

## CHAPTER XIII.

War with China and War with Afghanistan.—Commercial Relations with China.—Beginnings of the Opium War.—Its Moral Aspects.—Debates in Parliament.—Chusan captured.—Treaty made at Canton repudiated by the Emperor.—Canton attacked.—Arrival of Sir H. Pottinger.—Capture of Chin-Kiang-Foo.—Treaty of Nankin.—Afghanistan.—Lord Auckland, Governor-general of India.—Causes of the Afghan War.—British Army crosses the Indus.—The Bolan Pass.—Siege of Ghuznee.—Cabul entered in triumph.—Shah Soojah restored.—False security at Cabul.—Afghan plots.—Massacre of Burnes.—The British Army in peril.—Massacre of MacNaghten.—Capitulation of the British.—The Retreat from Cabul.—Ladies and children given up.—Destruction of the Army.—One survivor arrives at Jellalabad.—Sale's Defence of Jellalabad.—Arrival of General Pollock.—Cabul retaken.—Release of the prisoners.—The Army returns to India.—Lord Ellenborough's proclamations.—Gates of Somnauth.

At this point of our domestic history it may be convenient to take a rapid view of the events connected with two distant wars in which the country was now engaged—a war with China and a war in Afghanistan. Briefly referring to the origin of each of these serious contests, we shall conduct the narrative to the period when peace was concluded with the Chinese government, and when terrible calamities in India were overcome, and security was again won by the triumphs of our arms. We begin with China.

In the Session of Parliament which was opened on the 16th of January, 1840, it was announced, in the Speech of the Queen, that "events had happened in China, interrupting commercial intercourse." The circumstances attending this interruption were debated in the House of Commons on the 7th, 8th, and 9th of April, upon a resolution moved by Sir James Graham, to the effect that the interruption in our commercial and friendly intercourse with China, and the hostilities which had since taken place, were mainly to be attributed to the want of foresight on the part of her majesty's advisers, and especially in their neglect to furnish the superintendent at Canton with powers and instructions calculated to provide against the growing evils connected with the contraband trade in opium. As the circumstances which led to this first war between Great Britain and the Chinese empire are really more important than any minute details of the events of the war, we must, as briefly as we can, relate what was the position of affairs up to the time when the discussion on Sir James Graham's motion took place.

By the new charter of the East India Company, granted in 1833, the Company's monopoly of the China trade was abolished. It had probably not been sufficiently considered that serious collision with a government that had so long and so pertinaciously insisted upon the exclusion of foreigners would be the natural consequence of the position in which the trade with China was now placed. The change was calculated to inspire vague fears of aggression amongst those who were not unacquainted with the fact that the merchants who, not a century before, had humbly asked for permission to establish a trade in India, were now the masters of that country, and that the descendants of Aurungzebe were their pensioners. The Chinese, however, had got accustomed to the East India Company, whose officers pretended to no public capacity, who came as humble merchants, and who kept up a quiet sleepy trade. In this intercourse there were occasional quarrels between the natives and the foreigners, but their traffic, whether legal or illegal, kept on its jog-trot course by the adroit management of the Company's agents, who could calculate to a nicety the amount of bribery that was necessary to propitiate a Chinese official. The British legislature upset all this; abolished supercargoes, vesting their authority in king's officers instead of mercantile agents; and authorized the executive to employ a Superintendent, with instructions to get into direct communication with the Chinese authorities. The number of European ships, merchants, and seamen, rapidly increased. The contraband trade in opium was suddenly augmented. In the first ten years of the present century the exports of opium from India to China averaged about 2500 chests; in 1833 they exceeded 23,000 chests, having risen from 13,000 chests in the previous year; and the subsequent average of five years was about 19,000 chests.\* Opium was always an article prohibited by the Chinese government, or rather by the public acts of the Court of Peking. The provincial authorities invariably nullified everything which was done by the superior power to discountenance the illicit trade, so that when the government of Peking attempted to put down that traffic between Lin-tin and Canton, the viceroy of Canton substituted himself for the other opium smugglers, so that the whole affair bore the aspect of a juggle among the Chinese authorities.† The Imperial government of China increased the severity of the law against opium smuggling, but still the smuggling went on, and especially increased on the east coast. There was a belief in 1837-8 that the trade

\* MacCulloch's "Commercial Dictionary," article, Opium.

† Speech of Mr. Charles Buller, Hansard, vol. liii. col. 788.

would be legalized. A mandarin in high authority at Peking, having sounder notions about smuggling than had prevailed in Europe with some persons, proposed that the sale of opium should be legalized, it being admitted like other goods with a duty of seven dollars a chest, whilst the expense of smuggling amounted to forty dollars. In a very able state paper he argued that the increased severity of the law against opium had only tended to increase the amount of the bribe paid to the official underlings for their connivance. The unfortunate mandarin was banished for his liberal advice, and the Imperial government adopted more violent but less effectual measures to put down the opium trade.\* There were two motives which influenced the Court of Peking. They were alarmed at the rapid drain of silver for the purchase of opium, and they had to protect the interests of native poppy-growers. Lord Palmerston quaintly said, in the debate on the 9th of April, "The fact was that this was an exportation-of-bullion question, an agricultural-interest-protection question." † The Chinese authorities were at last brought into open collision with the resident British merchants. In consequence of an attempt to strangle a Chinese opium-smuggler in front of the factories at Canton, there was an affray between the Europeans and the Chinese. Captain Elliot, the Superintendent at Canton, issued a notice requiring all British-owned vessels trading in opium to leave the river within three days. But this measure did not conciliate the High Commissioner from the Imperial Court, Lin-Tsuh-Sew, who in 1839 commanded all opium in British ships, whether in the Canton river or on the coast of China, to be given up. All the foreign residents being forbidden to leave China, Captain Elliot joined his countrymen in the Factories, which were surrounded by Chinese soldiers. More than twenty thousand chests of opium were delivered up and destroyed. War was now imminent. Captain Elliot applied for a naval force, and in October two English frigates were blockading Canton. These were attacked by Chinese war-junks, which were beaten off with great loss. In January, 1840, an imperial edict directed all trade with Great Britain to cease for ever.

Thus commenced what has been called the Opium War. Putting aside the consideration of the treatment of this subject as a party question—one which so nearly involved the fall of the Ministry, that in a House of five hundred and thirty-three members, they had only a majority of nine upon Sir James Graham's motion—it is startling, after this lapse of time, to trace the very different views which its moral aspects presented. The combatants were

\* Davis's "Chinese," chap. iv. † Hansard, vol. liii. col. 940.

fighting about the colour of a shield which showed its blackness on one side and its whiteness on the other. The representative of the British Government, it was argued by the supporters of the Ministry, had been treated in a manner contrary to all public law, and the whole body of English traders had been subjected to imprisonment and indignities in consequence of offences in which they had no participation. Exact reparation for these injuries, said Mr. Macaulay. In one of his despatches Captain Elliot describes his arrival at the Factory in the moment of extreme danger. "As soon as he landed he was surrounded by his countrymen, all in an agony of distress and despair. The first thing which he did was to order the British flag to be brought from his boat and planted in the balcony. The sight immediately revived the hearts of those who had a minute before given themselves up for lost. It was natural that they should look up with hope and confidence to that victorious flag, for it reminded them that they belonged to a country unaccustomed to defeat, to submission, or to shame; to a country which had exacted such reparation for the wrongs of her children as had made the ears of all who heard of it to tingle; to a country which had made the Dey of Algiers humble himself to the dust before her insulted Consul; to a country which had avenged the victims of the Black Hole on the Field of Plassey; to a country which had not degenerated since the great Protector vowed that he would make the name of Englishman as much respected as ever had been the name of Roman citizen."\* "I am not competent," answered Mr. Gladstone, "to judge how long this war may last, or how protracted may be its operations, but this I can say, that a war more unjust in its origin, a war more calculated in its progress to cover this country with permanent disgrace, I do not know, and I have not read of." He asked, with reference to the eloquent description of the British flag planted on the balcony at Canton, "How comes it to pass that the sight of that flag always raises the spirits of Englishmen? It is because it has always been associated with the cause of justice, with opposition to oppression, with respect for national rights, with honourable commercial enterprise; but now, under the auspices of the noble lord, that flag is hoisted to protect an infamous contraband traffic, and if it were never to be hoisted except as it is now hoisted on the coast of China, we should recoil from its sight with horror, and should never again feel our hearts thrill, as they now thrill, with emotion, when it floats proudly and magnificently on the breeze." † Such were the contrary views in 1840 of the nature of this

\* Macaulay's Speeches, p. 227. † Hansard, vol. liii. col. 818.

war; such are the contrary views which still prevail amongst those who write upon this war. The China merchants of London, in a Memorial to lord Palmerston, expressed their opinion that unless the measures of the government were followed up with firmness and energy, the trade with China would no longer be conducted with security to life and property. This was the commercial point of view. The sentimental point of view is that, confident in our military power and the comparative ignorance of the Chinese in the arts of war, we forced upon them the contraband drug which the government would have kept out of the reach of the intemperate. The opponents of the Whig ministry in 1840 did not, however, deny the necessity of a hostile demonstration with respect to China. Sir Robert Peel said that, "after what had passed, British honour and the British name would be disgraced unless some measures were taken to procure reparation for the injuries and insults which had been committed on us. . . . Again and again I say, do not enter into this war without a becoming spirit—a spirit becoming the name and character of England. Do not forget the peculiar character of the people with whom you have to deal, and so temper your measures that as little evil as possible may remain. Remember that the character of the people has lasted for many generations; that it is the same now that was given to them by Pliny and many subsequent writers. It is your duty to vindicate the honour of England where vindication is necessary, and to demand reparation wherever reparation is due."\*

A small naval force having been left in the Canton river to maintain a blockade, the British fleet sailed northward along the coast of China. The first important operation of the war was the capture on the 5th of July, by the squadron, of the city of Ting-hai in Chusan. The Chusan islands, upon the possession of which the maritime intercourse of the eastern coast of China essentially depended, were captured after a slight resistance. Admiral Elliot arrived as plenipotentiary at Chusan on the day on which the city was taken, and he despatched to Ning-po a letter from lord Palmerston to be transmitted to the emperor of China at Peking. The authorities at Ning-po refused to receive or to forward the letters. A blockade was consequently declared of the east coast, from Ning-po to the mouth of the Kiang. Captain Elliot in August entered the Pei-ho, which flows past Peking on the south. The letter of lord Palmerston was now forwarded, and on the 30th of August a conference was held between captain Elliot and the emperor's minister Keshen, who was subsequently appointed

Imperial Commissioner, Lin having been deprived of his office. Admiral Elliot somewhat indiscreetly consented to transfer the negotiations for peace to Canton, thus neutralizing the effect that had been produced by the successes at Chusan, and by the approach of British vessels of war to the vicinity of Peking. The admiral soon after resigned. A truce which had been announced by admiral Elliot was violated, in the midst of the negotiations, by an edict that all Englishmen and ships should be destroyed wherever they were met with near China. The forts Chuen-pe and Tae-cok-tow on the Canton river were now stormed and captured, and the Chinese squadron of war junks collected in Anson's Bay was destroyed. Negotiations were then resumed; and on the 20th of January, Captain Elliot issued a circular stating that a treaty had been agreed to by Keshen, the conditions of which were that Hong-Kong should be ceded to England; that six million dollars should be paid by the Chinese; that the trade should be opened within ten days; and that there should be direct official communication between the two countries on equal terms. Formal possession was taken of Hong-Kong, and Chusan was evacuated—not too soon—for the troops left there had been greatly reduced by the unhealthiness of the climate. Keshen proclaimed that the English barbarians were now obedient to order, and that all affairs were perfectly well settled. But, on the 11th of February an Imperial edict was received from Peking by the Commissioner at Canton, disapproving and rejecting the conditions agreed to by him. The war was now resumed with increased vigour.

On the 2nd of March general Gough,—who had entered the British army in 1794, had greatly distinguished himself in the Peninsular war, and in 1837 was in command of a division of the Indian army,—arrived in China to take the command of the British land forces. From the renewal of hostilities to the end of April there had been armistice upon armistice, during which the attempts of Captain Elliot to negotiate were repeatedly defeated by the intervention of the Imperial government. Keshen was degraded and deprived of his office for consenting to these suspensions of hostility, the Imperial edicts proclaiming, "it is difficult for heaven and earth to bear any longer with the English." General Gough saw that this temporizing policy would only prolong the war, and be more injurious to the Chinese themselves than its vigorous prosecution. He determined to attack Canton. It was resolved to make the principal points of debarkation of the British forces to the north-west of the city, while another column was to take possession of the Factories, which had been ceded to the Chinese.

\* Hansard, vol. liii. col. 923.

The attack upon the Factories was very soon successful. The point chosen for debarkation on the north-west was about five miles by the river line above the Factories. The troops were landed on the 23rd, and early on the morning of the 24th proceeded to the attack. General Gough describes the heights to the north of Canton. They were crowned by four strong forts, and the city walls ran over their southern extremity. The intervening ground between the point of landing and the forts was undulated, and intersected by hollows under wet paddy cultivation. The walls of Canton, of brick on a foundation of red sandstone, were about twenty feet thick, and varied in height from twenty-five to forty feet. At this time there were twenty thousand Tartar troops, famous for their courage and daring, garrisoning the city. On the 24th the two western forts were captured with comparatively small loss, and "in little more than half an hour after the order to advance was given, the British troops looked down on Canton within a hundred paces of its walls."\* It was intended next day to assault the city itself, but the attack was prevented by a flag of truce being hoisted on the walls. Captain Elliot wrote to the general, requesting him to suspend hostilities, as he was employed in settlement of the difficulties. The terms were little different to those which had been formerly agreed to, and to which the Chinese government had refused its assent. General Gough observed upon this termination of the conflict: "Whatever might be my sentiments, my duty was to acquiesce; the attack, which was to have commenced in forty-five minutes, was countermanded, and the feelings of the Chinese were spared. Of the policy of this measure I do not consider myself a competent judge; but I say 'feelings,' as I would have been responsible that Canton should be equally spared, with the exception of its defences, and that not a soldier should have entered the town farther than the fortified heights within its walls." The terror induced by the operations of the fleet and army extorted from the authorities of Canton the payment of six million dollars as a ransom for the city.

Although trade was resumed in Canton, peace was still distant. The Imperial edicts still breathed vengeance against the "barbarians;" the British government disapproved the arrangements of captain Elliot. Sir Henry Pottinger, who arrived as Plenipotentiary on the 10th of August, took the chief direction of the affairs which had so long been in the hands of the Superintendent. He immediately published a copy of his credentials, authorizing and empowering him "to negotiate and conclude with the minister

\* General Gough's Despatch, "Annual Register," 1841, p. 282.

vested with similar power and authority on the part of the emperor of China, any treaty or agreement for the arrangement of the differences now subsisting between Great Britain and China." He also issued a notification, in which, after stating his anxiety to promote the prosperity of all her majesty's subjects and other foreigners, he went on to say that "it was his first duty distinctly to intimate for general and individual information, that it was his intention to devote his undivided energies and thoughts to the primary object of securing a speedy and satisfactory close of the war; and that he therefore could allow no consideration connected with mercantile pursuits and other interests to interfere with the strong measures which he might find it necessary to authorize and adopt towards the government and subjects of China, with a view to compelling an honourable and lasting peace."

To the end of 1841 there were various successes achieved by the land and naval forces, which gave the British possession of many large fortified towns, amongst which were Amoy, Ting-hai, Chin-hai, Ning-po, and Shang-hai. The Chinese were nevertheless persevering in their resistance, and in most cases evinced a bravery which showed how mistaken were the views which regarded the subjection of this extraordinary people as an easy task. To the end of June these successes had produced no overtures from the Imperial government evincing a real desire for a pacification. The British fleet on the 13th of June entered the great river Kiang, and on the 6th of July advanced up the river, and cut off its communication with the Grand Canal, by which Nanking, the ancient capital of China, was supplied with grain. The point where the river intersects the canal is the city of Chin-Kiang-foo. "This city, with its walls in excellent repair, stands within little more than half a mile from the river; the northern and the eastern faces upon a range of steep hills; the west and southern faces on low ground, with the Imperial Canal serving in some measure as a wet ditch to these faces. To the westward the suburb through which the canal passes extends to the river and terminates under a precipitous hill."\* On the morning of the 21st the city was stormed by the British, in three brigades. The resistance of the Tartar troops was most desperate. Our troops fought under a burning sun, whose overpowering heat caused some to fall dead. The obstinate defence of the place prevented its being taken till six o'clock in the evening. When the streets were entered, the houses were found almost deserted. They were filled with ghastly corpses, many of the Tartar soldiers having destroyed their families, and then committed suicide.

\* "Annual Register," 1842, p. 273.

The city, from the number of the dead, had become uninhabitable. On the 9th of August the British fleet, proceeding up the river, had arrived before Nanking. General Gough determined to storm the fortified city, containing half a million of inhabitants. The debarkation was suspended, upon a communication from sir Henry Pottinger that he was negotiating with high officers of the empire who had now the direct authority of the emperor to treat for peace. The treaty was finally signed before Nanking on board the Cornwallis on the 29th of August, by sir Henry Pottinger on the part of Great Britain, and by Ke-ying, Elepoo, and Neu-Kien, on the part of the emperor of China. Its most important provisions were as follows: Lasting peace and friendship were to be maintained between the two empires; China was to pay to Great Britain twenty-one millions of dollars within four years; the ports of Canton, Amoy, Foo-choo-foo, Ning-po, and Shang-hai, were to be thrown open to British merchants, consular officers were to be allowed to reside at these ports, and just tariffs, as well as inland transit duties, established and published; Hong-Kong island to be ceded in perpetuity to Great Britain; all British subjects, whether natives of Europe or of India, then in confinement in any part of the Chinese empire, to be unconditionally released; an amnesty to be published by the emperor to all Chinese subjects on account of their having held service under the British government or its officers; correspondence between the officers of the two governments to be conducted on terms of perfect equality. On receipt of the emperor's assent to the treaty, and of the first six million dollars of the indemnity, the British forces were to retire from Nanking and the Grand Canal, and the military posts at Chin-hai were to be withdrawn; but the islands of Chusan and Ku-lang-su were to be held till the whole amount of the indemnity was paid, and the ports opened. On the 8th of September the emperor signified his assent to the treaty; which, on the last day of the year, received the ratification of the great seal of England.

On the 10th of September, 1838, lord Auckland, the Governor-general of India, who had entered upon his office at the end of 1835, proclaimed in General Orders his intention to employ a force beyond the North-West frontier. On the 1st of October he published a declaration of the causes and objects of the war. The ostensible object was to replace Shah Soojah on the throne of Cabul, the troubles and revolutions of Afghanistan having placed the capital and a large part of the country under the sway of Dost Mahomed Khan. Shah Soojah, driven from his dominions, had become a pensioner of the East India Company, and resided in

the British cantonment of Lodiana. Dost Mahomed had in May, 1836, addressed a letter to lord Auckland, which conveyed his desire to secure the friendship of the British government. He was desirous of obtaining the aid of the British against Persia, whose troops was besieging Herat, and to recover Peshawur from Runjeet Singh, the ruler of the Punjaub. The Governor-general in 1837 despatched Capt. Alexander Burnes as an envoy to Cabul. He was received with great courtesy. His instructions did not allow him to give any hopes of British assistance to Dost Mahomed. Soon after the arrival of Burnes a Russian envoy arrived at Cabul, who was liberal in his promises, but whose authority was afterwards disavowed by his government. In the posthumous narrative by sir Alexander Burnes of his journey to Cabul, he says that the tranquillity which had dawned on the east, and the invasion of Afghanistan by the Persians on the west, "had a prejudicial effect at Cabul, which was further heightened by the presence of an agent from Russia, who reached the place soon after my arrival. To the east, the fears of Dost Mahomed Khan were allayed—to the west they were increased; and in this state of things his hopes were so worked upon, that the ultimate result was his estrangement from the British government."\* Capt. Burnes carried back with him a belief that Russia was meditating an attack upon British India, having established her influence in Persia; that Dost Mahomed was treacherous; and that the true way to raise a barrier against the ambition of Russia was to place the dethroned Shah Soojah upon the throne of Cabul, as he had numerous friends in the country. The alarm of the possible danger of a Russian invasion through Persia and Afghanistan led to the declaration of war against Dost Mahomed in the autumn of 1838, and to the preparation for hostilities under a Governor-general whose declared policy, at the commencement of his rule, was to maintain the peace which had been scarcely interrupted since the conclusion of the Birman war. But it is not to the apprehensions alone of the envoy to Cabul, or the impressions produced by him upon the sensitiveness of the Governor-general, that we must wholly impute the resolve to put forth the British strength in a distant and dangerous expedition. There was a universal impression throughout India that some imminent danger was about to assail us on the north-west; that a powerful combination of hostile powers, of which Russia was the head, was about to pour down upon our territories, whose arrival would be the signal for a general rise amongst the neighbouring

\* "Personal Narrative," p. 143.

States and in our own provinces.\* This general feeling of alarm was confirmed by the representations made to the Governor-general from all the intelligent men who were in the Government, or connected with the different districts in India.† Unquestionably there was a panic, and under such circumstances the heaviest charge against lord Auckland would have been that he remained in supine indifference.

On the 14th of February the Bengal division of the army under sir Willoughby Cotton crossed the Indus at Bukkur. The Indus is here divided into two channels, one of which is nearly five hundred yards in breadth. The passage of eight thousand men with a vast camp-train and sixteen thousand camels was effected without a single casualty. Sir John Cam Hobhouse, in moving the thanks of the House of Commons to the Indian army, in February, 1840, read a glowing description of this passage. "It was a gallant sight to see brigade after brigade, with its martial music and its glittering arms, marching over file by file, horse, foot, and artillery, into a region as yet untrodden by British soldiers." He quoted also from a periodical publication an eloquent allusion to the grand historical contrasts of this expedition. "For the first time since the days of Alexander the Great, a civilized army had penetrated the mighty barrier of deserts and mountains which separates Persia from Hindustan; and the prodigy has been exhibited to an astonished world of a remote island in the European seas pushing forward its mighty arms into the heart of Asia, and carrying its victorious standards into the strongholds of Mohamadan faith and the cradle of the Mogul empire."‡ The Bengal army was preceded by a small body of troops under the orders of Shah Soojah, and it was followed by the Bombay division under the command of sir John Keane. Into an almost unknown and untrodden country twenty-one thousand troops had entered through the Bolan Pass. Sir Willoughby Cotton, with the Bengal column, entered this Pass in the beginning of April. Beloochee rulers had rendered him all the aid in their power, but the Beloochee freebooters were murdering stragglers and cutting off baggage and cattle. The passage of this formidable Pass, nearly sixty miles in length, was accomplished in six days. For the first eleven and a half miles into the Pass the only road is the bed of the Bolan river. The mountains on every side are precipitous and sterile;

\* Letter of General Cubbon from Bangalore, quoted by Lord John Russell in Debate, March 1, 1843—Hansard, vol. xlvii., col. 154.

† Lord John Russell—Hansard, vol. xlvii. col. 154.

‡ Hansard, vol. li. col. 1339.



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not a blade of vegetation of any kind being found, save in the bed of the stream. There was no sustenance for the camels, unless it were carried for their support during six days, and thus along the whole route their putrefying carcasses added to the obstacles to the advance of the army.\* At length the column emerged into the open country. Havelock, who now, after twenty-three years' service, had been promoted to the command of a company, has described how the eye swept with delight over a wide plain bounded with noble mountain ranges, how the carol of the lark mounting up in the fresh morning air broke charmingly on the English ear.†

The Bombay army sustained considerable loss from freebooters in their passage through the Bolan Pass, but the two columns were enabled to unite at Candahar, and to proceed to the siege of Ghuznee, under the command of sir John Keane. On the 22nd of July the British forces were in camp before this famous city, built upon a rock, towering proudly over the adjacent plain. The intelligent officers of the army could not have viewed without deep interest this stronghold of Mohammedism, where the tomb of sultan Mahmoud, the conqueror of Hindustan, was still preserved, and where Mohammedan priests still read the Koran over his grave. The sandal-wood gates of this tomb, which in 1025 had been carried off from the Hindoo temple of Somnauth in Guzerat, were to acquire a new celebrity at the close of this Afghan war by an ostentatious triumph, not quite so politic as that of the sultan Mahmoud. At Ghuznee, Mohammedism maintained its most fanatical aspect. On the day before the final attack, major Outram attempted with part of the Shah's contingent to force the enemy from the heights beyond the walls. He describes that over the crest of the loftiest peak floated the holy banner of green and white, surrounded by a multitude of fanatics, who believed they were safe under the sacred influence of the Moslem ensign. A shot having brought down the standard-bearer, and the banner being seized, the multitude fled panic-stricken at the proof of the fallacy of their belief.‡ This was desultory warfare. But it had been determined that three hours after midnight, on the morning of the 23rd, the fortress and citadel should be stormed. Ghuznee was regarded by the Afghan nation as impregnable. It had a garrison of three thousand five hundred Afghan soldiers, with a commanding number of guns, and abundance of ammunition and

\* Outram, "Rough Notes of the Campaign," pp. 71, 72.

† Kaye, "History of the War in Afghanistan," vol. i. p. 408.

‡ Outram, "Rough Notes of the Campaign," p. 111.