

## CHAPTER XXXII.

Death of Mr. Pelham.—Newcastle's Ministry.—Negotiations with Fox.—Pitt passed over.—Parliament meets.—Fox a Cabinet Minister.—Retrospect of Indian Affairs.—Clive.—Capture and Defence of Arcot.—North American Colonies.—Contests on the Ohio.—Naval Victories.—Subsidies agreed upon by the king.—Parliament.—Great Debate.—Single-Speech Hamilton.—Pitt.—Fox Secretary of State.—Pitt dismissed from his office of Paymaster.—Earthquake at Lisbon.

THE prime minister, Mr. Pelham, died on the 6th of March, 1754. Horace Walpole, who underrates the public services of this statesman, has this tribute to his moderation and disinterestedness: "Let it be remembered that, though he first taught or experienced universal servility in Englishmen, yet he lived without abusing his power, and died poor."\* The king clearly saw what a hubbub of conflicting ambitions would result from the necessity of a new cast of characters for the political drama. "I shall now have no more peace," exclaimed the old man. The duke of Newcastle achieved the great object of his ambition, in succeeding his brother as the head of the Treasury. If experience could give a politician claims to be the ruler of a great nation, and moreover of a nation very difficult to manage, Newcastle had claims above most men. He had been Secretary of State in 1724, under sir Robert Walpole. Carteret had kept him in the same office, though he despised him. His thirst for power was insatiable. He impaired his estate to maintain and extend his parliamentary influence; and thus, whoever was turned out, Newcastle always kept in. Jealous of every man of ability to whom it was necessary to entrust some share of authority, he was always in terror that his subalterns might be called to command, although ever professing his anxiety for their promotion. Always seeking the doubtful support of "troops of friends," he never offended any man by a plain "No," and was often "under the same engagements to at least ten competitors," as lord Waldegrave affirms. But he was in many respects incompetent to manage any public business that required resolution and steadiness; and his ignorance was so manifested in his flighty and inconsistent talk, that what looks like a joke in Smollett's novel has been received as a reliable fact. He had heard that thirty thousand French had marched to Cape Breton. Where did

\* "Memoirs of Reign of George II." vol. i. p. 371.

they get transports? was asked. "Transports," cried he, "I tell you they marched by land." "By land to the island of Cape Breton!"—"What! is Cape Breton an island?" It was pointed out in the map; and the delighted minister, hugging his informant, ejaculated, "Egad! I'll go directly, and tell the king that Cape Breton is an island."\*

In the House of Lords, the duke's performances are thus described by a just and impartial observer: "Hear him speak in Parliament, his manner is ungraceful, his language barbarous, his reasoning inconclusive. At the same time he labours through all the confusion of a debate without the least distrust of his own abilities; fights boldly in the dark; never gives up the cause; nor is he ever at a loss either for words or argument."† He has had many successors in this line; but at that period the House of Commons required to be managed by a different species of oratory. Three of the great masters of eloquence were in that House—Pitt, Fox, and Murray. Newcastle offered the seals of Secretary of State, with the lead of the Commons, to Mr. Fox. The offer was fully justified by the ability and the experience of this gentleman, who started in public life—"a needy political adventurer," as he has been called—"at a time when the standard of integrity amongst statesmen was low."‡ This adherent of sir Robert Walpole would not shrink from any participation in the corruption which gave ascendancy to the duke of Newcastle. Fox desired to be actively engaged in working the parliamentary system. As secretary of war, he had no seat in the Cabinet; no responsibility beyond the routine duties of his office. The prospect of a place which would give him real power raised all the ambition of Fox; who, says lord Hardwicke, "within a few hours of Mr. Pelham's death, had made strong advances to the duke of Newcastle and myself."§ But there was a hitch in the completion of the arrangement proposed by Newcastle, which is singularly indicative of the political degradation of those times. Fox agreed to accept the secretaryship and the management of the House of Commons. He very reluctantly gave up the disposal of the secret service money, but he stipulated that he was to know how the bribes were disposed of. The next day, Newcastle receded from this condition. How am I to understand, said Fox, how to talk to members of Parliament, when some have received "gratifications," and others not? His brother, said

\* "Humphrey Clinker."

† Lord Waldegrave—"Memoirs from 1754 to 1758," p. 12.

‡ "Edinburgh Review," vol. lxxiii. p. 562.

§ "Chatham Correspondence," vol. i. p. 91.

Newcastle, had never disclosed these things, nor would he. How, asked Fox, are the ministerial boroughs to be filled up? That is all settled, said the duke. Fox rejected the secretaryship; and Newcastle had to look out for a more pliant tool.\*

The prime minister and the lord-chancellor appear now to have turned their thoughts to Mr. Pitt. There are apologetical letters to him from these great personages, obscurely intimating the difficulties which they had encountered in their abortive endeavours to add his strength to their party. Sir Thomas Robinson, a dull diplomatist, was appointed to the office which Fox had rejected. Pitt was indignant. The humiliation of his proud spirit may be read in this passage of a letter to lord Hardwicke: "The weight of irremovable royal displeasure is a load too great to move under; it must crush any man; it has sunk and broke me. I succumb; and wish for nothing but a decent and innocent retreat, wherein I may no longer, by continuing in the public stream of promotion, for ever stick fast aground, and afford to the world the ridiculous spectacle of being passed by every boat that navigates the same river." † Pitt found his consolations in a happy marriage with lady Hester Grenville, a sister of earl Temple. The calm of the domestic life of this eminent man presents a refreshing contrast to the agitations of his public career. Whenever we have glimpses of him in his country retreat at Hayes, we see him in the full enjoyment of as much tranquil pleasure as his infirm health would allow;—exercising his taste in improving his little property; reading; educating his children; an exemplary husband and father in a dissipated age. Of those wonderful powers which gave him, without vanity, the right to claim the highest position amongst public men, his contemporaries were fully aware. We cannot judge, as they could, of that eloquence of which the admiration may appear to us overcharged, when we regard the fragmentary state in which it has come down to us. His faults were patent to all the world. They have been much paraded of late years—his haughtiness, his intractability, his self-assertion. But after a century has passed, and all the petty men and paltry interests of the first William Pitt's time are hastening to oblivion, his grand figure stands out, — a giant amongst pigmies. In the words of Frederick of Prussia, England had at length brought forth a man. ‡

\* Walpole "Memoirs," vol. i. p. 382.

† "Chatham Correspondence," vol. i. p. 105.

‡ "Il faut avouer que l'Angleterre étoit long-tems en travail; et qu'elle a beaucoup soufferte pour produire Monsieur Pitt; mais enfin elle est accouchée d'un homme."—"Chatham Correspondence," vol. i. p. 445.

The Newcastle ministry, formed out of very fragile materials, had some months of respite from parliamentary opposition. The septennial term of Parliament was nearly out when Mr. Pelham died. It was dissolved within a month of his decease. The new Parliament met on the 14th of November. Pitt and Fox continued in their subordinate offices—Pitt as Paymaster, Fox as secretary of War. But they each writhed under the arrangements by which Robinson had taken the management of the House of Commons. "The duke might as well send his jack-boot to lead us," said Pitt to Fox. They could not decently obstruct public business, but they might attack persons. The feeble leader of the Commons had an uneasy time between these two malcontents. "They have already mumbled poor sir Thomas Robinson cruelly," writes Walpole on the first of December. But about this time a scene was acted, which startled the House of Commons out of its habitual slumber. An election petition is presented, which the younger Mr. Delaval ridicules; and the House is in fits of laughter about a complaint of bribery and corruption. Pitt is sitting in the gallery. He rushes down and instantly rises to speak. "Do members laugh on such a subject as bribery? Do we try within the House to diminish our own dignity, when such attacks are made upon it from without?" "At his first two periods he brought the House to a silence and attention that you might have heard a pin drop." \* He called upon the Speaker to extend a saving hand to raise the character of the House. "He called on all to assist, or else we should only sit to register the arbitrary edicts of one too powerful a subject." † Newcastle was as much terrified by "this thunder-bolt thrown in a sky so long serene," as the audience of Pitt were confounded. The minister contrived, by giving Fox a seat in the Cabinet, to detach him from his concert with Pitt. Pitt felt the desertion; and told Fox that "they were upon different lines." It appears that the devotion of Fox to the will of the duke of Cumberland, "whose soldier Mr. Pitt was not," was an additional cause for this separation of their political action. ‡ Newcastle had silenced one of his formidable opponents. The other gave him no trouble for the rest of the session.

Events were maturing at this period which rendered it essentially important that England should have a firm and capable government. On the 25th of March, 1755, the king sent a message to both Houses, to acquaint them that "the present situation of

\* Fox to Hartington. Appendix to Waldegrave's "Memoirs," p. 54.

† Fox and Walpole agree in their account of this outburst.

‡ "Grenville Papers," vol. i. p. 144.

affairs makes it necessary to augment his forces by sea and land; and to take such other measures as may best tend to preserve the general peace of Europe, and to secure the just rights and possessions of his crown in America." The danger to America was from France, with whose colonists there had been perpetual disputes as to boundaries and alleged rights, from the period of the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. In another part of the world there had been similar disputes, amounting to actual warfare. But the affairs of the East Indies were held to belong rather to a trading Company than to the government; and were therefore allowed to follow their own course, without being regarded as a matter of national policy. It may be useful if, in this place, we take a review of the affairs of India and of those of America, as they affected British interests. We begin with India.

We have incidentally traced, at various periods, the progress of the East India Company, from the first establishment of a factory in Surat, in 1612,\* through the various contests between rival interests which ended in the union of two companies in 1702. The Company gradually acquired great wealth and influence; lent large sums of money to the government; and received corresponding charters and privileges. The Mogul power was hastening to decay, whilst its viceroys or subahdars had become independent, or yielded only a very limited submission to a phantom of sovereignty at the court of Delhi. A Settlement had been made at Madras, in 1640. Bombay had been ceded to Charles II. by the Portuguese, as a part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza, and had been assigned by the king to the East India Company. Dutch, Portuguese, and English had settled on the river Hooghly, a branch of the Ganges; and after some imprudent contests in the time of Aurungzebe, the English finally obtained a grant of land in 1698, where they built Fort William, and laid the foundation of Calcutta. These were the three Presidencies, each having a President and Council, appointed by the Court of Directors. A formidable rivalry arose, in the time of Louis XIV., in a French East India Company. This Company had a station at Chandernagore on the Hooghly; and another station on the coast of the Carnatic, where their fort was called Pondicherry. The French possessed also the Isle de France (Mauritius), and the Isle de Bourbon.

From the period of the breaking out of the war between England and France, in 1744, to the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, the English and French settlers had been in active hostility. The advantages in this warfare were decidedly on the side of the

\* *Ante*, vol. iii. p. 346.

French. La Bourdonnais, the governor of the Presidency of the Isle de France, carried a force of three or four thousand Frenchmen, sepoy, and negro-slaves, in French vessels across the Indian Ocean, and suddenly attacked Madras, in September, 1746. He bombarded Fort St. George for five days, which then capitulated. La Bourdonnais stipulated to restore the settlement to the English Company upon the payment of a ransom. Dupleix, the Governor of the Presidency of Pondicherry, expressed great wrath at the terms of the capitulation. Madras was within his jurisdiction, and he would not ratify the treaty. He looked forward to the expulsion of the English from India; and desired to see their thriving settlement of Madras razed to the ground. Dupleix annulled the capitulation, and insolently carried the Governor of Fort St. George, and other officers, in triumph to Pondicherry. In the counting-house of a merchant at Madras was a young Englishman, Robert Clive, who at the time of the capitulation was in his twenty-first year. He fled to the settlement of Fort St. David, a dependency of Madras, and there obtained an ensign's commission in the Company's service. The war of the two Companies was becoming serious; and a considerable force was sent from England in 1748. With a larger European army than had appeared in India in modern times, the siege of Pondicherry was undertaken. After a great loss, the English raised the siege. The peace came, and under its conditions Madras was restored. But the English and French, although no longer able to fight as principals, could carry on their hostilities as supporters of rival native princes. Dupleix had more ambitious views than the heads of the English Presidencies, or than the Court of Directors in Leadenhall Street. They looked to the extension and security of trade. The bold Frenchman aimed at empire. The Nizam of the Deccan died in 1748. The succession of his son, Nazir Jung, was disputed by a claimant to the throne. In the Carnatic, a province dependent upon the Deccan, the reigning prince was also assailed by a rival. Dupleix gave his well-timed assistance to the two pretenders. In a battle in August, 1749, the Nabob of the Carnatic was slain. His son, Mahomed Ali, fled to Trichinopoly; and Arcot fell into the hands of the Nabob set up by Dupleix. The same success attended the pretender to the throne of the Deccan. Nazir Jung was slain by treachery, as he sat upon his elephant at the head of his army, looking with contempt upon the few French who were drawn up in battle to oppose him. Dupleix received the new Nizam at Pondicherry, and was declared Governor, under the Mogul, of the country upon the eastern coast, from the river Kistna

to Cape Comorin. There never was a period in the previous history of our commercial relations with India when it was more probable that the power of the English Company, like that of the Dutch, was hastening to an end. And yet, within a third of a century, a great orator in the House of Commons took the English dominion over the vast peninsula as a theme for reflection on the inconstancy of human greatness, and the stupendous revolutions that had happened in an age of wonders. "Could it be believed, when I entered into existence, or when you, Mr. Speaker, a younger man, were born, that on this day, in this house, we should be employed in discussing the conduct of those British subjects who had disposed of the power and person of the Great Mogul?"\*

The boy who fled from Madras, when Dupleix violated the capitulation of Fort St. George, was destined to lay the foundation of the British Empire in India. In Trichinopoly Mahomed Ali prolonged a feeble resistance to Chunda Sahib and his French allies, in their rapid steps towards the complete dominion of the Carnatic. The last stronghold was invested. There was no force to attempt raising the siege. There was no officer at Madras to head the handful of English and native troops to any such daring enterprise. Ensign Clive had now become Captain Clive, and his abilities had procured him the employment of commissary to the troops in the Presidency of Madras. The inspirations of military genius in cases of great emergency are bold even to rashness. The young captain of twenty-five, who had never seen a field of battle, but who rightly estimated what daring might effect, in the first place, and who knew the possibility of combinations with native powers to secure what daring might win, conceived the plan of attacking Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic. A circumstance almost as extraordinary as Clive's bold project is, that the heads of the Presidency listened favourably to his plans, and gave him the command of an expedition consisting of three hundred Sepoys, and two hundred Europeans. He had eight officers under him, four of whom were factors of the Company. Clive and his little band marched up to the gates of Arcot, whilst a violent storm terrified the superstitious natives who composed the garrison. He entered the city of a hundred thousand people without striking a blow. His success induced the besiegers of Trichinopoly to detach a large force, which finally amounted to ten thousand men, to attack the ruinous fort at Arcot in which Clive had established his small garrison. The siege went on, week after week, with little hope of succour from the Company's settlements of Madras and St.

\* Burke's Speech on Fox's India Bill, December 1, 1783.

David's, where scarcely troops enough were left for their own defence. But Clive thought of a wavering Mahratta chief, who might become his ally. He put himself in communication with Morari Row, who was encamped on the hills of Mysore. Their captain's courage and sagacity inspired him around him with confidence. The garrison began to feel the assaults of hunger. His sepoy's begged, not for more food, but that they, who could subsist on scantier fare than the Europeans, might have the liquid in which the rice was boiled, whilst their fellow-sufferers ate the grain which they more needed. The Mahratta chief, the head of a tribe ever conspicuous for bravery, was touched with the resolution by which Arcot was defended. He never thought before, he said, that the English could fight, but now he would help them. Rajah Sahib, who commanded the besiegers, offered Clive a large bribe if he would surrender; but threatened inevitable death to the commander and his garrison, if they should compel him to take the fort by storm. Clive sent him a message of defiance. The 14th of November, the fifteenth day of the siege, was the great festival of Hossein, when all true believers are assured that they who died on this day, battling against the infidels, would be forgiven all the sins of their lives, and enter upon every joy of the Mohammedan paradise. Fired with superstition, and not less with stimulating drinks, crowds rushed to the assault of Arcot. Elephants with plates of iron on their foreheads were driven against the gates. Terrified by the musketry from the walls, they turned upon the multitudes that followed them, and trampled them down. Clive was the soul of the defence. He even took the management himself of a piece of artillery, and destroyed the assailants who were crossing the ditch on a raft. In an hour the attack was at an end. At two o'clock the next morning the besiegers were no more seen.

The wonderful success of the inexperienced captain inspired a confidence in Madras that was justified by the result. Large reinforcements were sent to him; and he went forth to attack Rajah Sahib in the open field. The victory of Arnee opened the way to more successes. The contest was prolonged by Rajah Sahib, who marched upon Madras in January, 1752, and committed some ravages. But Clive was at hand; and again he won a great victory. Trichinopoly was feebly defended, although the siege had now become a mere blockade. Clive was appointed to head a new expedition to raise the siege; but his senior officer, major Lawrence, having arrived from England, took the command. The two acted together without jealousy. The besiegers of Trichinopoly

capitulated; and Chunda Sahib was put to death by the Mahrattas. But Dupleix continued to struggle against the powerful rivals whom he thought to have swept from the Indian territory. Clive, after less important successes, found his health fail. He returned to England, with the lady he had married, a sister of Maskelyne, the eminent astronomer. Honours awaited him, and he had acquired a large amount of prize money. His presence in India had become unnecessary: for in 1754, under the direction of English and French commissioners, hostilities had been suspended; and it was agreed that the rival companies, and the subjects of both nations, should in future abstain from interference in the affairs of the native princes. It was a vain stipulation; for it was perfectly clear that upon the renewal of a European war, hostilities, whether as principals or auxiliaries, would be renewed by the English and French in India. The man upon whom reliance could be placed in such a contingency was Clive. In 1755 he was appointed governor of Fort St. David; and he received from the king the commission of lieutenant-colonel in the British army before he sailed for India. Dupleix had been superseded by his government: and he returned to France, to be neglected, and to die in poverty.

The North American colonies of Great Britain were looked upon as possessions to be defended at all cost from foreign assault. Any invasion of their territorial limits was regarded as a just cause for hostility. Any settlement near their boundaries was viewed with intense jealousy. Their inhabitants were, for the most part, of the same race as the English nation; speaking the same language; governed by laws nearly identical; imbued with the same love of liberty. The original settlers of the New England States had left their own land, to found communities where freedom and toleration might flourish in a more congenial region than that governed by the Stuarts. An American historian has shown, by minute investigations, that twenty-one thousand Englishmen had settled in these New England States before the time of the Long Parliament; that the number of subsequent settlers from Britain, or any other part of Europe, after 1640, to some time beyond the commencement of the present century, was very inconsiderable; and that from these stout-hearted Puritans are descended one-third of the present vast population of the United States.\* Many of the people of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, † had thus, in their English origin, old family associations, if not existing

\* Palfrey—"History of New England during the Stuart Dynasty."—Boston, 1858.

† Maine and Vermont were not then separate states.

family connexions, with the parent country. Their commercial intercourse kept up amongst all classes a mutual interest in a common prosperity. Of the Middle States, Pennsylvania\* and Maryland had the same English origin, and were bound to England by the same ties. New York had been settled by the Dutch, and New Jersey by Danes and Swedes; but each of these states had been ceded to England before the close of the seventeenth century. Of the Southern States, Virginia was the earliest English settlement, as Georgia was the latest. The two Carolinas were settled in the middle of the seventeenth century.† These were the Colonial possessions on the North American continent which the English government had to defend and protect at the period when the peace, or rather armistice, of Aix-la-Chapelle was likely to be broken. Though all the Colonists had occasional causes of complaint, they showed no doubtful allegiance to the British crown. Nova Scotia, or Acadia as it was called by the French, who had been several times its masters, was held by Britain after 1711. In 1749, a large grant was made by Parliament for the encouragement therein of a new settlement. Four thousand emigrants, with their families, established themselves in the province; and by them was Halifax founded. This settlement was made in the belief that France was again looking to the possession of Nova Scotia; and that those of the French race who occupied considerable portions of the territory, and took the name of Neutrals, would, with the aid of the Indians, overpower the small British garrison kept at the port of Annapolis-Royal. New Brunswick, ceded at the peace of Utrecht by France was a mere fishing station. Newfoundland was colonized by England under a charter of 1610. Numerous British settlements were made on its east coast; and the French had their settlement of Placentia on the south. By the treaty of Utrecht the island was ceded to Great Britain, but a limited right of fishery was reserved to the French. Here, therefore, was a cause of perpetual dispute. Prince Edward Island received its present name in honour of the father of queen Victoria. Before 1799 it was called St. John's Island. We may here add that, at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, the West Indian possessions of Great Britain were the islands of Antigua, Barbadoes, Jamaica, Montserrat, Nevis, St. Kitt's, Tortola and Anguilla, Bahamas, Bermudas, Honduras. The East India Company possessed St. Helena

\* Delaware was originally part of Pennsylvania.

† Florida was a Spanish possession till 1763. Of the Western States, Louisiana and Missouri were French. The other Western States, now so populous, were deserts, where one Indian tribe would occupy a hundred square miles.

at this period; and in Africa there was a settlement in Gambia, and there were some forts on the Gold Coast.

The possession of Canada by France was a perpetual source of disquiet to the British colonists of New England, and of Virginia and Pennsylvania. The French Canadian settlers had penetrated to the Ohio, and had built a fort which they named Duquesne. On the Ohio, the Virginians had also a fort called Block's Town. The settlement of Virginia, at this period, extended about two hundred miles from the sea-coast, and spread over about one-third of the state, according to its present limits. Its population was about two hundred thousand, of whom more than a fourth were slaves. The territory then occupied by the descendants of the colonists of the reign of James I. was the hunting-ground of the Indians; and the Virginians upon the Ohio were traders in skins. The French, also, were seeking a participation in that commerce which quickly perishes, as the extension of civilization creates more profitable industries. The old families of Virginia were engaged in far more lucrative and less adventurous occupations than in exchanges with the Indians. They were cultivating tobacco upon every estate. Their tobacco fields were the Potosi of the first settlers of North America. Tobacco was their sole article of export. It brought them all the comforts and luxuries which England and Scotland could supply. It was the general measure of value, and the principal currency. Public officers, ministers of the church, had their salaries paid at so many annual pounds of tobacco. In 1758 the colony exported seventy thousand hogshead of the precious weed, equivalent to seventy millions of pounds. The price was ten times higher than the present rate. Virginia was thriving. Her planters lived luxuriously on their estates, surrounded by their slaves, and affecting the aristocratic habits of grand old English families, from which many of them claimed to have sprung. Hospitable they were to profusion.\* In such a state of society was George Washington born; who, in 1754, then a young man of twenty-two, was fighting for the integrity of the colonial territory against the aggressions of the French. At the age of nineteen, he became an adjutant-general, having the rank of major, and taking the direction of one of the military districts into which the province of Virginia was divided, for the purpose of resisting the encroachments of the French and the depredations of the Indians. These divisions were reduced to four, in 1752, and the young major had the command of the northern division. In the capacity of commissioner in 1753, he went into the territory occupied by the French, to negotiate

\* See Tucker's "Life of Jefferson," chapter i.

with their commander. He had no success in his diplomacy; but he brought back with him a plan of the fort which the French had constructed in the neighbourhood of Lake Erie. He had been employed, when at the age of sixteen, as a public surveyor, and in the wild district of the Alleghanies had acquired that practical mode of viewing large tracts of country which was of essential importance to him in his future great career. In 1754, under the command of an English officer, colonel Fry, he was sent to occupy the British posts of the Ohio, in the presence of a French force. He defeated a detachment of the enemy, but was finally compelled to capitulate to superior numbers, who surrounded his entrenched fort. He was allowed to retreat with his men, with what are termed military honours. The feuds of the two nations were the subject of official discussions in Paris; but it was clear that this sort of half-warfare in America could not long endure.

In January, 1755, although no formal declarations of hostilities had taken place, general Braddock, with a body of English troops, was sent to the succour of the colonists in Virginia. His campaign was a most unfortunate one. Braddock was a commander of the old routine cast, who fancied that well-dressed and well-equipped soldiers, who could go through all the manœuvres of the Prussian drill, were sure to be victorious over any number of irregular troops. He marched against the French fort on the Ohio, taking Washington with him, although he despised the American militia and their officers. What the Highlanders were to Cope and Hawley, the Indians were to Braddock. In a valley between two woods, within ten miles of Fort Duquesne—utterly neglecting all precautions against surprise—the English general fell into an ambuscade of Indians. A few French only encountered him; but the unerring marksmen of the woods picked off his officers; and Braddock himself, fighting with desperate courage, was mortally wounded. Half his troops fled in confusion, abandoning their artillery. The other half were killed or wounded; and the terrible Indian scalping-knife left few to tell the tale of this fatal reverse.\*

Whilst British and French were fighting in the waste regions of North America, their ships were engaged in the Atlantic. Admiral Boscawen, with eleven ships of the line, had been sent to watch a French expedition that had sailed from Brest. Off Newfoundland the squadrons met in a fog. Captain Howe, having received a signal to engage took two of the French vessels. The

\* The incidents of this little war on the Ohio have been told by Mr. Thackeray, in his "Virginians," with a spirit and fidelity which show how Fiction may borrow interest from History without compromising her truth.