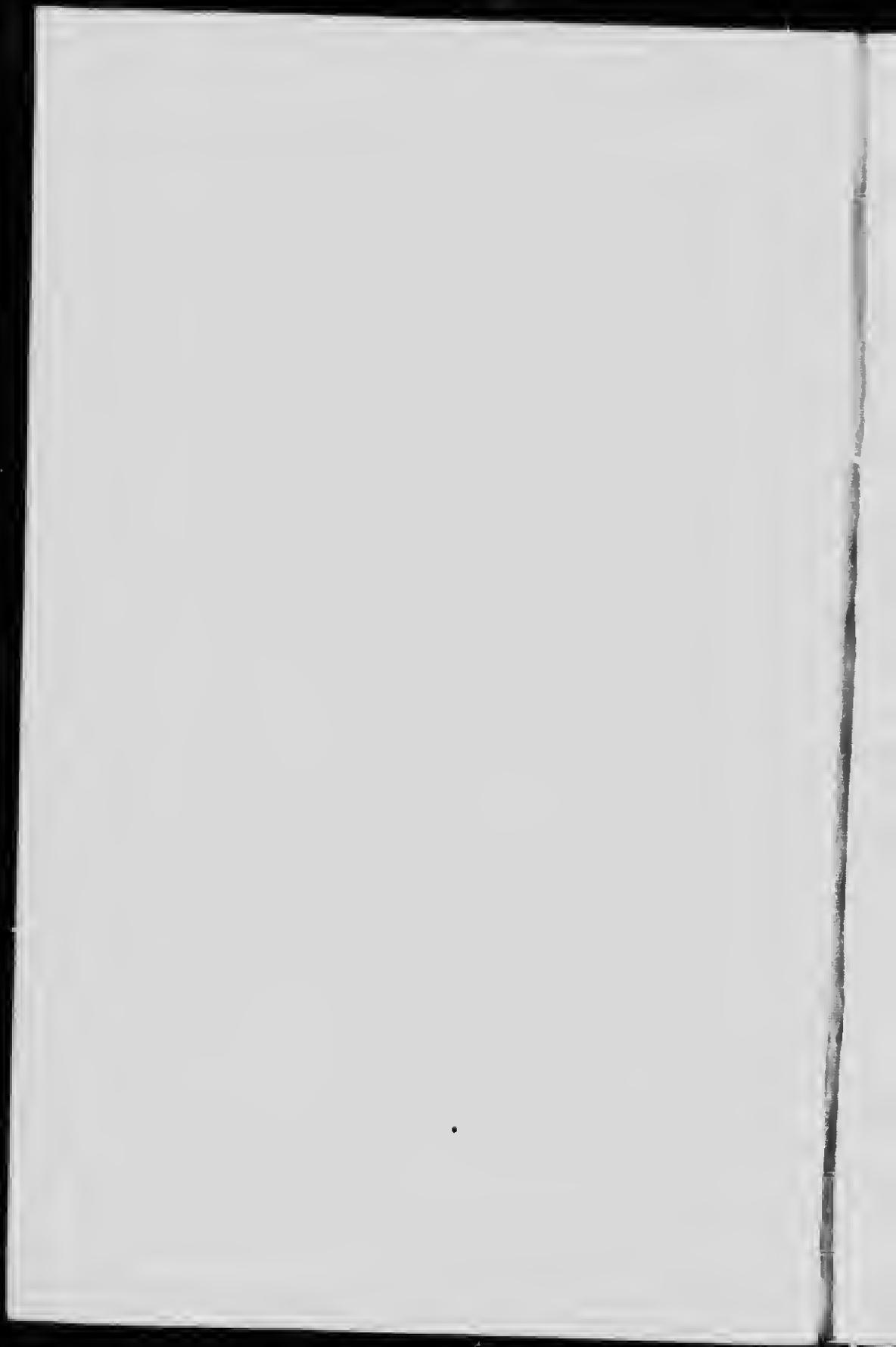
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THE NAVY
ITS PLACE IN
BRITISH HISTORY



ARNOLD WHITE

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THE NAVY

ITS PLACE IN BRITISH HISTORY

BY

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PREFACE

I wish to express to the Private Secretary of the First Lord of the Admiralty, Rear-Admiral E. C. T. Troubridge, C.M.G., M.V.O., my gratitude for the trouble he has taken in reading the proof-sheets of a work intended primarily for use as a school-reader. I also wish to place on record my sense of obligation to the Right Honourable Reginald McKenna, M.P., for his good offices in consenting to my request that the book should be subjected to Admiralty examination and criticism before issue to the public, in order to prevent the dissemination of errors on technical questions relating to naval affairs.

A. W.

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Kirks, Coors

H.M. THE KING IN UNDRRESS ADMIRAL'S UNIFORM
AND H.R.H. THE PRINCE OF WALES IN CADET'S UNIFORM

INTRODUCTION

ISLANDERS differ from people who live a long way from the sea. The British, being an island nation, find in the sea their defence, and on the sea an open road to all parts of the earth. The sea is all one. To the sailors of Britain we owe the fact that we are a nation. By our seamen and by our navy we have been saved from foreign war on our own soil for nearly a thousand years. The Kings of England, statesmen, merchants, men of science, lawyers, reformers, schoolmen and soldiers have done great things in building up Britain, but none of them have done for the nation what the seamen have done. The sea has always been calling to the land, but landsmen are busy with their pleasures and work, and seldom heed the call of the sea.

Men, women and children who live in homes that are inland never see a ship; rarely a sailor. They take for granted their safety, though most of their food comes to them from over the sea. Only command of the sea and the skill and courage of those who go down to the sea in ships stand between Britain and starvation.

Never in the world was any State quite like the British Empire. That a foggy island in the North Atlantic, where neither grapes nor olives will ripen, should have gained the control of nearly all the vacant places on earth with a cool climate, and also of three hundred and sixteen millions of people in India, is a miracle.

Britain holds the five points on the earth's surface which dominate the face of the waters. The Straits of Dover, of Gibraltar, of Babel-Mandeb, of Singapore, with Table Bay in South Africa—these are the nerve centres of World Power. The ownership of Jamaica and Trinidad insure the rights of Britain when the Panama Canal is cut. These advantages came to Britain, not from Government plans or forecast of statesmen, but from British seamen and explorers who listened to the call of the sea.

We do not know the name of the first man who hollowed out a log and set it afloat, any more than we know who lit the first fire, who made the first wheel, who invented bedsteads, or who ate the first oyster. But the man who first floated on the salt sea in a boat dug out of a tree trunk was the man who made the British Empire possible. Even to this day the dependence of Britain upon the sea is expressed in the Articles of War which contain

the following Declaration carried by all our warships:—

“It is upon the Navy that under the good Providence of God, the wealth, prosperity and the peace of these Islands and of the Empire do mainly depend.”

Since the first mariner risked his life in a canoe, and travelled coastwise for his pleasure or business, Britain has acquired half the sea-borne traffic of the world. She relies on her navy to fill the grocers' shops, to bring flour and corn to our great cities, and to keep any possible enemy at a distance. So successfully has the British Navy done its work, that many generations of Englishmen have grown up without hearing the sound of a gun fired in anger. Every other nation in Europe has heard the tramp of foreign soldiery in the lifetime of men still living, and felt the pain and shame of invasion.

Five times in the history of England the British Navy has stood between a would-be master of Europe and the attainment of his ambition. Charlemagne, Charles V, Philip II of Spain, Louis XIV of France, and Napoleon—all aspired to universal dominion. Each

of these sovereigns in turn was checked in his soaring plans by British Sea Power. For this reason war between Britain and foreign Powers has always been war on foreign soil. Other nations when invaded must fight on their own soil. The British soldier is conveyed to battle on the back of a British sailor. The inconvenience and suffering of war at home have thus been saved or confined to the payment of taxes. Behind the protection of the navy, generations have grown up ignorant of war. For that reason many good people believe that kind words and courtesy to foreigners are much cheaper than, and just as useful as, a strong and efficient navy.

History books describe the doings of landsmen in great detail. Soldiers receive close attention from historians. The lives of the Kings and Queens of England, of great statesmen, reformers, churchmen, inventors, writers, poets and wealth-makers, have been chronicled without stint, but the nature and growth of the British Navy are but sparsely described and rarely explained. With one exception great historians have always been landsmen, and like other landsmen they have not heard the call of the sea. My object is to tell in simple words the story of the British Navy.

Summary.—Islanders differ from nations surrounded by other nations. The sea is an island nation's first line of defence, and also its means of communication with other nations. Food and other necessaries of life for Islanders come from over the sea. Hence, understanding the use of the sea alone insures safety for the British Islands and Empire. The beginning of Sea Power. The dependence of Britain on the sea is solemnly recognized in the Articles of War carried by our warships. Safety for Islanders is obtained by keeping the enemy at a distance: not by waiting for the enemy to land. In the last thousand years the Fleet has five times prevented the downfall of England, and helped to preserve the liberty of Europeans. But since history has mainly been written by landmen it is silent on the subject of Sea Power. Every British subject should know what Sea Power really means.

CHAPTER I

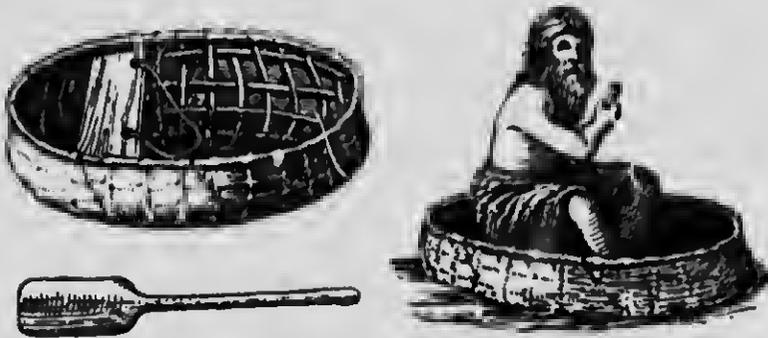
IN THE OLDEN TIMES

A LONG time ago Britain was covered with forests. Marsh lands and lakes were commoner than they are now. Meat was hard to get, and poor folk seldom tasted beef or mutton. In this climate grain is not enough to keep hard-working people in health and strength. Where meat cannot be procured, fish is a good change. Though an island of no great size, Britain has a wonderful coast line of some five thousand five hundred miles. The seas that wash our cliffs and shingle teem with fish. From the earliest times the inhabitants of Britain won a rich harvest from the sea, and were renowned for skill in the use of paddle and of sail.

Fishermen have played a great part in English history, and were always a most important part of the population. To this day when foreign meat has ousted fish from our diet to a great extent, the hardy English fishermen are much liked by the rest of the people. The daring and valour of the early English fisher-

men were noted by friend and foe. They were described as "wolves of the sea." Fierce fighters, with the sea as their school and the storm as their teacher, fishermen were always the backbone of our early navy.

In the Anglo-Saxon period the brave fishermen had already won for the King of England the sovereignty of the Narrow Seas. Every

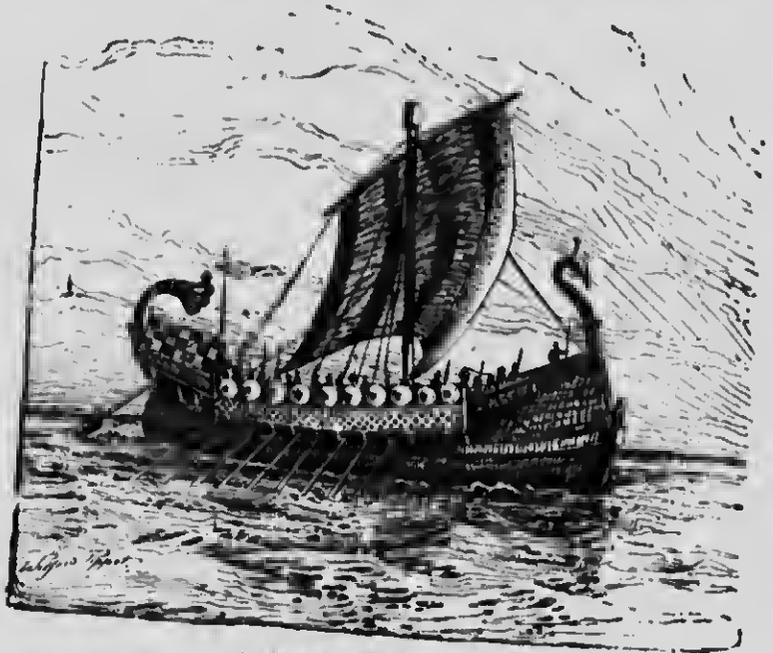


ANCIENT BRITISH CORACLE, THE ANCESTOR OF THE SUPER-DREADNOUGHT, H.M.S. "NEPTUNE"

one knows the story of Cnut seated in pomp on the seashore. He vainly commanded the rising tide to stay its course. "Thou, oh sea," said the great King, "art under my dominion like the land on which I sit; nor is there any one who dares resist my commands. I therefore enjoin thee not to come up on my land, nor to wet the feet or garments of thy Lord." So runs the story, but perhaps Cnut really wished to teach his courtiers a lesson

in modesty, for he must have known that the sea is not the servant of any king.

We do not know with certainty what the earliest British ships were like. But we learn from Julius Cæsar that in his time the in-



A PHŒNICIAN WARSHIP

habitants of Britain made use of light skiffs or canoes made of basket-work covered with the skins of beasts. To this day Irish fishermen on the coasts of Mayo and of Galway put to sea in boats very little different from the coracles or skiffs of our forefathers. Masts and sails had yet to come, but the paddle, if not the oar,

as a means of propulsion was certainly known when Cæsar landed.

British fishermen greatly improved their boats after watching the vessels of foreign visitors from the Mediterranean, or the raiders from Gaul who came as invaders. When the English learned to work in iron they built larger vessels with flat bottoms to adapt them to the shallows, that they might take the ground on the smooth sand without heeling over with the ebbing of the tide. The bow or front part of the early British craft was made of oak.

The rowers toiled on benches fastened with iron bolts. When sails were needed skins were tacked together to serve as sails. Canvas and sail-cloth were unknown in those days.

Summary.—Fishermen began the Navy, for they were the first sailors. The fishermen of Britain won the sovereignty of the Narrow Seas for England. This is illustrated by the familiar story of Cnut and his courtiers. The earliest canoes used by fishermen were made of basket-work. The fishing-boats were gradually improved by copying foreign ships from Gaul and from the Mediterranean.

CHAPTER II

THE LESSON OF THE SEA

THE early British learned a great deal about sea power from the Romans. When Julius Cæsar was engaged in the Conquest of Gaul his most troublesome opponents were the Veneti, a people living on the coast of Gaul where the river Loire joins the Atlantic. The Veneti were first-class fighting men because they were hardened by experience on the sea. The Veneti and the early British became allies. Two hundred and twenty sail were sent from this country to the Loire, and for the first time Britain and Rome met in battle.

Cæsar's fleet was too strong for the British, whose fighting ships were destroyed by the Romans. Not only did the Britons lose their fleet, but the help they had tried to give to his enemies, the Veneti, reminded Cæsar of the existence of the Island of Britain at a distance of only twenty-three miles from the coast of Gaul. In due time Cæsar's fleet appeared off the white cliffs of what is now called Kent,

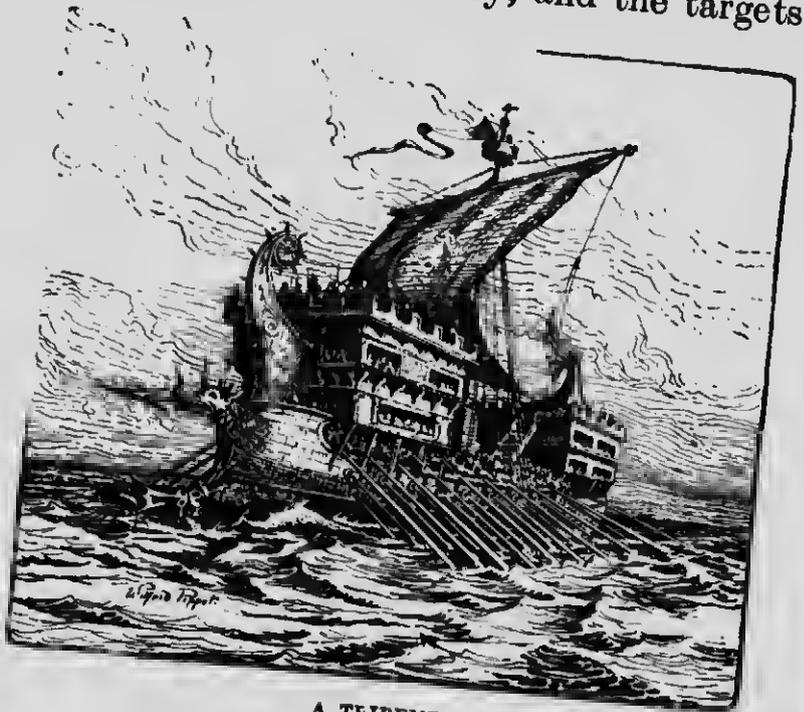
and with the seasoned fighting men he had on board it was not long before the famous Tenth Legion planted the eagles of Rome on the shores of Britain.

The patriotism, courage and sacrifices of the Britons were of no avail. Though Cæsar's ships were closely packed with troops, and therefore at the mercy of a resolute naval attack, the British were powerless to prevent a landing. Their fleet lay at the bottom of the sea at the mouth of the Loire. The Britons, therefore, had vainly sought to gain time by dispatching an Embassy to express the friendly feelings they felt for the Romans. Cæsar nevertheless was in no need of British friendship, and he invaded and annexed Britain without delay.

In 54 B.C. Cæsar invaded Britain for the second time with a fleet of about eight hundred ships. He landed without opposition, attacked and defeated the enemy, and arranged for the payment by the British chiefs of a yearly tribute to Rome. Under Roman rule the naval power of the conqueror steadily increased in order to protect the conquered colony against raids made on the East Coast by pirates from Germany.

The Roman people had had vast experience in the meaning of Sea Power owing to the

prolonged struggle between Rome and the Carthaginians. Rome was situated in the middle of the Mediterranean, and the Romans were therefore threatened on every side. They were the objects of jealousy, and the targets of



A TRIREME

attack, from the North, from the South, from the East, and from the West. The consequence was that the Roman people lived their lives under a constant sense of jeopardy. When people are in jeopardy they are alert and take steps to protect themselves against the attack they dread. Since the Romans were in greater

peril from foreign attack than any other nation in the Mediterranean, they took more pains to prepare their defences than did any of their neighbours. Carthage, for instance, was only in danger from the North, and being a very rich nation, with plenty of ships, the Carthaginians despised their Roman opponents, who had a brave and strong army but no navy.

The Romans soon learned that if Carthage was to be destroyed they also must provide themselves with a strong navy. They built a galley copied from a Carthaginian trireme, and taught landsmen to row in the model they had erected on shore. When the Carthaginians heard that the Roman soldiers were learning to row on dry land they laughed and despised their foe the more. They did not laugh long, because in due time the Roman fleet became so efficient that the Carthaginian fleet was destroyed, and in spite of the great generals, Hannibal and Hamilcar, Carthage was wiped off the face of the earth.

Visitors to Tunis may ride out to the promontory where Carthage stood, as I have ridden, and may see the remains of vast underground caves where the grain brought over the sea for the food of Carthage was once stored. Not a vestige remains of the great Mediterranean

Power that was destroyed because its rulers and people forgot the message which the sea is always calling to the land. Naval strength was neglected and reliance was placed on wealth and learning, on the army and diplomacy, when no wealth, no learning, no troops, and no ambassadors were of any avail in the absence of a strong fleet.

Possibly the Romans planted in Britain the tradition of the defeat of Carthage, but to this day there is no better lesson to an island nation than the fall of Carthage—a Power that once disputed the Empire of the world with the People and Senate of Rome.

When Carthage was taken and burned by order of the Roman Senate in July 146 B.C., rich, weak nations learned that undefended wealth is ever at the mercy of Sea Power.

Summary.—The early British learnt much about Sea Power from the Romans. They helped the Veneti against Cæsar in Gaul, but their fleet was destroyed by Cæsar. When the British fleet was sunk Cæsar despised the proffered friendship of the Britons. Cæsar landed in England without opposition because the British had no fleet to prevent him. The lesson learnt by the British is further illustrated by the Sea war between Rome and Carthage. This lesson may be summed up by saying that rich nations without navies, no matter how great their armies may be, are at the mercy of Sea Power in the hands of strong nations.

CHAPTER III

THE SEA POWER OF THE SAXONS

WHEN the Romans withdrew from England in consequence of trouble at home, freebooters from the North invaded British territory. The Picts who lived in Scotland had never been subdued by the Romans, and the Scots in like manner were independent and masterful. After the Roman abandonment of Britain the Picts and Scots utilized to the utmost their Sea Power, and, like Cæsar on the coast of Kent some centuries earlier, landed an army carried by sea, in the rear of the British defence, and thus took the heart out of their opponents.

Other raiders from Holstein and Schleswig were busy pillaging the coasts of Britain. The pirates who came from Holstein were Saxons; those from Schleswig were Angles. To this day in Holstein and Schleswig an Englishman will find many things to remind him of his own country. In no part of the world are hedges an ordinary feature of rural districts except in England and Schleswig-Holstein.

The Anglo-Saxon ships were much bigger than anything hitherto seen on the British coast. Some of them could carry as much as fifty tons. They were propelled by a single sail. There was no rudder, but the helmsman sat in the stern holding on his right hand (or steerboard) side a paddle with which he guided the ship. To this day the right-hand side of a ship is called the starboard side, because in old days vessels were steered from that side.

The Picts and Scots became so troublesome by the deft use of their Sea Power, that, in order to repel them, the British foolishly secured outside aid. In the year 449, Hengest and Horsa, two adventurers from Jutland, joined forces with the British, and fought against the Picts and Scots, just as the British, centuries before, had helped the Veneti against the Romans. Hengest and Horsa were repaid for their services to the Britons and their king, whose name was Vortigern, by a gift of the Island of Thanet. They were not satisfied with their pay and fell out with their employers. Although Hengest and Horsa arrived in England with only three ships, the expedition had important consequences.

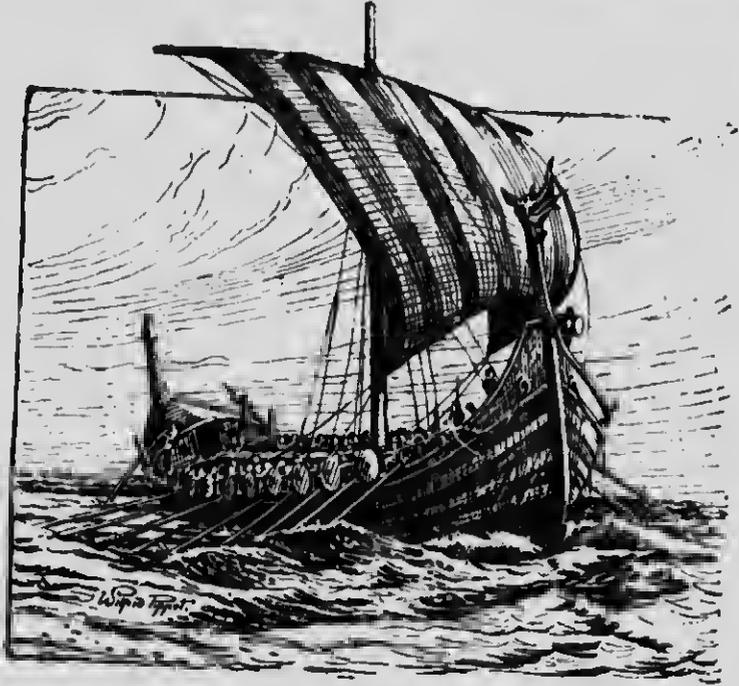
By employing the services of Hengest and Horsa the Britons hoped to gain the friendship

of the Anglo-Saxons. But this was a weak policy which only served to whet the appetites of the hungry raiders, and they came over in increased numbers to obtain booty in undefended Britain. The sturdy and determined barbarians from Germany covered nearly all Britain with Saxon states. The Heptarchy was thus founded by Sea Power. The various states fought with each other for the leadership, but nothing was finally settled between them and their enemies, within and without, until King Offa grasped the meaning of Sea Power and built a considerable navy, which is the direct ancestor of the Great Fleet of King George V and his people.

Offa alone of all the early English kings was strong enough to be respected outside his own country. A powerful fleet enabled him to hold his own with the Emperor Charlemagne, who turned covetous eyes on England. Had Offa's successors been prudent kings, England might have been safe for many years, but Merrie England was attacked by the Danes, who plundered part of Northumberland. Descendants of these Danes still live in the villages north of the Tyne.

Danish plunder-visits were repeated almost every year. In 833 thirty-five Danish vessels

descended upon the men-at-arms of King Egbert. Sometimes the Danes were defeated, and sometimes they were victorious. But the history of England at that time was a series of



A VIKING SHIP

invasions by foreigners who could not be resisted because the Saxon fleet was not strong enough to resist them. The Saxons also made the mistake of waiting for the enemy and trying to guard their coasts, instead of seeking the enemy at sea, and when he was found, attacking him until he was defeated. Twenty

years ago, under Queen Victoria, English statesmen made exactly the same mistake as was made by Ethelwulf and Ethelbald—*i. e.* by accepting a policy of passive defence as sufficient to insure the country against attack by sea.

The reign of Alfred the Great ushered in a new and better system. Alfred's reign opened with defeat by the Danes, but the bitter lesson of disaster taught him the secret of Sea Power, and he listened to the Call of the Sea. With great vigour he devoted himself to the making of a fleet, and in 875 defeated a Danish squadron of seven ships. One was captured, the other six were driven away. Alfred's success was followed up by a victory over four Danish ships which surrendered after a hard fight. In 885 sixteen Danish pirates were captured, and the effect of ten years' hard work in the making of Sea Power gave to Alfred and his people leisure for improvement in the arts of peace.

Tranquillity reigned for a short time, and Alfred was again compelled to join battle with the Danes. He won no decisive victory over a great fleet, but he was probably the first Englishman to understand that the only way to defend a country is to attack the enemy before he begins his own attack. That is the secret of successful sea-fighting.

Alfred the Great lived a long time ago, but his fame was won by acting on the same principles that the British Admiralty is acting upon to-day, *i. e.* that the ships and the coasts of the enemy are the frontiers of Britain.

I have no space to describe the many occasions in which the Danes ravaged England with troops carried in their Viking ships. Sometimes the Danish invaders were bribed to retire, but they returned again and again, and defeated the local forces, compelling the Saxons to pay further humiliating bribes to be let alone. So weary of the Danish invaders did the Saxons become that King Ethelred made a plan to get rid of the bloodsuckers by killing all the Danes residing in England. The massacre occurred in the year 1002, but the crime had no permanent result, and Ethelred later on had to abandon his country.

Until the Normans arrived in England under William the Conqueror, in 1066, Sea Power continued to play a great part in Saxon history. The annals of the time are full of the story of foreign attack by pirates as well as by other states. Sometimes the Saxon fleet was well cared for; sometimes it was neglected. When the Saxons maintained their strength at sea the foreigners fared badly. When the English fleet

was neglected and weak the pirates and invaders seized much Saxon booty. Sometimes the spoils were taken to Flanders and sold there, as when the town of Sandwich was attacked by the pirates Lothing and Yrling with twenty-five ships, and a large amount of booty carried away.

The Saxons were also attacked by fleets from Ireland and from Wales. Three years before the Norman invasion the Welsh fleet was destroyed by Harold. A picture of one of Harold's ships is represented on the Bayeux tapestry.

Harold was surrounded by foes on every side. His brother Tostig appeared with a fleet off the Isle of Wight and then with sixty ships went to the Humber, where he was joined by Harold Hardrada of Norway. After a hard fight Harold defeated his brother and his Norwegian ally. Harold was wounded, but Hardrada and Tostig were killed. Most of the trouble that fell upon the Saxons from foreign invasion was simply due to the fact that after settling in England they lost much of their old skill in seamanship.

Offa, king of Mercia and Alfred the Great were two vigorous supporters of a strong navy. That is the reason why their names have come down to us covered with honour. It should

be remembered that in those days a pirate was not thought to be a criminal. The term carried no reproach with it, as the most religious people at that time did not think that robbing the stranger was a wicked act.

The German and Danish pirates taught the fishermen of England good seamanship. They were great drinkers and were brutal in manner, but they were cheery souls, renowned for high spirits. They were fond of singing, and from that day until the reign of Queen Victoria the British seaman was fond of drink and of a good song. The British seaman to-day is a temperate and self-respecting man, and he sings better than ever.

Summary.—Invasion of England by freebooters. Hengist and Horsa, adventurers from Jutland, invited by the British to help them against these sea rovers. The assistants of the British in course of time become the masters. The Heptarchy was thus founded by Sea Power. King Offa of Mercia the first early English king to grasp the meaning of Sea Power. The mistake of the Saxons in waiting for the enemy instead of going forth to meet him at sea, and, when found, attacking him. Alfred the Great understood Sea Power, defeated the Danes, and thus gave his people leisure, peace and wealth. Alfred's plan the same as that of the British Admiralty to-day. Saxon power fell through neglect of Sea Power. Harold's victory over his brother on land not followed up by preparation for Sea war with the Normans.

CHAPTER IV

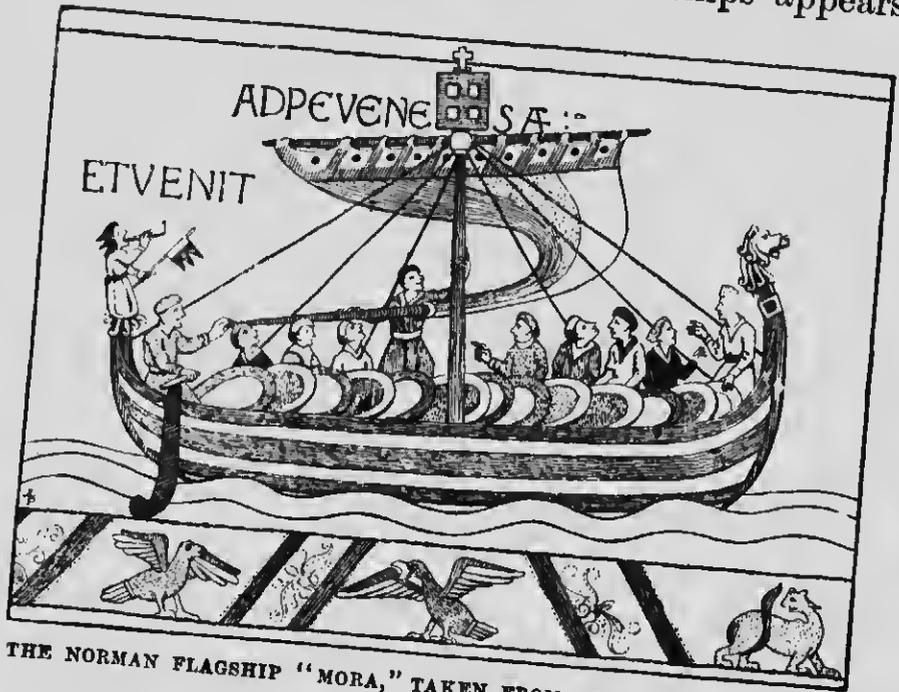
THE NORMAN SEA POWER

At the time when William the Conqueror resolved to come to England with a great fleet, King Harold had neglected his own navy. The command of the English Channel therefore belonged to William. Harold had been wounded a few weeks before the landing of the Normans, which perhaps explains why he did not do more to assemble his warships. Harold knew that William desired the Throne of England, because years before he had been taken prisoner in France, and was only released in exchange for a sworn promise that he would support William's claim to the kingdom of Edward the Confessor.

William knew what he wanted and knew how to get it. He carried with him in his ships a large number of French knights whose names are written on the walls of the little church at Dives in the Department of Calvados on the coast of Normandy. The knights who accompanied William were brave, clever, and hungry for money and land. They understood the art

of war better than the Saxons, and being hot-headed, free-living men, and fond of adventure, they supported William in his great invasion of England.

A picture of one of William's ships appears



THE NORMAN FLAGSHIP "MORA," TAKEN FROM THE BAYEUX TAPESTRY

on the Bayeux tapestry, but as the work was done by women who perhaps never set eyes on a fleet, it is not certain that the picture of the Norman flagship *Mora* is an accurate drawing.

According to the tapestry the *Mora* had a single mast with a gold cross, and a single sail

with stripes of red and yellow. The ships were steered by a curious kind of rudder, and the hulls were painted in stripes of blue, yellow and red. The Norman ships were large enough to carry horses, which are represented as jumping over the sides of the ships into the sea and then swimming ashore.

William the Conqueror had no more trouble in making a landing on the coast of England than had Julius Cæsar or any other of the foreign invaders who harried and perplexed the inhabitants of Britain for a thousand years before the coming of the Normans.

It should not be forgotten that the invading Danes, Norwegians, Saxons and Normans were the finest and hardiest seamen in the world. They made England a great country mainly by skill in maritime pursuits.

Summary.—William the Conqueror came to England and landed because he had command of the Channel. The names of the knights in the church at Dives. Their character. William's flagship the *Mora*. After William's conquest the inhabitants of Britain were the most experienced seamen in the world.

CHAPTER V

THE BEGINNINGS OF DISCOVERY

EXCEPTING the regions round the two poles no part of the world is unknown to-day. From early times men have devoted their lives to travel and exploration. Little by little the whole world has been brought within man's knowledge.

The surface of the earth is so uneven that, excluding the desert and a few flat places, it is difficult for a loaded man, horse, ox, or camel to travel except on a prepared road. The surface of the water, however, makes transport over it both easy and cheap. Land transport is twenty times as costly as sea transport. For this reason the great civilizations began and continue in regions where water transport is easy and near at hand. Water transport in river valleys developed the earliest civilization. The settlement of the shores round the great inland sea, the Mediterranean, was the next step. Then came the struggle with the open Atlantic, and the discovery that the sea is all one.

Some of the earliest of the explorers were Phœnicians, who dwelt in Tyre and Sidon. The Phœnicians were keen and resolute traders in those times, and, to push their trade they sailed from the Mediterranean to the west coast of Africa and to Portugal, establishing colonies in various parts of Africa and Europe. Carthage, of which we have read in Chapter II, was their most famous colony. The Phœnicians knew that, to use our modern phrase, "trade follows the flag."

The Greeks succeeded the Phœnicians. Alexander the Great, bent on conquest, led his armies through Asia into India. Although Alexander was a warrior and not a peaceful trader, great results followed his expeditions, and Europe obtained first-hand knowledge of the mysterious East.

When in due time Greece in her turn gave way to Rome, the tide of conquest rolled in another direction. Europe was the centre of operations, and the greater part of it was welded into one vast empire. On the break-up of the Roman Empire, the peoples of Europe were too busy fighting amongst themselves to pay much heed to exploration. But we read of long voyages and journeys made by the Scandinavian Vikings, and by the Saracens who dwelt in Syria.

The next great impetus came from the Italian Republics, which, in the Middle Ages, occupied the same position as world traders as did the Phœnicians in their day. In 1265 Marco Polo journeyed from Venice to the court of Kublai Khan and spent seventeen years in the service of that ruler. It is said that the statue of a European in the hall of the Soo Genii at Peking is intended to portray Marco Polo. Captured by the Genoese on his return, he devoted his time during the term of his imprisonment to preparing an account of his experiences. This account is the most valuable record of travel that has come down to us from those days.

The greatest impetus of all, however, came from Portugal. Prince Henry, surnamed the Navigator, the fifth son of John I of Portugal, born at Oporto in 1394, spent the greater part of his life in geographical studies and promoting exploration. He despatched expedition after expedition in an endeavour to discover the sea-route to India round the African coast. The Ottoman Turks who occupied Syria and Asia Minor had grown so powerful that they effectively blocked the land route to India. Great success attended Prince Henry's efforts, but it was not until he was dead, and King John II was on the throne, that Bartholomew Diaz in 1487 rounded



PRINCE HENRY THE NAVIGATOR. HIS MOTTO, "TALENT DE BIEN FAIRE"
—DESIRE TO DO WELL—APPEARS BENEATH THE PORTRAIT

the Southern Point of Africa. He called the promontory "Cabo Tormentoso" because of the storms he met with there, but John II, who saw in this success the realization of the Portuguese dream, re-named it the "Cape of Good Hope." This Cape is remarkable for heavy storms and enormous waves. When the wind blows from the south—a wind that is now called a "Southerly Buster"—it tosses and buffets big ocean liners like chips of wood in a mill-race.

The greatest of Portuguese navigators was Vasco da Gama. He was born on the sea coast about 1460. As a boy he must have heard rumours of the riches and beauty that lay beyond the horizon line where sea and sky met. King Manoel the Fortunate entrusted Da Gama with the command of a small fleet of four vessels. Only one hundred and sixty officers and men were required to navigate this little squadron. It left Lisbon in the middle of the summer of 1497, and was at once harassed by heavy gales. The voyage from Lisbon to St. Helena Bay consumed four months. A ship of moderate speed to-day would take about one-tenth of the time.

Vasco da Gama's troubles included mutinies on board, which were suppressed with firmness. Finally he reached India and effected his purpose



VASCO DA GAMA

of establishing communications with the East Indies. Da Gama's firmness and courage made Portugal a World Power, but he gave his life for his work, for he was stricken by death at Cochin in December 1524. In the annals of modern civilization Da Gama's repute as a discoverer stands second only in importance to that of Columbus.

The Portuguese understood the meaning of Sea Power, and their discoveries revolutionized commerce. From the day that Da Gama reached India the trade of the Italian Republics was doomed, for the merchandise of the East, instead of being carried overland, began to be carried by sea.

Five years before Da Gama sailed on his voyage to India, Christopher Columbus, who is also known by his Spanish name, Cristobal Colón, had attempted the same journey. He was born at Genoa in 1435, and went to sea at fourteen years of age. He was a fighting man full of enterprise and daring, and as early as 1474 conceived the great idea of reaching India by sailing westward.

He attempted to raise the money for his expedition from many sources. He applied to Genoa, to King Henry VII of England, to King John II of Portugal, but in vain. A few

Spanish grandees, amongst them Medina Sidonia, the ancestor of the Admiral who a century later commanded the Spanish Armada against



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

(The only portrait which has claims to be considered genuine)

England, referred Columbus to their Catholic Majesties Ferdinand and Isabella. After many ups and downs between hope and despair, Columbus obtained the funds necessary for his

purpose, partly from enlightened Jewish financiers who lived in Spain.

When the little company of rich men, with royal consent, supplied the cash, Columbus set sail in a tiny ship, the *Santa Maria*, with fifty men, attended by two little caravels, the *Pinta* and the *Niña*. The officers and men of the little squadron numbered only one hundred and twenty souls. Columbus, however, shaping his course to the west, instead of reaching India as he thought he would, sighted one of the Bahama Islands. Afterwards he visited Cuba and Hayti. Columbus found, as many have found since, that nothing succeeds like success. The intrepid voyager brought back with him six natives from the West India Islands; also gold, tropical plants, birds and animals. He was made an admiral and a grandee of Spain. Money was found to fit out a larger expedition under his command.

His second venture was not very successful; but his third voyage westward resulted in the discovery of the South American mainland. His career thenceforward was full of sorrow. His companions quarrelled with him. Spanish jealousy of the Genoese foreigner thwarted him at sea and on land, and his later voyages were clouded by illness and distress of body and mind. He died in 1506, and was buried in Seville.

His remains are said to have been transferred to Havana. Columbus was not endowed with the iron will and resolute purpose of Da Gama. He was irritable and impulsive—no great manager of men, but benevolent and gentle.

His name was not given to the Continent he had discovered, though poets idealize the American portion of the continent by the name of Columbia.

The discoveries of the fifteenth century were made possible by the mariner's compass, probably discovered by the Chinese, and introduced into Europe about the thirteenth century. The compass enabled seamen, who before its use had been obliged to hug the coast, to push boldly out into the ocean.

Summary.—With few exceptions no part of the world is unknown to-day. The difficulty of transport by land and the ease with which transport can be effected by water accounts first for the rise of civilization on the great rivers and then on the shores of the Mediterranean. Some of the earliest explorers were the Phoenicians. They founded Carthage and other Mediterranean cities in order to extend their trade. Alexander the Great brought knowledge of eastern lands through his conquests. The Romans also extended man's geographical knowledge through conquest. After the Romans came the Vikings and the Saracens, who made long voyages. The Italian Republics carried on the work of exploration in the Middle Ages. Marco Polo, the great Venetian traveller. Afterwards Portugal, through the great work of Prince Henry the Navigator, led the way in exploration. Diaz and Da Gama and the discovery of the Cape route to India. Columbus and the discovery of the West Indies and the South American mainland. The work of discovery made possible by the use of the mariner's compass.

CHAPTER VI

THE BEGINNINGS OF ENGLISH DISCOVERY

HITHERTO England had not taken much interest in exploration. Stimulated by the example of Portugal and Spain, King Henry VII utilized the services of the Venetian pilot John Cabot, who with his son Sebastian had settled in Bristol in 1496. Henry granted Cabot a patent to seek unknown lands. In 1497 Cabot, with two ships, set sail from Bristol. His first discovery was Cape Breton Island and Nova Scotia. Thus, although Columbus was the first to reach American waters, John Cabot was the discoverer of the mainland of North America. His second son, Sebastian, will always be associated with his father's fame. The Cabots, like Columbus, suffered from jealousy, which frustrated many of their schemes.

Cabot made many voyages before he was offered by Henry VIII the command of an expedition. Whether the expedition ever left England is uncertain. We know that Sebastian Cabot went to Spain and in 1518 became



SEBASTIAN CABOT

the Pilot Major of the kingdom of Charles V, in whose service he examined the coast of Brazil and La Plata. He attempted, through colonization, to plant settlements in the newly discovered territory. His efforts did not succeed, and failure in those days was apt to bring serious consequences; at all events, Sebastian was sent to prison for a year. Later on in life Cabot returned to England once more, and from the boy King, Edward VI, received a pension and a palace.

An interesting record of John Cabot is preserved in the Chapter House at Westminster Abbey. In the private account book of King Henry VII is found the following entry: "10th August 1497, To him that found the New Isle ten pounds." The "New Isle" referred to was Cape Breton. On a map drawn by the elder Cabot after his return we read the following lines:

"In the year of our Lord 1497, John Cabot and his son Sebastian discovered that country which no one before his time had ventured to approach, on the 24th of June about 5 o'clock in the morning."

Sebastian Cabot kept alive the spirit of discovery in England. At his suggestion Sir Hugh Willoughby and Richard Challoner

attempted to discover the north-east passage to China. Willoughby and his crew perished, but Challoner reached the White Sea, journeyed overland to Moscow, and founded our trade with Russia.

Before the time of Diaz, Da Gama, Columbus and the Cabots, the only countries outside Europe of which anything was known were strips of the northern, eastern and western coasts of Africa and parts of Western Asia. The land farthest west, of which anything then was known, was Iceland. Travellers, merchants and warriors of earlier times had brought knowledge of India, China and Japan, but the knowledge of those countries had largely died out when Henry the Navigator started the great work of discovery. At that time the English as well as other nations supposed the earth was not a globe but simply a flat body surrounded by the ocean.

Summary.—The successes of the Portuguese and Spanish stimulated England to join in the work of exploration. King Henry VII utilized the services of John Cabot and his three sons, of whom Sebastian was the chief. J. Cabot discovered the mainland of North America. Sebastian Cabot, after service with the King of Spain, returned to England. He inspired the expedition of Sir Hugh Willoughby and Richard Challoner to discover the north-east passage to China. Willoughby perished, but Challoner reached the White Sea, journeyed overland to Moscow, and founded our trade with Russia. The limits of the known world before Prince Henry the Navigator began his great work.

CHAPTER VII

THE FOUNDER OF THE MODERN NAVY

THE founder of the modern navy was King Henry VIII, perhaps the most outstanding figure of English history. Fond of games and worldly wise, he was popular with the many and went by the name of "Bluff King Hal." He was fair, red-haired, masterful, crafty, courageous and matter of fact. Never was the character of an English sovereign less understood by his people. He was every inch a man, and showed it by his far-seeing and unconquerable will. Henry was gifted with enormous energy. He could ride all day and dance all night, but in spite of all these distractions he was a great business man, and understood the insular position of England and its relations to Continental affairs.

Under Henry VIII the navy was first organized as an established force. His knowledge of detail was marvellous. He took deep interest not only in ships and Sea Power but in the dress of his sailors. Henry once acted as pilot and wore a sailor's coat and trousers made of

cloth of gold, and a gold chain with the inscription "Dieu et mon droit," to which was suspended a whistle which he blew nearly as loud as a trumpet.

Henry VIII understood the meaning of the discoveries of Columbus, Da Gama and the Cabots. He saw in a widening world the opportunities for a greater trade. Under Henry the trade with Iceland greatly increased. A commercial treaty was concluded with Castille. Commerce with the Levant was encouraged, and the first British Consul was appointed to the Eastern Mediterranean by Henry. Bluff King Hal grasped the meaning and uses of the sea to English merchants, and he instructed his diplomatic agents to push trade by aiding their country's traders. The African trade began to increase; the trade with Newfoundland, our oldest Colony, was fostered and freed. English merchants trading on the Continent of Europe were protected by the King's orders. Their energies were encouraged and their interests advanced. To the spirit and foresight of Henry VIII we owe the golden era of Elizabeth.

Henry VIII fitted out fleet after fleet. He appointed a Lord High Admiral, Sir Edward Howard, and a fleet of twenty vessels to convoy an English army under the Marquis of

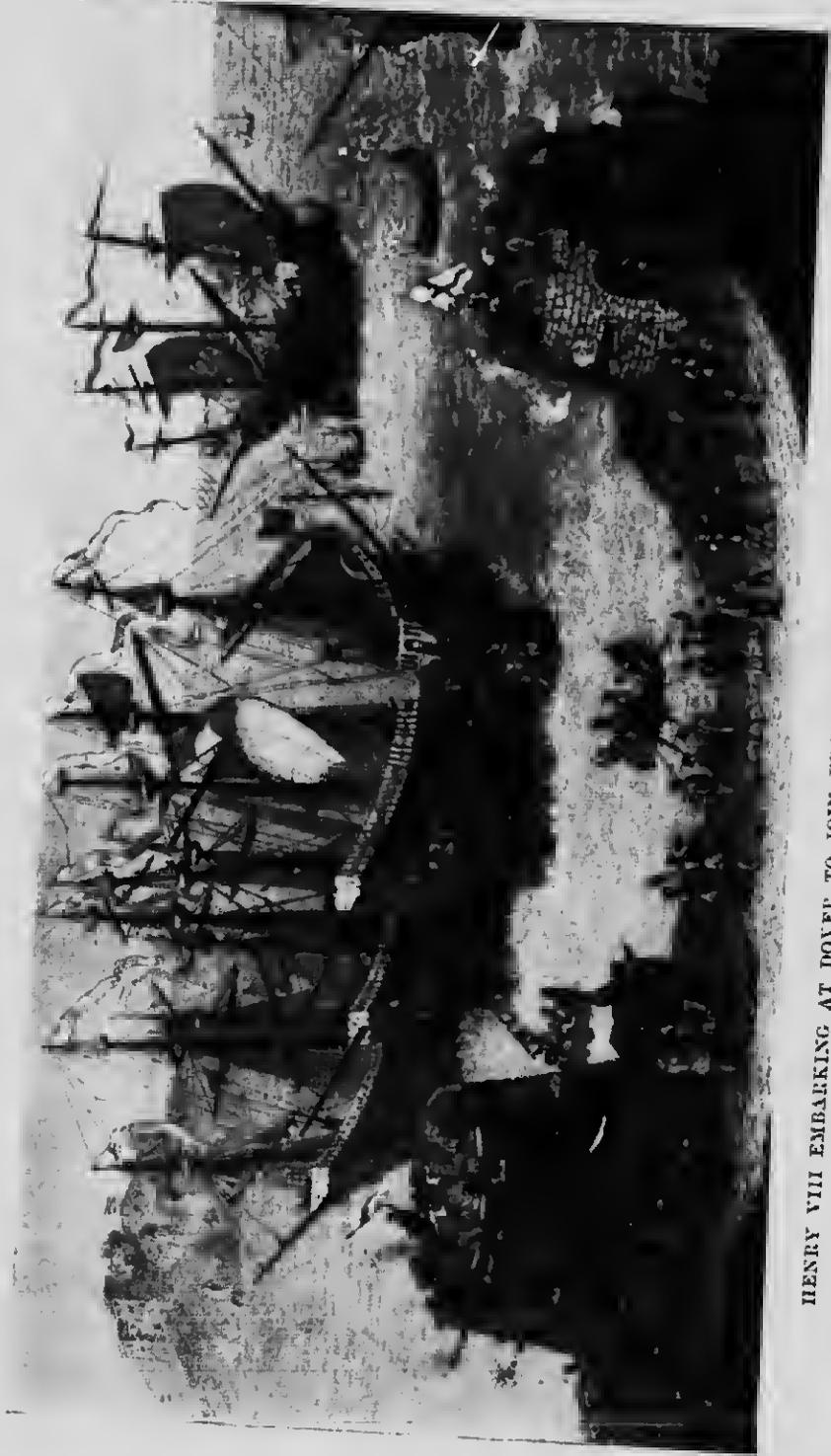
Dorsct to co-operate with King Ferdinand of Spain against Charles VIII, king of France. Discovering that Howard's command was not equal to the task of beating the French under the Admirals Thenouencl and Pregelent de Bidoulx, he collected twenty-five additional vessels at Portsmouth. King Henry reviewed them in person and dispatched them to the assistance of the English Admiral, Sir Edward Howard. Among these ships were the *Sovereign* and the *Regent*, the two best in the fleet. Heavy fighting took place, but the English fleet entered Le Goulet, the narrow mouth of the harbour of Brest, where nearly four hundred years later, in the reign of King Edward VII, a battle fleet entered the same narrow passage for the purpose of establishing friendship with France. The tide of success in Henry's naval enterprises ebbed and flowed. The quality of the Admirals counted as one of the most serious factors in war.

One chronicler says that it was the wish of the fleet that the King would send to command it an Admiral who, in addition to noble birth, should be wise and firm, a man who should make himself equally loved and feared. The French were fierce fighters and to beat them the English captains and seamen needed to be of the highest quality. The Lord High Admiral

was killed in the course of a fight with the French. The coasts of Sussex were raided by the enemy. The village standing where the great town of Brighton now stands, was burned. In revenge, the coast of Normandy was attacked, and twenty-one towns and villages were destroyed.

When peace was declared King Henry was escorted to Calais by a fleet under Admiral Sir William FitzWilliam to meet Francis I, successor of Charles VIII, on the Field of the Cloth of Gold. But the war soon began again, and England found herself confronted by the allied navies of France and Scotland. Portsmouth was attacked, and an action was fought at Spithead. In the course of the war English ships captured many enemy's ships laden with rich merchandise. It is related how the wine of France and the spoils of French fishermen were as drugs in the London market. The English tasted the rewards and the penalties of their insular position, and they learned the lesson, never since wholly forgotten, that on the Royal Navy, under the good providence of God, the safety of this kingdom doth chiefly depend.

Summary.—Henry VIII was the founder of the modern Navy. His character, abilities and insight. His love for the Navy and understanding of the Portuguese discoveries. His wars with the French, and his meeting with Francis I on the celebrated Field of the Cloth of Gold.



HENRY VIII EMBARKING AT DOVER TO JOIN FRANCIS I ON THE FIELD OF THE CLOTH OF GOLD

CHAPTER VIII

ELIZABETH

THE reign of Queen Elizabeth was famous for two things. First, for a wonderful development of English exploration: secondly, for the defeat of a great Spanish fleet sent by Philip II of Spain against England in 1588. In 1576 Martin Frobisher explored Greenland. He was followed in 1585 by John Davis, and some years later by Henry Hudson and William Baffin. These navigators endeavoured to find a north-west passage to China, just as, earlier, attempts had been made to find a north-east passage to that land. They were the pioneers of a noble band of Arctic explorers who have shed lustre upon England.

But the most famous navigator and warrior of all was Francis Drake. In 1577 he set sail in the *Golden Hind*, and rounded the island of Terra del Fuego, and passed up the west coast of South America. There he captured rich Spanish galleons. Refitting at what is now San Francisco, he sailed across the Pacific to

the Philippine Islands, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and anchored in Plymouth on September 26, 1580. He was thus the first Englishman to circumnavigate the globe. Queen Elizabeth knighted him for his services.

Drake was a thorn in the flesh to the Spaniards. He attacked and sacked Nombre de Dios and captured the Spanish galleons wherever he found them. Other freebooters were Sir John Hawkins and Sir Richard Grenville. This piratical activity was one of the reasons, albeit a minor reason, which goaded Philip II to fit out his great fleet.

The Spanish Armada was ready to sail in 1587, but Drake's vigorous attacks on the coast of Portugal and Spain, which he laughingly described as "singeing the King of Spain's beard," delayed the Spanish Admiral. The Invincible Armada, as it was called, was commanded by Don Alonso de Guzman, Duke of Medina Sidonia, and consisted of about 130 vessels manned by over 8,000 sailors, and 2,000 galley slaves. It carried 21,000 soldiers, and 2,500 guns. Enormous stores of food, gunpowder and shot, were placed on board, but the Spanish sailors, though brave, knew nothing of the Narrow Seas, as the waters round the British coasts are properly called. From the

outset the Armada met with misfortunes. The bad weather worked on the side of the English. A heavy gale in the Bay of Biscay scattered the Spanish fleet soon after leaving the mouth of the Tagus. One ship went down with all hands. Two more were seized by the galley slaves, who rose in mutiny and overpowered the soldiers.

Having left Lisbon at the end of May 1588, the Spanish fleet sighted the English fleet off the Lizard on the coast of Cornwall on the 20th of July. The Lord High Admiral commanding the English fleet was Lord Howard of Effingham. Thirty ships of the Royal Navy were under his command, and also a large number of volunteer ships. Howard of Effingham was nobly assisted by Drake, Hawkins, Frobisher, Winter, Raleigh and other seamen.

Sailing past Plymouth, the Armada slowly made its way up the Channel, with the English ships close upon its heels. From the first, the fight was one-sided. The handy English ships closed in and retreated as they liked, the unwieldy Spaniards being unable to turn quickly enough to meet their nimble foes upon equal terms. The English acted upon the principle of trusting to the quick hitting of the gun. A warship is but a floating gun-carriage, and the



THE "VANGUARD" (CAPTAIN WINTER) ATTACKING THE SPANISH ARMADA

quick conveyance of the gun to the scene of action, and its rapid discharge at weak spots on the enemy's ships, has been the central idea of British sea-fighting from the days of Drake to our own times.

At last, disheartened by the loss of some of their best ships, and by their failure to come to close quarters, the Spaniards anchored in Calais Roads. Here the Spanish commander expected to get news of the Prince of Parma, who was waiting with an army in Flanders. The Dutch, however, were closely blockading the river Scheldt, and Parma and his troops could not get out to join Medina Sidonia.

Considering the high hopes with which they had set out from Spain, this anchoring in Calais Roads must have knocked a good deal of the heart out of the Dons, though their losses in men and ships had not been great. But worse was to come. Suddenly from out the English lines they saw bearing down upon them eight fire-ships well alight. Panic set in, and the great fleet by which the Dons were to conquer England soon became a broken crowd of ships eager for home by way of the North Sea.

Then followed another fight off Gravclines, in which the English repeated their nimble methods of mosquito attack. Not much harm

was done, but the seamanship of the English, learned in rough and foggy waters, gave them great advantage over sailors who had learned their craft on sunny seas and in fine weather.

This last action dispersed any lingering doubts which some of the Dons may have had as to the wisdom of flight. For a short distance the panic-stricken Spaniards were followed by some of the best-equipped English ships, but as these, one by one, found their food, powder and shot give out, the pursuit gradually slackened, and the Dons were left to themselves and to the tender mercies of wind and wave.

Some people blame Queen Elizabeth for meanness in allowing her brave sailors to be half starved, and to drink foul water or small beer unfit for human beings. The English ships had put to sea in a hurry, and it is probable that the lack of supplies arose as much from want of knowledge as from want of thought. Nobody in England at that time had any experience in fitting out a large fleet. There was plenty of patriotism on shore, and strong feeling prevailed against the Spaniards, but courage and the love of country are useless on the day of battle unless knowledge, foresight and skill are possessed by the rulers of the navy.

It only remains to be said that the Spaniards



Francis Drake

FRANCIS DRAKE

were scattered by a great storm on the coasts of Scotland, Ireland and England. Wrecks took place. At Tobermory on the coast of Scotland the contents of a Spanish warship are now being brought to the surface. Off the coast of Londonderry another ship was wrecked. The helmets and arms of Spanish soldiers whose lives were saved by the Irish are still heirlooms in the ancient family of O'Donnell. Out of one hundred and thirty ships that left Lisbon only fifty-three returned, to Spain. So great was the loss of life that it was said that every family in Spain had lost a son.

When the objects of the Armada were defeated, and when the danger to England was over-past, thinking men asked themselves whether the defence of English shores would not be easier and cheaper by attacking the enemy in his own waters instead of waiting until his arrival in the English Channel. Drake's policy of looking on the coast of the enemy as the English frontier has been followed from that day to this by the best school of English seamen.

Summary.—The reign of Elizabeth was famous for two things. First, a great development of English exploration and discovery—secondly, the defeat of the Spanish Armada. Attempts by Frobi-
sher and Davis to find a north-west passage to China. Francis Drake's great voyage round the world. His capture of Spanish galleons and his sack of Nombre de Dios. The Spanish Fleet

intended for the conquest of England carried over 21,000 soldiers and 2,500 guns. From the start the weather was unfavourable to the Spaniards. One-sided nature of the fight. The English principles of fighting. The anchorage of the Spaniards in Calais Roads. The Prince of Parma with his army in Flanders prevented from coming to the help of the Spaniards by the Dutch who blockaded Parma in the Scheldt. The defeat of the Spanish Armada partly due to English seamanship, partly to bad weather, and partly to the Prince of Parma's being unable to leave the Scheldt. Drake's policy of treating the coast of the enemy as the frontier of England is the key to the secret of Sea-power.

CHAPTER IX

THE STUART AND COMMONWEALTH PERIODS

THE reign of Elizabeth had vastly increased the influence of England on the sea. On her death, King James showed that he cared little for the Elizabethan adage that every Spaniard was a natural enemy of England. The Sea Power of England was lessened by the inaction of James I. The King's ships lay idle at their moorings while the Spaniards robbed our merchants, and, as one historian says, "began to lead King James by the nose." While the King's ships swung to their anchors, a company of merchants was busy laying the foundations of our Indian Empire. The East India Company was founded in 1599, when England was at war with Spain. The Company was enterprising, built large ships of a thousand tons burden, and made many successful voyages to India.

The power of the English in India soon began to grow. The Portuguese were defeated by Captain Thomas Best, commanding the *Dragon*, formerly called the *Scourge of Malice*—a ship's



"THE SOVEREIGN OF THE SEAS," THE FIRST THREE-DECKER
(Built in 1657, Captain Phineas Pelt, supervisor, and Peter Pelt, his son, master builder)

name that has dropped out of use. After this action the English were respected by the Great Mogul. He gave them permission to establish factories at Surat and elsewhere. Many like actions gave Britain her foothold in India, ruined the hopes of Portugal, and began the building of the British Empire in Asia.

During the Commonwealth the name of Blake stands out supreme as the maker of English Sea Power. He was a soldier, and fought against the Royalists. Blake's career at sea gives colour and substance to the view that sea fighting in early times was land fighting on the sea. Naval tactics and strategy, of which we shall read hereafter, were gradually evolved, because the manœuvring of ships, as though they were regiments on shore, was found to be impossible in adverse weather or in fogs.

Hence came the separation between the land forces and the sea forces of Britain, a change which is not always understood by landmen. To this day the building where the affairs of the Army are administered is called the War Office, as though land fighting, not control of the sea, were the substance of war. The Admiralty is also the true War Office, and our Admirals, like Blake, are still Generals on the sea.

In 1649 Colonel Blake was turned over to the navy. As an admiral he acquired imperishable fame. He drove Prince Rupert from the Narrow Seas, and recovered the Channel Islands from the Royalists. Blake fought the Dutch in the Downs, and defeated them on May 19, 1652. In November the Dutch Admiral, Van Tromp, whose fleet was far stronger, defeated Blake, and compelled the English to take refuge in the Thames. Later on, Van Tromp's fleet was again beaten by the English in an action on July 29, 1653. The Dutch Admiral was killed, but owing to illness, Blake was not present at the fight. The name of England was respected in Europe as the consequence of Blake's daring and foresight. His ability as a naval commander is spoken of in the highest terms by Clarendon and other historians.

The respect inspired among foreign nations by the prowess of the English Navy, led to a treaty with the Dutch, then the great rival of England, by which it was agreed on April 5, 1654—

“That the ships of the Dutch, as well ships of war as others, meeting any of the ships of war of the English Commonwealth in the



ADMIRAL BLAKE (GENERAL AT SEA) IN HIS CUIRASS

British Seas, shall strike their flags and lower their topsails, in such manner as hath ever been at any time heretofore practised under any form of government."

The victories of Blake, the Admiral and General at sea, were quickly followed by a period of humiliation. Under Charles II the Royal Navy was neglected. As a result, the thunder of Dutch guns fired in the Thames and Medway was heard by Londoners at the Tower.

A Dutch Admiral, Van Ghent, passing the Nore, entered the Medway, captured Sheerness, and threw the English Court into panic. Half the population fled, and the upper reaches of the Medway were only protected by the sinking of two large English vessels and five fire-ships below Gillingham. A strong iron chain was laid across the river above the sunken ships. A portion of this chain was recently discovered near Sheerness. A Dutch vessel, the *Pro Patria*, charged the chain, broke through it, attacked the English ships and blew up a magazine on shore. The *Royal Charles* of a hundred guns, the largest ship in the English Navy, with several other vessels, were captured by the Dutch Admiral in chief command, Ruijter, and the Regent C. de Wit. The stern

carving from H.M.S. *Royal Charles* is still preserved as a trophy in a museum at Amsterdam.

Shame fell upon England when her warships were burned by a foreign enemy in the river Thames. The total Dutch loss does not seem to have been more than 150 men. British Sea Power for a time was eclipsed. There was great suffering in London. A Dutch Admiral, Van Tromp, in earlier days is said to have carried a broom at his mainmast-head, to signify his intention of sweeping the seas of the English. The story is denied on good authority, but if true, it is fair to admit that the ascent of the Medway by the Dutch was a fulfilment of Van Tromp's boast.

The English fought many ding-dong battles with the Dutch before increasing luxury and lethargy in the Low Countries unnerved the hands that disputed with England the mastery of the Narrow Seas and the possession of the Trident.

Summary.—Relapse of English Sea-Power during the reign of James I, and its recovery during the Commonwealth. The foundation of the East India Company. Trade with India and rivalry with the Portuguese. The achievements of Blake and the recovery of the Channel Islands. The supremacy of the English Navy shown by the respect paid by the ships of the Dutch in striking their flags and lowering their topsails when meeting English ships of war. The neglect of the Navy by Charles II, and entry of the Dutch into the Thames. The humiliation of England owing to Stuart neglect of the Navy.

CHAPTER X

CAPTAIN COOK

ON the sea, as on land, victories of peace are no less renowned than the victories of war. At the beginning of the Eighteenth Century little was known of the habitable world outside the great Continents which bear the names of Europe and of Asia. The interior of Africa was unknown for the most part. The bulk of North America was still untrodden by white men. Australia and New Guinea were unexplored. Australia was first seen by British eyes, so far as is known, in the person of Dampier, an English explorer, who gave his name to an archipelago in the North-West.

In 1728 an agricultural labourer in Yorkshire had a son born to him who became one of England's greatest navigators and explorers of the sea. The boy, whose name was James Cook, had little education, and was sent at the age of thirteen to serve in a linen-draper's shop. Already the lad was bitten with the love of travel, and soon exchanged the indoor life of



CAPT. JAMES COOK, E. R. S.

selling socks and ties over a counter for the seaman's calling. He was bound apprentice to a firm of slipowners at Whitby, and at the age of seventeen he entered the Royal Navy as an able seaman. By dint of industry and talent he rose to the rank of master in four years. James Cook's work for the next ten years was to prepare his Sailing Directory, a guide-book for ships at sea. Cook's excellent map-making of the waters about the St. Lawrence and the shores of Newfoundland are valued even to this day, and his charts paved the way for Wolfe's victory at the Heights of Abraham.

During these ten years Cook studied hard, and qualified himself for high rank in the Royal Navy. When he was forty years of age he was raised to the rank of lieutenant. Placed in command of H.M.S. *Endeavour*, he was appointed to convey an astronomical party to the Pacific. The object of the expedition was to observe the transit of Venus across the face of the sun. In the course of his voyage, Captain Cook sailed round New Zealand. He was the first man who had done so. The coasts of the island were carefully charted, together with the East coast of Australia. Cook took possession of Eastern Australia in the name of Great Britain. Later on he sailed through the

Torres Straits, which separate Australia from New Guinea.

After three years' hard work the explorer returned to England, having disproved the existence of the "great Southern Continent," which had been supposed to extend from the South Pole for 2,500 miles in every direction. He received the reward of his skill and enterprise in the shape of promotion to the rank of Commander. A second voyage of discovery under Cook's command sailed from Plymouth in 1772. Two ships, the *Resolution* and the *Adventure*, sailed round the edge of the cap of ice at the South Pole. He cruised in the Southern Pacific, discovered New Calcdonia, and explored many of the island groups in the Pacific Ocean.

This expedition was away from England for three years, but so careful was the Commander of his officers and men, that there was only one death among his crews during the whole of the time. The skill and thoughtfulness of Cook in taking care of his people was in marked contrast to the fearful losses sustained during other long voyages of the period. Scurvy was a disease which at that time proved fatal to many English seamen, who were fed on salt meat and hard biscuit, as they were of course

unable to obtain fresh food after leaving the shore.

In these days of doctoring and health-culture it is difficult to understand the sufferings of British seamen when the Empire was in the making. Scurvy killed more sailor-men than any other sickness, battle, or tempest. For instance, in all the naval battles of the Seven Years' War, only 1,512 sailors and marines were killed in battle; but 133,708 died of disease or were missing, and scurvy was the commonest disease. Whole crews were disabled by scurvy, which is due to the want of fresh food, especially fresh vegetables and fruit. Lemon or lime-juice is the best substitute for fresh vegetables. The use of lime-juice has long been compulsory on board British ships bound on long voyages.

Many naval surgeons to-day have never seen a case of scurvy. This shows how greatly the physical well-being of the Navy has improved through increased knowledge of, and obedience to, the laws of health.

To return to Captain Cook. He sailed for the South Seas for the third and last time in 1776. The whole of the next year was spent among the beautiful islands of the Pacific. After discovering the Sandwich Islands, Cook

steered for the West coast of North America, rounding the Horn, and reaching the inside of Behring Strait. In 1779 (January 17) the storm-tossed *Resolution* reached Hawaii, the chief of the Sandwich Islands. On first landing the expedition was welcomed by the natives, but for some reason a change came over the islanders, and on Valentine's Day, when Cook landed with a party to recover a stolen boat, the natives attacked the English with fury. Cook was clubbed and stabbed to death on the brink of the sea. A monument is now erected near the spot where he fell, for Cook had done more to add to our knowledge of the Southern Seas than any other explorer. His work was thorough, his character just. A good Commander, James Cook was thoughtful for his men and kindly towards the natives with whom he came in contact.

"Cook's Voyages" is a book which every boy should read. Although he was the greatest of the English explorers, there were others who added to their country's fame by their discoveries. The British Government in Cook's lifetime recognized that exploration formed an important part of the duties of the navy. The Lords of the Admiralty wrote to Captain Byron before sending him to the Pacific, to express

their view that nothing can redound more to the honour of this nation as a maritime power than to make discoveries of countries hitherto unknown. Byron was accordingly sent to the Pacific and was followed by Wallis and Carteret. Phipps and Lutwige were sent to the Arctic Seas. Wilson went to the Pelew Islands, and McClure to New Guinea.

Summary.—Knowledge of the habitable world at the beginning of the eighteenth century extremely limited. Dampier and Cook take up the work of exploration. James Cook, a linendraper's boy, becomes the greatest of English discoverers. His voyage to the Southern Seas followed by disproof of the existence of the great Southern Continent, then generally believed in. Cook's second voyage to the South Pacific and discovery of many Pacific Islands. Cook's extraordinary care of his men while at sea, and his success in dealing with the disease of scurvy. Cook's third voyage to the South Seas. His discoveries of the Sandwich Islands, and his death at Hawaii. Cook's character. The Account of his voyages one of the most interesting books of travel ever written. The Admiralty's active interest in the work of exploration.

CHAPTER XI

MUTINY

THE dangers to which explorers were exposed were not confined to disease, tempests or the murderous fury of hostile natives. Mutiny was another peril of the sea.

In 1610 Henry Hudson sailed in the *Discovery* in search of the North-West Passage, and entered Hudson Bay, where he passed the winter. Discontent arose, and, when the ice broke up in the spring, one of the crew, Henry Greene, incited his shipmates to mutiny. They put Hudson with his little son, and eight men, mostly sick, out of the ship, and sailed away. Greene and others were killed in a fight with the Esquimaux, and the remnant on reaching England were cast into prison. Hudson and his men were never heard of again.

Mutiny was also the cause of the disaster to Commander William Bligh's voyage in the *Bounty*. He was sent by the Admiralty to collect plants of the bread-fruit tree at Tahiti, and carry them to the West Indies. Bligh was



HUDSON'S LAST VOYAGE
(From the picture by the Hon. J. Collier)

Collection Krachgut:

a commander of stern and austere character. Unlike Captain Cook, he maintained discipline with a heavy hand. His crew resented the severity of his rule, mutinied in April 1789, and turned Bligh adrift in an open boat with eighteen men. In his plight Bligh made a wonderful voyage which almost amounted to an expedition of discovery. He sailed over more than 3,600 miles in three months, and sighted several islands that were then unknown. The only weapons in the boat were four cutlasses. The party landed on islands near the Australian coast, where they subdued their hunger on oysters, and took a much-needed rest.

Bligh returned to England, and later on was sent to the Pacific again, where he obtained plants of the bread-fruit tree and carried them to the West Indies.

On Bligh's arrival in England, H.M.S. *Pandora*, with twenty-four guns, was sent in 1790 to search for and capture the mutineers of the *Bounty*. Sixteen of the men had been left at Tahiti, of whom two were murdered. Captain Edwards of the *Pandora* took the survivors on board and treated them very badly. Four were drowned at the subsequent wreck of the *Pandora* in Torres Straits. The remainder

were taken to England. Six were sentenced to death, and three were hanged at Spithead.

The chief of the mutineers who escaped was named Christian. What became of him and his mates was not known until 1813, when the Admiralty was informed by an American trader that the tiny and remote Pitcairn Island in the Southern Pacific was inhabited by survivors of the mutineers or their children. A ship was sent to the island, where the truth of the American trader's statement was established. So long a time had elapsed since the mutiny of the *Bounty* that the survivors were not punished. At their own request the Pitcairn Islanders have since been removed to Norfolk Island in the South Pacific, where they earn a modest living by fishing, agriculture and the sale of fresh provisions to passing whalers or an occasional war-of-war.

Summary.—The mutiny of the crew of the *Discovery*. Henry Hudson, his son, and a few sick men put into an open boat and abandoned in Hudson's Bay. The Story of the Mutiny of the *Bounty*. Commander William Bligh's severity at sea resented by the crew, who turn Bligh and eighteen men adrift in an open boat. Bligh's wonderful voyage. The capture of some of the mutineers at Tahiti. Christian, the ring-leader of the mutineers, with some of his followers found a settlement at Pitcairn Island. Descendants of *Bounty* mutineers still living in Norfolk Island in the South Pacific.

CHAPTER XII

NELSON AND THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

It has been said of admirals that they are divided into two classes. In one is Nelson, in the other are all the rest of the admirals. More than a century after his death, Nelson's memory is dearer to Englishmen and more respected by the seamen of foreign nations than when he was alive. The essence of Nelson's teaching was duty, efficiency and foresight. In a slender frame he had an iron mind and a soul on fire with a terrible courage and a resistless will. He was gentle, most loving and most kind. In his thoughts unselfish, in his deeds he was plain and true. The guiding principles of Nelson's life appeal not only to seamen but to every boy and girl in the empire. Victor Hugo said: "The national spirit is the strongest of bulwarks."

Nelson did more to embody the soul of England than any commander of the last century. Though a fighting man, Nelson hated war and loved peace, but he knew that the



NELSON

only way to secure peace for England was to be strong upon the sea.

In person Nelson was a small man. He was not remarkable to look at except for the animation of his countenance, and a light in his eye which is often found in seamen and hunters who are wont to gaze at long distances every day of their lives. Nelson's manner was unaffected. He was simple and modest. Those he loved he saw in shining light. If some of his friends were geese he thought of them as swans. Sometimes he was disappointed, from being unable to get from life what this world could never give him. Nearly all his portraits show the wistful longing face of a man who is not so much dissatisfied as unsatisfied. His sensitive pouting lips and the melancholy of his eyes give the impression of pain. Nelson's face changed constantly. Sometimes he was the stern and masterful leader of men, and sometimes his features were quite womanly in sweetness and repose.

One observer, a comrade in arms, Lieutenant Layman, said that Lord Nelson was a most extraordinary man, possessing opposite points of character; little in little things, but by far the greatest man in great things he ever saw; that he had seen him petulant in trifles, and as cool

and collected as a philosopher when surrounded by dangers in which men of common minds, with clouded countenance, would say, "Ah! what is to be done?" It was a treat to see his animated and collected countenance in the heat of action. There must have been something wonderful about Nelson's face, as the following story shows.

After the Battle of the Nile, of which we shall read later on, the captains of the fleet clubbed together and obtained an eminent painter from Italy to paint Nelson's portrait. The plan was to ask the painter to breakfast with the Admiral and to get him to begin the portrait immediately after. When breakfast was over the artist made no signs of preparing for his work. One of Nelson's captains, Sir Alexander Ball, was chosen by the other captains to ask the artist when he intended to begin. The answer was "Never." Captain Ball stared. All the captains stared, but the artist continued, "There is such a mixture of humility with ambition in Lord Nelson's countenance that I dare not risk the attempt."

Prince William Henry, afterwards William IV, knew Nelson intimately when in command of H.M.S. *Albemarle*. The Prince describes him as "The merest boy of a captain I ever beheld;

and his dress was worthy of attention. He had on a full-laced uniform; his lank unpowdered hair was tied in a stiff Hessian tail of an extraordinary length; the old-fashioned flaps of his waistcoat added to the general quaintness of his figure, and produced an appearance which particularly attracted my notice." There are many other descriptions written of Nelson at later periods, most of them often quoted. Haliburton's "Sam Slick" refers to him irreverently, but not untruly, as "that cripple-gaited, one-eyed, one-armed little naval eritter."

Nelson suffered many ills of the flesh. He was tortured with toothache, easily caught cold, and suffered from rheumatism. Worst of all, England's greatest Admiral was plagued with sea-sickness. During a period of two years, 1803-05, he scarcely put his foot on shore. He was always tossed about, and always sea-sick.

When he did his greatest work he was blind in one eye. The sight of the other was dim. He wrote to a friend, "My eyesight fails me most dreadfully; I firmly believe that in a few years I shall be stone blind. It is the only one of all my maladies that makes me unhappy, but God's will be done."

The hero of legend is always described as

strong, hard and brilliant. Nelson is no hero of legend. His weakly body was a battered cage to hold the great spirit of a leader of men. The little one-armed admiral was the centre figure of the great world movement which preserved for Britain and for Europe the freedom for their inhabitants to live their own lives. But for Nelson, Napoleon would have been master of Europe and the world. Nelson was a frail figure to put in the forefront, but he was the best England ever produced.

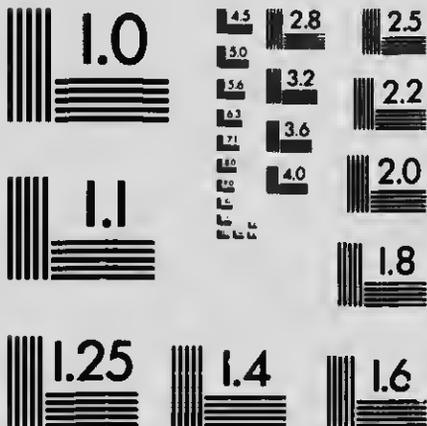
In character he was fiery and zealous; he had the grim tenacity which is a rare quality in men and dogs. When watching and waiting for the French fleet in the Gulf of Lyons, he wore out the two lonely last years of his life. He was sick with weariness, but he stuck to his post, supported by the knowledge that the final battle was at hand, and that the ships he commanded would finally dispose of Napoleon's claim to rule the Continent of Europe. Captain Mahan, the greatest of naval historians, speaks of this period in words which each one of us should know by heart. Mahan's great words run thus—

“Nelson's far-distant, storm-beaten ships, upon which the Grand Army never looked, stood between it and the dominion of the world.”



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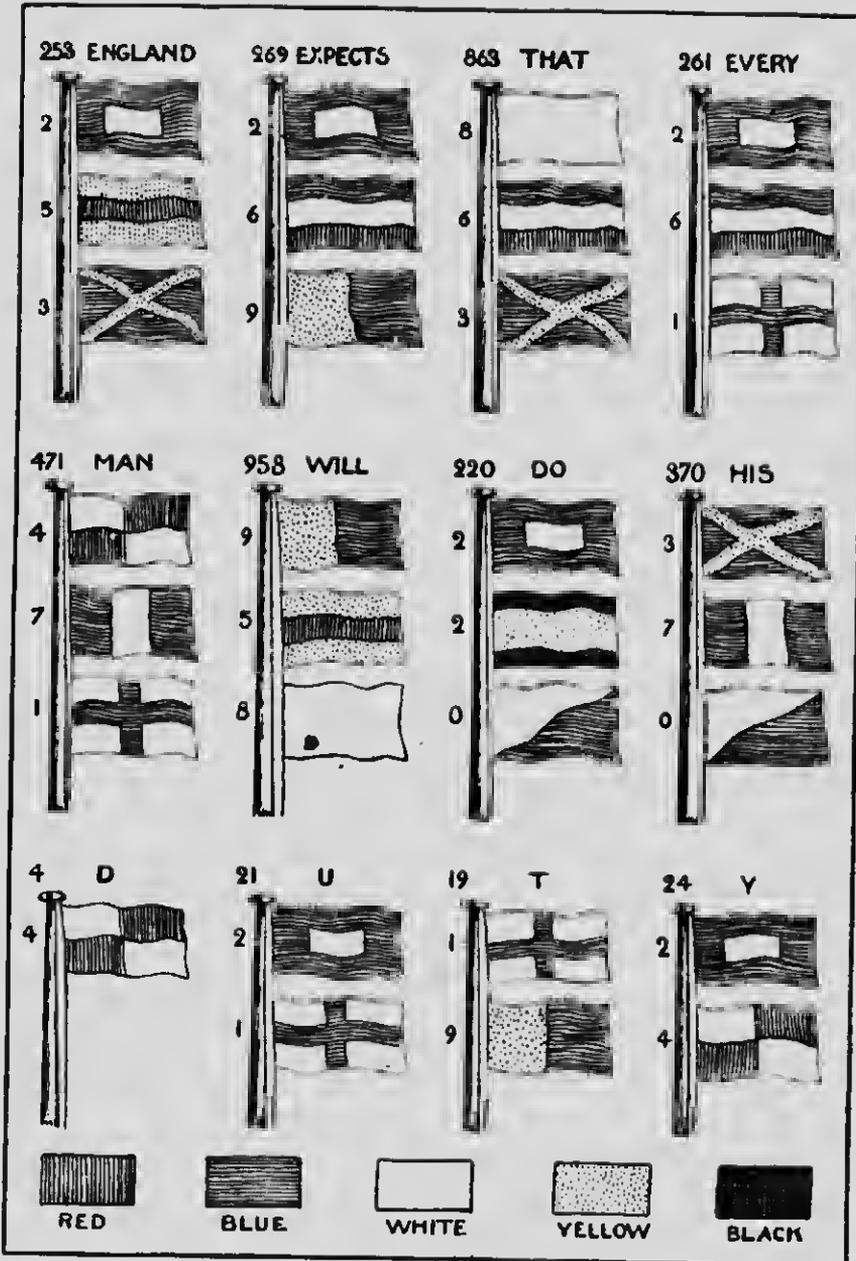
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Nelson's great battles were the Nile, the Baltic and Trafalgar. The battles were won and not lost because Nelson contrived to fill every officer and man in the fleet with his own spirit. What that spirit was is revealed in the signal hoisted at Trafalgar. They were only nine words, but the nine will last with the language: "England expects that every man will do his duty." When Nelson first wrote the signal he used the words "confides" instead of "expects." The Signal Lieutenant explained to him that there was no signal for the word "confides" in the signal book, and that a flag for every letter must be hoisted to spell "confides." For the word "expect" there *was* a signal, and "expects," accordingly, was used.

Those nine words were backed by a lifetime of deeds. Nelson was often wounded, often in action, and he asked nobody to do more than he was prepared to do himself. To his followers he said "Come on," not "Go on."

Nelson was an enormous letter-writer. We know his character more intimately than could be thought possible in these days. He reveals himself in his letters like a simple child. He was not a perfect man. On the contrary, when off duty and unemployed,



NELSON'S FAMOUS SIGNAL AT THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR

he was sometimes vain, pceevish, excitable, passionate and ill humoured. His letters show that he was generous to the point of folly. He feared no responsibility. He looked far ahead. He was not only a fighter but a statesman, and many of his letters make it clear that he loved England more than he loved himself or a Party. These letters of Nelson's are wonderful reading. They are the letters of a truthful man, and every line he wrote was sincere. He was not a cunning man anxious to hide his weaknesses as some men are. Nor did he conceal his thoughts. Out of his candid heart he poured forth what was passing in his mind. Even his faults and failings were lovable, and those who lived with him adored him.

In later years he was unhappy, and his unhappiness arose partly from his own fault. But the greatness of his character rises superior to his faults. He scorned ease, loved honour, and from the time he was a midshipman, glowed with pure patriotism. When returning as a midshipman from the East Indies, wasted with sickness and in low spirits about his future, he says, "After a long and gloomy reverie, in which I almost wished myself overboard, a sudden glow of patriotism was kindled within me, and presented my king and country as my

patron. 'Well, then,' I exclaimed, 'I will be a hero! and confiding in Providence, I will brave every danger!' "

Summary.—The character of Nelson. Duty, efficiency, and foresight the essence of Nelson's teaching. Hating war and loving peace, Nelson believed in naval strength for keeping peace. His personal characteristics. Recollections of Nelson by William IV. Nelson's great tenacity of will in spite of his frail body. Captain Mahan's famous saying about Nelson's ships preventing Napoleon's army securing for him the dominion of the world. The battles of the Nile, the Baltic and Trafalgar won by Nelson's personality. Nelson's famous signal, the embodiment of a lifetime of famous deeds. Nelson's letters and the light they throw upon his character.

CHAPTER XIII

NELSON'S VICTORIES

FIVE times in the history of Europe a King or an Emperor has sought to win the mastery of the world. Five times has England stepped in with her navy and troops to prevent the tyrant from grasping the splendid prize he coveted. When the French Revolution was followed by the outbreak of war between England and France, nobody foresaw that a young French General would seat himself on the Throne of the Bourbons. At that time British squadrons on foreign stations were weak. France was adding to her fleet with feverish zeal. Great Britain had much to protect. We have seen how, through Sea Power, the British acquired large interests in India and became an Asiatic Power.

Our seaborne commerce was far larger than that of France, although England was the smaller nation. When Napoleon had risen to the top, Britain was dependent upon the sea in a sense in which no Continental nation ever

was or ever can be. Defeat of the British fleet means final and eternal ruin to the British people, because the Power tha' holds the sea can prevent the entry of food into our islands. But if France or Germany is beaten at sea nothing happens. Their rulers merely turn their attention to other quarters.

Notwithstanding the weakness of the British fleet and the fiery zeal of the French Revolutionaries, France was at a great disadvantage. The fleet of George III was manned by people who had learned to obey before they were trusted with command. The consequence was that when a French ship was engaged with an English ship the English seamen obeyed their officers, carried out their orders, and generally won the victory. The Frenchmen on the other hand frequently debated at length whether the captain's orders should be obeyed, altered or ignored. The British Navy had ancient and splendid traditions—a great help to discipline. The old officers of the French navy had been turned out of the service. Many of the new officers had neither experience nor the art of commanding.

At the beginning of the War in 1793, Nelson was appointed to a sixty-four gun ship, the *Agamemnon*. Later on he became Commodore

under Admiral Sir John Jervis, Commander-in-Chief in the Mediterranean. After various encounters with French and Spanish ships he took part in his first great battle off Cape St. Vincent, on February 14, 1797. The resistance of the enemy was overcome, and Nelson, in the *Captain*, a seventy-four, called for volunteers to board the *San Nicolas*, an eighty-gun ship. Capturing this, he proceeded to board the *San Josef*, a ship of one hundred-and-twelve guns which had been fouled by the *San Nicolas*. On the quarterdeck of the *San Josef* he received the swords of the Spanish officers. As the swords were received Nelson handed them over to one of his bargemen, William Fearney by name, who gathered them under his arm as if he had been making up a faggot. Nelson established his reputation by his prompt decision and by what was afterwards called his "patent bridge" for boarding first-rates. For a seventy-four-gun ship to carry by boarding first an eighty-gun ship and then a hundred-and-twelve-gun ship was a feat unknown. Nelson was made a Knight of the Bath, and received the thanks of the City of London and a sword.

Soon after the Battle of St. Vincent Nelson lost his right arm while conducting a night



THE BATTLE OF CAPE ST. VINCENT
(The *Captain*, Nelson's ship, alongside the *Santa Ana*. After capturing her, Nelson boarded and captured the *Santa Ana*. The "patent bridge" of sea history)

attack on Santa Cruz, which failed through the darkness. On his recovery, having been promoted to rear admiral's rank, he was dispatched in command of a small squadron to watch the movements of the French in the Mediterranean. Napoleon had landed with a considerable body of troops in Egypt. His idea was to attack and destroy the English in India: if possible, with the help of the Russians. Nelson first caught sight of the French fleet, anchored in Aboukir Bay near Alexandria, on August 1, 1798. Though it was evening, Nelson at once attacked with such fury and skill that after the battle had raged all night the whole of the French fleet was destroyed or captured with the exception of four ships. Bonaparte's army was now cut off from France, and the idea of making Egypt a French colony or of invading India by the Overland Route was abandoned. Once more had the skilled use of Sea Power in the hands of a British Admiral saved our country from untold disaster, losses and shame.

In England the victory was received with delight. Honours were showered upon Nelson. He was made Baron Nelson of the Nile. At this time England was facing a world in arms. She was fighting for her very life. Were England defeated at sea she would never recover her



THE BATTLE OF THE NILE
(*L'Orient*, the French flag-ship, at the moment of blowing up)

freedom. Victory was essential. Then, as now, Denmark, and especially Copenhagen, was regarded by foreigners as an important point for menacing England. In 1801 the British Government, placing the safety of the nation before all else, sent Nelson to the Baltic as second in command to Sir Hyde Parker. Nelson bore a chief part in the battle of Copenhagen.

It has often been told how Nelson's superior officer, Sir Hyde Parker, ordered him to cease firing, and that Nelson clapped his telescope to his blind eye, said he could not see the signal, and refused to obey it. Nelson, being confident of victory, hoisted his own signal "Engage the enemy more closely." The signal was kept hoisted. Nelson always considered the Battle of Copenhagen to be his masterpiece. Campbell, the poet, wrote a fine ballad about the battle, which every school-boy should read. The effect of the Battle of Copenhagen was to break the power of England's enemies in the North, as the Battle of the Nile had broken their power in the South. England gained breathing space for renewed resistance to attempted conquest by a world in arms.

Copenhagen notwithstanding, Bonaparte was still bent on invading England and destroying the English Government. A great flotilla of

transports was built on the French coast. A large part of the flotilla was lying at Boulogne. Nelson was sent to attack it. The attack was not wholly successful, but the French were prevented from invading Britain, which was the main thing. For a little while there was a truce. The Peace of Amiens was signed in March 1802, but Napoleon's ambitions were too great to allow a permanent peace until England and France had settled in war the great question as to whether Napoleon should become master of Europe or would be stopped by Nelson and the Royal Navy from attaining his desire.

In May 1803 the British Government was again forced to declare war against France, and Nelson was made Commander-in-Chief of the Mediterranean. He only left his ship three times from May 1803 to August 1805. France and Spain had become allies. Napoleon redoubled his efforts to carry out his scheme for invading England. The combined fleets of France and Spain put to sea. Nelson went in search of them. It was like looking for a needle in a haystack. He beat about the Mediterranean. When the news reached him that the French fleet had gone to the West Indies he followed them. When he reached the

West Indies Nelson was baffled by false reports as to where they were. Fleets in those days only sailed at the rate of five or six miles an hour. The best and biggest ships to-day can travel at the rate of nearly thirty miles an hour.

The pursuit of the French fleet was a long and dreary business, most trying to the officers. To the men of the lower deck the hardships were terrible, but they bore up under this test of their endurance. Nelson followed the French fleet to Europe and resumed his search. Napoleon's admiral, Villeneuve, with his Spanish ally, had a larger fleet than Nelson. The French fleet was lying at Cadiz. Napoleon sent strict orders to his admiral that he was no longer to delay in port, but to go out and attack the English.

The Spanish, a brave and proud people, were not in good heart about the prospects of the fight. It is now known that the Spanish naval officers firmly believed that defeat by Nelson was always a certainty. His name was a terror to the enemy. The fleets met off Cape Trafalgar on the 21st of October, 1805, and in the battle which ensued the French and Spanish fleets were broken, destroyed or taken captive. The victory, however, was only obtained at the cost of Nelson's life. He died at the age of



THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR
(From the picture by Clarkson Stanfield, R.A.)

forty-seven. "Yet," as Southey says, "he cannot be said to have fallen prematurely whose work was done."

Nelson's ship, the *Victory*, lies at anchor in Portsmouth Harbour. The cockpit, where he died, is still shown to visitors. Nelson only lived for three hours after receiving his wound. Before dying he asked Hardy, the captain of the *Victory* to kiss him. "Kiss me, Hardy," he said. The captain knelt down by his side and kissed him. The close of the battle was a tremendous scene of grandeur and destruction. England was saved. European freedom was saved. Death was swallowed up in victory. For more than a century England has had release from the perils of war or the prospect of war on British soil—thanks to Nelson and the navy. The need for a strong navy is greater to-day than it was on the day before Trafalgar.

SOME OF NELSON'S WORDS

HONOUR AND RICHES

I have closed the war without a fortune ; but I trust and, from the attention that has been paid to me, believe that there is no speck in my character. True honour, I hope, predominates

in my mind far above riches.—To H. ROSS,
August 9, 1783.

LEARNING FRENCH

The French goes on but slowly ; but patience, of which you know I have not much, and perseverance will, I hope, make me master of it.
—To W. LOCKER, November 26, 1783.

TREATMENT OF MIDSHIPMEN

Your excellency must excuse me for bringing one of my midshipmen ; I make it a rule to introduce them to all the good company I can, as they have few to look up to besides myself during the time they are at sea.—To LADY HUGHES, 1784.

HONOUR AND SALT BEEF

I believe the world is convinced that no conquests of importance can be made without us ; and yet, as soon as we have accomplished the service we are ordered on, we are neglected. If Parliament does not grant something to this fleet, our Jacks will grumble, for there is no prize-money to soften their hardships : all we get is honour and salt beef.—To his WIFE, September 11, 1793.

NELSON'S CREED

Recollect that a brave man dies but once, a coward all his life long. We cannot escape death; and should it happen to me in this place, remember that it is the will of Him in whose hands are the issues of life and death.—To his WIFE, May 1, 1794.

ENGLISH AND FRENCH

I always was of opinion, have ever acted up to it, and never have had any reason to repent it, that one Englishman was equal to three Frenchmen.—To his WIFE, May 20, 1794.

GENEROUS ENEMY

Generous nations are above rendering any other damage to individuals than such as the known laws of war prescribe. In a vessel lately taken by my squadron was found an imperiale full of clothes belonging to a general officer of artillery. I therefore send you the clothes as taken, and some papers which may be useful to the officer; and have to request you will have the goodness to forward them.—To the FRENCH MINISTER AT GENOA, June 22, 1796.

A MAN'S DUTY

If a man does not do his utmost in time of action, I think but one punishment ought to be

influcted. Not that I take a man's merit from his list of killed and wounded, for but little may be in his power; and if he does his utmost in the station he is placed in, he has equal merit to the man who may have his ship beat to pieces, but not his good fortune. I would have every man believe I shall only take my chance of being shot by the enemy, but if I do not take that chance, I am certain of being shot by my friends.—To CAPTAIN BERTIE, January 4, 1798.

A PEERAGE OR WESTMINSTER ABBEY

Before this time to-morrow I shall have gained a peerage or Westminster Abbey.—August 1, 1798 (day of the Battle of the Nile), from CLARKE and M'ARTHUR.

FIRST GAIN A VICTORY

First gain a victory and then make the best use of it you can.—By COOPER WILLYAMS, August 1, 1798.

TO THE CAPTAINS OF THE SHIPS OF THE SQUADRON

Vanguard, off the mouth of the Nile, 2nd day of August, 1798.

The admiral most heartily congratulates the captains, officers, seamen, and marines of the

squadron he has the honour to command on the event of the late action ; and he desires they will accept his most sincere and cordial thanks for their very gallant behaviour in this glorious battle. It must strike forcibly every British seaman how superior their conduct is, when in discipline and good order, to the riotous behaviour of lawless Frenchmen.

The squadron may be assured the admiral will not fail, with his dispatches, to represent their truly meritorious conduct in the strongest terms to the commander-in-chief.—HORATIO NELSON.

POLITICS

As to politics, they are my abomination.—To LORD ST. VINCENT, May 30, 1799.

TRUTHFULNESS

One of my greatest boasts is that no man can ever say I told a lie.—To the Victualling Commissioners, December 5, 1799.

TIME

Time, Twiss—time is everything; five minutes make the difference between a victory and a defeat.—*Dispatches and Letters*, Vol. IV., 290.

WESTCOTT'S MOTHER

At Honiton I visited Captain Westcott's mother—poor thing, except from the bounty of Government and Lloyds', in very low circumstances. The brother is a tailor, but had they been chimney-sweepers, it was my duty to show them respect.—To LADY HAMILTON, January 17, 1801.

NATIONS LIKE INDIVIDUALS

In my opinion nations, like individuals, are to be won more by acts of kindness than cruelty.—To LADY HAMILTON, April 9, 1801.

NATION OF SHOPKEEPERS

The French have always in ridicule called us a nation of shopkeepers—so, I hope, we shall always remain, and like other shopkeepers, if our goods are better than those of any other country, and we can afford to sell them cheaper, we must depend on our shop being well resorted to.—To S. BARKER, April 27, 1801.

BRITISH ADMIRAL'S WORD

The word of a British admiral, when given in explanation of any part of his conduct, is as sacred as that of any sovereign in Europe.—May 1801.

FRIENDSHIP

Without friendship this life is but misery, and it is so difficult to find a true friend that the search is almost needless, but if ever you do, it ought to be cherished as an exotic plant.—To LADY HAMILTON, May 11, 1801.

WISHING AND DOING

When we cannot do all we wish we must do all we can.—To LORD ST. VINCENT, August 7, 1801.

PUBLICITY

Oh! how I hate to be stared at.—To LADY HAMILTON, August 11, 1801.

A BAD CUSTOM

It is the custom, and a very bad one, for the English never to tell their own story.—To SIR ALEXANDER BALL, November 7, 1803.

SUCCESSFUL BATTLES

A wish to imitate successful battles is the one road, by exertion, to surpass them.—To J. DALTON, December 14, 1803

A BRITISH OFFICER'S WORD

I can assure you, sir, that the word of honour of every captain of a British man-of-war is

equal, not only to mine, but to that of any person in Europe, however elevated his rank.—
From CLARKE and M'ARTHUR.

SEA AFFAIRS

In sea affairs nothing is impossible and nothing improbable.—To COUNT MOCENIGO, August 4, 1804.

SPELL OF SHIPBOARD

I went on shore for the first time since the 16th of June, 1803 ; and from having my foot out of the *Victory*, two years wanting ten days.—
Private Diary, July 29, 1805.

UNCERTAINTY IN SEA-FIGHTS

Something must be left to chance ; nothing is sure in a sea-fight beyond all others.—*Memo-
randum*, October 9, 1805.

Summary.—Conflicts between France and England. The sea-borne commerce of England larger than the seahorne trade of France. England's great interests in the East. Being an island, Britain can only be fed from the sea. Defeat of a Continental Power disastrous, but not necessarily final. But defeat of a British Fleet means that Britain will be starved into surrender. Therefore defeat at sea for Britain is final. The superiority of English over French discipline. Nelson takes part in the Battle of Cape St. Vincent, and captures the *San Nicolas* and the *San Josef*. Loses his right arm at Santa Cruz. The Battle of the Nile. The Battle of Copenhagen. Nelson's attack on the French flotilla at Boulogne, his pursuit of Villeneuve and the "crowning mercy" of Trafalgar. Death of Nelson on the flagship *Victory*. Some of Nelson's sayings.

CHAPTER XIV

THE PRESS GANG

WHEN England was fighting for her life in the five great wars with France the supply of seamen fell short. The Government, knowing that the incomes and food supply of the people at home and responsibility for two hundred millions of people in India and the Colonies were at stake, compelled men to serve afloat. Voluntary enlistment did not yield enough men to man the fleet. The press gang accordingly was the system adopted. Impressment consists in seizing by force for service in the Royal Navy seamen from the merchant fleet, river watermen and landsmen whenever the need of the State is dire. The practice had not only the sanction of long custom but also the force of law. Many English Acts of Parliament dating back to the days of Edward I deal with impressment. The press gang consists of an armed party of trustworthy bluejackets and petty officers, commanded by a commissioned officer, which proceeds to houses used by seafaring men. Upon these sailors or landsmen

the press gang lays violent hands. When captured they are taken forcibly to the ships-of-war waiting to complete their crews.

Terrible fights took place between the press gangs and their quarry. In these fights the killed and wounded were many.

Merchant seamen and fishermen hated the press gang, not only because they were compelled to serve against the country's enemies, but because naval discipline was then maintained by a savage use of the lash. Where now-a-days the commander will stop a man's leave, a sailor was formerly doomed for the same offence to a punishment of five hundred lashes. The boatswain's mates applied the cat to the backs of the prisoners down for punishment. In order that the flogging might be thorough, the floggers were changed at short intervals. The doctor stood by to see that the victim did not die under the lash. When he was beaten until he could bear no more the doctor would order him back to hospital. As soon as his wounds were healed he would be brought back to receive the balance of his punishment. The press gang was a terror to the people. Dr. Johnson, who wrote the celebrated Dictionary, complained that his black servant was seized by the press gang.

The press gang system made an English

merchantman dread a British man-of-war little less than an enemy. The man-of-war had the right to board privateers or merchant vessels of its own nation. This right often led to an exciting chase, as privateersmen were the best sailors upon whom naval officers could lay hands. The harsh laws on the subject of impressment are now yet repealed, but the system has become obsolete. The navy is now manned by voluntary service. When volunteers fail, a system of bounties is resorted to. This is a great contrast from the old system of impressing seamen, which finds a curious illustration in the following paragraph from the *Naval Chronicle* of September 23, 1803, which records—

“Last evening at eight o'clock a very hot press took place at Portsmouth, Portsea, and Gosport, in the harbour and most places in the neighbourhood. No protestations were listened to, and a vast number of persons of various descriptions were sent on board the different ships in this port.”

Most of the people thus seized were useless for seamanship, and were sent ashore, but nobody had any remedy for violent seizures and painful imprisonment. In the same year, which is to be remembered as the year in which Nelson hoisted his flag in the *Victory*, a

remarkable example of impressment took place. Captain Bowen, R.N., a clever and resourceful officer, being in great need of men for his frigate, pretended that there was a riot at Fort Monckton, a place only to be approached by a bridge. Captain Bowen hurried to the fort with a company of marines. He was followed by hundreds of people across the bridge. When the crowd was safely trapped, Bowen placed his marines on guard at the entrance of the bridge and picked out all the most likely men from the angry and disappointed crowd.

It must not be thought that the press gang was approved by all the higher officers in the navy. As far back as 1745, Admiral Vernon, a good and great man, who went by the name of "Old Grog" because he ordered the men's rum to be mixed with water, declared that it was necessary to win the affections of the seamen to the public service by a more humane treatment. Admiral Vernon lamented the situation in which the men were placed, and did all he could to relieve it.

Summary.—In the old days manning the Fleet was difficult. The Government compelled men to serve in the Navy when volunteers did not come forward in sufficient numbers. The Press Gang and its methods. Discipline and the use of the lash. Seizure of Dr. Johnson's black servant by the Press Gang. Admiral Vernon's humane efforts to improve the condition of men-of-war's men on the lower deck.

CHAPTER XV

MODERN RECRUITING METHODS

WHEN the press gang was abolished the recruiting of the navy was accomplished on the plan suggested by Admiral Vernon in the middle of the eighteenth century. The blue-jacket was made to feel that his superiors were his friends ; that he, no less than they, was a man and an Englishman. Flogging continued long after the press gang had vanished, but flogging was abolished in course of time. In the old days the plucky young seamen thought it a feather in their caps to undergo the lash without uttering a cry. When education advanced and the people voted as they liked, savage and stupid punishments were done away with.

The discipline of the navy greatly improved when it was found better to bring out what is good in a man than to flog out of him what is bad. In the old days one man fired a gun, and if he did not do it properly he could be

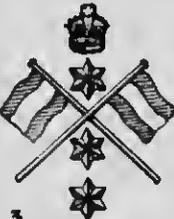
flogged. To-day a six-inch gun requires the close attention of, and rapid movements by, thirteen men, which are repeated ten times in a minute. When thirteen men are required to act together within the fraction of a second, it is useless to use harsh measures in order to procure good results. To obtain the best possible work from the thirteen men of a six-inch gun's crew, it is necessary to get from them the same sort of willing service as is shown by musicians in a good orchestra.

As the naval service is a hard one, good food is a necessity. In days gone by bad food was the rule. In the ships which defeated the Armada in 1588 scamen made bitter complaints about the quality of the rations and sourness of the small beer. There was neither tea nor coffee in those days. In 1797 the ships of the line then lying at Spithead broke out into open mutiny on account of the bad quality and short weight of the food. The flour was mouldy, the meat was rank and half decayed, the biscuits full of weevils, and the sick men on board His Majesty's ships were deprived of hospital comforts by embezzlement.

For a hundred and thirty years previous to the Spithead Mutiny, nothing had been done to improve the rations; but the Admiralty in

1797 began to pay attention to the victualing of the fleet. The mutineers had asked for vegetables whenever a ship was in port, for they had good reason to fear scurvy. Instead of vegetables they were given biscuit, flour, oatmeal and split peas. At last, after Trafalgar had been fought and the navy was immensely popular, a fresh vegetable ration was introduced when procurable. Rice and preserved potato with raisins were given when fresh vegetables could not be obtained. Sugar and tea were introduced in 1804. A few years later, the country having gained what it wanted—safety from invasion—began once more to forget the navy. The list of articles served out to the men contained almost everything necessary, but one grave error existed. There was no variety. A uniform scale of dietary for every day of every year, for every meal and for every part of the earth where the ship might happen to be, sickened the crews of the King's ships. They longed for change. So it came to pass that shore boats, called bum-boats, traded with the sailors. Finally a canteen was established on board each ship.

Until quite recently knives, forks and spoons were not served out to the navy. Seamen cut up their bread and beef rations with clasp-

<p>1</p>  <p>TORPEDO GUNNER'S MATE</p>	<p>2</p>  <p>GUNNER'S MATE, AND GUNLAYER FIRST CLASS.</p>	<p>3.</p>  <p>CHIEF YEOMAN OF SIGNALS</p>	<p>4.</p>  <p>CHIEF PETTY OFFICER. TELEGRAPHIST.</p>
<p>5.</p>  <p>CHIEF ARMOURER.</p>	<p>6.</p>  <p>PHYSICAL TRAINING INSTRUCTOR. FIRST CLASS.</p>	<p>7</p>  <p>MECHANICIAN.</p>	<p>8.</p>  <p>SHIP'S POLICE.</p>
<p>9.</p>  <p>GOOD SHOOTING BADGE. FIRST CLASS</p>	<p>10</p>  <p>SCHOOLMASTER & SHIP'S STEWARD (GOLD STAR) SHIP'S COOK, AND SHIP'S COOK'S MATE (SILVER STAR.)</p>	<p>11.</p>  <p>SICK BERTH STAFF.</p>	<p>12.</p>  <p>FIRST CLASS PETTY OFFICER.</p>

SEAMEN'S RATINGS

The lower ranks of some of these ratings have the same central device, but lack the crown and one or more stars, as the case may be. For example, a Yeoman of Signal's badge is No. 3 without the crown; a Leading Signalman's, No. 3 with only two stars, one above and one below the crossed flags; an Ordinary Signalman's has only the two crossed flags. The Chief Stoker's badge is No. 7 without the bottom star, other Stokers having only the propeller, without stars.

knives, and ate their meals with their fingers, long after paupers and criminals on shore were supplied with table cutlery, and in some cases with table linen. The British bluejacket was compelled to eat his meals sitting at a bare table.

The canteen system was a plan by which a ship's company could improve the rough rations issued by the navy, by clubbing together in a venture of their own. When a ship was commissioned, groceries and other articles of diet, dress and daily use, were bought in the name of the ship's company. These goods were sold retail as in a shop. As the goods were sold, the money obtained was used to pay off the debt incurred when buying them. If there was a profit it formed a ship's fund which was spent in buying luxuries for Christmas Day, or other holiday times. On these occasions the whole ship's company benefited from the outlay.

The whole question of the food of the navy has now been attended to. The dietary has been greatly improved, and the seamen's meals are better cooked and consist of better materials than at any time previously in the history of British Sea Power.

In the hundred years of peace for the Royal

			
Midshipman	Chief Gunner & Chief Boatswain.	Sub Lieutenant.	Lieutenant. under 8 Years seniority
			
Lieutenant. 8 Years seniority	Commander.	Captain.	Commodore. 2 nd Class.
			
Rear Admiral.	Vice Admiral.	Admiral.	Admiral of the Fleet.

OFFICERS' SLEEVE MARKINGS

The markings for Engineer officers are the same as for the corresponding ranks in the Executive branch, save that the top stripe is plain, being without the coveted "executive crest." Besides the Engineer officers, the Civil Branch includes the Medical, Accountant, Naval Instructor, Carpenter and Schoolmaster classes of officers.

Navy that followed Trafalgar, other evils crept in besides bad food and savage punishments. It is necessary that officers and men should wear their country's uniform to secure smartness, discipline, and the sense of mutual respect which every member of a ship's company pays to the King's orders. Uniform, however, had become the terror of the men of the lower deck until twenty years ago. Buttons and patterns were sometimes thought more of than gunnery and quick hitting. Dress became the curse of the navy. Intellect was squandered on petty details, and trifles connected with uniform became the source of anger and discontent. One of these regulations compelled the blue-jacket to keep a "jewing bag" for use and a housewife for inspection. For the benefit of inland readers, the contents of the regulation "housewife" may be given. They are as follows—

- Beeswax, 1 oz.
- Buttons, metal, large, 16 N°.
- Buttons, metal, small, 6 N°.
- Buttons, stained bone, 16 N°.
- Cotton, white, No. 24, 2 skeins.
- Needles, short, 12 N°.
- Needles, darning, 12 N°.

Pins, $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.

Tape, white, $\frac{1}{2}$ in. (in pieces of 18 yards each),
1 piece.

Tape, white, 1 in. (in pieces of 9 yards each),
1 piece.

Tape, Dutch, $\frac{3}{8}$ in. (in pieces of $8\frac{1}{2}$ yards
each), 2 pieces.

Thimble, tailors', 1 N^o.

Thread, whited brown, 25 skeins.

Thread, black, 25 skeins.

Worsted, blue, 2 ozs.

The men who were thus treated as little girls are the most intelligent and self-respecting community in the Empire. It is unprofitable that the time of our great administrators should be devoted to "tape, white, $\frac{1}{2}$ in., in pieces of 18 yards each," or "pins, $\frac{1}{2}$ oz." Can we wonder that our gunnery was sometimes neglected, that our guns were not up to date, and that the dockyard machinery was behind the times?

Uniform is necessary, and the uniform when worn should be neat, serviceable, and kept in good repair, but when these objects are attained, needless interference with the liberty of the men is found to be injurious and not beneficial to the service.

Summary.—Admiral Vernon's proposed reforms in recruiting adopted at last. The abolition of flogging took place some time after the abolition of the Press Gang. Discipline improved when the bluejacket discovered that his officers were his friends, and when admirals and captains discovered that it is easier to bring out the good in a man than to flog the bad out of him. The bad food served out to the men, and the gradual improvement in the quality and variety of the rations. The want of knives, forks and spoons in the Navy. Canteen system explained, and the methods by which naval dietary has improved. Uniform. The need for uniform is rational, since without it discipline suffers. Tendency in peacetime for dress regulations to become too rigid.

CHAPTER XVI

STEAM AND ITS EFFECTS

WHEN Napoleon, in 1805, prepared for the invasion of Britain from his camp at Boulogne, he had no expectation of reaching the shores of England in a shorter time than William the Conqueror had reached them in 1066. William the Conqueror and Napoleon employed the spring and summer in fitting out a fleet for the invasion of England. William sailed with a fleet of several hundred ships and a large number of transports. His army numbered between fifty and sixty thousand men; about half the number Napoleon collected together for his invasionary project. William the Conqueror left the coast of Normandy on the 27th of September at day-break. He arrived off Pevensey next day. From 1066 to 1805 the means of progression at sea were substantially the same. The propelling power was outside the ship, and seamanship consisted in managing the winds that blew and their effect on the ship in which the mariner sailed.

Early in the nineteenth century the use of steam as a motive power was urged by many inventors, notably by the American, Fulton. The application of steam to navigation had occupied his mind as early as 1793. When Napoleon was at the height of his power Fulton visited France and launched on the Seine a small steamboat which immediately sank. A second boat was built, and a trial trip was made with some measure of success, though without attaining any great speed. Robert Fulton is said to have offered to Napoleon his new invention—an engine that would drive a vessel against the wind. Napoleon considered the offer, but decided against it because the jealousy of French generals against French admirals was so strong as to induce the Emperor to decline Fulton's offer.

When Napoleon was taken prisoner after Waterloo and was outward bound to St. Helena in a British man-of-war, he set eyes, when off the Scilly Isles, on a strange craft apparently on fire, and heading against the wind. It was the steamer *Fulton*. Napoleon is said to have shed tears at the thought that, but for the jealousy of his generals against his admirals, he might, by the use of steamships, have been the master of England instead of her captive and an exile.

Although Fulton was not the earliest inventor to apply steam to navigation, he was the first who applied it with any practical success. The building of steamships in Great Britain was fairly established when Napoleon was taken prisoner in 1815. The shipbuilders of Scotland took the lead in their construction on the river Clyde. A marine engineer of Glasgow, David Napier, was the first to establish a regular steam service in salt water. In 1818 the *Rob Roy* began to run regularly between Glasgow and Belfast. In 1819 a line of steamers plied between Glasgow and Liverpool, and in the same year the Atlantic was crossed by the *Savannah*, a vessel of 100 feet long and 300 tons burden. In 1825 a vessel of 470 tons burden made a passage *via* the Cape from London to Calcutta in 113 days.

In the next thirteen years steam navigation made great strides, and strong representations were made to the Admiralty that the new method of propulsion by steam should be tested by the Admiralty. The suggestion was rejected, but the Colonial Office through the Under Secretary of State preferred a request that a steamer might be employed for the carriage of mails between Malta and the Ionian Islands—then a British Colony. This

request drew from the Board of Admiralty an indignant refusal which has become historic. The First Lord of the Admiralty officially regretted "the inability of my Lords Commissioners to comply with the request of the Colonial Department, as they felt it their bounden duty, upon national and professional grounds, to discourage, to the utmost of their ability, the employment of steam-vessels, as they considered that the introduction of steam was calculated to strike a fatal blow to the naval supremacy of the Empire; and to concede to the request preferred would be simply to let in the thin edge of the wedge, and would unquestionably lead to similar demands being made upon the Admiralty from other departments."

The country was then suffering from the cankers of a long peace. Wearied of the great wars with France, even the Admiralty had forgotten the lessons of "1800 and war time." Nothing in the shape of reforms or improvement was to be expected. The administration of Lord Melville was the era of little and useless frigates, overmasted sloops, and confined gun-brigs. In naval annals Lord Melville's period of office is remembered by his substitution of weak guns, called carronades, for long guns, whereby the



SIR THOMAS MASTERMAN HARDY
(The first Lord of the Admiralty to foresee the modern scientific Navy)

numerical strength of a man-of-war was increased at the expense of its fighting efficiency. Brighter times were soon to dawn for the navy. A little later Nelson's Hardy was made First Sea Lord. Sir Thomas Masterman Hardy was a great admiral and an administrator of sound judgment and remarkable foresight. A week before he died he said to Sir John Briggs, the Chief Clerk of the Admiralty—

“Some people laugh at science, but science will alter the whole of the character of the navy ; depend upon it steam and gunnery are in their infancy.”

At this time the sailing man-of-war had been brought to the highest pitch of perfection, but the sailing man-of-war was doomed. The famous engineer Brunel was the first to persuade the Lords of the Admiralty that the methods of William the Conqueror at sea were already out of date, and that the use of steam must be introduced into the Royal Navy. In 1839 the East India Company ordered some iron steam warships from Messrs. Laird of Birkenhead, but it was not until 1840 that the Navy List of Ships included an iron steamer of any sort. In that year the Admiralty acquired three small iron paddle gun-boats. The first iron paddle frigate ever built was offered to the British

Government and rejected. It was sold to the Government of Mexico.

At length in 1846 the Admiralty acquired a transport steamer of 1,400 tons fitted with paddles. The use of paddles in smooth water, such as rivers or sheltered lakes, is convenient, but in the open sea a paddle-ship is frequently in great danger during heavy weather. The invention of the screw for propelling steamships revolutionized marine navigation. A Swedish engineer, John Ericsson, and Sir Francis Pettit Smith patented an invention for fitting a submerged screw to steam vessels. The Lords of the Admiralty were towed from Somerset House to Blackwall and back at an average speed of more than ten miles an hour. Just as Lord Melville in a previous Government had refused to consider the adoption of steam, so the Lords of the Admiralty even then "declined to entertain the project" of introducing the invention to naval vessels.

After the screw had thoroughly established its reputation, the Admiralty withdrew its decision, but a period of sixty years passed before steam finally triumphed over masts and sails in the Royal Navy.

Brought up on the splendid traditions of centuries, naval officers naturally disliked the

idea of parting with the masts and sails which had developed the characters of the seamen who had won for Britain the mastery of the sea. Nor were they without excuse. For the transfer of the management of the means of propulsion from naval officers on deck to mechanics in stokehole and engine-room was a change of vast proportions. Little by little machinery replaced the hand power that sufficed for the warship of earlier days. Officers and men had only learned their work by struggling with wind and sea. When everything is done by machinery where was the necessary training to be found which would create officers as brave and as skilful as the old sea dogs who had gone before? That was the reason why the system of masts and sails died hard.

Long after the great mercantile steamship companies had abolished mast and sails and relied solely upon steam, the Royal Navy continued the use of composite ships provided with steam power and also equipped with mast and sails. Not until the early years of the present century was the victory finally won. The loss of H.M.S. gunboat *Condor* (a heavily masted vessel) off the coast of Vancouver Island gave the final blow to the mast and sails school. Except for training purposes the fighting portion of the

Royal Navy is now a collection of machinery. The forces of steam, hydraulics, electricity and air have been recruited for naval purposes since the last masted vessel disappeared from the navy list. Every naval officer and man is taught the uses and management of machinery.

Owing to the admirable system of training now in force there is no reason to think that the present generation of officers and men is inferior to those who went before. The conversion of a rule-of-thumb navy into a scientific navy has involved a vast amount of care and thought of which the nation has heard very little. The reforms which were long overdue in consequence of prejudice in the navy against steamships, or tea-kettles as they were called, has involved very hard work both to the Admiralty and to the service afloat. That the transition period from mast and sails to steam and electricity has been accomplished successfully, speaks well for the skill and patriotism of the Admiralties responsible for the change.

Summary.—Before steamships came in methods of progress at sea practically the same for a thousand years. William the Conqueror crossed the Channel by the same means that Napoleon attempted to cross it. The invention of steam. Fulton's visit to Napoleon. Development of steam propulsion after Trafalgar and

Waterloo. Refusal of the Admiralty in 1838 to permit the carriage of mails between Malta and the Ionian Islands by a steam vessel. Sir Thomas Masterman Hardy's predictions about steam and gunnery. Paddle ships and the adoption of screw propellers. Gradual abolition of mast and sails and development of modern Navy.

CHAPTER XVII

THE MODERN NAVY

AT the beginning of the nineteenth century the sea fighting of Britain came to an end. For more than a hundred years the strength of the Royal Navy has not been tested in warfare with a great maritime nation. At the end of the American War in 1813 many of the ships of the line and most of the officers and men were thrown out of employment. Some of them fell into poverty. The navy was neglected, and when war broke out with Russia in 1854 many of the admirals and captains were old men. Energy, activity and the power of quick decision can only be looked for from the young or from men in the prime of life. Old and rusty admirals commanded fleets which in 1854 were driven by steam but were otherwise organized on ancient plans which had lasted for generations. The lessons of the Russian War taught the world that wooden battleships were no longer suited to battles with modern guns. Wooden ships easily caught fire,

and the bombardments of Kinburn and Odessa, where wooden ships were burned, compelled all maritime Powers to build ships of iron instead of wood.

Iron walls replaced wooden walls in the navy not only to prevent fire but to stop the entrance of shot and shell.

As usual, the French were quicker than the English in seeing the need for change. France was building four large and speedy wooden battleships in the dockyards of Brest and Toulon. While they were building the French Admiralty changed the design and fastened armour plates upon their wooden sides. One of these, the *Gloire*, was afloat in 1859. The British Admiralty, much against their will, took action and built the first British sea-going armoured iron ship, the *Warrior*. I remember as a child being taken to the *Warrior's* launch in December 1860. As I was present at the launch of the *Dreadnought*, the story of what happened to the British Navy between the building of the *Warrior* and the building of the *Dreadnought* is specially interesting to the present writer.

When it was resolved to build warships of iron instead of wood, some time passed before it was possible to lay down ships constructed only of metal. Great Britain had a number



H.M.S. "WARRIOR," THE FIRST BRITISH IRONCLAD
(Masts and sails almost useless, except for swinging to anchor)

of fine wooden ships armed with powerful muzzle-loading guns which could not be thrown away or sold for firewood. These vessels were adapted, as the French battleship *Gloire* had been adapted, by fixing iron armour on their sides. At this time, 1861-2, the maximum thickness of armour was six inches. One of the wooden ships that was converted to an ironclad was the *Royal Sovereign*. She was remarkable for the introduction of two principles in battleship building which have since been adopted by all nations. The first novelty was the abolition of sail power, owing to the fact that mast and sails had ceased to be useful in ships intended for heavy fighting.

The second principle which was adopted on the *Royal Sovereign* was the protection of gunners as they stood round their guns. Protection was obtained by building round the gun a sort of hut with thick iron walls. This hut is called a casemate or a turret according to its position. When the *Royal Sovereign* was finished, she had iron armour $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches thick, carried five 9-inch guns in turrets, and steamed at a speed of 11 knots.

Notwithstanding the *Warrior* and the *Royal Sovereign*, the Admiralty could not make up its mind whether oak was really useless as a



Photo (Cobb)

H. M. S. "HRESISTIBLE"

(Note the 6-inch guns protruding from the casemates on the side of the ship)

material for battleships. Fortunately the mistake of the Admiralty was not discovered in war time, but they wasted much of the taxpayers' money in building ships like the *Lord Clyde* and *Lord Warden* with hulls built of wood with armour plates fixed on the sides. From 1859 until 1866 wooden ironclads were built, or armour was attached to existing wooden hulls. It is not fair to blame the Admiralty altogether, because the Sea Lords of that date had all been brought up in the old wooden navy. They loved the fine qualities developed by battling with the winds and waves. And they were sorry to part for ever with the traditions of heavy rigging and large sail power which had lasted from Drake and Blake to Nelson and Collingwood.

Improvements in guns forced the Lords of the Admiralty to continue the work of reform in ship construction, as we shall see in the chapter on gunnery. As the power of the gun developed, so the thickness and resisting power of armour-plating was increased. Soon after 1866 it was seen necessary to shut up the heavy guns of a fighting ship in an iron box and to leave the other parts of the ship which were without guns more or less unprotected. Fourteen ships of this kind were built. They were

all heavily rigged with masts and sails. Some of them, like the *Alexandra*, were provided with a steel deck which could not be set on fire by the enemy or penetrated by shot or shell at a distance.

Warship builders were much puzzled by the difficulties of building warships, because some qualities of a warship can only be procured by the sacrifice of others. If, for instance, great speed is required, large engine-room is necessary, and large coal-bunkers if the ship is required to steam for ten days or a fortnight without calling for coal at a friendly port. Large engine-rooms and large coal-bunkers reduce the space available for crew and guns, and diminish the quantity and thickness of armour-plating. A warship is nothing but a gun platform, and all the other qualities, such as speed, safety from enemy's fire and capacity to turn quickly or to steam for a long period of time, are chiefly necessary for the purpose of carrying the guns into action on the day of battle.

For twenty years after 1866 the heads of the British Navy experimented with all sorts of armour-clad ships. Some of them were not fit to go to sea; others able to stand the buffeting of the Bay of Biscay and of the North Sea were scarcely fit to lie in the line of battle.

Though each of the ships built during this time of trial failed to reach success, each of them contributed something towards the production of the true fighting ships. Two of these ships, the *Captain* and the *Devastation*, deserve a word of description.

The *Captain* was designed by Captain Coles. His idea was to build a ship showing only a small surface above the water, so that the enemy's gunners should find it difficult to hit her. The guns of the *Captain* were placed in turrets. Curiously enough, Captain Coles rigged his vessel with heavy masts which rendered her top-heavy in a high sea. After having made two cruises in the Channel, H.M.S. *Captain* sailed with the Channel Fleet for the Atlantic. On the night of September 6, 1870, a hard gale blew from the south-west. The flagship and the rest of the fleet lost sight of the *Captain*. She capsized in a fierce squall and sank to the bottom, carrying with her 475 officers and men. Among the dead were her commander, Captain Burgoyne, V.C., and her unfortunate designer, Captain Coles. Eighteen persons were saved. One of them who described to the writer the events of the night said that on the lower deck the opinion was rife that the ship was doomed from the time the gale struck her.



Photo Field.

L.M.S. "NEPTUNE" — A SUPER-DREADNOUGHT
(Note the wireless apparatus stretched between the masts)

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As good comes out of evil, one result of the loss of the *Captain* was the abandonment of mast and sails in iron battleships. The *Devastation* was a box of machinery without mast or sails, all the work on board, as far as possible, being done by steam and water power. The bluejackets and stokers of the *Devastation* much disliked the darkness and discomfort of a crowded ship in which the men's quarters were below the water-line. In the earlier ironclads, like the *Devastation*, there was no electric light when they were first launched, but the electric light was afterwards supplied to all the battleships in the navy.

It is needless to trace in detail the improvements that took place in the building of battleships up to the year 1901. No less than ten different designs were adopted in succession, each an improvement on the last. The speed was increased; the resisting power of the armour was greatly strengthened, better protection was given to the guns, the offensive power against an enemy was increased, and the main qualities required in line-of-battle ships were developed.

About the year 1901 the Admiralty made a new departure, and was busy in designing a new type of ship, now known as the Dread-

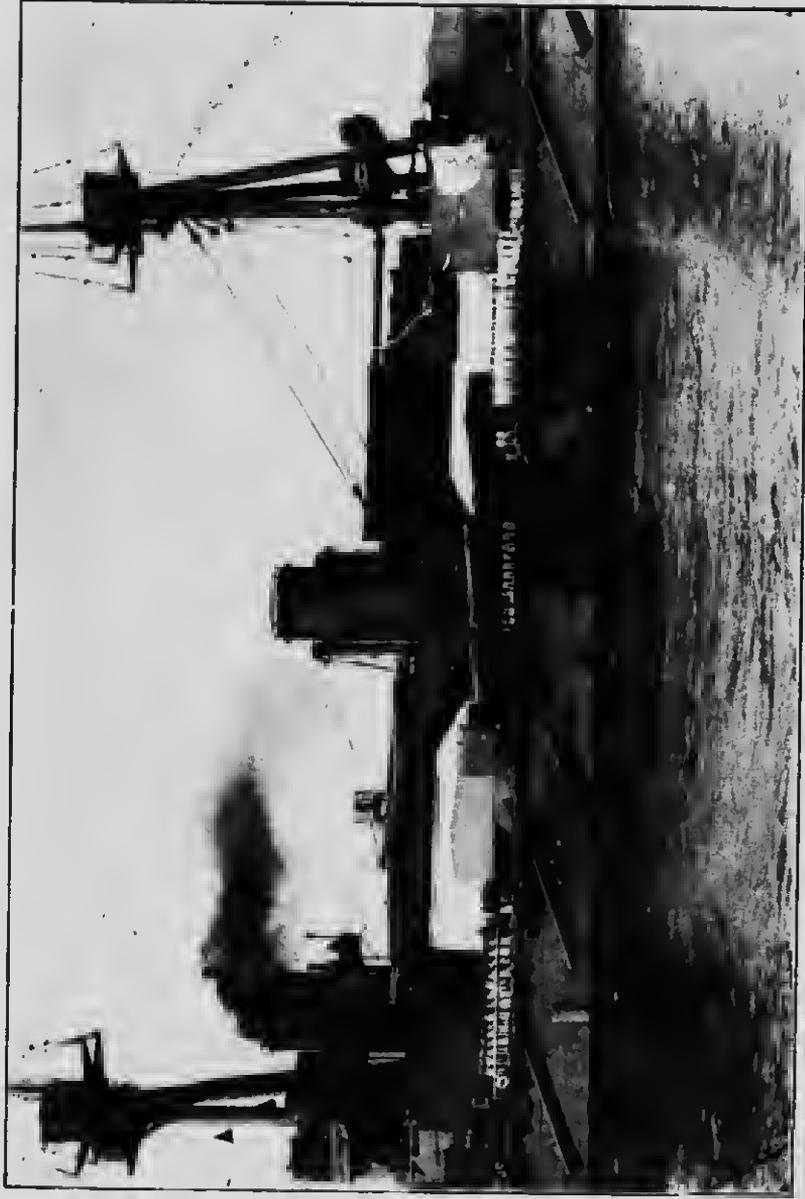


Photo Cribb

U. S. S. "NEPTUNE" AMBUSHIPS

(This picture will give some idea of the great size of the super-Dreadnought battleships)

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nought, and its improvement, the super-Dreadnought. The main features of the Dreadnought are three. First, it is a gun platform of large size and great speed. Second, the big guns are all of one type. And, third, the guns can fire all round the ship and altogether on one object. In Nelson's time a battleship could only shoot at an enemy on one side or ahead or astern.

The Dreadnought type of the British and foreign navies is best described as the "high-speed-big-gun-all-round-fire battleship."

A battleship is defined as a ship fit to lie in the line of battle during a naval engagement. Other ships, such as cruisers, scouts, destroyers and torpedo boats keep at a respectful distance, while the big ships are engaged in sinking each other. Cruisers, however, of late years have approached more nearly to the character of battleships. A cruiser is a swift ship originally intended for destroying the commerce of the enemy and protecting the trade routes of her own country. Of late years it has been impossible to draw the line between the largest and strongest armoured cruisers and battleships of the Dreadnought style. It is as difficult to distinguish between a cruiser like the *Indomitable* or the *Invincible* and a battleship like the *Dreadnought* as between a tall pony and a small



H.M. CRUISER "INDEFATIGABLE"

(Equal to the "Dreadnought" type: combines great speed with powerful guns which can fire all round the ship)

horse. In the life of a cat there comes a time when no one can say whether it is cat or kitten. So with the modern cruisers, they are so strong, swift and heavily armed that nobody can really decide whether they are battleships or cruisers.

Summary.—French example in building ships of iron. English follow French example in battleship construction. Replacement of oak by iron and steel. H.M.S. *Warrior*, the first British ironclad. The *Royal Sovereign*. Gun protection and armour plating. The duel between the gun and the armour plate involved by continual improvement of both. New types of battleships. The design of H.M.S. *Captain* and her loss in the Bay of Biscay with Captain Cowper Coles, her unfortunate designer, and 474 officers and men. Final abolition of mast and sails. Growth of the Dreadnought class of battleship. Definition of Dreadnought type. Growth in the size of cruisers. Differences between cruisers and battleships.

CHAPTER XVIII

TORPEDOES AND TORPEDO CRAFT

FOR more than two hundred years seamen in time of war have attempted to blow up their enemy's ships by means of explosive mines. These weapons were long known as "infernal machines." They were used by or against the Royal Navy as far back as the seventeenth century. In both our wars with the United States, the Americans endeavoured to sink British vessels by means of infernal machines or torpedoes. In the war with Russia some damage was done to British men-of-war by stationary torpedoes or mines. Towards the end of the nineteenth century the way was discovered to direct a torpedo under water by means of its own engine, as a motor-car is propelled on the high-road by internal machinery.

The method of steering these under-water torpedoes has been very greatly improved since Mr. Whitehead gave his name to the torpedo adopted by the British Navy. So great is the accuracy of a modern torpedo that no ship

within a range of four miles is safe from attack. The invention in the latter part of the nineteenth century which related to naval warfare exercised a greater influence upon the plans of admirals and captains at sea than the self-steered torpedo. In Nelson's day an admiral might sleep quietly in his bed at night even if he were within hail of an enemy's coast. To-day torpedo boats leaving port in the evening, fitted with machinery for starting the torpedo on its errand of destruction, can steam at the rate of nearly forty miles an hour, and attack the enemy at a distance of three hundred miles before dawn. Sleep is difficult for admirals under these conditions.

The existence of torpedo boats involved the creation of a new class of craft whereby the torpedo boat might be caught and checkmated. This new class of gunboat were known as "catchers." At first they were too slow for the work they were required to do. But in 1893 the invention of an efficient destroyer of torpedo boats was successfully accomplished. The navy has now dropped the use of the word "catcher." The new "destroyer" is a "catcher," a torpedo boat and also a gunboat. She is able to destroy a torpedo boat either by gun fire, or by ramming her; and, in



Photo Tribb

AN OCEAN-GOING TORPEDO BOAT
(Speed, 34 miles an hour)

addition, a destroyer is herself a most efficient torpedo boat. The young lieutenants of the navy when first entrusted with the command of a destroyer, are among the happiest of men afloat or ashore. When His Majesty King George V was on the active list of the navy he commanded a torpedo boat during one of the annual Naval Manœuvres in such a way as to earn the praise of his admiral for marked zeal and ability.

Life in winter time on a torpedo boat or a destroyer is uncommonly hard. During heavy weather cooking is impossible. It is the custom for the officers to lash a cooked ham to one of the funnel stays so that any one needing food in a gale may cut a slice to eat with his ration of bread or biscuit. On a destroyer fifty-seven men are cooped up in a sleeping space so small that no County Council or Municipal Authority on shore would permit paupers or criminals to occupy it. No knives or forks, no table-cloths are served out; and no luxuries or comforts of any kind are possible when a heavy sea is running. The courage and patience shown in winter-time by all ranks in our torpedo fleet and in those of other countries is marvellous to the landsman who has watched them—as I have done.



H.M.S. "SWIFT," THE LARGEST DESTROYER IN THE WORLD

(The tonnage of the *Swift* is 1,800; she is armed with four 4-inch guns, and her engines give 30,000 horse-power. She is known in the Service as the "Boy Scout," because her great speed and power rank her with the "Scout" class of cruiser)

Torpedo boats and destroyers are now built not only to float on top of the water, but also to navigate and fight under water. These vessels are called submarines. Some of the most powerful are fitted with engines enabling submarines to attack an enemy at a distance of a thousand miles from the starting-place. Great improvements are still being made in submarines, and nobody knows for certain what will be their effect in the next naval war, except that they are considered by British naval authorities to be the weapons of the strongest Power. Submarines are like terriers. As a dog enters a rabbit-hole and drives out or destroys his quarry, so a fleet of submarines can enter any harbour unprotected by a boom and heavy steel netting. Once inside, the submarines may successfully torpedo the enemy's craft lying there. If the enemy's fleet lying in harbour detect the presence of hostile submarines, and put to sea to escape the unseen danger under water, they stand a good chance of being caught by the battleship fleet of the stronger Power, waiting for them outside, and being destroyed in detail. It is for this reason that submarines are thought to be more useful to the stronger than to the weaker Power.



Photo Cribb

THE WEAPON OF THE STRONG

(The world's largest submarine undergoing trials in the Solent. The large rudder above the water is for steering the ship when submerged)

Summary.—Past history of explosive mines. The Whitehead torpedo. The torpedo boat. The new gun-boats for catching torpedo boats were called "Catchers." Destroyers replaced "Catchers." Delight of young officers in receiving command of torpedo craft. Manning the destroyers. Submarines. Their use in an enemy's harbour.

CHAPTER XIX

GUNNERY

NOTWITHSTANDING the invention of the torpedo, the floating mine, the submarine and other deadly weapons, the gun is to-day, as in the days of Elizabeth, the first and principal weapon of the navy. Three years before Trafalgar, Nelson complained that some of his officers paid more attention to the charm of the French epaulette than to the work of gunnery. For nearly a hundred years after Nelson's death at Trafalgar the rulers of the British Navy seemed to forget that the object of a warship is to carry guns to the place where the enemy may be destroyed on the day of battle. For a century after Trafalgar paintwork and gold-leaf attracted more attention than straight shooting and quick hitting.

In Nelson's day, sea-fights often took place when the ships engaged were so near together that the sailors fighting could see the whites of their enemy's eyes. Nelson's gunnery tactics were to get so close to his enemy that the

shot could not miss. Nelson's guns had no sights. Aim was a matter of guess-work, but it was found that at four hundred yards gunners could hear the swearing of their opponents, and that, when they were near enough to see the whites of French and Spanish eyes, the British knew that they were at a distance of two hundred yards.

Until lately all guns were loaded at the muzzle, and therefore could be fired only very slowly. To-day guns are loaded at the breech and a six-inch gun can be fired ten times a minute. Seven years after Trafalgar the English were so confident of their superior gunnery that many captains did not trouble to carry out target practice. In the American War of 1812 the gunnery of the Americans was generally superior to the British. Some English ships had not fired a shot for over three years.

The English brig *Peacock* was captured by the American *Hornet* because the *Hornet's* men had practised gunnery and the *Peacock's* had not done so. The *Peacock* was known as *The Yacht*, from her spick-and-span appearance. The decks were snowy white, the ropes neatly coiled, and the bars and screws of the gun were polished until they resembled mirrors. The *Peacock* was well handled and bravely fought, but her gunnery



H.M.S. "SHANNON" CAPTURING THE U.S. FRIGATE "CHESAPEAKE" BY BOARDING HER
(The *Chesapeake* was a larger vessel, fired a heavier broadside, and carried a more numerous crew, yet she was captured inside 15 minutes)

had been neglected, and she was captured. After the capture of the British frigate *Macedonian*, by the *United States*, it was found that in some of the British guns the cartridges had been entered the wrong way first, and therefore could not be fired. These gunnery defects make unpleasant reading, but they taught us a lesson. It is refreshing, however, to recall the case of the *Shannon*, which captured the *United States* frigate *Chesapeake*. Captain Broke of the *Shannon* had been in the habit of exercising the ship's company at gun drill for an hour and a half every morning. The guns were carefully sighted, target practice was frequently carried out, and prizes of tobacco were given to the best men behind the guns.

For nearly eighty years the gunnery of the British Navy was somewhat neglected. A strong movement arose, however, which awoke the navy to the nation's need for good gunnery. Promotion had been generally obtainable, not for efficient gunnery, but for the neatness of the paint-work, brass-work, and fittings of the ship. Ambitious officers at one time used to spend a portion of their pay in buying gold leaf to make their ships pretty.

The internal organization of a man-of-war includes six departments—



Photo Cribb

H.M.S. "DREADNOUGHT" CLEARED FOR ACTION, AND ABOUT TO FIRE HER 12-INCH GUNS
AT A TOWED TARGET ON THE PORT BEAM

1. Gunnery.
2. Navigation and pilotage.
3. Torpedo work.
4. Signals, including wireless.
5. Seamanship.
6. The motive power of the ship, which is in the hands of the engineer officers.

Enormous progress in the art of gunnery has been made during the last ten years. It is now possible to fire the heaviest guns and at a distance of eight miles to place shot after shot within the area of a tennis-lawn or cricket pitch. Recent Boards of Admiralty have shown themselves thoroughly alive to the importance of good gunnery. The routine on board a first-class battleship does not lend itself readily to gunnery exercises. The noise when firing takes place is prodigious, especially from the smaller guns. Gun-deafness is becoming a common ailment in the navy. Cotton wool in the ears, and standing on tiptoe when the turret guns are fired, are found somewhat to prevent gun-deafness. Gunnery at sea necessarily stops the routine, and as battleships and cruisers are generally in port every week leave is given to one or other of the watches for the weekend. Saturday is devoted to holy-stoning and polishing paste. On Friday scrubbing



GUNNER GROUNDS

The first seaman to hit the target ten times in one minute with a hundred-pound shot from a 6-inch gun. At the last gunlayer's test no less than 170 men equalled or excelled the feat. The triple V-shaped stripe on our sailors' dress commemorates Nelson's three great victories, the Nile, Copenhagen and Trafalgar, and the black kerchief worn by our sailors commemorates Nelson's death.

canvas and rubbing bright work is the order of the day. Every morning, from 6 a.m. to 8 a.m. is devoted to cleaning ship; an hour a day, wet or fine, to cleaning guns. In a battleship fully 350 men are employed in cleaning ship. The living decks of a man-of-war are never too well ventilated, and cleanliness is absolutely necessary. The difficulties in the way of securing ample practice for gunnery and torpedo work are not small, but great progress has been made, and the service of the guns is a spectacle that once seen is never forgotten.

A six-inch gun requires thirteen men to serve it. As many as ten shots have been placed on the target in sixty seconds—a hit every six seconds. Imagine how many things have to go right when thirteen men handling a 100-lb. shell manage to place it on the target a mile or more distant, every six seconds! No orchestra of trained violinists could keep better time. So keen are the men for the honour of the gun's crew to which they belong that on the days when gunnery exercises are being carried out it is a common thing for the gun's crew to agree among themselves that they will take no rum ration on that day. (The rum ration is served out before noon.) The quickness and accuracy with which

the six-inch guns of the navy are served is equalled by the wonderful discipline of the sixty-three men who serve the turret guns of the ships of the line. Although everything is done by machinery, the extreme accuracy of the sixty-three members of the gun's crew in handling the complicated parts of the whole apparatus is almost incredible to landmen, and is only possible to intelligent men working under strict discipline.

Summary.—The gun is the principal weapon, and a warship is a floating gun-carriage. Gunnery in Nelson's day. Muzzle-loading guns gave way to breech-loading guns. Incessant practice required for good gunnery. Neglect of gunnery by the British in the American War of 1812-14. The *Shannon* and the *Chesapeake*. The internal organization of a man-of-war. Progress in the art of gunnery. The routine on a warship. Firing the 6-inch and 12-inch guns of a ship-of-the-line.

CHAPTER XX

WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY, COAL, OIL, NAVAL BASES

THE invention of wireless telegraphy has immensely increased the strength of the strongest Sea Power. Every ship fitted with wireless apparatus for sending messages is a moving signal station helpful to the Admiralty by giving information. The first line of defence is not ships but information. Imagine, for instance, a hostile army preparing to invade England and the difference that would be made if our Admiralty had twelve hours' notice before the expedition started or had no notice at all! The system of wireless telegraphy used by the British Navy is in force all over the world. In the North Sea, not only torpedo boats, destroyers and submarines, but some of the fishermen's steam trawlers are also fitted with wireless telegraphy. There is not a square mile on the face of the waters that is not patrolled by the fleet.

Through "wireless" the whereabouts of every



Photo W. S. Campbell

THE ADMIRALTY BUILDINGS, WHITEHALL, LONDON
(Showing the wireless apparatus by which the Sea Lords communicate with Admirals afloat)

foreign warship and every English and foreign steamer is known daily and reported to the Admiralty. In a great room in the basement of the Admiralty buildings, known as the War Room, the exact position of every ship outward and homeward bound is plotted on large charts. The great ocean routes are crowded with ships as London, Montreal or Melbourne streets with traffic in the middle of the day. The protection of these ocean avenues is a constant and never-ending task of the Admiralty. In the discharge of that duty the power of ordering British ships to repair to any given spot without the knowledge of a possible enemy is a priceless advantage. It is now possible to communicate direct at a distance of 2000 miles without using a telegraph wire or cable. Every ship of war is in communication with some other ship or wireless station which carries the network of British wireless communication all round the world. The air cannot be cut, but a wire can be cut, or a submarine cable destroyed by a grapnel or cutting shears. Wireless telegraphy is the pith and marrow of war.

I shall never forget being on board the Flagship *Exmouth* when the present First Sea Lord, Sir A. K. Wilson, V.C., was engaged in manoeuvres for the purpose of testing the best system

of commerce protection. By wireless telegraphy, passed on from one ship to another, the Admiral had ordered some eighty vessels to rendezvous at a certain spot in the Atlantic three days later at four o'clock in the afternoon. The Admiral's scouts had reported to him that some of the enemy's battleships would probably be in a certain position at that time. When H.M.S. *Exmouth* reached the spot the enemy's ships were there. An hour before the appointed time not another ship was in sight. A few minutes later columns of smoke appeared on the horizon from every point of the compass. The fleet drew in and surrounded the doomed enemy in a deadly circle. After a few minutes' engagement the enemy surrendered.

Under the old system looking for an enemy's ship was like a search for a needle in a hayrick. To-day the preparation for sea-fighting is like a game of chess. Wireless telegraphy enables every move to be known beforehand. The chessboard is open. Little is hidden from the Government that owns a wide-world system of "wireless."

In 1796 and 1798 the British fleet was evaded by the operations of Hoche, of Savary and of Bonaparte. Bonaparte invaded Egypt after passing Nelson's fleet. Part of Hoche's

army with over 6000 men on board passed seventeen consecutive days in the Channel and in Bantry Bay, and was not disturbed.

Never again will a British commander-in-chief be ignorant of his enemy's whereabouts provided the discipline and efficiency of officers and men are as good as they are to-day. At no time since the American War of 1812 has the control of Britain's fighting fleets been in more efficient hands. Invasion of this country by surprise is only possible if our admirals should prove incompetent and be out-manceuvred by efficient foreign admirals.

COAL AND OIL

When masts and sails were replaced by steam coal became the breath of empire. Coaling stations all over the world are possessed by no Power but Great Britain. Five points on the earth's surface are necessary for the Power in command of the sea. Britain is astride those five points. They are—

1. The Straits of Dover.
2. The Straits of Gibraltar.
3. The Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb.
4. The Straits of Singapore.
5. The Cape of Good Hope.

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Photo Credit

THE DREADNOUGHT CRUISER "INDOMITABLE" COASTING PLYMOUTH ROCKY AEB

These five points on the earth's surface are linked up together by British coaling stations. When foreign fleets circumnavigate the globe they must either take their coal from British stations or go without. When the Russians sent two large fleets to the Far East during the great war with Japan, English colliers accompanied them and English coal enabled them to reach their destination. When the United States sent a battleship fleet to Australia and to the China Seas English coal conveyed by English ships enabled them to accomplish their purpose.

During the last few years oil has been substituted for coal in men-of-war. The advantages of oil are mainly that it takes up less room than coal and can be supplied on board even at sea with much greater ease and less labour. Coaling a battleship is a laborious, lengthy and extremely dirty operation. In heavy weather it is impossible to coal ships at sea. Oil, however, can be pumped through a pipe from one vessel to another in any weather, and oil fuel seems likely to be the war fuel of the future.

Summary.—The invention of wireless telegraphy. Early and rapid information of supreme importance before a war breaks out; still more so in war-time. The business of the Admiralty is to watch

the movement of all the ships on the sea. The aid of wireless telegraphy in keeping watch and ward over British merchantmen. The evasion of a British fleet humanly impossible under new conditions. Effect of "wireless" in averting invasion. Coal is the breath of Empire. The strategical points of the earth are the Straits of Dover, Gibraltar, Bab-el-Mandeb, Singapore and the Cape of Good Hope. These five points are linked up by a chain of coaling-stations, the whole network being under the British flag. British coaling facilities unique and unmatched by any other Power. The use of oil as a fuel is on the increase. Facility of shipping oil pumped through a pipe as compared with the laborious operation of coaling.

CHAPTER XXI

RECENT CHANGES

DURING the past five years vital changes have been made in the Navy. The work of changing a mast and sails, rule-of-thumb navy into a scientific, mechanical and world-wide organization, has not been effected without severe effort. Some of the reforms were naturally assailed by seamen of the old school. Some are still opposed, but as time progresses all of them show that instant readiness for war requires vast and far-reaching reforms. For a hundred years after Trafalgar things went on very much in the same groove, with the consequence that the Fleet was never ready for war.

Among the reforms which have come into force since 1904 are four fundamental changes—

1. The introduction of the nucleus crew system.
2. The redistribution of the fleet in accordance with modern requirements.

3. The disuse of warships that can neither fight nor run away.

4. The introduction of the all-big-gun type of battleship and battleship-cruiser known as the Dreadnought and super-Dreadnought.

In order to understand the magnitude of these four great reforms a short explanation of each may be useful.

THE NUCLEUS CREW SYSTEM

Prior to the introduction of the nucleus crew system, the ships of the Navy were either fully manned and commissioned for service, or were not manned at all. Vessels not in commission were either in the Fleet Reserve or the Dockyard Reserve. Those in the Dockyard Reserve were undergoing repair and not ready for service; those in the Fleet Reserve were supposed to be instantly ready for war. Each Fleet Reserve ship had from six to ten men on board as a Care and Maintenance party, with possibly the Navigating Officer, an Engineer Officer and one or two warrant officers. Apart from this small permanent party, any labour necessary for the ship to keep it efficient was supplied by working parties from the naval barracks or

depot. These working parties were not formed of men attached to the vessel, but were made up anyhow and changed from day to day, and often there were not sufficient men for the needs of all the ships. The barracks were full of men and the vessels were empty.

When an order for mobilization came, a crew was detailed in the barraeks and sent on board; the officers were collected from anywhere; ammunition and stores were hastily embarked, and the ships were bundled out to sea. Officers and men were all new to their ships and to each other. I have seen a "mobilized" ship in the old Channel Squadron at naval manœuvres in the Atlantic try for half-an-hour to carry out an exercise and then fail. The same exercise was performed and completed in five minutes by the ships in commission. Is it astonishing that the procession of ships to sea on mobilization was invariably followed within a few days by another procession of lame ducks coming baek for repairs? As a battle may quickly follow mobilization it is evident that the Fleet Reserve system needed reform.

Under the present nucleus crew system, every vessel not in full commission is kept in commission with a reduced crew varying from two-

fifths to three-fifths of the full complement. This nucleus crew contains all the experts and specialists of the ship, in all classes, together with all the specialist officers, and also a number of the unskilled ratings. On mobilization only the balance of the watch-keeping officers and the less skilled men are required to complete a ship to full crew, and these men are always detailed by name in other establishments in the ports. The vessels with nucleus crews are organized at each port in squadrons, under a flag officer, and form the third division of the Home Fleet; they frequently go to sea for drills and exercises, and they carry out their gunnery, torpedo and other exercises on practically the same scale as the fully commissioned ships in the active squadrons. Consequently, on mobilization the ship is in an efficient condition. The advantage of the nucleus crew system over the state of affairs that it superseded is now clear.

THE REDISTRIBUTION OF THE FLEET

Prior to 1905 all our most modern fighting vessels of all kinds were sent to foreign stations as soon as they were completed and commissioned. This was accepted as a matter of course,

and little or no attention was paid to the altered conditions that had arisen due to the increasing naval power of Germany. The question of the defence of the British Isles from attack by sea by counter-attack was ignored.

In 1904 the organization of commissioned vessels in home waters consisted of a Home Squadron of eight battleships of the oldest type, and a Channel Squadron of six or eight battleships of the next oldest type. There was also one squadron of six armoured cruisers in home waters, four armoured cruisers attached to the battle squadrons, and an instructional flotilla of eight destroyers attached to each of the three home ports. All the best battleships were attached to the Mediterranean Fleet of twelve battleships, and we also had six battleships in Chinese waters. All the remaining large vessels were at the home ports in the reserve, without crews and out of commission. There were more destroyers on foreign stations than at present, but the majority of the destroyers and all the torpedo boats were also in reserve at home without crews. The main precaution as regards the safeguarding of the British Isles from attack was that the Home and Channel Squadrons were not both permitted to be absent from home waters at the same time.

The gradual stages by which the present organization has been reached may briefly be traced.

In the first place, it was decided to transfer four battleships from the Mediterranean to the Home Squadron, and an Atlantic Fleet of eight battleships was formed as an intermediate force between the Channel and the Mediterranean Fleets. A second armoured cruiser squadron was also formed in home waters.

At the same time all efficient vessels in reserve were put in commission with nucleus crews, including destroyers, and organized into three reserve divisions at the home ports. All torpedo boats were placed in commission and permanently organized into local defence flotillas at the home ports. At the conclusion of the Russo-Japanese War the five battleships remaining in Chinese waters were recalled and added to the Channel Fleet.

In 1906 the squadron of training cruisers was reconstituted with armoured cruisers in place of protected cruisers, and early in 1907 the three nucleus divisions were formed into a new Home Fleet, and at the same time, by the withdrawal of two battleships from each of the Mediterranean, Atlantic and Channel Fleets, and a redistribu-

tion of the cruiser squadrons, a New Division of six fully manned armoured cruisers of the most modern types, was added to this new Home Fleet. The fully manned destroyers were increased during the year to forty-eight, and twenty-four were attached to the Channel Fleet, the remainder and all those with nucleus crews being attached to the Home Fleet.

In the spring of 1909 the final change, towards which all the above intermediate dispositions had been directed, was made. The Home and Channel Fleets were united under one command, called the Home Fleet. This fleet consists of four divisions, of which the first and second divisions are fully manned and each composed of eight of the most modern battleships, five armoured cruisers, two smaller cruisers, and twenty-four destroyers with their attendant scouts, cruisers and parent ships, and also the necessary auxiliaries for the division. The third division consists of the nucleus crew battleships, cruisers and destroyers, divided between the three ports, and the fourth division of the older special service battleships and cruisers in commission with only reduced nucleus crews on board. At the same time the Atlantic Fleet, still retained as a

pivotal force between the Home and Mediterranean Fleets, had its principal base transferred to Home Waters.

A comparison of the force in Home Waters of vessels in commission at the end of 1904, when Lord Fisher assumed office, and in the beginning of 1910 when he relinquished the post of First Sea Lord, is given in the following table—

	End of 1904.	1905.	1907.	Beginning of 1910.
Battleships	16	26	38	44
First-Class Cruisers	13	25	32	37
Smaller Cruisers and Gunboats	30	34	47	58
Destroyers	24	93	120	121
Torpedo Boats	16	50	62	88
Submarines	—	16	40	59

INSTANT READINESS FOR WAR

At the end of 1904 the Active List of the Navy comprised an enormous number of vessels of all classes, and on paper the fleet was of preponderating power. But when the actual value of the individual ships came to be analyzed, it was found that great numbers had become quite

useless for modern warfare. No vessel had been struck off the list while she could by any stretch of imagination be regarded as a possible fighting unit, and consequently our dockyards and basins were cumbered with old vessels, many with muzzle-loading guns; others wooden vessels with masts and yards, and all useless. Every year vast sums of money in the aggregate were being spent in maintaining these vessels in some degree of readiness—money that was needed for modern construction. At the same time, scattered all over the world, we had many small vessels, gunboats, sloops and old third-class cruisers which were utilized solely for peace police duties and for the necessary purpose of “showing the flag.”

None of these vessels were of utility for modern fighting purposes; their gun power was insufficient to defend them from any opposing ship larger than themselves, and their speed insufficient to enable them to escape. In war these vessels would have laid up and paid off, and their crews utilized somewhere where they could have been of use. The expense of the upkeep of these vessels in peace was in the aggregate very great; they fulfilled no really useful purpose, for they only showed the flag so as to bring it into contempt by their weak-

ness. Officers and men were wasted from a fighting point of view, and were getting no training to fit them for service in the fighting portion of the fleet.

There was also a third class of vessel, which, though not absolutely obsolete, still required the expenditure of considerable sums of money for re-arming, re-boiling, or reconstruction before they could be considered fit to fight.

The Admiralty examined carefully all the vessels on the Active List and treated them according to their merits. The obsolete vessels of the first class were all removed and sold; those of the second class were placed out of commission wherever their services could be spared. Some of the efficient vessels were converted into auxiliaries of various kinds, and the others were put on one side in case they should be required. The vessels in the third category were dealt with individually according to their merits; if it appeared profitable to undertake the necessary expenditure for rejuvenating them it was done, and the vessels were repaired and commissioned; if not they were removed from the effective list.

As a result, 163 obsolete or useless fighting ships were removed from the effective list, and vast sums were saved in upkeep and repairs



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which could be devoted to modern construction. Doubtless, if there was no limit to the money available for naval services, no vessel would be removed while she could float, but it must be remembered that the retention of hundreds of obsolete vessels does not obviate the construction of a single new battleship, cruiser or destroyer. But what was even more important was that the withdrawal of inefficient ships set officers and men free for nucleus crews for every single efficient fighting vessel that remained, and thus enabled every ship (except those on the special service list) to be completed in war with a full crew of active service ratings only.

It has been said that since these changes were made, the British flag has not been sufficiently displayed in distant parts. There is some truth in this charge, but when the flag has been shown, the white ensign was hoisted on vessels which have sufficient power to inspire or enforce respect.

A comparison of the force of vessels at the present moment maintained abroad by Great Britain and Germany may show that we keep sufficient vessels in commission on Foreign Stations, either for the purposes of peace or war—

Vessels Abroad.	Great Britain.	Germany.
Battleships	7	—
Armoured Cruisers	9	1
Protected Cruisers :		
1st Class	3	—
2nd Class	15	1
3rd Class	13	5
Sloops and Gunboats	11	6
Destroyers	16	2
Special Vessels	3	1
River Gunboats (China)	10	3
	87	19

THE “ DREADNOUGHT ” AND “ INVINCIBLE ” TYPES

It is unnecessary to say more of these vessels than that, since they appeared, no first-class Naval Power has laid down a battleship or armoured cruiser of any other type. Every Naval Power has copied England.

Apart from the four great reforms I have described, a number of other reforms have been made. Opinions may differ as to the details of some of these services, but there is no dispute as to their contribution to the fighting efficiency of the Navy.

1. Complete reorganization of the Dockyards.
2. Improved system of refits of ships, and

limitation of number of vessels absent at one time from any fleet for repair.

3. Introduction of the Royal Fleet Reserve, composed only of ratings who have served for a period of years in the active service.

4. Improvement of Royal Naval Reserve, by enforcing periodical training on board modern commissioned ships in place of obsolete hulks or shore batteries.

5. Establishment and extension of Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve.

6. The establishment of a service of offensive mines and mine-laying vessels.

7. The introduction of vessels for defensive mine-sweeping in harbours and on the open sea.

8. A complete organization of the service of auxiliary vessels for the fleets in war.

9. The development of submarines, and the equipment of submarine bases and all the necessary auxiliaries.

10. The proper organization of the Destroyer Flotillas, with their essential auxiliaries.

11. The enormous development of Wireless Telegraphy afloat, the equipment of powerful shore stations round the coast and at the Admiralty, and the introduction of a special corps of operators.

12. The experimental stage of aerial navigation entered upon.

13. The foundation of the Royal Naval War College and its development.

14. The establishment of Signal Schools at each port.

15. The establishment of a Navigation School.

16. Enormous advances in the Gunnery training and efficiency of the Fleet.

17. Great improvements in torpedoes, and in the torpedo training.

18. The introduction of a naval education and training for Engine Room Artificers.

19. The introduction of the new rating of Mechanician for the Stoker class, for engine-driving duties.

20. Complete reorganization of the arrangements for mobilization, whereby every officer and man is always detailed by name for his ship, on mobilization, and the mobilization of the whole fleet can be effected in a few hours.

21. The introduction of a complete system of intelligence of trade movements throughout the world.

In addition to all the above reforms, great improvements have been made in the conditions

of service of officers and men, all tending to increase contentment and thereby advance efficiency. Some of these are as follows:—

1. The introduction of two year commissions in place of three years and often four.

2. Increases of pay to many grades of both officers and men—as regards Commanders the only increase since the rank was introduced.

3. Ships' Bands provided by the Service, and a School of Music established, and foreign musicians abolished.

4. The long-standing grievances of the men with regard to their victualling removed. Improvements in cooking. Bakeries fitted on board ships.

5. The Canteen system recognized and taken under Admiralty control, and the old abuses abolished.

6. The clothing system reformed, and much expense saved to the men.

7. Great improvements effected in the position of Petty Officers.

8. An educational test instituted for advancement to Petty Officers.

9. Increase of pension granted to Chief Petty Officers.

10. Allotment stoppages abolished.

11. Allowances paid to men in lieu of victuals when on leave

12. Promotions from the ranks to Commissioned Officer introduced.

13. Warrant rank introduced for the Telegraphist, Stoker, Ship's Steward, Writer, Ship's Police, and Ship's Cook classes.

Summary.—Recent changes include the Nucleus Crew system, allotting the Fleet to those parts of the earth's surface where it is likely to be required, the disuse of obsolete warships, and the introduction of the Dreadnought battleship. The Nucleus Crew System explained. The redistribution of the Fleet explained. The abolition of useless ships explained. Minor reforms recently introduced.

CHAPTER XXII

SEA-POWER IN BRITISH HISTORY

IF you look baek at what you have learned of history, you will be struck by the fact that almost all the historians are landsmen. Ignorant the conditions of the sea, these landsmen have written their histories without speeial interest or speeial knowledge of the influence of the Royal Navy upon the destinies of Britain. Everybody knows in a general way that the history of the world has been moulded by the men who control the world. But few people have taken the trouble to master the reasons why one Nation obtained the power to expand, and to multiply, and to keep foreign wars at a distance from its shores, while another Nation sank and disappeared. In Roman history we read how Hannibal, a general of great genius, strove for seventeen years against Rome. Hannibal was a greater general than any of the Roman officers against whom he fought, but in the long run Hannibal was beaten because Roman sea-power was greater than Carthaginian sea-power.

For sixteen years Napoleon strove against England, but Napoleon, like Hannibal, was beaten, though France was the richer and more populous nation. Napoleon was a greater general than any British general he encountered. French troops were as brave and as well grounded in the art of war as British troops, but after a hundred years of struggle—the period which covered our five great wars with France—British sea-power gained the victory.

In one memorable phrase Captain Mahan, the only historian who is also a seaman, has summed up the case. His words should be learnt by heart by every boy and girl in the Empire.

“Nelson’s storm-tossed ships, on which the Grand Army never looked, stood between it and the Empire of the World.”

Napoleon, ten years after Trafalgar, was defeated at Waterloo by the Duke of Wellington, just as Hannibal was defeated by Scipio, the great Roman, who gave the last deadly stroke to the Carthaginian general.

In the struggle between Rome and Carthage, and in the struggle between Great Britain and France, the mastery of the sea remained with the victor. The Roman legions went to and fro by water unmolested and untired. Roman

troops were taken where they were wanted and when they were wanted at the will of their leaders. The Carthaginian armies were compelled to make long perilous marches through Gaul. Half the veteran troops of Hannibal were wasted away by these marches. Hannibal lacked sea-power.

During the Peninsular War with France, sustained by the sea-power of Britain in defeat as well as in victory, both Sir John Moore and Wellington found, like Scipio, the meaning of sea-power in a struggle for life between two brave nations. When Sir John Moore was confronted by an army vastly superior to his own, he retired upon Corunna and fought a desperate action before that town. Though he himself was killed his troops were embarked and escaped the enemy. When Wellington, in Portugal, was unable to assume the offensive against Marshal Masséna, he retired upon the impregnable lines he had secretly constructed round Torres Vedras on the sea coast, against which Masséna dashed his troops in vain. Secure within these lines Wellington's army was fed from the sea. The graves of British soldiers in the woodlands and cemeteries around Bayonne are eloquent of the meaning of sea-power to Great Britain during the great struggle with

France, which culminated in the abdication of Napoleon and his retirement to Elba in 1814.

The sea is, and always has been, the cheapest and the easiest means of communication between man and man. Land-transport on the average costs twenty times as much as sea-transport. The final end of war is to reduce the enemy to submit. He will only submit when he is distressed. Sea-power is a means to distress the enemy by stopping his trade on the sea. When his sea-trade is stopped the enemy's taxpayers have less power of paying taxes to carry on the war, therefore trade now plays a larger part in sea warfare than ever before, and sea-power has greater influence because of the enormous cost of war at all times, but especially when the sea is shut to the transport of goods.

Take the case of groceries, for example. We all drink tea. If the people in Odessa in the south of Russia drink what is called Caravan tea, that is, tea that is brought on camels' backs part of the way from China across the Gobi Desert, or even if it is brought all the way by railway, they will pay twenty times as much as if the tea is brought by sea through the Suez Canal and landed on the quays of Odessa. In our last war with France, coffee

and sugar in bond (that is before the Import Duty is paid), which would not fetch sixpence a pound in England, sold at from five to six shillings a pound in France.

When all the sea-roads were held by the British Navy the only tea, sugar and coffee, to be bought by Frenchmen cost them twelve times as much as the English paid in England.

The stoppage of the enemy's sea-trade is the greatest weapon of war. To drive the enemy's sea-trade on shore, and to make him transport his goods by railways, motor-cars, horsed-wagons and portorage, is greatly to distress the richest and most potent of enemies; even if only a few hundred miles of land-transport are exchanged for sea-carriage, the now cost of freight adds to the price of goods. The new cost falls on the taxpayers and the consumers.

The old law of the sea was to capture the property of the enemy whenever it is found upon the high seas. For the same reason a general lays waste a district on land which he can conquer by no other means.

The phrase "Power of the Sea" as applied to the history of Britain has been used for centuries. In the reign of Edward III the naval victory of Shuys (1340) which gave England

command of the Channel, was marked by the coinage of gold pieces called "nobles." These coins bore on one side the portrait of the King standing erect on the deck of a ship. In one hand the King held a sword, in the other a



GOLD NOBLE COINED IN THE REIGN OF EDWARD III, PROBABLY TO
COMMEMORATE THE BATTLE OF SLUYS, 1340

shield. A poet, writing in the reign of Henry VI, says of this gold noble—

“Four things our noble showeth to me—
Kingship and sword and Power of the Sea.”

As far back as the fourteenth century—over two hundred years before Elizabeth came to the throne—a king of England showed his sense of the importance of sea-power to the strength and sovereignty of his country.

If you understand what has been written about the ocean highways, you will need no

explanation of the reason why the battles of Crecy, Poitiers, Agincourt, Verneuil, St. Quentin, Zutphen, Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, Dettingen, Corunna, Talavera, Badajoz, Busaco, Waterloo and Alma were fought on foreign, not on English soil. Students of sea-power will now understand why England has always been the invader, and not the invaded, since the true meaning of naval defence was understood by the people and rulers of England.

That sea-power has been the dominant factor in British history was shown by the Battle of Sluys in 1340, which prevented the possibility of England being invaded. The Battle of La Hogue in 1692 repeated the experience of 1340. The Battle of Quiberon Bay in 1759, and the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805, did the same thing—the two battles made England safe and sent England to sleep. After the Battle of La Quiberon Bay, the sailors of the fleet had good reason to complain of the quality of their rations and the sourness of the water. Some wag in the fleet composed the following verse—

“When Hawke did bang Monsieur Confians
You sent us beef and beer ;
But now he's beat we've nought to eat,
Since you have nought to fear.”

Summary.—The meaning of Sea-Power illustrated by reference to the struggle between Rome and Carthage, and between France, under Napoleon, and Great Britain. How Sir John Moore's army escaped the enemy at Corunna, and the way in which Wellington reduced to impotence the superior forces opposed to him by Marshal Masséna in Portugal. The meaning of the graves of British soldiers in the woodlands and cemeteries around Bayonne. The sea is the cheapest means of communication between nations, and by stopping an enemy's trade on the sea the cost of war is increased, and the prospect of the enemy's surrender is brought nearer. The antiquity of the phrase "Power of the Sea," and the way Sea-Power preserved our shores from invasion.

CHAPTER XXIII

MODERN SEA CHANGES BROUGHT ABOUT BY THE RISE OF OTHER NATIONS AND THE APPLICATION OF SCIENTIFIC INVENTION

THE words strategy and tactics are so often used in writing or speaking of war by sea and land, that it is well to understand clearly the meaning of these words.

The word strategy comes from the Greek. It means the work of a general. The work of generals and admirals is not only to fight battles, but to prepare the way so that battles shall be fought at the time and place and under the conditions most convenient to their own side. Hence the word strategy has come to mean the preparation for war up to the day of battle.

All national habits and circumstances affect strategy. Great Britain is an island situated in the midst of the great land mass of the planet, a mass that comprises four continents: Europe, Asia, Africa and America. The strategical advantages of Britain in sea war are

superior to those of any other northern Power. For on one side we have access to blue water, which can be gained by no other Power of Northern Europe except by passing under the guns of Dover or running the gauntlet of a British fleet of submarines on the enemy's coast or of battleships in the North Sea or the Baltic.

Tactics is a word also derived from the Greek, meaning to arrange or order things. Tactics is the art of arranging or manœuvring forces actually on the spot. It is difficult to draw the exact line dividing strategy from tactics, or to show where strategy ends and tactics begins. High authority tells us that the strategy of an admiral ceases when he first catches sight of the smoke from an enemy's fleet. From that moment tactics begins. There is no art more mysterious or more interesting to boy or man than the admiral's skill in the art of war. Tactics and strategy hitherto have been treated as subjects outside the ken of landmen and landboys. There is, however, no more reason why the average lad or his young sister should not understand the elements of strategy and tactics as clearly as they understand the four rules of arithmetic.

The object of tactics and strategy is to beat

the enemy. The policy of the captain of a good eleven at cricket, or of the captain of a football or girl's hockey team is strategy; they show their tactical powers in the field.

The task of the modern admiral in all but one department is infinitely harder than the task of the commander of a fleet working under sail-power a hundred years ago. The modern admiral is independent of the weather. He gives an order to his fleet to steam at so many knots an hour. The order is obeyed, and for days together a great fleet will not only maintain the same rate of speed, but the distances between the ships will be kept almost as precisely as the intervals between battalions on the parade-ground on shore.

Ships working under sail-power, dependent upon the wind for progress in any given direction, presented far greater strategical and tactical difficulties than ships working under steam-power. If the wind blew fiercely up Channel a sailing-ship could not force her way down Channel. In the old days fleets lay storm-bound in the Downs for weeks at a time. That difficulty is gone for ever. A modern admiral can ignore the weather. He hopes, however, that on the day of battle it may blow hard with mountainous seas, because the strategical factor

of sea-sickness will tell more against the enemy than against the British.

In the old days no accurate calculation could be made with so variable a force as the wind. In Nelson's day there was no compulsion for instant decision by the fighting admiral as there is to-day. Under sail-power, hours passed after the enemy was sighted before battle was joined. To-day a British admiral has about ten minutes to make up his mind what he is going to do after the enemy's fleet is first sighted. In Nelson's day communication by signal was slow and uncertain even at short distances. To-day communication by signal, semaphore and wireless, is effective, accurate and world-wide.

Nelson's ideas of attack, especially in breaking the enemy's line as at Trafalgar, were the best possible plans in the case of fleets under sail. To repeat to-day Nelson's tactics of breaking the line would be to court defeat, because every ship of an enemy, if in the same formation as at Trafalgar, could fire upon the British fleet, while the British fleet could not return the compliment because its own gunnery would be masked by ships ahead.

During a modern action an admiral may suddenly see that if he can get his fleet into

a certain shape he will get an advantage over the enemy. In order to reach the desired formation it is absolutely necessary that the admiral's idea shall be instantly conveyed into the mind of every captain. This is done to-day by a wonderful process of rapid and accurate signalling constantly practised in our fighting fleets. The signalling exercises of the British fleet are scarcely less wonderful than the gunnery. It should be known that Admiral Lord Charles Beresford is mainly responsible for the vast improvement in British fleet signalling.

Nothing more extraordinary has taken place in the use of sea-power than the change which wireless telegraphy has wrought in the work of an admiral. Until two or three years ago it was a common expression for officers to use—“The admiral must lead his ships into action.” Why? When the battle of Tsushima was fought between the Japanese and Russians, Admiral Togo commanded on the spot and was under fire, but the strategy that led up to the battle was arranged in the Admiralty at Tokio by a certain lieutenant of great ability who was promoted to the rank of admiral at the end of the war.

Sea war is no longer a ding-dong struggle

between impulsive heroes, it is a game of chess between master minds. The chessboard is the ocean, ships are the pieces. Whether the chess-player sits in his cabin on a flagship in the line, or in an office in the Admiralty, or in a fort connected with the wireless system, is immaterial to the issue so long as the will of the master mind impregnates all his subordinates, and secures the combinations essential for the enemy's destruction.

In the next great sea war the fate of the Empire will be settled in one great moment—when the two fleets meet. Victory or defeat will be determined at least two years before the action is fought. Discipline, love of country, admiral's skill, gunnery, fleet strength, are all factors that can no longer be changed on the day of battle. If the fleets are anywhere equal when the fight begins, the best admiral will win.

It is the man, even more than the gun or the ship, that is the winning factor. An efficient small fleet will always beat a half-trained large fleet, and a skilled admiral will always beat one who hesitates or is excited. Defeat of a British fleet is defeat for ever. British defeat at sea is eternal, irreparable, irremediable. Our Fleet is our all in all.

Summary.—The meaning of strategy and tactics. The superior strategical position held by Britain. Strategy and tactics may be learned from games as well as from war. The task of the modern Admiral made harder by the substitution of steam for masts and sails. The change in sea tactics, and the development of signalling in the Fleet. Sea war is now a game of chess, with the ocean for chess-board and men-of-war for pieces. The great factors of success in battle are discipline, love of country, Admiral's skill, gannery, and the numerical strength of the fleet.

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CHAPTER XXIV

WHAT THE NAVY MEANS TO THE BRITISH

THE difference between the Roman Empire and the British Empire is the difference between the colonial policy of Rome and the colonial policy of Britain. Until the British Empire was created by the free adventures of a free and wandering people, empire had always meant despotism from a centre. The colonies of Rome were the possessions of Rome. They were squeezed for wealth and taxed for wars in which they were not interested. In the British Empire the word "colony" has been dropped, because the colonial idea preserved the memory of colonies as possessions for the profit and pride of the mother-country. We now speak of the daughter nations, the Dominions and the Commonwealths, where formerly we spoke of the Colonies.

In the evolution of the British Empire, won and held together by the cement of the navy, we have passed through three stages. During the first stage our colonies were treated

as desirable properties held for the benefit of the mother-country. This view ended in the loss of the United States of America. British settlers there refused to be treated as useful creatures for the contribution of taxes to sustain policy which they abhorred.

After the loss of the American colonies a school of thinkers came into existence who looked upon the countries inhabited by our kinsmen beyond the sea as useless and mischievous. They wished to get rid of the colonies because they looked upon oversea British settlements as a millstone round the neck of the United Kingdom.

Then came the third period in the history of our colonial policy. The pendulum swung back. The colonies now known as Greater Britain are thought by every one to be of the first importance both in politics and in trade. Just as a boy grows into a man, so, in a hundred years' time, the Dominion of New Zealand, the Commonwealth of Australia, the Dominion of Canada, and the Commonwealth of South Africa, may be of greater importance as World Powers than the United Kingdom. Macaulay, in a memorable phrase, spoke of the time when a New Zealander might return to London and, resting on a broken arch of

London Bridge, gaze on the ruins of St. Paul's. But there is no reason why London and the United Kingdom should not be more prosperous a hundred years hence than they are to-day. The prosperity of Britain and all the Britains across the seas, indeed of every part of the British Empire, depends absolutely upon the maintenance of the Royal Navy at such a standard of strength and efficiency that the ocean highways between the various parts of the empire can always be kept open for the English-speaking people and their friends.

When Napoleon was a prisoner at St. Helena and was thinking over the future of Europe, he uttered a remarkable statement about modern England—

“England can never be a Continental Power, and in the attempt must be ruined: let her maintain the Empire of the Seas and she may send her Ambassadors to the Courts of Europe and demand what she pleases.”

In the year 1915 the Isthmus of Panama will be cut by a canal constructed by the Americans. The French people attempted to make this canal, as they had the glory of constructing the Suez Canal. Owing to want of money and other causes, the French were com-

elled to abandon the attempt. The American Government have undertaken to construct a waterway between the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific Ocean. When this canal is constructed a great change will take place in world politics. To-day if the American Government wishes to send its fleet from the Atlantic to the Pacific, the ships must round Cape Horn, a lengthy and costly undertaking. The opening of the Panama Canal will nearly double the naval strength of the United States, and will suddenly bring the Pacific Ocean into European politics. As the Panama Canal is fortified and defended by the United States, the friends of America will be enabled to reach the Pacific, while its enemies must either capture the canal or go round Cape Horn.

Since the days of the Emperor Charles V the islands of the Caribbean Sea, many of which are held by Britain, have been the key of national strategy. The Caribbean Sea for centuries has been the domain of sea-power. Nelson was in the Caribbean Sea with his storm-beaten ships when he baffled the Grand Army of Napoleon. The Caribbean Sea and the West India Islands under the British flag may once again play as great a part as they have played in the past.

During the hundred years of sleep that

followed the Battle of Trafalgar, the mighty influence exerted by British sea-power was exhibited in two wars. Forty years after the fall of Napoleon we found ourselves at war with Russia. France was our ally. Except our own navy the maritime strength of France was the greatest in the world. Next came Russia. So great was the strength at sea of England and France that Russia never attempted to employ her navy against them.

In 1899 Britain found herself at war with the Boer Republics in South Africa. A quarter of a million of men were transported over sea for six thousand miles; the greatest maritime expedition in the history of the world. The silent force exerted by the British Navy prevented any attack being made upon the troops and materials of war conveyed from England to South Africa. Whatever opinions are held about the Boer War, no difference of opinion can exist as to the enormous power wielded by an island nation through possession of a great navy. The chief danger to which the British are exposed is that, in consequence of long freedom from disaster, it may lose touch of the sea. The Fleet is our all in all.

Five out of six of the inhabitants of these islands depend for existence upon the efficiency

and sufficiency of the navy. Our food consists chiefly of meat, corn and groceries. These things reach the butcher, baker and grocer, because the navy protects the trade routes. Next time you pass a grocer's shop look in at the window and count the things that come from over the sea and the things that are grown in England. You will then be able to recognize the truth of the saying that the fleet is our all in all.

If the British fleet were beaten at sea it would not be necessary for an enemy to land troops. He might or might not do so; but with command of the ocean highway he could starve us into surrender within a few weeks. It does not follow that because nine years ago we landed a quarter of a million of troops six thousand miles away and brought them back without interruption, that we shall always be able to do so. Other great nations are growing up, and it is only natural for their rulers to seek means of expansion, and new territories to receive their surplus populations. In the course of development a foreign nation may desire to challenge British command of the sea. The British Navy accordingly has three duties to discharge: to protect our seaborne trade, to keep open the communications between

the various parts of the Empire, and to prevent invasion of the United Kingdom, of India, of any of the great self-governing communities across the sea, or of any portion of the British Empire.

As long as we command the sea as we commanded the sea in the Russian War, and in the Boer War, no enemy can do us much harm. Hostile cruisers sent to destroy our commerce will not be long afloat, because if we command the sea we shall possess an ample cruiser force.

It is not necessary to secure every one of our ships against attack by the enemy. All that is necessary is that the losses inflicted by the enemy shall be so slight that our own merchantmen, and the liners of friendly nations, shall not cease to run.

Britain is no longer isolated. She is no longer a mother-country with feeble colonies. She is one of five nations, speaking one tongue, governed by one law, subjects of one King. The British tradition stirs the blood of our people wherever they live. The British tradition spreads also to people not of our blood but living under the British flag. The responsibilities resting on Britain are now too heavy to be borne alone. The great daughter nations have come forward to help England in her naval responsibilities. Battleships provided

by the people of New Zealand, Australia and Canada take an honoured place in the Empire's Fleet. Soon, new navies, created by the patriotism of the Dominions across the seas, will arise, we hope, to share the proud but heavy duties of the Royal Navy; to preserve the Empire from attack, and to guarantee the peace of the world. Upon the strength, discipline, spirit and efficiency of the Navy, the future of every boy and every girl in the Empire depends.

Summary.—The difference between the Roman Empire and the British Empire. Colonies are no longer possessions, but self-governing communities and partners with the mother-country. The three stages which have led to the formation of the partnership which is called the British Empire. Napoleon's saying about the Empire of the seas being England's proper aim. The Panama Canal when completed in 1915 will bring the Pacific Ocean nearer to Europe, and will therefore raise grave international questions. Britain is never likely again to hold undisputed the command of the sea which for a hundred years she has enjoyed. But with the new need, new means of meeting it are arising. The beginnings of the Navies of the Britains across the seas.

SONGS OF THE SEA

ADMIRALS ALL.

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EFFINGHAM, Grenville, Raleigh, Drake,

Here's to the bold and free!

Benbow, Collingwood, Byron, Blake,

Hail to the Kings of the Sea!

Admirals all, for England's sake,

Honour be yours and fame!

And honour, as long as waves shall break,

To Nelson's peerless name!

Admirals all, for England's sake,

Honour be yours and fame!

And honour, as long as waves shall break,

To Nelson's peerless name!

Essex was fretting in Cadiz Bay

With galleons fair in sight;

Howard at last must give him his way,

And the word was passed to fight.

Never was schoolboy gayer than he,

Since holidays first began:

He tossed his bonnet to wind and sea,

And under the guns he ran.

Drake nor devil nor Spaniard feared,

Their cities he put to the sack:

He singed His Catholic Majesty's beard,

And harried his ships to wrack.

He was playing at Plymouth a rubber of bowls

When the great Armada came;

But he said, "They must wait their turn, good souls,"

And he stooped and finished the game.

Fifteen sail were the Dutchmen bold,
 Duncan he had but two :
 But he anchored them fast where the Texel shoaled
 And his colours aloft he flew.
 "I've taken the depth to a fathom," he cried.
 "And I'll sink with a right good will,
 For I know when we're all of us under the tide
 My flag will be fluttering still."

Splinters were flying above, below,
 When Nelson sailed the Sound :
 "Mark you, I wouldn't be elsewhere now,"
 Said he, "for a thousand pound !"
 The Admiral's signal bade him fly,
 But he wickedly wagged his head,
 He clapped the glass to his sightless eye,
 And "I'm blest if I see it," he said.

Admirals all, they said their say,
 (The echoes are ringing still)
 Admirals all, they went their way
 To the haven under the hill.
 But they left us a kingdom none can take—
 The realm of the circling sea—
 To be ruled by the rightful sons of Blake
 And the Rodneys yet to be.
*Admirals all, for England's sake,
 Honour be yours and fame!
 And honour, as long as waves shall break,
 To Nelson's peerless name!*

H. NEWBOLT.

DRAKE'S DRUM.

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DRAKE he's in his hammock an' a thousand miles away,
 (Capten, art tha sleepin' there below ?),
 Slung atween the round shot in Nombrc Dios Bay,
 An' dreamin' arl the time o' Plymouth Hoe.
 Yarnder lumes the Island, yarnder lie the ships,
 Wi' sailor lads a-dancin' heel-an'-toe,
 An' the shore-lights flashin', an' the night-tide dashin',
 He sees et arl so plainly as he saw et long ago.

Drake he was a Devon man, an' rüled the Devon seas,
 (Capten, art tha sleepin' there below ?),
 Rovin' tho' his death fell, he went wi' heart at ease,
 An' dreamin' arl the time o' Plymouth Hoe.
 "Take my drum to England, hang et by the shore,
 Strike et when your powder's runnin' low;
 If the Dons sight Devon, I'll quit the port o' Heaven,
 An' drum them up the Channel as we drummed them
 long ago."

Drake he's in his hammoek till the great Armadas come,
 (Capten, art tha sleepin' there below ?),
 Slung atween the round shot, listenin' for the drum,
 An' dreamin' arl the time o' Plymouth Hoe.
 Call him on the deep sea, call him up the Sound,
 Call him when ye sail to meet the foe;
 Where the old trade's plyin' an' the old flag flyin'
 They shall find him ware an' wakin', as they found him
 long ago!

H. NEWBOLT.

RULE BRITANNIA.

WHEN Britain first, at Heaven's command,
 Arose from out the azure main,
 This was the charter of the land,
 And guardian angels sung this strain—
 "Rule, BRITANNIA, rule the waves;
 Britons never will be slaves."

The nations, not so blest as thee,
 Must, in their turns, to tyrants fall;
 While thou shalt flourish great and free,
 The dread and envy of them all.
 "Rule," etc.

Still more majestic shalt thou rise,
 More dreadful from each foreign stroke;
 As the loud blast that tears the skies
 Serves but to root thy native oak.
 "Rule," etc.

Thee haughty tyrants ne'er shall tame;
 All their attempts to bend thee down
 Will but arouse thy generous flame,
 But work their woe, and thy renown.
 "Rule," etc.

To thee belongs the rural reign;
 Thy cities shall with commerce shine;
 All thine shall be the subject main;
 And every shore it circles thine.
 "Rule," etc.

The Muses, still with freedom found,
 Shall to thy happy coast repair;
 Blessed isle! with matchless beauty crowned,
 And manly hearts to guard the fair:
 "Rule, Britannia, rule the waves;
 BRITONS NEVER WILL BE SLAVES."

JAMES THOMSON.

THE BRITISH SAILOR'S SONG.

AWAY with bayonet and with lance,
With corslet, casque and sword;
Our island-king no war-horse needs,
For on the sea he's lord.
His throne's the war-ship's lofty deck,
His sceptre is the mast;
His kingdom is the rolling wave,
His servant is the blast.
His anchor's up, fair Freedom's flag
Proud to the mast he nails;
Tyrants and conquerors bow your heads,
For there your terror sails.

I saw fierce Prussia's chargers stand,
Her children's sharp swords out;
Proud Austria's bright spurs streaming red
When rose the closing shout.
But soon the steeds rush'd masterless,
By tower and town and wood;
For lordly France her fiery youth
Poured o'er them like a flood.
Go, hew the gold spurs from your heels,
And let your steeds run free;
Then come to our unconquered decks,
And learn to reign at sea.

Behold yon black and battered hulk
That slumbers on the tide,
There is no sound from stem to stern,
For peace has pluck'd her pride.
The masts are down, the cannon mute,
She shows nor sheet nor sail,
Nor starts forth with the seaward breeze,
Nor answers shout nor hail.
Her merry men, with all their mirth,
Have sought some other shore;
And she with all her glory on,
Shall rule the sea no more.

So landsmen speak. Lo! her top-masts
 Are quivering in the sky;
 Her sails are spread, her anchor's raised,
 There sweeps she gallant by.
 A thousand warriors fill her decks;
 Within her painted side
 The thunder sleeps—man's might has nought
 Can match or mar her pride.
 In victor glory goes she forth;
 Her stainless flag flies free;
 Kings of the earth, come and behold
 How Britain reigns on sea!

When on your necks the armed foot
 Of fierce Napoleon trod,
 And all was his, save the wide sea,
 Where we triumphant rode,
 He launched his terror and his strength,
 Our sea-born pride to tame;
 They came—they got the Nelson-toueli,
 And vanish'd as they came.
 Go, hang your bridles in your halls,
 And set your war-steeds free:
 The world has one unconquer'd king,
 And he reigns on the sea!

ALLAN CUNNINGHAM.

THE ARMADA.

ATTEND, all ye who list to hear our noble England's praise:
 I tell of the thrice-famous deeds she wrought in ancient
 days,
 When that great fleet invincible against her bore in vain
 The richest spoils of Mexico, the stoutest hearts of Spain.
 It was about the lovely close of a warm summer day,
 There came a gallant merchant-ship full sail to Plymouth
 Bay;

Her crew hath seen Castile's black fleet, beyond Aurigny's
Isle,

At earliest twilight, on the waves lie heaving many a mile.
At sunrise she escaped their van, by God's especial grace;
And the tall Pinta, till the noon, had held her close in
chase.

Forthwith a guard at every gun was placed along the wall;
The beacon blazed upon the roof of Edgcombe's lofty
hall;

Many a light fishing-bark put out to pry along the coast,
And with loose rein and bloody spur rode inland many a
post.

With his white hair unbonneted, the stout old sheriff
comes;

Behind him march the halberdiers; before him sound the
drums;

His yeomen round the market cross make clear an ample
space;

For there behoves him to set up the standard of Her Grace.
And haughtily the trumpets peal, and gaily dance the bells,
As slow upon the labouring wind the royal blazon swells.
Look how the Lion of the sea lifts up his ancient crown,
And underneath his deadly paw treads the gay lilies down.
So stalked he when he turned to flight, on that famed
Picard field,

Bohemia's plume, and Genoa's bow, and Cæsar's eagle
shield.

So glared he when at Agincourt in wrath he turned to bay,
And crushed and torn beneath his claws the princely
hunters lay.

Ho! strike the flagstaff deep, Sir Knight: ho! scatter
flowers, fair maids:

Ho! gunners, fire a loud salute: ho! gallants, draw your
blades:

Thou sun, shine on her joyously; ye breezes, waft her wide;
Our glorious SEMPER EADEM, the banner of our pride.

The freshening breeze of eve unfurled that banner's massy
fold;

The parting gleam of sunshine kissed that haughty scroll
of gold;

Night sank upon the dusky beach, and on the purple sea,
Such night in England ne'er had been, nor e'er again
shall be.

From Eddystone to Berwick bounds, from Lynn to Milford
Bay,

That time of slumber was as bright and busy as the day:
For swift to east and swift to west the ghastly war-flame
spread,

High on St Michael's Mount it shone: it shone on Beachy
Head.

Far on the deep the Spaniard saw, along each southern shire,
Cape beyond cape, in endless range, those twinkling points
of fire.

The fisher left his skiff to rock on Tamar's glittering waves:
The rugged miners poured to war from Mendip's sunless
eaves:

O'er Longleat's towers, o'er Cranbourne's oaks, the fiery
herald flew:

He roused the shepherds of Stonehenge, the rangers of
Beaulieu.

Right sharp and quick the bells all night rang out from
Bristol town,

And ere the day three hundred horse had met on Clifton
down;

The sentinel on Whitehall gate looked forth into the night,
And saw o'erhanging Richmond Hill the streak of blood-
red light.

Then bugle's note and cannon's roar the death-like silence
broke,

And with one start, and with one cry, the royal city woke.

At once on all her stately gates arose the answering fires;

At once the wild alarm clashed from all her reclining spires;

From all the batteries of the Tower pealed loud the voice
of fear;

And all the thousand masts of Thames sent back a louder
cheer:

And from the furthest wards was heard the rush of
hurrying feet,

And the broad streams of pikes and flags rushed down
each roaring street;

And broader still became the blaze, and louder still the
din,
As fast from every village round the horse came spurting
in :
And eastward straight from wild Blackheath the warlike
errand went,
And roused in many an ancient hall the gallant squires
of Kent.
Southward from Surrey's pleasant hills flew those bright
couriers forth ;
High on bleak Hampstead's swarthy moor they started
for the north ;
And on, and on, without a pause, untired they bounded
still :
All night from tower to tower they sprang ; they sprang
from hill to hill :
Till the proud peak unfurled the flag o'er Darwin's rocky
dales,
Till like volcanoes flared to heaven the stormy hills of
Wales,
Till twelve fair counties saw the blaze on Malvern's lonely
height,
Till streamed in crimson on the wind the Wrekin's crest of
light,
Till broad and fierce the star came forth on Ely's stately
fane,
And tower and hamlet rose in arms o'er all the boundless
plain ;
Till Belvoir's lordly terraces the sign to Lincoln sent,
And Lincoln sped the message on o'er the wide vale of
Trent ;
Till Skiddaw saw the fire that burnt on Gaunt's embattled
pile,
And the red glare on Skiddaw roused the burghers of
Carlisle.

LORD MACAULAY.

YE MARINERS OF ENGLAND.

Ye mariners of England
That guard our native seas;
Whose flag has braved, a thousand years,
The hattle and the breeze—
Your glorious standard launch again
To match another foe!
And sweep through the deep,
While the stormy winds do blow;
While the battle rages loud and long,
And the stormy winds do blow.

The spirits of your fathers
Shall start from every wave!
For the deck it was their field of fame,
And Ocean was their grave.
Where Blake and mighty Nelson fell,
Your manly hearts shall glow,
As ye sweep through the deep,
While the stormy winds do blow;
While the battle rages loud and long,
And the stormy winds do blow.

Britannia needs no bulwarks,
No towers along the steep;
Her march is o'er the mountain waves,
Her home is on the deep.
With thunders from her native oak,
She quells the floods below
As they roar on the shore,
When the stormy winds do blow;
When the battle rages loud and long,
And the stormy winds do blow.

The meteor flag of England
 Shall yet terrific burn,
 Till danger's troubled night depart,
 And the star of peace return.
 Then, then, ye ocean warriors!
 Our song and feast shall flow
 To the fame of your name,
 When the storm has ceased to blow;
 When the fiery fight is heard no more
 And the storm has ceased to blow.

THOMAS CAMPBELL.

THE BATTLE OF THE BALTIC.

OF Nelson and the North,
 Sing the glorious day's renown,
 When to the battle fierce came forth
 All the might of Denmark's crown,
 And her arms along the deep proudly shone;
 By each gun the lighted brand
 In a bold determined hand;
 And the Prince of all the land
 Led them on.

Like leviathans afloat
 Lay their bulwarks on the brine;
 While the sign of battle flew
 On the lofty British line;
 It was ten of April morn by the ehime
 As they drifted on their path;
 There was silence deep as death;
 And the boldest held his breath,
 For a time.

But the might of England flush'd
 To anticipate the scene;
 And her van the fleeter rush'd
 O'er the deadly space between.

“Hearts of oak!” our captain cried; when each gun
From its adamant lips
Spread a death-shade round the ships,
Like the hurricane eclipse
Of the sun.

Again! again! again!
And the havoc did not slack,
Till a feeble cheer the Dane
To our cheering sent us back;
Their shots along the deep slowly boom:
Then ceased—and all is wail
As they strike the shatter'd sail;
Or in conflagration pale
Light the gloom.

Out spoke the victor then,
As he hail'd them o'er the wave,
“Ye are brothers! ye are men!
And we conquer but to save;
So peace instead of death let us bring!
But yield, proud foe, thy fleet,
With the crews, at England's feet,
And make submission meet
To our King.”

Then Denmark bless'd our chief,
That he gave her wounds repose;
And the sounds of joy and grief
From her people wildly rose,
As death withdrew his shades from the day;
While the sun look'd smiling bright
O'er a wide and wotul sight,
Where the fires of funeral light
Died away.

Now joy, old England, raise
For the tidings of thy might,
By the festal cities' blaze,
Whilst the wine-cup shines in light;

And yet amidst that joy and uproar,
 Let us think of them that sleep,
 Full many a fathom deep,
 By thy wild and stormy steep,
 Elsinore !

Brave hearts ! to Britain's pride
 Once so faithful and so true,
 On the deck of fame that died
 With the gallant good Riou :
 Soft sigh the winds of heaven o'er 't in grave !
 While the billow mournful rolls
 And the mermaid's song condoles,
 Singing glory to the souls
 Of the brave !

THOMAS CAMPBELL.

THE HEART OF A SAILOR.

'Tisn't the jacket or trousers blue,
 The song or the dance so cheerly,
 That show us the heart of a seaman true,
 Or tell us his manner sincerely.
 'Tis the hour of strife, when venturing life,
 Where the spirit of prudence might fail her,
 In battle he'll sing for Britannia and king,
 And this shows the heart of a sailor !

'Tisn't his merriment kindled ashore,
 By the cash oft too quickly expended ;
 'Tisn't his going to sea for more,
 When the store in the locker is ended.
 'Tis the hour of distress, when misfortunes oppress,
 And virtue finds sorrow assail her ;
 'Tis the bosom of grief made glad by relief,
 That pictures the heart of a sailor !

THOMAS DIBDIN.

A WET SHEET AND A FLOWING SEA.

A WET sheet and a flowing sea,
 A wind that follows fast,
 And fills the white and rustling sail,
 And bends the gallant mast;
 And bends the gallant mast, my boys,
 While, like the eagle free,
 Away the good ship flies, and leaves
 Old England on the lee.

O for a soft and gentle wind !
 I heard a fair one cry ;
 But give to me the snoring breeze,
 And white waves heaving high ;
 And white waves heaving high, my boys,
 The good ship tight and free—
 The world of waters is our home,
 And merry men are we.

There's tempest in yon horned moon,
 And lightning in yon cloud ;
 And hark the music, mariners !
 The wind is piping loud ;
 The wind is piping loud, my boys,
 The lightning flashing free—
 While the hollow oak our palace is,
 Our heritage the sea.

ALLAN CUNNINGHAM.

THE END

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