## SECTION X

"The history of England is emphatically the history of progress. It is the history of a constant movement of the public mind, of a constant change in the institutions of a great society." — MACAULAY.

### INDIA GAINED; AMERICA LOST — PARLIAMENTARY REFORM — GOVERNMENT BY THE PEOPLE

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER (1714) TO THE PRESENT TIME

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| GEORGE I, | 1714–1727. | GEORGE IV, | 1820–1830. |
| GEORGE II, | 1727–1760. | WILLIAM IV, | 1830–1837. |
| GEORGE III, | 1760–1820. | VICTORIA, | 1837–1901. |

EDWARD VII, 1901–

**581. Accession of George I.** — As Queen Anne died without leaving an heir to the throne, George, Elector of Hanover, in accordance with the Act of Settlement (§ 549), now came into possession of the English crown. (See genealogical table on opposite page.) The new King, however, was in no haste to leave the quiet little German court where he had passed his fifty-fourth birthday, and where he would have gladly spent the rest of his uneventful life.

As he owed his new position to Whig legislation (§ 531), he naturally favored that party and turned his back on the Tories (§ 531), who, deprived of the sunshine of royal favor, were as unhappy as their rivals were jubilant. The triumphant Whigs denounced "the shameful Peace of Utrecht" (§ 561). Next, they impeached the three fallen Tory leaders,[1] of whom Harley

[1] The three Tory leaders were: Harley, now Earl of Oxford (§ 559), St. John (Viscount Bolingbroke), and Butler (Duke of Ormonde). Bolingbroke and Ormonde fled to France, where the first entered the service of the "Pretender," but he was ultimately permitted to return to England. Ormonde never came back. Harley, as stated above, was sent to the Tower; while there he secretly wrote to the "Pretender," and offered him his services.


BRIBING A VOTER
(BY HOGARTH)

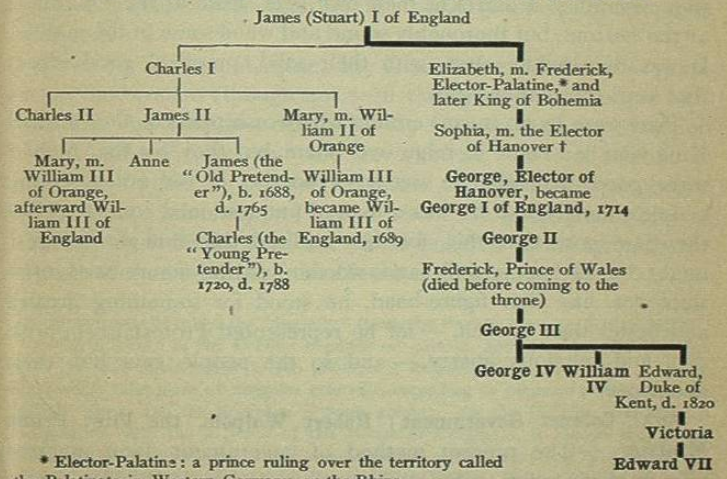
was the chief (§ 559), on a charge of treason. The indictment accused them of having given up more places to Louis XIV in the late war than was necessary. Furthermore, they were said to be guilty of having intrigued to restore the house of Stuart with the design of making the "Pretender" king (§§ 542, 543, 564). Harley was sent to the Tower of London for a time; he was then acquitted and released. Meanwhile his two indicted associates had fled to France.

Later, the Whigs repealed the harsh religious statutes (§ 560)[1] directed against Dissenters, which the Tories and the High Churchmen had enacted in the previous reign for the purpose of keeping themselves in power.

**582. Character of the New King.** — The new sovereign was a selfish, coarse old man, who in private life would, as Lady Montagu said, have passed for an honest blockhead. He neither

[1] The Occasional Conformity and the Schism acts, repealed 1717–1719.

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER, also called BRUNSWICK AND GUELF




* Elector-Palatine: a prince ruling over the territory called the Palatinate in Western Germany, on the Rhine.

† Elector of Hanover: a prince ruling over the province of Hanover, a part of the German Empire, lying on the North Sea. The elector received his title from the fact that he was one of a certain number of princes who had the right of electing the German emperor.

knew anything about England, nor did he desire to know anything of it. He could not speak a word of the language of the country he was called to govern, and he made no attempt to learn it; even the coronation service had to be explained to him as best it could, in such broken Latin as the ministers could muster.

Laboring under these disadvantages, his majesty wisely determined not to try to take any active part in the affairs of the nation. He was a hearty eater and drinker, so that his table exercises took up a considerable portion of his time. Much of the rest he was contented to spend quietly smoking his pipe, or playing cards and laughing at the caricature pictures of the English which the German ladies of his court cut out of paper for his amusement. As for politics, he let his Whig friends (§ 531), with Sir Robert Walpole at the head, manage the country in their own way.

Fortunately, the great body of the English people were abundantly able to take care of themselves. Voltaire said of them that they resembled a barrel of their own beer, froth at the top, dregs at the bottom, but thoroughly sound and wholesome in the middle. It was this middle class, with their solid, practical good sense, that kept the nation right.

They were by no means enthusiastic worshippers of the German King who had come to reign over them, but they saw that he had three good qualities: he was no hypocrite, he did not waste the people's money, and he was a man of unquestioned courage. But they saw more than this, for they realized that though George I might be as heavy, dull, and wooden as the figure-head of a ship, yet, like that figure-head, he stood for something greater and better than himself, — for he represented Protestantism, with civil and religious liberty, — and so the people gave him their allegiance.

583. **Cabinet Government; Robert Walpole, the First Prime Minister.** — The present method of government dates in great part from this reign. From the earliest period of English history the sovereign was accustomed to have a permanent council composed of some of the chief men of the realm, whom he consulted



on all matters of importance (§§ 194, 195). Charles II, because he found this body inconveniently large for the rapid transaction of business, or because he believed it inexpedient to discuss his plans with so many, selected a small confidential committee from it. This committee met to consult with the King in his cabinet, or private room, and so came to be called "the cabinet council," or briefly "the Cabinet," a name which it has ever since retained.

During Charles II's reign and that of his immediate successors the King continued to choose this special council from those whom he believed to be friendly to his measures, often without much regard to party lines, and he was always present at their meetings. With the accession of George I, however, a great change took place. His want of acquaintance with prominent men made it difficult for him to select a Cabinet himself, and his ignorance of English rendered his presence at its meetings wholly useless. For these reasons the new King adopted the expedient of appointing a chief adviser, or Prime Minister, who chose his own Cabinet from men of the political party to which he belonged.

Thus Sir Robert Walpole, the first Prime Minister (1721), began that system (though not until the reign was far advanced) by which the executive affairs of the Government are managed to-day. The Cabinet, or "the Government," as it is sometimes called, now generally consists of twelve or fifteen persons chosen by the Prime Minister, or Premier,[1] from the leading members of both houses of Parliament, but whose political views agree in the main with the majority of the House of Commons.[2]

[1] Now generally called the "Premier" (from the French *premier*, first or chief).

[2] The existence of the Cabinet depends on custom, not law. Its members are never *officially* made known to the public, nor its proceedings recorded. Its meetings, which take place at irregular intervals, according to pressure of business, are entirely secret, and the sovereign is never present. As the Cabinet agrees in its composition with the majority of the House of Commons, it follows that if the Commons are Conservative, the Cabinet will be so likewise; and if Liberal, the reverse. Theoretically, the sovereign chooses the Cabinet; but practically the selection is now always made by the Prime Minister. If at any time the Prime Minister, with his Cabinet, finds that his political policy no longer agrees with that of the House of Commons, he and the other members of the Cabinet resign, and the

This system, though not fully developed until the reign of George III, had become so well established when George II came to the throne, that he said, "In England the ministers are king." If he could have looked forward, he would have seen that the time was coming when the House of Commons would be king, since no ministry or Cabinet can now stand which does not have the confidence and support of the Commons.

**584. The "Pretender"; "The Fifteen" (1715); the Septennial Act (1716).** — The fact that George I exclusively favored the Whigs exasperated the opposite, or Tory, party. The Jacobites or extreme members of that party (§§ 531, 547) in Scotland, with the secret aid of many in England, now rose, in the hope of placing on the throne James Edward Stuart, the son of James II. He was called the "Chevalier"[1] by his friends, but the "Pretender" by his enemies (§§ 542, 543, 557, 564). The insurrection was led by John, Earl of Mar, who, from his frequent change of politics, had got the nickname of "Bobbing John." Mar encountered the royal forces at Sheriffmuir, in

sovereign chooses a new Prime Minister from the opposite party, who forms a new Cabinet in harmony with himself and the Commons. If, however, the Prime Minister has good reason for believing that a different House of Commons would support him, the sovereign may, by his advice, dissolve Parliament. A new election then takes place, and according to the political character of the members returned, the Cabinet remains in, or goes out of, power. The Cabinet now invariably includes the following officers: —

1. The First Lord of the Treasury (usually the Prime Minister).
2. The Lord Chancellor.
3. The Lord President of the Council.
4. The Lord Privy Seal.
5. The Chancellor of the Exchequer.
6. The Secretary of State for Home Affairs.
7. The Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.
8. The Secretary of State for the Colonies.
9. The Secretary of State for India.
10. The Secretary of State for War.
11. The First Lord of the Admiralty.

In addition, a certain number of other officers of the Government are frequently included, making the whole number about twelve or fifteen.

[1] The Chevalier de St. George: after the birth of his son Charles in 1720, the former was known by the nickname of the "Old Pretender," and the son as the "Young Pretender." So far as birth could entitle them to the crown, they held the legal right of succession; but the Revolution of 1688 and the Act of Settlement barred them out (§ 549).



Perthshire, Scotland (1715), where an indecisive battle was fought, which the old ballad thus describes: —

> "There 's some say that we won, and some say that they won,
> And some say that none won at a', man;
> But one thing is sure, that at Sheriffmuir
> A battle there was, which I saw, man."

On the same day of the fight at Sheriffmuir, the English Jacobites, with a body of Scotch allies, marched into Preston, Lancashire, and there surrendered, almost without striking a blow.

The leaders of the movement, except the Earl of Mar, who, with one or two others, escaped to the continent, were beheaded or hanged, and about a thousand of the rank and file were sold as slaves to the West India and Virginia plantations. The "Pretender" himself landed in Scotland a few weeks after the defeat of his friends; but finding no encouragement, he hurried back to the continent again. Thus ended the rebellion known from the year of its outbreak (1715) as "The Fifteen."

One result of this rising was the passage of the Septennial Act (1716), extending the duration of Parliament from three years, which was the longest time that body could sit (§§ 491, 566), to seven years, a law still in force.[1] The object of this change was to do away with the excitement and tendency to rebellion at that time, resulting from frequent elections, in which party feeling ran to dangerous extremes.

**585. The South Sea Bubble (1720).** — A few years later a gigantic enterprise was undertaken by the South Sea Company, a body of merchants, originally organized as a company trading in the southern Atlantic and Pacific oceans. A Scotchman named Law had started a similar project in France, known as the

[1] The Triennial Act (§§ 491, 566) provided that at the end of three years Parliament must be dissolved and a new election held. This was to prevent the sovereign from keeping that body in power indefinitely, contrary, perhaps, to the political feeling of the country, which might prefer a different set of representatives. Under the Septennial Act the time was extended four years, making seven in all, but the sovereign may, of course, dissolve Parliament at any time before that limit is reached. But now custom reduces the longest session of Parliament to six years.

"Mississippi Company," which proposed to pay off the national debt of France from the profits of its commerce with the West Indies and the country bordering on the Mississippi River.

Following his example, the South Sea Company now undertook to pay off the English National Debt (§ 552), mainly, it is said, from the profits of the slave trade between Africa and Brazil.[1] Walpole had no faith in the scheme, and attacked it vigorously; but other influential members of the Government gave it their encouragement. The directors came out with prospectuses promising dividends of fifty per cent on all money invested. Everybody rushed to buy stock, and the shares rapidly advanced from £100 to £1000 a share.

A speculative craze followed, the like of which has never since been known. Bubble companies sprang into existence with objects almost as absurd as those of the philosophers whom Swift ridiculed in "Gulliver's Travels," where one man was trying to make gunpowder out of ice, and another to extract sunbeams from cucumbers.

A mere list of these companies would fill several pages. One was to give instruction in astrology, by which every man might be able to foretell his own destiny by examining the stars; a second was to manufacture butter out of beech trees; a third was for a wheel for driving machinery, which once started would go on forever, thereby furnishing a cheap perpetual motion.

A fourth projector, going beyond all the rest in audacity, had the impudence to offer stock for sale in an enterprise "which shall be revealed hereafter." He found the public so gullible and so greedy for gain that he sold £2,000 worth of the new stock in the course of a single morning, and then prudently disappeared with the cash; but the unfortunate investors found that where he went with their money was not among the things to "be revealed hereafter."

The narrow passage leading to the stock exchange was crowded all day long with struggling fortune hunters, both men and women. Suddenly, when the excitement was at its height,

[1] Loftie's History of London; and see § 561.



the bubble burst, as Law's scheme in France had a little earlier.

Great numbers of people were hopelessly ruined, and the cry for vengeance was as loud as the bids for stocks had once been. One prominent government official who had helped to blow the bubble was sent to the Tower. Another committed suicide rather than face a parliamentary committee of investigation, one of whose members had suggested that it would be an excellent plan to sew the South Sea directors up in sacks and throw them into the Thames.

**586. How a Terrible Disease was conquered.** — But among the new things which the people were to try in this century was one which led to most beneficent results. For many generations the great scourge of Europe was the small-pox. Often the disease was as violent as the plague, and carried off nearly as many victims. Medical art seemed powerless to deal with it, and even in years of ordinary health in England about one person out of ten died of this loathsome pestilence. In the early part of George I's reign, Lady Mary Montagu, then travelling in Turkey, wrote that the Turks were in the habit of inoculating their children for the disease, which rendered it much milder and less fatal, and that she was about to try the experiment on her own son.

Later, Lady Montagu returned to England, and through her influence and example the practice was introduced there (1721). It was tried first on five criminals in Newgate who had been sentenced to the gallows, but were promised their freedom if they would consent to the operation. As it proved a complete success, the Princess of Wales, with the King's consent, caused it to be tried on her daughter, with equally good results.

The medical profession, however, generally refused to sanction the practice, and the clergy in many cases preached against it as an "invention of Satan, intended to counteract the purposes of an all-wise Providence." But through the perseverance and good sense of Lady Montagu, with a few others, the new practice gradually gained ground. Subsequently, Dr. Jenner began to make experiments of a different kind, which led late in the

century to the discovery of vaccination, by which millions of lives have been saved; this, with the discovery of the use of ether in our own time, may justly be called two of the greatest triumphs of the art of medicine.

587. **How Walpole governed (1721).** — Robert Walpole had been a member of the Cabinet (§ 583) during most of the first half of the reign of George I. He then became the first Prime Minister (1721), and continued in office as head of the Government until near the middle of the next reign, or about twenty-one years in all. He was an able financier, and succeeded in reducing the National Debt. He believed in keeping the country out of war, and also, as we have seen, out of bubble speculation (§ 585). Finally, he was determined at all cost to maintain the Whig party in power, and the Protestant Hanoverian sovereigns on the throne (§§ 531, 581).

In order to accomplish this, he openly bribed members of Parliament to support his party; he bought votes and carried elections by gifts of titles, honors, and bank-notes, thus proving to his own satisfaction the truth of his theory that most men "have their price," and that an appeal to the pocket-book is both quicker and surer than an appeal to principle. But he had to confess before the end of his ministry that he had found in the House of Commons one "boy patriot," as he sneeringly called him, named William Pitt (afterward Earl of Chatham), whom neither his money could buy nor his ridicule move.

Bad as Walpole's policy was in its corrupting influence on the nation, it was an admission that the time had come when the King could no longer venture to rule by force, as in the days of the Stuarts: it meant that the Government had been deprived of the arbitrary power it once wielded. Walpole was a fox, not a lion; and "foxes," as Emerson tells us, "are so cunning because they are not strong."

588. **Summary.** — Though George I did little for England except keep the "Pretender" from the throne by occupying it himself, yet that was no small advantage, since it gave the country peace. The establishment of the cabinet system of



government under Sir Robert Walpole as the first Prime Minister, the suppression of the Jacobite insurrection, and the disastrous collapse of the South Sea Bubble are the principal events.

### GEORGE II — 1727–1760

589. **Accession and Character.** — The second George, who was also of German birth, was much like his father, though he had the advantage of being able to speak broken English readily. His wife, Queen Caroline, was an able woman. She possessed the happy art of ruling her husband without his suspecting it, while she, on the other hand, was ruled by Sir Robert Walpole, whom the King hated, but whom he had to keep as Prime Minister (§ 587). George II was a good soldier, and decidedly preferred war to peace; but Walpole saw clearly that the peace policy was best for the nation, and he and the Queen managed to persuade the King not to draw the sword.

590. **The War of Jenkins' Ear (1739).** — At the end of twelve years, however, trouble arose with Spain. According to the London newspapers of that day, a certain Captain Jenkins, while cruising, or, more probably, smuggling, in the West Indies, had been seized by the Spaniards and barbarously maltreated. They, if we accept his story, accused him of attempting to land English goods contrary to law, and searched his ship. Finding nothing against him, they vented their rage and disappointment by hanging him to the yard-arm of his vessel until he was nearly dead.

They then tore off one of his ears, and bade him take it to the King of England with their compliments. Jenkins, it is said, carefully wrapped up his ear and put it in his pocket. When he reached England, he went straight to the House of Commons, drew out the mutilated ear, showed it to the House, and demanded justice.

The Spanish restrictions on English trade with the Indies and South America[1] had long been a source of ill feeling. The

[1] By the Assiento (Contract) Treaty (§ 561), made at Utrecht in 1713, one English ship of six hundred tons burden was allowed to make one trading voyage a year carrying slaves to the colonies of Spanish America.

sight of Jenkins' ear brought matters to a climax; even Walpole could not resist the clamor for vengeance, and contrary to his own judgment he had to vote for war. Though Jenkins was the occasion, the real object of the war was to compel Spain to permit the English to get a larger share in the lucrative commerce of the new world. It was another proof that America was now rapidly becoming an important factor in the politics of Great Britain.

The announcement of hostilities with Spain was received in London with delight, and bells pealed from every steeple. "Yes," said Walpole, "they may ring the bells now, but before long they will be wringing their hands." This prediction was verified by the heavy losses the English suffered in an expedition against Carthagena, South America. But later Commodore Anson inflicted great damage on the Spanish colonies, and returned to England with vessels laden with large amounts of captured treasure.

**591. War of the Austrian Succession (1741).** — On the death of Charles VI, of the house of Austria, Emperor of Germany, his daughter Maria Theresa succeeded to the Austrian dominions. France now united with Spain, Prussia, and other European powers to overturn this arrangement, partly out of jealousy of the Austrian power, and partly from desire to get control of portions of the Austrian possessions. England and Holland, however, both desired to maintain Austria as a check against their old enemy France, and declared war (1741).

During this war George II went over to the continent to lead the English forces in person. He was not a man of commanding appearance, but he was every inch a soldier, and nothing exhilarated him like the smell of gunpowder. At the battle of Dettingen, in Bavaria, he got down from his horse, and drawing his sword, cried: "Come, boys, now behave like men, and the French will soon run."

With that, followed by his troops, he rushed upon the enemy with such impetuosity that they turned and fled. This was the last battle in which an English king took part. It was followed



by that of Fontenoy, in the Netherlands (Belgium), in which the French gained the victory. After nearly eight years' fighting the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) secured a peace advantageous for England.[1]

**592. Invasion by the "Young Pretender"; "The Forty-Five."**[2] — While the War of the Austrian Succession was in progress, the French encouraged James II's grandson, Charles Edward, the "Young Pretender" (§ 584), to make an attempt on the English crown. He landed (1745) on the northern coast of Scotland with only seven followers, but with the aid of the Scotch Jacobites (§§ 547, 584) of the Highlands he gained a battle over the English at Prestonpans, near Edinburgh. Emboldened by his success, he now marched into Derbyshire, England, on his way to London. He hoped that as he advanced the country would rise in his favor; but finding no support, he retreated to Scotland.

The next year he and his adherents were defeated with great slaughter by "Butcher" Cumberland, as the Scotch called him, at Culloden, near Inverness (1746). The "Pretender" fled from the battle-field to the Hebrides. After wandering in those islands for many months he escaped to France through the devotion and courage of the Scottish heroine, Flora Macdonald. When he left the country his Highland sympathizers lost all hope. There were no more ringing Jacobite songs, sung over bowls of steaming punch, of "Who 'll be king but Charlie?" and "Over the water to Charlie"; and when (1788) Prince Charles Edward died in Rome, the unfortunate house of Stuart disappeared from history.[3]

[1] Aix-la-Chapelle (Āks-lä-Shă'pel'). [2] So called from the Scotch rising of 1745.

[3] Devoted loyalty to a hopeless cause was never more truly or pathetically expressed than in some of these Jacobite songs, notably in those of Scotland, in honor of Prince Charles Edward, the "Young Pretender," of which the following lines are an example:—

> "Over the water, and over the sea,
> And over the water to Charlie;
> Come weal, come woe, we 'll gather and go,
> And live or die with Charlie."

See SCOTT's *Redgauntlet*.

**593. War in the East; the Black Hole of Calcutta; Clive's Victories; English Empire of India (1751–1757).** — In India the English had long had important trading-posts at Madras,[1] Bombay, Calcutta, and other points, but they had not had control of the country, which was governed by native princes. The French also had established an important trading-post at Pondicherry, south of Madras, and were now secretly planning through alliance with the native rulers to get possession of the entire country. They had met with some success in their efforts, and the times seemed to favor their gaining still greater influence unless some decided measures should be taken to prevent them.

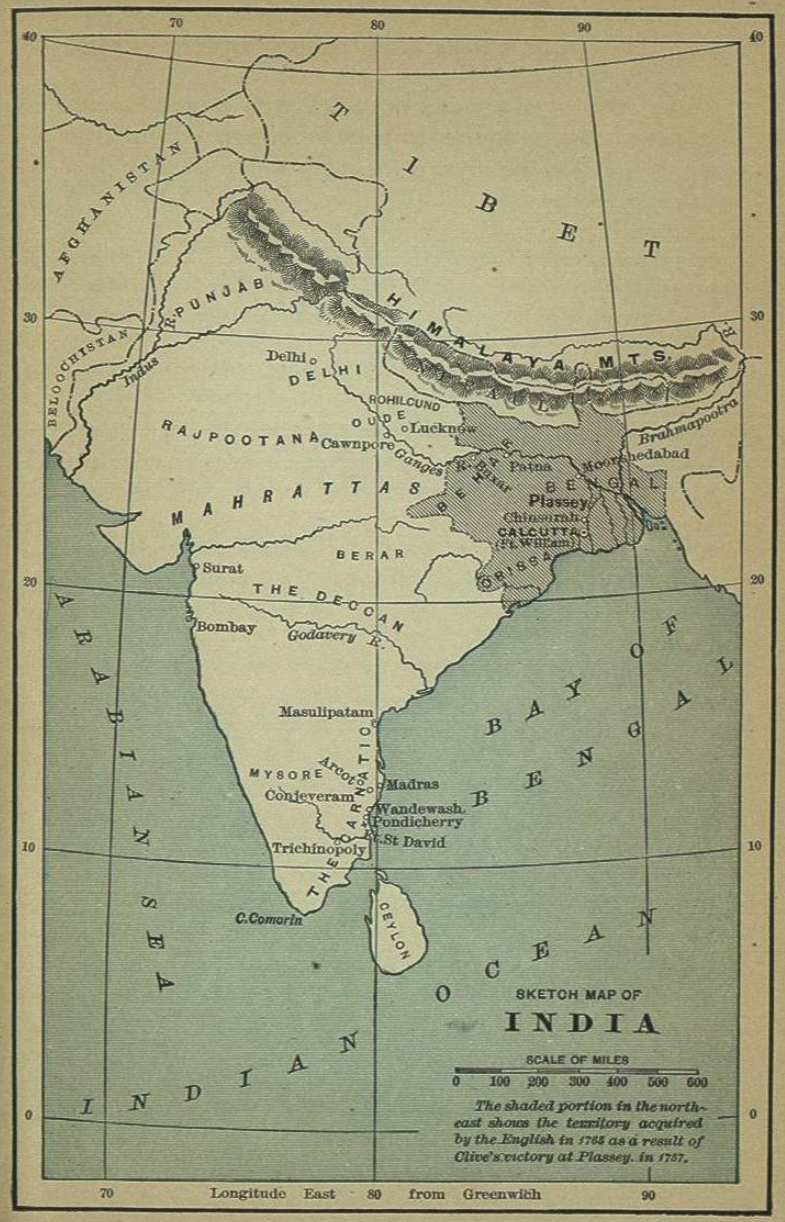
At this juncture Robert Clive, a young man who had been employed as clerk in the service of the English East India Company, but who had obtained a humble position in the army, obtained permission to try his hand at driving back the enemy. It was the very work for which he was fitted. He met with success from the first, and he followed it up by the splendid victory of Arcot (1751), which practically gave the English control of Southern India. Shortly after that, Clive returned to England.

During his absence the native prince of Bengal undertook an expedition against Calcutta, a wealthy British trading-post. He captured the fort which protected it (1756), and seizing the principal English residents, one hundred and forty-six in number, drove them at the point of the sword into a prison called the "Black Hole," less than twenty feet square and having but two small windows.

In such a climate, in the fierce heat of midsummer, that dungeon would have been too close for a single European captive; to crowd it with more than seven score persons for a night meant death by all the agonies of heat, thirst, and suffocation. In vain they endeavored to bribe the guard to transfer part of them to another room, in vain they begged for mercy and tried to burst the door. Their jailers only mocked them and would do nothing.

Then, says Macaulay, "the prisoners went mad with despair;

[1] The English got possession of Madras — their first Indian territory — in 1639.



they trampled each other down, they fought to get at the windows, they fought for the pittance of water which was given them, they raved, prayed, blasphemed, and implored the guards to fire upon them. At length the tumult died away in low gasps and moanings.

"When daylight came and the dungeon was opened, the floor was heaped with mutilated half-putrescent corpses. Out of the hundred and forty-six, one of whom was a woman, only twenty-three were alive, and they were so changed, so feeble, so ghastly, that their own mothers would not have known them."

When Clive returned he was met with a cry for vengeance. He gathered his troops, recovered Calcutta, and ended by fighting that great battle of Plassey (1757), which was the means of permanently establishing the English empire in India on a firm foundation.[1]

**594. The Seven Years' War in Europe and America, 1756–1763.** — Before the contest had closed by which England won her Asiatic dominions, a new war had broken out. In the fifth year (1756) of the New Style[2] of reckoning time, the aggressive designs of Frederick the Great of Prussia caused such alarm that a grand alliance was formed by France, Russia, Austria, and Poland to check his further advance. Great Britain, however, gave her support to Frederick, in the hope of humbling her old enemy France, who, in addition to her attempts to oust the English from India, was also making preparations on a grand scale to get possession of America.

[1] See Map No. 17, facing page 324; and see Macaulay's Essay on Clive.

[2] The New Style was introduced into Great Britain in 1752. Owing to a slight error in the calendar, the year had, in the course of centuries, been gradually losing, so that in 1752 it was eleven days short of what the true computation would make it. Pope Gregory corrected the error in 1582, and his calendar was adopted in nearly every country of Europe except Great Britain and Russia, both of which regarded the change as a "popish measure." But in 1751, notwithstanding the popular outcry, Sept. 3, 1752, was made September 14, by an act of Parliament, and by the same act the beginning of the legal year was altered from March 25 to January 1. The popular clamor against the reform is illustrated in Hogarth's picture of an Election Feast, in which the People's party carry a banner, with the inscription, "Give us back our eleven days."

Every victory, therefore, which the British forces could gain in Europe would, by crippling the French, make the ultimate victory in America so much the more certain; so that we may look upon the alliance with Frederick as an indirect means employed by England to protect her colonies on the other side of the Atlantic. These had now extended along the entire coast, from the Kennebec River, in Maine, to the borders of Florida.

The French, on the other hand, had planted colonies at Quebec and Montreal, on the St. Lawrence; at Detroit, on the Great Lakes; at New Orleans and other points on the Mississippi. They had also begun to build a line of forts along the Ohio River, which, when completed, would connect their northern and southern colonies, and thus secure to them the whole country west of the Alleghanies. They expected to conquer the East as well, and to erase Virginia, New England, and all other colonial titles from the map, inscribing in their place the name of New France.

During the first part of the war, the English were unsuccessful. In an attempt to take Fort Duquesne,[1] General Braddock met with a crushing defeat (1756) from the combined French and Indian forces, which would indeed have proved his utter destruction had not a young Virginian named George Washington saved a remnant of his troops by his calmness and courage. Not long afterward, a second expedition was sent out against the French fort, in which Washington led the advance. The garrison fled at his approach, the English colors were run up, and the place was named Pittsburgh, in honor of William Pitt, then Secretary of State, but virtually Prime Minister (§ 587) of England.

About the same time, the English took the forts on the Bay of Fundy, and drove out a number of thousand French settlers from Acadia.[2] This gave them control of Nova Scotia. Other successes followed, by which they obtained possession of important points. Finally, Canada was won from the French by Wolfe's victory over Montcalm, at Quebec (1759), where both gallant soldiers verified the truth of the lines, "The paths of glory lead

[1] Duquesne (Doo-kane').

[2] See Montgomery's Leading Facts of American History, § 142, and note.



but to the grave,"[1] which the English general had quoted to some brother officers the evening before the attack. This ended the war.

Spain now ceded Florida to Great Britain, so that, when peace was made in 1763, the English flag waved over the whole eastern half of the American continent, from the Atlantic to the Mississippi. Thus, within a comparatively few years, England had gained an empire in the east (India), and another in the west (America).

Six years later (1769) Captain Cook explored and mapped the coast of New Zealand, and next the eastern coast of the island-continent of Australia. Before the middle of the following century both these countries were added to the possessions of Great Britain. Then her "morning drum-beat, following the sun and keeping company with the hours," literally circled "the earth with one continuous and unbroken strain of the martial airs of England."[2]

**595. Moral Condition of England; Intemperance; Rise of the Methodists (1739).** — But grand as were the military successes of the British arms, the reign of George II was morally torpid. With the exception of a few public men like Pitt, the majority of the Whig party (§ 531) seemed animated by no higher motive than self-interest. It was an age whose want of faith, coarseness, and brutality were well portrayed by Hogarth's pencil and Fielding's pen.

For a long time intemperance had been steadily on the increase; strong drink had taken the place of beer, and every attempt to restrict the traffic was met at the elections by the popular cry, "No gin, no king." The London taverns were thronged day and

[1] "The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour;
The paths of glory lead but to the grave."
GRAY'S *Elegy* (1750).

"I would rather be the author of that poem," said Wolfe, "than to have the glory of beating the French to-morrow." Wolfe and Montcalm were both mortally wounded and died within a few hours of each other.

[2] Daniel Webster, speech of May 7, 1834.

night, and in the windows of those frequented by the lowest class, placards were exhibited with the tempting announcement, "Drunk for a penny; dead drunk for twopence; clean straw for nothing." On the straw lay men and women in beastly helplessness.

Among the upper classes matters were hardly better. It was a common thing for great statesmen to drink at public dinners until one by one they slid out of their seats and disappeared under the table; and Robert Walpole, the late Prime Minister of England (§§ 583, 587), said that when he was a young man his father would say to him as he poured out the wine, "Come, Robert, you shall drink twice while I drink once, for I will not permit the son in his sober senses to be witness of the intoxication of his father."[1]

Such was the condition of England when a great religious revival began (1739). Its leader was a student at Oxford, named John Wesley. He, with his brother Charles and a few others, was accustomed to meet at certain hours for devotional exercises. The regularity of their meetings, and of their habits generally, got for them the name of "Methodists," which, like "Quaker" and many another nickname of the kind, was destined to become a title of respect and honor.

At first Wesley had no intention of separating from the Church of England, but labored only to quicken it to new life; eventually, however, he found it best to begin a more extended and independent movement. The revival swept over England with its regenerating influence, and was carried by Wesley and Whitefield across the sea to America.[2] It was especially powerful among those who had hitherto scoffed at both church and Bible. Rough and hardened men were touched and melted to tears of repentance by the fervor of this Oxford graduate, whom neither threats nor ridicule could turn aside from his one great purpose of saving souls.

Unlike the Church, Wesley did not ask the multitude to come

[1] See Coxe's Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole, and Lecky's England in the Eighteenth Century.

[2] See Montgomery's Leading Facts of American History, § 129.



to him; he went to them. He rode on horseback from one end of the country to the other, making known the glad tidings of Christian hope. He preached in the fields, under trees which are still known throughout England by the expressive name of "Gospel Oaks"; he spoke in the abandoned mining pits of Cornwall, at the corners of the streets, in cities, on the docks, in the slums; in fact, wherever he could find listening ears and responsive hearts.

If we except the great Puritan movement of the seventeenth century (§§ 430, 469), no such appeal had been heard since the days when Augustine and his band of monks set forth on their mission among the barbarous Saxons (§ 78). The results answered fully to the zeal that awakened them. Better than the growing prosperity of extending commerce, better than all the conquests in the east or west, was the new religious spirit which stirred the people of both England and America. It provoked the National Church to emulation in good works; it planted schools, checked intemperance, and brought into vigorous activity all that was best and bravest in a race that when true to itself is excelled by none.

**596. Summary.** — The history of the reign may be summed up in the great religious movement which has just been described, and in the Asiatic, continental, and American wars with France, which ended in the extension of the power of Great Britain in both hemispheres, — in India in the old world, and in North America in the new.

### GEORGE III — 1760–1820

**597. Accession and Character; the King's Struggle with the Whigs.** — By the death of George II his grandson,[1] George III, now came to the throne. The new King was a man of excellent character, who prided himself on having been born an Englishman. He had the best interests of his country at heart, but he lacked many of the qualities necessary to a great ruler, and,

[1] Frederick, Prince of Wales, George II's son, died before his father, leaving his son George heir to the throne. See table, § 581.