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and colonies were likewise given back to Spain. Hanover was raised to the dignity of a kingdom, with succession only in the male line. In 1815 the allied armies evacuated Paris. The emperor Alexander, the king of Prussia, and many of their most distinguished generals and nobility, then visited England, when there was a solemn thanksgiving in St. Paul's, and a series of grand fêtes and entertainments.

Contemporaneously with the advance of the allies upon Paris, an English force under sir Thomas Graham, which was afterwards joined by Bernadotte and his Swedes, had been engaged in reducing Holland, and the English suffered severely in attempting to storm the formidable fortress of Bergen op Zoom. By the peace of Paris, Belgium was incorporated with Holland. Lord William Bentinck, with an Anglo-Sicilian force, assisted by a squadron under sir Edward Pellew, succeeded in reducing Genoa, which was annexed to the kingdom of Sardinia: Pius VII. was restored to the papal throne; and Lombardy, with the addition of Venice and several other places, was, after the expulsion of the viceroy Eugene Beauharnais, made over to Austria. Lord Bentinck appears to have exceeded his powers in proclaiming the independence of Italy, and thus exciting hopes which could not be realized. Ferdinand VII. was restored to the throne of Spain without the exaction of any pledge. Soon after the duke of Wellington, for such he had now been created, arrived at Madrid to mediate between the contending parties; and he advised Ferdinand to grant the Spaniards a constitution, and to rule with liberality and moderation. On his return home the duke received the thanks of both houses, and a sum of 500,000*l.* was voted to him to purchase an estate.

§ 21. We must now briefly advert to the American war, which however, after the great events just related, does not present features of much interest. Instructed by the events of 1812, the English government sent out a more powerful class of frigates, and henceforward the engagements went for the most part in favour of the British. One of the most remarkable was that between the *Shannon* and *Chesapeake*, a British and an American frigate, of which the latter was considerably superior in weight of metal. Captain Broke of the *Shannon* sent a challenge into Boston harbour, and a battle was fought June 1, 1813, when, after an action of fifteen minutes, captain Broke boarded the *Chesapeake*, and carried her off in sight of the disappointed Americans.

In 1813 and 1814 the Americans renewed their attempts upon Canada, but without success, and it is calculated that their three invasions cost them 50,000 men. Meanwhile our squadrons ravaged the American coast, the lighter vessels penetrating up the rivers and inflicting considerable damage. In 1814 the British in America were reinforced with some of the veterans of the Peninsula. On

Aug. 15th general Ross, with only 1600 men, dispersed in half an hour about 8000 Americans posted on some heights near the river Potomac, entered Washington, the capital of the Union, and burnt the Senate-house, the House of Representatives, the Capitol, the president's residence, the arsenal, dockyards, and other public buildings. Several other American towns were taken; but an attack upon Baltimore was repulsed with great loss, including the death of general Ross; and an attempt upon New Orleans in Dec. was still more unfortunate. After the abdication of Napoleon the Americans began to think of peace, and a treaty was signed at Ghent, Dec. 24, 1814. Both parties agreed to use their endeavours to suppress the slave-trade.

§ 22. In January 1815 a congress of eight of the principal European powers assembled at Vienna to regulate the affairs of Europe; but they had not proceeded far in their labours when they were astounded with the intelligence that Bonaparte had escaped from Elba. He landed at Cannes, March 1, with 1000 men, and the troops joined his standard as he advanced. On the night of April 19th Louis XVIII. fled to Lille, and on the following night Napoleon entered the palace of the Tuileries. The congress at Vienna declared him an outlaw and violator of the common peace, devoted him to public vengeance, and agreed to unite for the maintenance of the treaty of Paris. The duke of Wellington, who was present at the congress, was consulted as to the conduct of the war. The duke impressed upon the English ministry the necessity, even on the ground of economy, of making a grand effort to crush the enemy at once. Both the ministry and the parliament were impressed with the soundness of this advice. The budget of the year was raised to the enormous sum of ninety millions, a considerable part of which went to subsidize the continental nations; and the duke proceeded to Belgium to prepare for the expected campaign.

Napoleon crossed the Belgian frontier June 14th, with about 100,000 infantry, 25,000 cavalry, and 350 pieces of artillery. Wellington lay at Brussels with about 76,000 men, not half of whom were British, and some 84 guns. Blücher was at some distance on his left with 80,000 Prussians and 200 guns. Napoleon advanced by Charleroi; and when Wellington had ascertained that this was the real point of attack, he made the proper dispositions to meet it. On the 15th marshal Ney advanced beyond Charleroi on the road to Brussels, driving back from Quatre Bras an advanced brigade of the army of the Netherlands under the prince of Weimar. The position was however recovered by the prince of Orange; and on the next day, general Picton having arrived with the 5th division and some Germans under the duke of Brunswick, Ney was repulsed from Quatre Bras, though his force was nearly double that of the



Meanwhile, on the same day, Napoleon with his main body had attacked the Prussians at Ligny and St. Amand, in front of their headquarters at Sombref, had driven Blücher back with great loss, and compelled him to retreat to Wavre; but he was so ignorant of his victory, that it was not till noon of the 17th that he despatched Grouchy, with a corps of 32,000 men, in pursuit of the Prussians.

Blücher's retrograde movement necessitated a similar one on the part of Wellington, in order to keep up the communication between the allied armies. On the 17th he made a leisurely retreat, undisturbed except by a few cavalry skirmishes, to the plains of WATERLOO, which he had previously selected for a battle-field. In the course of the same day Napoleon formed a junction with Ney, when their united forces amounted to about 78,000 men. The night was stormy, with thunder, rain, and wind; the following morning, Sunday, June 18th, opened heavily, but the rain had ceased. Wellington occupied a position extending from a ravine near Merke Braine on the right to the hamlet of Ter la Haye on the left; on which side the communication was open with Blücher at Wavre, through Ohain. In front of his right centre was the château of Hougomont, in front of his left centre the farm-house of La Haye Sainte, both occupied by our troops. In the rear of the British centre was the farm-house of Mont St. Jean, and still further back the village of the same name. The French occupied some heights in front of Wellington's position, and about a mile distant; their right being before the village of Planchenois, and occupying the farm of La Belle Alliance, whilst their left rested on the Genappe road. It was the first time that Napoleon had come into contact with British troops. He was full of confidence, and is said to have exclaimed, "Enfin je vais me mesurer avec ce Vilainton." About 10 o'clock the French line was observed to be in motion, and soon a violent attack was made on Hougomont, defended by a brigade of the guards, who held it throughout the day. The French succeeded better at La Haye Sainte, bravely defended by some of the German Legion, who were all slain; but the post was afterwards recovered. In other parts of the line repeated attacks were made by heavy columns of French infantry, but without success, and Napoleon then had recourse to some desperate charges of cavalry, which were repulsed by the British infantry formed in squares. To put an end to this, Wellington ordered an advance of the brigade of heavy cavalry under lord Edward Somerset, consisting of the life guards, horse guards, and 1st dragoon guards, who completely rode down and dispersed the French cuirassiers, 2000 of them being made prisoners in this charge. At 7 o'clock in the evening the British line retained its original position; when Bulow's corps of Prussians arrived at Planchenois and La Belle Alliance, and began to engage

the French right. Napoleon's chances were now growing desperate, and as a last effort he ordered the advance of his magnificent Old Guard against the British position at La Haye Sainte. Napoleon led the advance some way himself, and then took shelter behind some rising ground, leaving Ney, "the bravest of the brave," to head the charge. The guard advanced up the gently sloping ridge in two dark and threatening columns, galled by a flank fire from the British light division. At the top of that ridge the British guards were lying down to avoid the fire of the French artillery; but as the French columns approached, the duke gave the word to rise, and at the distance of about 50 yards they delivered a terrible volley into the French ranks, as they were attempting to deploy into line. Their columns shook and wavered, a charge was ordered, and the Old Guard was hurled down the hill in one mingled mass with their conquerors. The sight of that repulse threw the whole French line into confusion and dismay: Napoleon galloped to the rear, and Wellington, availing himself of the auspicious moment, ordered a general advance. The French army was now in complete rout; Wellington and Blücher met at a house called La Maison Rouge, not far from La Belle Alliance; and the pursuit of the enemy was left to the Prussians, who were comparatively fresh. Many prisoners were made, and 150 guns fell into the hands of the allies. Napoleon himself narrowly escaped capture. It was computed that in the three days' engagements and in the retreat the French lost 30,000 men; and when the remaining fugitives reached the French frontier, the greater part dispersed never again to meet. But the loss of the allies had also been enormous. It was estimated that nearly half the men actually engaged were either killed or wounded. Among the killed were general Picton and general sir William Ponsonby; among the wounded, the earl of Uxbridge (afterwards marquis of Anglesea), general Cooke, general Halkett, colonel Fitzroy Somerset, and others. The prince of Orange was also wounded. The duke of Brunswick had fallen at Quatre Bras, at the head of his black hussars.

§ 23. The allies now advanced upon Paris, which the remains of the grand army evacuated July 6th, and the allies took possession. Blücher was for pulling down the column in the Place Vendôme, blowing up the bridge of Jena, and levying 100 million francs on the city; but on all these points he ultimately yielded to the more moderate counsels of Wellington. Napoleon had abdicated June 22nd in favour of his young son Napoleon II.; but the allies would be content with nothing less than the restoration of the Bourbons. On July 8th Louis XVIII. re-entered Paris and quietly resumed the government.

Meanwhile Napoleon, his head full of uncertain projects, now



of joining the remains of his army beyond the Loire, and of flying to America, arrived at Rochefort July 3rd; where, finding all hope of escape cut off by the numerous British cruisers, he surrendered himself on board the *Bellerophon*, captain Maitland, an English ship of the line which happened to be in the roads. He had previously written a theatrical letter to the prince regent, claiming the protection of the British people, and comparing himself to Themistocles when he sought the hospitality of Admetus. But captain Maitland was careful to make him understand that he could give no promises as to his reception, and that he could only undertake to convey him safely to England. Maitland was ordered to proceed to Plymouth Sound, and to allow no communication with the shore. The resolution of the allies was communicated to Napoleon July 31st, and on August 7th he was put on board the *Northumberland*, the flag-ship of admiral sir G. Cockburn, and conveyed to the island of St. Helena. Here he lingered out the remainder of his life in fruitless hope and unavailing discontent, till death released him from his sufferings, May 5th, 1821. He was incontestably the greatest general of modern times, and had taken every capital of importance in Europe, except London: yet he wanted some of the qualities which make a great man, and especially dignity and fortitude in the endurance of misfortune.

The peace of Paris, or definitive treaty between France and the allied powers, was signed in that capital November 20th. The settlement of Europe was arranged by the congress at Vienna. The emperor of Russia, the emperor of Austria (for such was now his title instead of emperor of Germany), and the king of Prussia, had also signed what they called the "Holy Alliance"—an agreement to govern on Christian principles; which the duke of Wellington wisely declined to sign, on the ground that it was too vague.

At the commencement of the war with France in 1793 the English funded debt had been a little under 228 millions. In February, 1816, the unredeemed debt, funded and unfunded, amounted to nearly 800 millions, entailing an annual charge of more than 28 millions. The last three years of the war alone had cost the country very nearly 200 millions.

§ 24. The triumph of the nation was succeeded by a reaction of internal distress and discontent. During the war the excitement of national feeling and the natural exultation of victory had prevented the people from complaining, and it was not till the struggle was over that they began to feel the burthens which it had occasioned. Trade languished from the exhaustion of the continental nations, and their consequent inability to purchase our goods; while through unfavourable seasons the price of wheat rose before the end of 1816 from 52s. to upwards of 100s. a quarter; and the distress was aug-



ment by the corn law of 1815, which closed the ports to the importation of foreign grain till the price of wheat reached 80s. A multitude of persons were thrown out of employment through the depressed state of trade, and their numbers were swelled by the soldiers and sailors discharged at the termination of the war. Hence arose seditions and tumults, which in the agricultural districts were marked by incendiary fires, in the manufacturing towns by the breaking of those ingenious machines by which human labour had been to a great extent superseded. The subject of parliamentary reform now began to be agitated among the great mass of the people, which previously had been little more than a speculative question with some leading statesmen. A ramification of clubs, called Hampden clubs, was established throughout the country, that of London being presided over by sir Francis Burdett. Other leading members were major Cartwright and the demagogue orator Henry Hunt. Their demand for reform embraced annual parliaments and universal suffrage; and a report of a secret committee of the House of Commons in February, 1817, represented these clubs as meditating nothing short of a revolution. In the preceding December dangerous riots had taken place in Spa Fields, which were with difficulty put down through the firmness and courage of sir James Shaw and of the lord mayor.

One result of the peace was the suppression of the Algerine pirates. During the war these nests of robbers had been connived at; but in 1816 sir Edward Pellew (lord Exmouth) proceeded to Algiers with 25 men-of-war, besides gunboats, &c.; and being joined by a small Dutch squadron under admiral Van Capellan, almost completely destroyed, after a few hours' bombardment, the formidable fortifications of Algiers (August 27th), together with 9 Algerine frigates, &c. A loss, however, of 852 officers and men was sustained by the British. The dey of Algiers now accepted the terms we dictated, and 1083 Christian slaves, principally Italians, were liberated.

§ 25. The general feeling of discontent among the lower classes, and an outrage committed upon the prince regent, the windows of whose carriage were broken as he was returning from opening the parliament, January 28th, 1817, led to the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act. At the same time the execution of the law of libel was severely pressed, and numerous *ex officio* informations were filed against political writers. One of the most remarkable of these prosecutions was that against William Hone, a bookseller in the Old Bailey, for a profane libel, consisting of parodies on the catechism, the Lord's Prayer, the Commandments, &c. Hone conducted his own defence with considerable ability, and was acquitted by the jury, who seem to have felt that it was the political rather than the profane character of the libels that had excited the indignation of the govern-



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Lord chief justice Ellenborough resigned in consequence of a trial, in which he had been to a certain extent foiled and brow-beaten by Hone.

The princess Charlotte, only child of the regent, died this year November 6th, in child-birth. The infant was still-born. She had espoused, May 16th, 1816, prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg, the present king of the Belgians.

In 1818 the prospects of the country seemed improving. Trade was more active, employment more constant, and sedition consequently less rampant. In September a congress of the allies was held at Aix-la-Chapelle in order to settle the withdrawal of the army of occupation from France, of which the duke of Wellington was generalissimo. The duke took leave of the troops by an order of the day dated at Cambray, November 7. On his return to England he was appointed master-general of the ordnance, with a seat in the cabinet.

§ 26. In 1819 was passed the act, commonly known as Mr. Peel's Act, to remove the Bank restriction passed in 1797, and to provide for the gradual resumption of cash payments. May 1, 1823, was assigned as the period for the payment of all notes on demand in the current gold coin of the realm; but the Bank anticipated this period by two years, and began to pay in specie May 1, 1821.

In August, 1819, the demagogue Henry Hunt got up a great meeting in St. Peter's Fields, Manchester, on the subject of parliamentary reform. The attempt to apprehend him produced a disturbance in which about half-a-dozen persons were killed and a score or two wounded. This affair obtained among the "Radicals," as the extreme reform party were now called, the name of the Manchester Massacre, or "Peterloo." Hunt and eight or ten of his friends were captured, and, being tried and convicted of a misdemeanour in the following spring, were sentenced to various terms of imprisonment. Such was the alarm occasioned in the public mind by these disturbances that parliament was opened in November, when the ministers brought in and passed six acts: namely, for the more speedy execution of justice in cases of misdemeanour; to prevent military training; to prevent and punish blasphemous and seditious libels; an act for seizing arms; a stamp act, with the view of repressing libels; and an act to prevent seditious meetings and assemblies. But there was something wrong in the state of the nation of which these seditions were but the outward symptoms. They required something more than repressive treatment, and were not thoroughly healed till a better and more liberal course of legislation was some years later adopted.

On January 23, 1820, died the duke of Kent, aged 52, leaving an only daughter, her present majesty, born May 24, 1819. In less than a week afterwards his father (George III. expired (Jan. 29), at the

age of 82, and in the 60th year of his reign, a longer period than any king had ever sat on the English throne. His private conduct had been always unexceptionable; and his plain and unostentatious manner, his warmth of feeling, and his attachment to rural pursuits, had endeared him to a large portion of his subjects. As a sovereign he undoubtedly ever had the honour and welfare of the country at heart; though occasionally views somewhat narrow and contracted, arising more from a defective education than any want of natural good sense, prevented him from seeing things in their proper light; and when once he had adopted an opinion he was apt to cling to it with a firmness which not unfrequently degenerated into obstinacy. Queen Charlotte had died in November, 1818.

CHRONOLOGY OF REMARKABLE EVENTS.

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| <p>A.D.
1803. War renewed between England and France.
1804. Pitt's second administration.
" Napoleon assumes the title of emperor.
1805. Battle of Austerlitz.
" Battle of Trafalgar and death of Nelson.
1806. Death of Pitt.
" Lord Grenville prime minister, and Fox foreign secretary.
" Battle of Jena. Berlin Decree.
" Death of Fox.
1807. Duke of Portland prime minister.
" Peace of Tilsit.
" Bombardment of Copenhagen.
" Conquest of Portugal by the French.
1808. Joseph Bonaparte proclaimed king of Spain. Insurrection of the Spaniards.
" Battle of Vimiera and occupation of Lisbon by the British troops.
1809. Battle of Corunna and death of sir John Moore.
" Sir Arthur Wellesley commander-in-chief in the Spanish peninsula.
" Battle of Talavera.
" Battle of Wagram. Peace of Schönbrunn between France and Austria.
" Walcheren expedition.</p> | <p>A.D.
1809. Mr. Perceval prime minister.
1810. Battle of Busaco. Lines of Torres Vedras occupied.
1811. The Regency.
" Battles of Fuentes de Onoro and Albuera.
1812. Assassination of Mr. Perceval. Lord Liverpool prime minister.
" Capture of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz.
" Battle of Salamanca.
" War with the United States.
" Napoleon's invasion of Russia.
1813. Battles of Vittoria and the Pyrenees.
" Capture of St. Sebastian. Wellington enters France.
" Battle of Leipsic. Napoleon driven out of Germany.
1814. Battle of Toulouse.
" Abdication of Napoleon at Fontainebleau.
" Peace with the United States.
1815. Napoleon's return to France.
" Battle of Waterloo, and second abdication of Napoleon.
" Peace of Paris.
1816. Bombardment of Algiers.
1817. Death of the princess Charlotte.
1819. Peel's Currency Bill.
" Riots at Manchester.
1820. Death of George III.</p> |
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CHAPTER XXXIV.

GEORGE IV., WILLIAM IV., AND VICTORIA. A.D. 1820-1868.

1. Accession of GEORGE IV. Cato-street conspiracy. Prosecution and death of queen Caroline. § 2. Ministerial changes. Commercial panic. § 3. The Catholic question. O'Connell and the Catholic Association. Canning's ministry and death. § 4. Battle of Navarino. Kingdom of Greece. The duke of Wellington premier. Abolition of the Test and Corporation Acts. § 5. Catholic emancipation. § 6. Death and character of George IV. § 7. Accession of WILLIAM IV. Earl Grey premier. § 8. Parliamentary Reform Bill. Rejected by the Lords. Riots at Bristol, &c. § 9. Proposed creation of peers. Reform Bill carried. Irish Coercion Bill. § 10. Abolition of slavery. Lord Melbourne prime minister. Sir Robert Peel prime minister. Lord Melbourne's second administration. § 11. Municipal Reform Bill. Death of William IV. § 12. Accession of queen VICTORIA. Insurrection in Canada. Chartists. § 13. The queen's marriage. Sir Robert Peel minister. Graduated corn-law. Agitation in Ireland. Conviction and fall of O'Connell. § 14. Irish famine, and abolition of the corn-laws. Fall of the ministry. § 15. O'Brien's rebellion. French revolution. Death of sir R. Peel. § 16. Fall of lord John Russell's ministry. Lord Derby premier. Death of the duke of Wellington. Lord Aberdeen's ministry. § 17. War with Russia. Campaign in the Crimea, and siege of Sebastopol. § 18. Lord Palmerston premier. Russian war. Sebastopol taken. Peace of Paris. § 19. China war. New Parliament. Review of Indian history from the time of Warren Hastings. § 20. Occupation of Scinde. Annexation of Oude. Revolt of the Bengal army. § 21. Fall of lord Palmerston's ministry. Lord Derby premier a second time. Abolition of the East India Company. § 22. Fall of lord Derby's second ministry. War between France and Austria. Establishment of the new kingdom of Italy. § 23. Lord Palmerston's second ministry. End of the Chinese war. Capture of Peking. § 24. Death of the Prince Consort. § 25. War in America. § 26. Affairs in Italy and Germany. § 27. Death of lord Palmerston. History of his second administration. § 28. Third premiership of lord Russell. The Reform Bill. Third premiership of lord Derby. § 29. War between Austria and Prussia. Battle of Sadowna. § 30. Second Reform Bill passed. Resignation of lord Derby and premiership of Mr. Disraeli. § 31. Review of the period from the revolution. Progress of the English political power. § 32. Progress of English manufactures, trade, population, &c. National debt. § 33. View of the moral condition of



the people. Religion. § 34. Criminal law, education, &c. § 35.
Literature and art.

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§ 1. GEORGE IV., 1820-1830.—George prince of Wales now ascended the throne, with the title of George IV., at the age of 58. As he had been regent during the last ten years, while his father was in seclusion, his accession produced little or no change in the state of affairs.

The excitement of "Peterloo" was followed by the Cato-street conspiracy, so called because the conspirators were captured in a room over a stable in Cato-street, Edgeware-road. They consisted of some twenty or thirty persons, headed by one Thistlewood, a man of desperate character; and their design was to murder all the cabinet-ministers when they should be assembled at dinner at lord Harrowby's. But they were betrayed by one of their own gang: nine of them were captured, and Thistlewood and four more of the ring-leaders were executed (May 1).

One of the first steps of George IV. after his accession was to attempt to procure a divorce from his consort Caroline of Brunswick. The marriage had never been a happy one. It had been in a manner forced upon the prince as a condition of having his debts paid. The princess's person and manners were distasteful to him, and she soon became the object of his aversion. They separated soon after their marriage, though she bore him a daughter; and the princess in 1814 went to live abroad. Her conduct in England had already excited some scandal, and in 1818 a commission was appointed to watch her conduct and collect evidence; our ambassadors abroad were instructed not to recognise her; and when the king came to the throne her name was omitted from the liturgy. She determined on returning to England; and arrived June 6, the very day on which lord Liverpool had opened an inquiry into her conduct in the House of Lords. In July a bill of pains and penalties was brought in, which was to deprive her of her rights and privileges as queen, and to dissolve the marriage. In the trial which ensued Mr. Brougham and Mr. Denman acted as her attorney and solicitor general. She was charged in particular with adultery with one Bergami, a menial servant. Several Italian witnesses were examined, and it cannot be doubted that her conduct in Italy had gone far beyond the bounds of discretion; but the witnesses were of a low class, and frequently equivocated; and there was naturally a popular feeling in favour of a woman whose case assumed somewhat the aspect of persecution. At the third reading of the bill, the majority in its favour in the House of Lords had fallen to 9; and as the bill had still to pass the Commons, the ministers were induced to abandon it. The popular feeling was expressed by a general illumination. In the following session the Commons voted her an annuity of 50,000*l*.



the king's coronation having been fixed for July 19, 1821, Caroline insisted on being crowned with him, and on having her name inserted in the liturgy. This was of course refused; and when she repaired to the abbey to view the coronation as a spectator, she was turned back from the door. This disappointment, added to the excitement she had already undergone, was her deathblow. She expired August 7, at the age of 52, of internal inflammation. Her funeral was attended with riots. The mob compelled the procession to pass through the city, and two persons were shot by the military. The remains were then taken to Harwich to be conveyed to Brunswick.

§ 2. In 1822 lord Sidmouth retired from the home-office, and was succeeded by Mr. Peel. In August the suicide of lord Londonderry (late lord Castlereagh) created another vacancy in the ministry. Mr. Canning was now the leading man in the House of Commons, but he had incurred the king's displeasure by refusing to take any part in the proceedings against queen Caroline, and had therefore been passed over on the preceding occasion. His great talents, however, could not be entirely overlooked, and the East India Company had offered him the governor-generalship of India, for which he was preparing; but his services in England were now indispensable, the king was forced to waive his antipathy, and Canning became foreign secretary and leader of the House of Commons. His discharge of that office was marked by a more liberal policy than had prevailed under his predecessor.

For the next two or three years there is nothing material to record. The prosperity of the country went on increasing; but towards the end of 1825 the reckless spirit of speculation produced a panic which was followed by much distress and alarm, upwards of 60 banks having stopped payment in December, 1825, and the following month. It was attributed in a great degree to the over-issue of paper money, and measures were taken to restrict the issue of small notes by country bankers as well as by the Bank of England; and branches of the latter were established in several of the larger trading towns. An extensive system of emigration was adopted to relieve the distress of the nation, and its superintendence intrusted to the colonial office.

§ 3. Daniel O'Connell was about this time beginning to make himself conspicuous as the advocate of the claims of the Irish Roman catholics. George III. had declared that he would never consent to the admission of catholics to parliament, and had even attributed his illness to the subject having been forced upon his attention by Mr. Pitt. During the life of that sovereign, therefore, the catholics had abandoned all hope of relief; but the case was different after the accession of a new sovereign. After the death of Mr. Perceval in 1812 the catholic question became an open one in the cabinet.



Canning distinguished himself as an advocate of relief, and the subject was frequently debated in parliament, but nothing was done. In this state of things O'Connell organised the Catholic Association in the beginning of 1824, supported by a *rent*, levied in Ireland, which was appropriated to his own aggrandisement. In 1825 a relief bill, introduced by sir Francis Burdett, passed the Commons; upon which the duke of York went down to the House of Lords, and took a solemn oath that in case he should succeed to the crown he would permit no change. The bill was rejected by the Lords; but the duke died soon afterwards (Jan. 5, 1827).

In February, 1827, Lord Liverpool was seized with paralysis; and as it was evident that he would never again be able to attend to business, the king was reluctantly compelled to send for Mr. Canning (April 11th), who became first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer. The duke of Wellington, Mr. Peel, lord Eldon, and some others, resigned; and sir J. Copley, now created lord Lyndhurst, became lord chancellor. Nothing, however, was done in Mr. Canning's short administration. By many of the aristocracy he was regarded as an adventurer and an upstart; he had to endure many personal attacks; and anxiety and vexation of mind, added to a violent illness contracted at the duke of York's funeral, brought him to the grave (August 8th). He was buried in Westminster abbey, but privately. The king conferred a peerage on his widow. Viscount Goderich* (Mr. Robinson) succeeded Canning as premier.

§ 4. This administration, like the preceding, lasted only a few months, and the sole important event that occurred in it was the battle of Navarino and the establishment of Greek independence. The cause of Greece was supported, from different views, by Russia, France, and England, which powers had squadrons cruising in the Levant, the English being under the command of sir Edward Codrington. But war had not been declared; the Turkish and Egyptian fleet, under Ibrahim Pasha, lay in the bay of Navarino, and there was an understanding that it should remain there till the affairs of Greece were arranged. The Turks having attempted to violate this agreement, a general engagement ensued, and the Turkish and Egyptian fleets were completely destroyed in the course of a few hours (Oct. 20, 1827). By this impolitic act England and France played into the hands of Russia, who was anxious to weaken the power of Turkey, and thus pave the way for her long-cherished object of ambition—the possession of Constantinople. The three powers decided that Greece should be erected into a separate kingdom; and the crown, after having been declined by prince John of Saxony and prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg, was eventually conferred (in 1832) on prince Otho, a younger son of the king of Bavaria.

* He was created earl of Ripon in 1833.



In January, 1828, another change of ministry occurred. Lord Brougham having resigned, the duke of Wellington became premier; when Mr. Goulburn was made chancellor of the exchequer, Mr. Peel home secretary, and lord Palmerston secretary at war. Most of the other ministers retained their offices. In this session a most important measure was passed—the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts established in the reign of Charles II., of which an account has been already given in the preceding book. The motion for the repeal was made by lord John Russell, and was at first opposed by Mr. Peel; but the ministers having been left in a minority subsequently withdrew their opposition. A declaration, if required by the crown, was now substituted for the sacramental test, by which the person entering upon an office pledged himself not to use its influence as a means of subverting the established church. On the motion of the bishop of Llandaff the words “on the true faith of a Christian” were inserted in the declaration: a clause which, though not so designed, had the effect of excluding the Jews from parliament till the year 1858. This measure was naturally regarded as the forerunner of catholic emancipation. It was evident that the duke of Wellington was prepared, with characteristic good sense, to yield to the demands of an enlightened public opinion. He had, indeed, announced his intention at the same time of opposing the catholic claims, but with the qualification, unless he saw some great change; and this contingency soon afterwards occurred.

§ 5. In the course of the year Mr. Huskisson resigned office in consequence of being opposed to his colleagues on an election question, and he was followed by the “Canning” portion of the cabinet viz. lord Palmerston, lord Dudley, Mr. Lamb, and Mr. Grant. Mr. Vesey Fitzgerald, who sat for the county of Clare, having become one of the new ministers, was now of course obliged to vacate his seat, and appear again before his constituents, and, being an advocate of catholic emancipation, he considered his re-election sure. But O’Connell presented himself, and was returned, affirming that he should be able to take his seat, which, however, he did not attempt to do the remainder of the session. This event brought matters to a crisis. The ministers perceived that it would be impossible any longer to withhold emancipation without creating great disturbances, and in the king’s speech on opening the session of 1829 a measure of relief was announced. The Catholic Association was first of all to be dissolved; but while a bill for that purpose was in progress the Association dissolved itself. Mr. Peel had for many years been the ablest opponent of the admission of catholics to parliament. He had, session after session, distinguished himself by his eloquent speeches against their emancipation, and he had gained the affection and confidence of the high-church and tory party. Great



was their indignation to find that their favourite leader was now prepared suddenly to desert them, and to propose in the Commons the very measure which he had so frequently denounced as fraught with ruin to the best interests of the empire. Having felt himself bound in honour to vacate his seat for the University of Oxford, he was beaten by sir Robert Inglis upon again presenting himself as a candidate. He was, however, returned for Westbury, and introduced the Catholic Relief Bill. By this measure a different form of oath was substituted for the oath of supremacy, and there were no offices from which Roman catholics were now excluded except those of regent, of lord chancellor of England and of Ireland, and of viceroy of Ireland. By way of security the franchise in Ireland was raised from 40s. to 10*l.*, and certain regulations were made respecting the exercise of the Roman catholic religion. The bill finally passed the House of Lords April 10th, having been carried through both houses with considerable majorities.

This measure produced a schism in the tory party, the effects of which lasted for some years. One of its consequences was a duel between the duke of Wellington and the earl of Winchelsea. The latter, having attributed sinister motives to the duke in a newspaper letter, received a challenge, and a meeting took place, but without injury to either party. The Catholic Relief Bill was not, however, attended with all the beneficial consequences which its supporters had confidently predicted. It averted, it is true, the immediate danger of a civil war in Ireland, but it failed to convert the Irish catholics into peaceable subjects, and they soon proceeded to use the new political power which they had obtained more for the interests of the catholic church than for the good of the empire.

§ 6. The assenting to the Roman Catholic Relief Bill was the last act of importance performed by George IV. He had been for some time in a declining state of health, and had become so nervous and irritable that he almost entirely secluded himself from public view. There had been considerable difficulty in obtaining his consent to the bill, and after he had given it he was filled with alarm for the consequences. He died June 26th, 1830, in the sixty-eighth year of his age and the eleventh of his reign. He possessed but few qualities calculated to endear a sovereign to his subjects. His thoughts were more engaged in the pursuit of his private tastes and pleasures than in the welfare of the nation, and, though his manners were elegant and refined in private society, they were not calculated to win popularity. His abilities were by no means contemptible, and he possessed considerable accomplishments, but they were never turned to any high and useful purpose. With him may be said to have expired the habits and prejudices of the preceding century, and a new era was now to set in of rapid popular improvement.



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7. WILLIAM IV., 1830-1837.—On the death of George IV., the duke of Clarence, his next surviving brother, then in his sixty-fifth year, was proclaimed king, with the title of WILLIAM IV. His political opinions were supposed to be more liberal than those of his predecessor, but no change was made in the ministry. The march of events, however, the repeal of the Test Act, the carrying of catholic emancipation by a tory ministry, and in this summer the revolution which occurred in France—by which Charles X. was hurled from his throne in consequence of his attempts on the constitution and on the liberty of the press, and Louis Philippe became king of the French—prepared the minds of men for further progress, and especially for some measure of parliamentary reform, a subject that had so long occupied the attention and excited the passions of the nation. The result of these feelings was manifested in the new parliament, which contained a great proportion of liberal members. But the disturbances which had taken place, both on the continent and at home, where there had been many incendiary fires, instead of inclining the duke and his ministry to concession, had determined them not to yield anything to popular clamour. The king's opening speech was firm and uncompromising, and in the debates which ensued the duke of Wellington expressed his determination to oppose any measure of parliamentary reform. The unpopularity that such a declaration was calculated to excite was increased by the ministers advising the king to decline an invitation to dine with the lord mayor on November 9th. This step was taken in consequence of a communication from Alderman Key, the lord mayor elect, who, had warned the duke to come with a strong escort. London was in consequence struck with a panic; the country was thought to be on the eve of a revolution; and the funds fell 3 per cent. The ministers, however, were soon released from the cares of responsibility. On November 15th, in a debate on the civil list, sir H. Parnell having carried a motion for a committee of inquiry, the ministers resigned the following morning. The king now sent for earl Grey, the leader of the whig party, under whose auspices as premier a new ministry was formed on the avowed principle of parliamentary reform. It comprehended lord Brougham, now raised to the peerage, as lord chancellor, lord Althorp chancellor of the exchequer, lord Lansdowne president of the council, lord Palmerston foreign secretary, lord Melbourne (Mr. Lamb) home secretary, lord Goderich colonial secretary, &c.

§ 8. On March 1st, 1831, a bill for parliamentary reform was introduced into the House of Commons by lord John Russell. The alterations proposed were much more extensive than had been anticipated, and were received by the house with shouts and derision. The first reading was carried by a majority of 1; but ministers, hav-



ing been twice defeated in committee, resolved on summoning a new parliament, though the present one was only a few months old. The elections presented scenes of great excitement. The tories were denounced as enemies both of king and people; in some places, especially Scotland, serious riots occurred, and lives were even lost; and in most of the considerable towns only those candidates dared to show themselves who would engage to vote for "the bill, the whole bill, and nothing but the bill." The populace had been led by demagogues to regard the measure as an immediate panacea for all their ills; and thus a great and necessary constitutional reform was carried by popular heat and clamour, and with the excitement of expectations that could never be realised. The House of Commons, which assembled June 14th, contained a large majority of reformers. The bill was again introduced by lord John Russell, June 24th, and carried by a majority of 136. It was still, however, violently opposed by a powerful party in the state, who regarded the bill as an attack upon their private property—for it was notorious that estates commanding the nomination of a member of parliament fetched a price very far above their intrinsic value. When the bill was brought up to the House of Lords, it was rejected, after five nights' debate, by a majority of 41 (Oct. 7th). This step was followed by the most disgraceful riots. In London, indeed, the populace, controlled by the admirable organisation of the new police, established by sir Robert Peel, contented themselves with breaking the windows of obnoxious anti-reformers, but in several of the provincial towns fearful disturbances ensued. At Nottingham the ancient castle, the residence of the duke of Newcastle, was burnt; at Derby the jail was forced and the prisoners liberated; while at Bristol, where the riots lasted several days, many of the public buildings and a great part of Queen's-square were destroyed, and about 100 persons were killed or wounded. Ireland also was in a most disturbed state. After the emancipation of the catholics had deprived O'Connell of that means of collecting the "rent," and of securing himself an income from the pockets of the impoverished Irish, he had raised the cry for the repeal of the Union, and the most frightful nocturnal disorders, and even mid-day murders, became frequent. To add to the misery and confusion England was visited this autumn for the first time by the cholera.

§ 9. The parliament reassembled in December, and in March, 1832, the Reform Bill again passed the Commons. The Peers now displayed more disposition to yield; but as it was evident that the bill would be mutilated in committee, lord Grey proposed to the king the creation of a sufficient number of peers to carry it through. The king demurring, the ministers resigned; but the duke of Wellington and lord Lyndhurst having failed to construct a tory administration,



the king was obliged to yield at discretion, and recall his former ministers. But the extreme measure of a large creation was avoided by the good sense of the peers. The duke of Wellington, and about 100 others, agreed to absent themselves, whereupon the bill was carried and received the royal assent.

The main principle of the Reform Bill was, that boroughs having a less population than 2000 should cease to return members, and that those having a less population than 4000 should cease to return more than one member. By this arrangement 56 boroughs were totally disfranchised, and 31 more lost one of their members. The total number of old borough members thus disfranchised was 143. Their seats were transferred to several large towns, such as Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds, &c., which had grown into importance during the last century. Between 40 and 50 new boroughs were created, including the 4 metropolitan boroughs of Marylebone, Finsbury, the Tower Hamlets, and Lambeth, each of the last returning 2 members. An aristocratic counterpoise seemed in some degree to be established by the additions to the county members. The larger counties were divided into districts; and while previously there had been 52 constituencies, returning 94 members, there were now 82 constituencies, returning 159 members. But, on the other hand, both the county and borough franchises were extended. In the counties the old 40s. freeholders were retained, and three new classes of voters introduced:—1. copyholders of 10*l.* per annum; 2. leaseholders of the annual value of 10*l.* for a term of 60 years, or of the annual value of 50*l.* for a term of 20 years; and 3. occupying tenants paying an annual rent of 50*l.* In boroughs the franchise was given to all 10*l.* resident householders, subject to certain conditions. Such were the main features of this bill, which undoubtedly formed the greatest revolution the country had experienced since the revolution of 1688.

The disturbances in Ireland had now reached a frightful pitch. It had become impossible to collect tithe: the collectors were murdered or mutilated; there were regular engagements between the police and the peasantry; and the protestant clergy were almost starving. To remedy this state of things the Government introduced a coercion bill, which, while it provided a remedy for many of the grievances complained of, enabled the lord-lieutenant to prevent all public meetings of a dangerous character, and to place disturbed districts under martial law.

§ 10. The parliament was dissolved December 3rd, and the first reformed House of Commons assembled February 5th, 1833. The reformers had an overwhelming majority, and fears began to be entertained that the church, the aristocracy, and all the older institutions would be swept away. But a strong conservative spirit still



existed in the nation. Sir Robert Peel, whom the tory party had now forgiven, and again treated as their leader, revived their desponding spirits, introduced an admirable organisation into the party, and pointed out that a return to political power was still far from impossible. This party, dropping the name of tory, now called themselves conservatives.

Upon the assembling of the Commons two principal questions which occupied their attention were the abolition of slavery and the amendment of the poor-law. The agitation of negro freedom in public meetings in England had occasioned a dangerous insurrection among the slaves in Jamaica, which was with difficulty suppressed. A rising had also occurred in the Mauritius. Under these circumstances the ministers brought in and carried a bill for the total abolition of slavery, which had been so long advocated by Wilberforce, Fowell Buxton, and their party. Of the humanity and justice of this measure, viewed abstractedly, there can be but one opinion; yet both as a measure of humanity and of policy, it must in a great degree be pronounced a practical failure. For while, in some of our larger sugar-colonies, it has reduced the cultivation to less than half of what it was, and consequently reduced many of the proprietors to beggary, it has also stimulated foreign planters to supply the deficiency of produce thus created by an increased pressure upon their negroes, and even given a stimulus to the foreign slave-trade. The apparently munificent sum of 20,000,000*l.* was voted as a compensation to the slave-owners, but a great part of this was in reality never applied; and the rate of compensation being in some islands about 20*l.* per negro—not a quarter of what they cost the proprietor—the owner of an estate with 100 negroes received about 2000*l.*, but found his property utterly ruined from the unwillingness of the emancipated negro to work.

The poor-law question was reserved for another administration. A considerable portion of lord Grey's cabinet having resigned, principally on account of a proposed extension of the Irish coercion bill, the premier was also obliged to retire (1834). Lord Melbourne now became prime minister, and lord Althorp resumed his former post of chancellor of the exchequer. A new poor-law was passed, the main feature of which was to abolish local boards and to establish a central board of commissioners. Poor-law unions were formed, and the system of out-door relief in a considerable degree done away with, the consequence of which has been a large diminution of the applications for relief, leading not only to the saving of large sums, but also to the creation of a higher spirit of independence among the lower classes.

§ 11. The conservative reaction had, within the last two years,



1834 was marked, that the king, in the autumn of 1834, availed himself of the death of earl Spencer and the consequent elevation to the House of Lords of his son lord Althorp, the chancellor of the exchequer, to dismiss lord Melbourne and his colleagues and intrust sir Robert Peel with the formation of a conservative administration. But the country was not yet ripe for this change. Upon the dissolution of parliament the conservatives obtained a vast accession to their numbers in the House of Commons, but they were still left in a minority; and accordingly sir Robert Peel, after holding office for a few months, was obliged to retire, and the Melbourne administration resumed office, with a few slight changes, in April, 1835. The new ministers were entirely dependent on the support of O'Connell, with whom they had now allied themselves. The chief measures which they carried this session were, the Municipal Reform Bill and a bill to allow dissenters to marry in their own chapels. The next year or two present little of importance. In 1836 an ecclesiastical commission made a new arrangement of sees, by which two old ones were consolidated into one, Gloucester being united with Bristol, while two new ones were created—Ripon and Manchester.

In May, 1837, the king was seized with a dangerous illness, and expired June 20th. His character presents few salient points. His abilities were small, his temper and intentions good, his manners homely and popular, but deficient in kingly dignity.

§ 12. QUEEN VICTORIA.—Upon the death of her uncle, William IV., our present gracious sovereign, queen VICTORIA, the only child of the duke of Kent, and who had just completed her eighteenth year, succeeded to the throne. As the succession to the crown of Hanover had been settled only in the male line, that country was now separated from the crown of Great Britain, and became the inheritance of Ernest duke of Cumberland, the eldest surviving son of George III.

The first year of queen Victoria's reign was marked by insurrections in Canada, which, though assisted by bodies of adventurers from the United States, were put down without much trouble. The harvests of 1837 and 1838 proved unfavourable, which occasioned much distress among the lower classes, and the opportunity was seized by the seditious in order to excite riots and disorders. There had now arisen a considerable body who called themselves chartists; that is, they demanded what they called a new charter, or thorough reorganisation of the lower house of parliament on the following five principles, styled the five points of the charter, namely, universal suffrage, vote by ballot, annual parliaments, the remuneration of members, and the abolition of the property qualification. In the autumn of 1838 many large chartist meetings were held in the northern counties, and as winter approached they assembled by torchlight. At

One of these, held at Kersal Moor near Manchester, it was computed that 200,000 persons were present. In 1839 a National Convention was formed in London of delegates from the working classes, and a petition was got up of such size that it was necessary to roll it into the House of Commons in a tub. A motion for a committee to consider it having been lost by a large majority, chartist riots ensued in several of the principal provincial towns, and especially at Newport, where one Frost, a magistrate of the borough, played a principal part. The disturbance was put down with the loss of about twenty lives, and Frost, Jones, and Williams, the ringleaders, were convicted and transported. At the same time a more orderly and intelligent agitation was proceeding to remove the chief cause of these disturbances. This was the Anti-Corn-Law League, formed at Manchester in September 1838 to procure the abolition of the corn-laws and the promotion of free-trade principles. The most distinguished advocate of the League was Mr. Richard Cobden, who rapidly acquired great influence in the country.

§ 13. On February 10th, 1840, her majesty was united to her cousin Albert, prince of Saxe Coburg and Gotha, who was about three months her junior. The parliament voted the prince-consort an annuity of 30,000*l.* for life, and passed a bill of naturalization.

The Melbourne ministry had never been very strong, and their close alliance with O'Connell and his "tail," as his score or two of adherents were called, had degraded them in the eyes of the nation. They had also failed in their financial measures, having every year a deficient revenue. In the spring of 1841 sir Robert Peel carried a resolution of want of confidence in them by a single vote, when they of course resigned, but appealed to the country. Anxious to secure a majority, they intimated their intention of proposing a repeal of the corn-laws, and substituting a fixed duty of 8*s.* a quarter upon corn; but they did not meet with a popular response, the landed interest strained every nerve to defeat their candidates, and when the new parliament met the conservative majority was estimated at nearly 80. An amendment on the address was carried, ministers resigned, and sir Robert Peel became premier for the second time. The other principal members of the government were, lord Lyndhurst chancellor, Mr. Goulburn chancellor of the exchequer, sir James Graham home office, lord Aberdeen foreign office, lord Stanley war and colonies, lord Ellenborough board of control, &c. The duke of Wellington accepted a seat in the cabinet without any office. In the session of 1842 sir Robert Peel introduced and carried a new corn-law on the principle of a graduated scale; and, in order to supply the constantly deficient revenue, an income-tax of 7*d.* in the pound was imposed on all incomes above 150*l.* A customs act was also passed, either repealing, or considerably reducing, such duties as



pressed almost heavily on manufacturing industry; thus making an approximation to free-trade.

The influence of O'Connell was now at its height in Ireland. Weekly meetings were held in a building called Conciliation Hall, and large sums were collected for the "Agitator." Other expedients of sedition were the "monster meetings" held at Tara and other places; but that at Clontarf proved a trap for the agitator himself. In consequence of the regulations issued for the meeting, as well as some seditious expressions used at a meeting of the Repeal Association, O'Connell was arrested (Oct. 14, 1843), and condemned, together with some of his coadjutors, of conspiracy and sedition, by the Court of Queen's Bench in Dublin. The judgment was afterwards reversed by the House of Lords; but the blow was irrecoverable: and O'Connell never regained his former influence. His health began visibly to decline, and he died at Genoa (May, 1847), on his way to Rome, with the double object of benefiting his health and asking the pope's blessing.

§ 14. The question which now principally occupied the attention of the public was that of the corn-laws; and this was now approaching its solution through an unexpected dispensation of Providence. The summer of 1845 was wet and cold; it was plain that the harvest would be deficient not only in England but throughout Europe; and, in addition to this calamity, appeared another hitherto unknown. A disease had invaded the potato-crops; the blackened and decayed leaves exhaled a nauseous odour, and the root became unfit to eat. A famine in Ireland, where the potato formed the staple food, was now imminent. The Anti-Corn-Law League redoubled its agitation, and vast sums were subscribed in all quarters in aid of its objects. The whigs hastened to make political capital of the conjuncture. Lord Morpeth joined the League; lord John Russell addressed a letter to his constituents in the city, in which, amid taunts directed against sir Robert Peel, he abandoned his scheme of a fixed duty on corn, and declared himself the advocate of a free trade. Peel himself, however, had come to the conclusion that a duty could no longer be upheld, and he had brought over the majority of the cabinet to the same opinion; but he felt that he and his colleagues were not the persons to carry a measure which they had always opposed. On December 11 the ministers resigned; and Peel announced to the queen his intention to support, in his private capacity, any minister she might appoint who should propose to do away with the duty upon corn. Lord John Russell was now sent for by the queen; but he failed in forming a ministry, and the previous one was restored. In January, 1846, Peel brought in a bill by which the duty on wheat was entirely abolished at the end of three years, while in the interval it was reduced from 16s. to 4s. per quarter,



and buckwheat and India wheat were immediately admitted duty free. The measure was accompanied with a reduction of duty on other articles, as silk and cotton manufactures, foreign spirits, &c.; and the duty was abolished on animal food, live animals, vegetables, &c. The bill was carried through both houses with considerable majorities.

The repeal of the corn-laws broke up the powerful conservative party. The majority not only refused to follow sir Robert Peel in his recent change of opinion, but regarded him as an apostate and a traitor. There can be no doubt that sir Robert Peel had changed his opinions from honest conviction; but it was certainly unfortunate for his reputation that a second time in his political career his sense of duty compelled him to desert the party which had raised him to power. This party, which was now known by the name of "protectionists," looked up to lord Stanley as their leader—the only distinguished member of sir Robert Peel's administration who had opposed the repeal of the corn-laws. They soon had an opportunity of avenging themselves on their former chief. As Ireland was still in a very disturbed state, sir Robert Peel brought in a bill for the better protection of life in that country, whereupon the protectionists joined the whigs in defeating it. The ministry resigned, and lord John Russell became premier (1846).

§ 15. The year 1847 was also marked by great distress both in England and Ireland. The potato-crop again failed: there was a famine in Ireland; and though the British parliament voted several millions to buy food for the starving Irish, they nevertheless rose in rebellion. O'Connell had now vanished from the scene; and Mr. Smith O'Brien, who attempted to sustain his part, had not the requisite qualities for it. His attempt to excite a rebellion in 1848 proved a ridiculous failure: he was captured in a cabbage-garden, convicted of high treason, and transported. The Irish, being deprived of their principal agitators, by degrees settled down into a more tranquil state. A large emigration, the introduction of a more extended corn-cultivation, and the investment of a large amount of English capital, have since much improved the condition of the country: and thus the potato-rot, which at first appeared a curse upon Ireland, eventually turned out a blessing.

The revolution which expelled Louis Philippe from the French throne, in February, 1848, and which was felt throughout Europe, was the exciting cause of this rebellion. It also produced a slight effect in England, where, however, the materials of sedition were happily not very formidable. The London chartists took occasion to display their force by a procession (April 10), and mustered on Kennington Common to the number of about 20,000; but no fewer than 150,000 citizens had enrolled themselves as special constables, the



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of Wellington had taken the necessary military precautions, this ridiculous display ended without any breach of the peace. During the next few years there is nothing of much importance to record. In 1849 a further advance was made in free-trade principles by a partial repeal of the navigation-laws.* The prosperity of the country went on rapidly increasing; and sir Robert Peel was gratified with beholding the success of his measures when his life was suddenly terminated by a fall from his horse (1850). Thus prematurely perished a minister who understood the commercial interests of this country better than any man who ever governed it; and who, if he did not possess that original and commanding genius which forestalls events and anticipates futurity, was nevertheless perhaps the better qualified to discern and provide for the exigencies of the passing time.

§ 16. The following year (1851) witnessed, as it were, the symbolisation of free-trade principles by the great exhibition of the industry of all nations in the Crystal Palace in Hyde Park. The insolent pretensions of the Roman court excited this year the greatest indignation in England. Ever since the repeal of the catholic disabilities in 1830 the papal party had been pursuing an aggressive policy in this country, and the pope now ventured to divide the whole of England into Roman catholic sees, nominating cardinal Wiseman archbishop of Westminster, and designating other Roman catholic prelates by similar territorial titles. In order to put a stop to this invasion of the queen's prerogative the ministers introduced the Ecclesiastical Titles Bill, which was only carried with much difficulty. Next year (1852) lord John Russell, being defeated on the Militia Bill, resigned, and was succeeded by the earl of Derby (formerly lord Stanley). In September the duke of Wellington expired somewhat suddenly at Walmer castle—a man who had filled a larger space in the history of his country than had perhaps been previously allotted to any subject. His character as a general may be gathered from the preceding narrative. It was marked by a happy mixture of boldness and prudence; and though his feats were outshone by the dazzling exploits of Bonaparte, yet on the other hand it should be recollected that Wellington never failed in any of his enterprises. As a minister his praise must be limited to that practical good sense and intuitive sagacity which enabled him to discern at a glance the essential bearings of a question, to the modesty which caused him frequently to submit his own judgment to that of more practised statesmen, and to the moderation and disinterestedness which led him to waive his own party predilections for the good of his country. A magnificent funeral was conferred upon him at the public expense; and on November 18, 1852, his mortal remains, accompanied with every

* On these laws see Notes and Illustrations C.



circumstance of military pomp, passed slowly through the streets, which were lined with myriads of his admiring and scowling countrymen, to their last resting-place in St. Paul's cathedral.

Lord Derby, though he dissolved parliament, and sacrificed the principles of protection, was left in a minority in the new House of Commons; and before the end of the year was compelled to resign. He was succeeded by a sort of coalition ministry under lord Aberdeen, consisting of the more distinguished friends of sir Robert Peel, of the great leaders of the whig party, and of a few radicals. In the session of 1853 several salutary measures were carried, and the prosperity of the country seemed to be rapidly advancing; but already a cloud was arising in the east which was to throw over it a temporary shade. The Russian emperor had long looked with a covetous eye on Constantinople, and nothing was wanting to seize upon it but a favourable opportunity. Religion, so often the pretext of secular ambition, was made the ground of strife; and an obscure quarrel of some Greek and Latin monks about the holy places of Palestine, with which the Turks had not meddled, served to excuse an attempt to appropriate an empire. The emperor Nicholas demanded on this ground the control over all members of the Greek church residing in the Turkish dominions—a demand that was naturally rejected by the Porte. In consequence of this refusal, Russian troops crossed the Pruth and took possession of the principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia, but were defeated by Omar Pasha at the battle of Olteniza.

§ 17. War was now fairly kindled between Russia and the Porte. The emperor Nicholas calculated on the subservience of Germany, the disturbed state of France, and the connivance of England, to which he offered Egypt as her share of "the sick man's" inheritance, for the success of his plans. But England was not ambitious of further acquisitions, and least of all by such means; Turkey claimed her assistance on the faith of treaties; and France, now under the absolute sway of Napoleon III.,* cordially united with Great Britain to repress the ambition of Russia. Austria and Prussia stood aloof, but a combined English and French fleet proceeded to the Black Sea, and shut up the Russians in the harbour of Sebastopol.

Negotiations with Russia were continued during the winter, but, having failed, war was declared against her by England and France in the spring (1854), when a French army under marshal St. Arnaud, and an English one under lord Raglan, assembled at Varna in Turkey, whilst an English fleet under sir Charles Napier was

* In 1848 Louis Napoleon was elected President of the French Republic. By the *coup-d'état* of December 2, 1852, he dissolved the existing constitution, and made himself the supreme ruler of France under the name of consul, which he changed into the title of emperor in 1853.



dispatched to the Baltic. Thus, for the first time after many centuries, the English and French, who had been so often arrayed against each other, were seen fighting side by side against a common enemy. Our limits will permit us to give only a very slight sketch of a war the principal incidents of which must be present to the minds of most even of our younger readers. The gallant defence of the Turks on the banks of the Danube having dissipated all alarm in that quarter, it was determined, towards the end of summer, to transport the allied army from Varna to the Crimea and to attack Sebastopol. They were landed without opposition (Sept. 14) at Eupatoria, on the west coast of the Crimea. Prince Menschikoff, the commandant of Sebastopol, had posted a force of about 60,000 men on the heights which crown the left bank of the little river Alma, in order to oppose their advance on that fortress; and he had fortified this naturally strong position with great care, so that he confidently reckoned on holding it at least three weeks; but it was carried after a few hours' fight, on September 20, by the allied armies, though with considerable loss. The Russians flung away their arms and fled; many of their guns were captured, together with Menschikoff's carriage and despatches; and nothing saved their army from annihilation but the want of cavalry to pursue it. It is probable that, had the allies been in a condition to move forward immediately, they might have entered Sebastopol along with the flying enemy; but the care of the wounded and the interment of the dead demanded some delay. The march was then directed towards the harbour of Balaklava, the ancient Portus Sym-bolon, to the south of Sebastopol, which enabled the army to derive its supplies from the sea. The southern heights of Sebastopol were occupied, and preparations made for commencing a siege. This was rendered difficult by the rocky nature of the soil, and it was not till October 17 that the allies were able to open their fire upon the place. The Russians had availed themselves of the interval to fortify it with great skill, and the large fleet shut up in the harbour assisted them with the means of defence.

This siege lasted nearly a twelvemonth, and became one of the most memorable in history. Soon after its commencement, a Russian army of 30,000 men, under Liprandi, endeavoured to raise it by an attack upon our position at Balaklava (Oct. 25), but which after a severe struggle was repulsed. This battle is chiefly memorable by the charge of the light cavalry brigade under the earl of Cardigan, when, by some confusion in the orders, a body of 600 or 700 men charged the whole Russian army, got possession for a little while of their artillery, and cut their way back through a body of 5000 horse, leaving however more than two-thirds of their number upon the field!



On November 5 the Russians, having been reinforced, again attempted our position at Inkermann. Advancing early in the morning under cover of a fog, they took our men somewhat by surprise; but though outnumbered by ten to one, the British troops held their ground with unflinching heroism, till general Canrobert, who had succeeded to the command of the French army after the death of general St. Arnaud, sent a division to their assistance. The Russians were now hurled down the heights, while the artillery made terrible havoc in their serried ranks. Their loss is said to have been as many as the whole number of allies with whom they were engaged. General Pennefather's division, and the brigade of guards under the duke of Cambridge, were the troops principally engaged on this occasion. After this terrible lesson the Russians were cautious of venturing another battle; but the defence of the town was conducted with skill and obstinacy, and many desperate sorties took place. Attempts were made by the fleet under admirals Dundas and Lyons upon the seaward batteries, but they were found to be impregnable. During the winter the men suffered more from the weather on those exposed and stormy heights, and from excessive fatigue, than from the enemy; and their sufferings were increased by the defective and disorganised state of the commissariat department. A young and accomplished lady, named Florence Nightingale, devoted herself to the alleviation of these sufferings; and, proceeding with a staff of nurses to the army hospitals at Scutari, undertook the most repulsive offices in tending the sick and wounded.

§ 18. The misfortunes which overtook the army, and which were attributed to want of care and foresight in the ministry, rendered them very unpopular, and led to the resignation of lord Aberdeen early in 1855. He was succeeded by lord Palmerston as premier. It was expected that the death of the emperor Nicholas, which took place somewhat suddenly, might have led to the re-establishment of peace; but the war was continued under his son and successor Alexander. Its interest was principally concentrated at Sebastopol. The Baltic fleet under admiral Napier, though reinforced by a French squadron, had effected nothing except the destruction of the fortress of Bomarsund in the Aland Islands. In 1855 Napier was superseded by admiral Dundas, who, however, was able to do little more than his predecessor. The Black Sea fleet was more successful. A squadron under sir Edmund Lyons proceeded into the Sea of Azoff, captured Kertch, Yenikale, and other towns, destroying vast granaries whence the Russians chiefly derived their supplies, and thus hastening the surrender of Sebastopol.

While Austria and Prussia, the two states most deeply interested in checking the power of Russia, stood selfishly aloof, the Sardinians, with British aid, despatched a well-equipped little army, under general



de Armorya, to the scene of action, which proved of considerable service. In June lord Raglan was carried off by cholera, and was succeeded in the command by general Simpson. About the same time the French commander, general Canrobert, was superseded by general Pelissier. Soon after the arrival of the latter the French took an outwork called the Mamelon; and on the 5th September the general and final bombardment took place. On the 8th an assault was deemed practicable, and the French effected a lodgment in the fort or tower called the Malakoff. The English storming party also succeeded in gaining possession of the fort called the Redan; but not being properly supported, were obliged ultimately to retire. The possession of the Malakoff, however, which commanded the town, decided its fate, and in the course of the night the Russians evacuated the place.

After the fall of Sebastopol the war was virtually at an end; but we cannot close this account without noticing the heroic defence of Kars in Asiatic Turkey by our countryman general Williams, who commanded the Turkish garrison. Time after time the vastly superior numbers of the Russians, who rushed to the assault, were driven back with terrible loss; and when at length a capitulation became necessary, the conqueror, Mouravieff, dismissed general Williams with all the honours of war, and expressions of the highest admiration for his bravery.

The allied armies established their winter quarters amidst the ruins of Sebastopol, and had the war proceeded there can be little question that the whole of the Crimea would have fallen into their hands; but negotiations for peace, begun under the mediation of Austria, were brought to a happy conclusion in January, 1856. Had it not been for the eagerness of France to terminate the war, better terms might perhaps have been obtained; but on the whole the objects of it may be said to have been accomplished. The Russian protectorate in the Danubian principalities was abolished, the freedom of the Danube and its mouths was established, both Russian and Turkish ships of war were banished from the Black Sea, except a few small vessels necessary as a maritime police, and the Christian subjects of the Porte were placed under the protection of the contracting powers. On these bases a definitive treaty of peace was signed with Russia at Paris (March 30, 1856). The Congress did not separate without coming to an agreement on the long-disputed questions of maritime warfare, by which the rights of neutrals were enlarged and privateering was henceforth to be abolished; but America refused to come in to this arrangement. An omen of the next European question to be brought to the arbitrament of war was given by the presence of count Cavour as plenipotentiary for Sardinia at the congress of Paris.

Meanwhile we had established commercial relations with Japan, and now a new war in China gave occasion for the defeat of Lord Palmerston by the combined vote of the old Whigs, under Lord John Russell, the Peelites, and the "peace party," with the Conservatives (1857). But an appeal to the country returned a new Parliament devoted to Lord Palmerston, whose name became henceforth the watchword of the moderate liberals. Amidst the enthusiasm of foreign and political victory, the blessings of peace and a glorious summer, it was remembered that our Indian Empire had reached its hundredth year; and a proposal had been made to celebrate the centenary of Plassey, when the news came of a mutiny of the sepoys, threatening our very expulsion from the peninsula.

We have already sketched the history of India down to the time of Warren Hastings (see pp. 649-653), who was succeeded as governor-general by Lord Cornwallis. The chief feature in the latter's administration was the reducing of Tippoo Saib, sultan of Mysore, to obedience (1792); but under the weak government of Sir John Shore, the successor of Lord Cornwallis, Tippoo again rose and endeavoured to effect an alliance against us with the French. This attempt was put down under the more vigorous administration of Lord Mornington (Marquess Wellesley), when, under the conduct of General Harris, Tippoo's capital, Seringapatam, was captured by General Baird, and himself slain (May, 1799). Soon afterwards Arthur Wellesley, brother of the governor-general, began to distinguish himself in India. Three Mahratta chieftains—Holkar, Scindiah, and the rajah of Berar—encouraged by French intrigues, having combined against their sovereign the peishwah, residing at Poonah, in the Deccan, the governor-general despatched two armies against them, one commanded by his brother, the other by Lord Lake. The former invaded the territories of the rajah of Berar, took Ahmednuggur, and defeated the rajah and Scindiah at Assaye, although they had 30,000 men and a numerous artillery, commanded by French officers, whilst Wellesley's force was not above a sixth of that number. They were again defeated at Argaum, compelled to sue for peace, and to cede large tracts of valuable territory. Lake was equally successful in northern India. He defeated a large native force under the French general Perron, stormed and took Alighur, and then advanced against Delhi, where the cause of Scindiah was supported by another French officer named Bourguien. After defeating him on the banks of the Jumna, Delhi, the capital of Hindostan, and residence of Shah Alum, the last Mogul emperor, easily fell into Lake's hands. Soon afterwards the capture of Agra, and final defeat of the remnant of Scindiah's forces at Laswara, annihilated his power in that district. By these victories French influence in India was abolished, and a great accession of power and territory accrued to the company.



In 1805 the marquess Wellesley returned home, and lord Cornwallis again assumed the government. He was soon succeeded by lord Minto, but neither of them effected much for our Indian dominion. In 1813 the marquess of Hastings (lord Moira) became governor-general; and under his auspices, and chiefly by the courage and abilities of sir John Malcolm, the Maharattas, and their allies the Pindarees, were reduced to obedience. Lord Hastings held the government till 1823, when he was succeeded by lord William Bentinck. The next event of importance was the war with the Burmese in 1824, who had annoyed Bengal; but they were reduced to obedience in 1826, and ceded several provinces. Lord Combermere reduced Bhurtpore in January of that year, which had resisted the arms of Lake, and was esteemed the strongest fortress in India. In the administration of lord Auckland, Soojah, the expelled usurper of Cabool, was replaced on the throne by the English arms, led by sir John Keane; but in November, 1841, the Affghan insurrection broke out in that city, and the English were obliged to evacuate the country. They endured the most dreadful sufferings in their winter retreat, both from the inclemency of the weather and the attacks of the Affghans. In the Coord Cabool Pass alone no fewer than 3000 men are said to have fallen; and ultimately of the whole retreating army of 17,000 men, scarcely one survived. It was the greatest disaster that the English arms had ever experienced in India. Lord Auckland was superseded in 1842 by lord Ellenborough, who adopted a more vigorous line of policy. General Sale was still holding out at Jelalabad. He was relieved by general Pollock, who afterwards, in conjunction with general Nott, advanced against Cabool, and recovered that city (Sept. 1842). Cabool was then again evacuated, after giving this signal proof that it was not done as a matter of necessity.

§ 20. The Affghan war was followed by the occupation of Scinde, a district on the lower Indus, where our disasters had encouraged a confederacy of the ameers, or princes, against us. This was effected by sir Charles Napier, a Peninsular officer, who in this war displayed feats of the most daring boldness. In the battle of Meeanee (Feb. 17, 1843) he defeated between 30,000 and 40,000 men with a force of only about 2000. This victory was followed by the capture of Hyderabad, the capital. By another victory near that town the whole country was reduced and annexed by lord Ellenborough to the company's dominions. In the same year the district of Gwalior was reduced by generals Gough and Grey. In 1844 lord Ellenborough was succeeded by sir H. Hardinge. In December, 1845, the Sikhs of the Punjab, or Lahore territory, declared war upon us, and, crossing the Sutlej, advanced on Ferozepore. They were the most warlike enemies we had yet encountered in India. The governor-general himself, an experienced officer, and sir Hugh Gough, the



commander-in-chief, both advanced against them. A great many obstinate engagements followed, till at length the victories of Alwal and Sobraon (1846) put an end to the campaign and secured our influence in that country. In 1848, however, the city of Mooltan rose in revolt; and though the courage of lieutenant Edwardes prevented any serious consequences, it held out for some months. This encouraged other Sikh princes, and they made a stand against lord Gough at Chillianwallah, inflicted upon us great loss (Jan. 13, 1849); but in the following month they were defeated and subdued at Goojerat, when lord Dalhousie, now governor-general, annexed the Punjab to the British possessions.

The whole of the Indian peninsula was now subject to our empire from Cape Comorin to the Himalaya mountains and the Indus. Not indeed that all the states were annexed, yet even those that remained under their native princes owed us allegiance, and were subject to our superintendence. The last great acquisition was the annexation of Oude in 1856, effected by a not over-strict regard to the faith of treaties. Our empire seemed too firmly established to be shaken, yet already for some years the elements of mutiny had been fomenting in the Bengal army. Symptoms of a discontented and rebellious spirit had been observed as early as 1844, and many other instances subsequently occurred which were treated with too much leniency and forbearance. At length the introduction of the Enfield rifle necessitated the use of greased cartridges. The grease was mutton fat and wax, but it was whispered among the discontented that it consisted of the fat of swine and cows, abominations both to the Hindoo and the Mahomedan; and it was asserted that the intention was to deprive the Brahmin sepoys of their caste. Symptoms of insubordination and violence began to appear early in 1857. In May many regiments of the Bengal army were in open mutiny. In that month Delhi, the ancient capital of India, and still the residence of the representative of the Moguls, was seized by the insurgents, with all its immense military stores. Although it was the great arsenal of our artillery, it had been left without the protection of a British force. Such was the blind confidence reposed in our sepoys. The capture of Delhi was followed by the revolt of the remaining Bengal regiments. Fortunately the Madras and Bombay armies, with a few exceptions, remained faithful; but almost the whole of Bengal was lost for a time, and many, both in this country and on the continent of Europe, believed that the English would be driven entirely out of India.

Into the horrors of this rebellion, and the determined energy and courage with which it was met, our space will not permit us to enter. It has served to bring out British valour in high relief, and the names of Lawrence, of Havelock, and the other numerous officers



who distinguished themselves at this trying and difficult conjuncture, will not soon die from the memory of their countrymen. The rebellion received a decisive blow by the recapture of Delhi by general Wilson on Sept. 21, 1857; and the subsequent victories of sir Colin Campbell, subsequently made lord Clyde, who went out to India as commander-in-chief, brought the contest to a close.

§ 21. The mutiny of the Bengal army proved the death-blow of the East India Company. This celebrated company, originally an association of merchants for the purpose of trading to the East, had been deprived of its right of commercial privileges upon the renewal of its charter in 1833; but the Court of Directors, elected by the proprietors of East India Stock, still continued to govern India under the superintendence of the Board of Control, originally instituted by Mr. Pitt. (See p. 648.) Upon the meeting of parliament at the beginning of 1858, the prime minister, lord Palmerston, introduced a bill abolishing the East India Company, and placing the government of India in the hands of the crown. But before this bill passed into a law lord Palmerston's ministry was overthrown.

While count Cavour, who had become foreign minister of Sardinia on Jan. 11, 1855, was maturing his schemes for Italian unity, the conspiracy of Orsini to assassinate the emperor of the French, as the chief obstacle to that darling hope, led to results most unexpected (Jan. 14, 1858.) The menaces of certain French officers against England, as the asylum of conspirators, were answered by the revival of the volunteer movement of 1804; and a permanent reserve was thus added to our military force. To assure France that this meant "not defiance but defence," lord Palmerston proposed to raise the crime of conspiring in England against the life of a foreign sovereign from a misdemeanour to a felony (Feb. 8). But the national jealousy for Britain as the sanctuary of political exiles took alarm, and the bill was rejected. Lord Palmerston thereupon resigned office, and lord Derby became prime minister a second time. The new ministry introduced another India bill, which differed in no material point from that of their predecessors. This bill passed through both houses of parliament and received the assent of the crown; and on September 1, 1858, the East India Company, which had founded and governed a mighty empire with pre-eminent ability and success, ceased to exist. India is now governed by a secretary of state,* assisted by a council of 15 members; and the millions of that vast country acknowledge queen Victoria as their only sovereign.

§ 22. The only other legislative measure of this session which

* There are now five secretaries of state; one for home affairs, a second for foreign affairs, a third for the colonies, a fourth for war, and a fifth for India. Previously there had been only been three secretaries; one for home, a second for foreign affairs, and a third for war and the colonies. The last office was divided at the time of the Crimean war



requires notice is the admission of the Jews to parliament. In the following session a single oath was substituted for the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration, required of members of Parliament (April 8, 1859); and this form has since been further amended by the omission of the words objected to by Roman Catholics, who are no longer required to take a separate oath (April 30, 1866). But the attempt of the government to settle the question of further reform in Parliament, which had been agitated for several years, ended in their defeat by 330 votes against 291 (March 31, 1859), which was followed by a dissolution (April 19). The *Sixth Parliament* of queen Victoria was opened on the 31st of May; and, in reply to the speech from the throne, a vote of want of confidence in the ministry was carried by 323 to 310, the earl of Derby resigned office, and lord Palmerston became premier a second time (June 11, 1859).

This fall of lord Derby's second government was hastened by their supposed want of sympathy with the Italian cause, which had now reached the crisis of a war. A scheme for the liberation of Italy from Austrian dominion in the north, and Austrian influence throughout the peninsula, had been concerted between Napoleon III. and count Cavour, who secretly promised the cession of Savoy and Nice to France. An ominous speech of the emperor to the Austrian ambassador, at the usual diplomatic reception on New Year's Day, 1859, sounded the alarm through Europe; and, after fruitless negotiations, the signal for the war was given by a summons from Austria to Sardinia to disarm (April 19), whereupon the French armies slipped the leash and entered Italy. On the 29th of April the Austrians crossed the Ticino, but their defeats at Montebello (May 20) and Magenta (June 4), were followed on the 24th by the decisive victory of the French at Solferino; and at a personal interview at Villafranca Napoleon and Francis Joseph agreed to the terms afterwards embodied in the treaty concluded at Zurich (Nov. 11th). Lombardy was ceded to France, in order to be handed over to Sardinia; but the other arrangements were scattered to the winds by the action of the people, who, in Tuscany, Modena, Parma, and the Roman Legations of Ferrara and Bologna (otherwise called the Romagna), annexed themselves by public votes to the kingdom of Sardinia, which thus included all the ancient territory of Cisalpine Gaul, excepting Venetia, but with Tuscany added. Nor did the patriot movement stop here. Giuseppe Garibaldi—who, with Mazzini and Saffi, had governed Rome and defended it against the French in 1849—landed with a body of volunteers at Marsala in Sicily (May 11th, 1860), and after some hard fighting, won the island, except the citadel of Messina; and then, crossing the Straits, he entered Naples almost alone amidst the cheers both of soldiers



and William (Sept. 8th). Francis II. had fled the day before to Gaeta, the defence of which was protracted, chiefly by the heroism of Queen Caroline, to the 13th of February, 1861. The capitulation of Messina on that day month finished the reduction of the kingdom of the two Sicilies, the people of which had meanwhile voted their union to the other liberated states; and, on the following day (March 14th), Victor Emmanuel accepted the title of *King of Italy*, which was immediately recognized by England (March 30th), in spite of the protest of pope Pius IX., who was still maintained by the French army of occupation in Rome and the patrimony of St. Peter.

§ 23. Meanwhile, at home, lord Palmerston's second ministry strengthened by a reconciliation with the Peelites and with lord John Russell, who accepted the office of foreign secretary, had a prosperous beginning. Mr. Gladstone had long ago marked the year 1860, in which about 2,000,000*l.* were struck off the annual charge of the national debt by the falling in of the "long annuities," as an epoch in our financial system; and now the recovery from the financial pressure of seven troubled years, and the vast expansion of our commerce in consequence of free trade and of the gold discoveries in California, Australia, and Columbia, enabled him to complete the work begun by sir Robert Peel. Richard Cobden (d. April 2, 1865, aged 60), the apostle of free trade in corn, fitly shared the work by negotiating with the emperor Napoleon a treaty of commerce, by which the wines and other productions of France were admitted in exchange for our manufactures, at the apparent cost of a mutual sacrifice of imposts. This memorable year was further marked by the close of the series of wars with China, which had occurred at intervals during twenty years. The allied armies of England and France stormed Peking (Oct. 13, 1860), and lord Elgin negotiated a treaty with a minister who seemed at length to see some of the advantages of foreign commerce.

§ 24. The Italian war postponed for a year the second Decennial Exhibition of Industry in London, which was opened on May 1st, 1862. But this time the queen, whose presence had graced the former ceremony, sat at home a widow, mourning his loss who had then assisted at the triumph of industry, which he had prepared amidst popular coolness and powerful opposition. The prince consort ALBERT died of fever at Windsor, on Saturday, December 14, 1861. He had long been steadily growing in the respect and love of the British people, earned entirely by his merit. When he came to live in England, the popular prejudice against the German connections of our royal family had not died out: and there were some in high places who looked with jealousy upon a prince whose youth had been spent in the cultivation of sound and elegant learning. But he lived down

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all these prejudices by abstaining as well from party politics as from the meaner temptations of his lofty place. He was ready to aid in every well-planned scheme of social improvement; and his speeches on such occasions, which have been collected into a volume by her Majesty's command, are marked as much by freshness of thought and purity of language, as by the earnest desire to do good.

§ 25. Events which were at that time in progress or impending have since developed into momentous results in every quarter of the world. Foremost among them was the civil war, which raged in North America from 1861 to 1865, between the states which were distinguished, from the very foundation of the Union, as the Northern and the Southern. The moderation of both governments, in averting various dangers of collision between England and America, was even outshone by the endurance of the poor and the liberality of the rich in meeting the threatened paralysis of our most extensive branch of industry, through the dearth of cotton. It was now that free trade in articles of necessity proved a social triumph, and the recently created commerce with France went far to make good the loss of that with America.

§ 26. While the Federal principle was subjected to so rude a test in the New World, the Old seemed to be mustering its forces for a contest not less great, upon the principle of "nationalities." The people of Germany awaited the revival of the hopes that had been crushed in 1849; while Italy avowedly held the attitude of an armed truce towards Austria till Venetia should be hers, and refused to gratify Napoleon by resigning her claims on Rome. The emperor generously choose the moment of count Cavour's death to recognize the new kingdom (June, 1861). The impatient enterprise of Garibaldi, for the recovery of Rome, was put down by the troops of Victor Emmanuel at Aspromonte in Calabria (Aug. 29, 1862). Two years later (Sept. 15, 1864) a convention was made between Napoleon III. and the king of Italy, for the evacuation of Rome by the French troops before the end of 1866. The capital of Italy was, by this treaty, transferred to Florence; and the further progress of Italian liberation *seemed* suspended for two years. Few supposed that the peace concluded about the same time by Denmark with Austria and Prussia was the prelude to another act of the same drama.

We refrain from all details of the weary and intricate dispute about the ancient duchies of Holstein and Schleswig, on the base and neck of the Danish peninsula, districts interesting to Englishmen as (in part at least) the cradle of our race. Holstein was a purely German state, a member of the Germanic Confederation, and governed by the king of Denmark only as its duke. Schleswig also had but a personal union with the kingdom; but its popu-



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land contained a large Danish element, and it did not belong to the Germanic confederation. To avoid the dismemberment of the Danish monarchy, the great powers framed an agreement, securing the succession both of Denmark and the duchies to prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein-Glücksberg-Sonderburg (1852). But a new crisis was prepared when Frederick VII., shortly before his death, promulgated a new constitution, which virtually incorporated Schleswig with the kingdom of Denmark (March 30, 1863).

In the autumn Frederick VII. died and was succeeded by Christian IX. as king of Denmark (Nov. 15, 1863). The estates of Holstein at once refused to take the oath of allegiance; prince Frederick, son of the duke of Augustenburg, asserted his right to the duchies, in spite of his father's renunciation; his claim was allowed by the diet at Frankfort, and the troops of Saxony and Hanover marched into Altona to carry out the federal execution threatened against the late king (Nov. 24). But when the diet rejected the joint proposal of Austria and Prussia to confine the federal occupation to Holstein, these two powers came forward as parties to the treaty of 1852, demanded of Denmark the revocation of the constitution of March 30, and followed up the demand by war (Jan. 31, 1864). The gallant resistance of the Danes proved of no avail against overwhelming force; and a conference of the great powers at London having proved fruitless, Denmark yielded, and the duchies of Schleswig, Holstein and Lauenburg were ceded to Austria and Prussia (Oct. 30, 1864). The victors made a provisional arrangement by the convention of Gastein for the occupation of Holstein by Austria, and Schleswig by Prussia, the latter power receiving Lauenburg as her own, or rather (as Bismark declared) as the king's domain (Aug. 26, 1865). But it was now evident that the position of the two powers in the duchies, and their relations to the Frankfort diet, must bring to a crisis their long-suspended rivalry for supremacy in Germany.

§ 27. It was during the brief period of uneasy suspense that the English statesman whose untiring devotion to foreign politics, from before the congress of Vienna, had made his name the admiration or terror of all Europe, closed his public career of threescore years. Henry Temple, Viscount Palmerston in the Irish peerage, died at Brocket Hall, in Hertfordshire, at the age of 81, on the 18th of October, 1865, and was laid between Pitt and Fox in Westminster Abbey on the 27th. Since his return to power in 1859, he had ruled in the character of a mediator between the two great parties of the state; the Whigs accepting him as their head, and the Tories trusting his conservatism. Amidst the changes in Italy, the French commercial treaty and Mr. Gladstone's financial measures, the war in China, and a resolution to fortify our shores afresh, the House

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Commons turned a deaf ear to proposals for organic change. The new Reform Bill introduced by lord John Russell, in accordance with the vote by which the late government fell, having been encountered by repeated postponements and amendments, was withdrawn on the anniversary of lord Derby's resignation (June 11, 1860); and, in the following year, the veteran reformer was called to the House of Peers by the title of earl Russell, still retaining the foreign secretaryship (July 30, 1861). The session of 1861 was a season of party truce, which was prolonged from regard to the sovereign's sorrow under her great bereavement; while the sufferings of our industrial classes and the constant danger to our peace, from the great American war, followed by the troubles in Poland and Denmark, caused universal dislike to any change of administration. A revolution occurred in Greece, by which king Otho was expelled (Oct. 24, 1862), and the crown, after being refused by prince Alfred, was conferred on prince William George of Denmark, brother of the princess of Wales, by the title of George I., king of the Hellenes; and, by England's voluntary act, the Ionian isles were united to that kingdom (June 1, 1864). The growing prosperity of the country enabled Mr. Gladstone to carry on his financial policy by large remissions of taxation in his budgets from 1861 to 1866. Meanwhile the government was personally weakened by the successive deaths of the right hon. Sidney Herbert, shortly after his elevation to the peerage as lord Herbert of Lea (Aug. 2, 1861), of sir George Cornwall Lewis (April 13, 1863), and of the duke of Newcastle (April 25, 1864); while the earl of Elgin, like his predecessors the earl of Dalhousie and earl Canning, only returned from his government of India to die (Nov. 20, 1863). The Parliament elected in 1859 was dissolved at the end of the session of 1865, in anticipation of its natural decease under the septennial act, which would have taken place in the middle of the ensuing session. Besides the praise due to its commercial legislation, it had sanctioned works of public improvement, not only by their greatness "imperial works and worthy kings," but eminently conducive to public health and comfort. Chief among these were the drainage of London and the embanking of the Thames.

§ 28. When the elections held in the summer of 1865 were calculated to have given a majority of about 80, whether to the liberal party or to the personal policy of lord Palmerston, and every one was asking if the octogenarian premier would begin another period of political quietude, his death altered the whole state of affairs. The premiership was entrusted, for the third time, to earl Russell, and Mr. Gladstone undertook to lead the House of Commons. The queen opened her *Seventh* Parliament (Feb. 6, 1866) in person, for the first time since the prince Consort's death. On Monday, the 12th of March,



Mr. Gladstone brought forward the government scheme of Reform, proposing to extend the franchise to occupiers of houses and land to the annual value of 14*l.* in counties, and 7*l.* in boroughs. But the opposition of the moderate liberals proved fatal; and, after a defeat in committee on Monday, June 18th, the government of earl Russell resigned, and lord Derby became premier for the third time.

§ 29. At the same moment the questions of Schleswig-Holstein and of supremacy in Germany, were settled by the vigorous policy of count Bismark. Italy seized her opportunity, and formed a secret alliance with Prussia against Austria. A campaign of a few weeks' duration ended in the decisive battle of Sadowa (July 3, 1866). Its result was the exclusion of Austria from the German Confederation, the league of Northern Germany under Prussia (which annexed the states of Hanover, Nassau, and Hesse Cassel, and the city of Frankfort), and the union of Venetia to the Italian kingdom, in the autumn of 1866.

§ 30. The Parliamentary Session of 1867 was opened by a declaration by the government of the necessity for a measure of Reform, which ultimately took the shape of household suffrage in towns, conditional upon the payment of rates. Votes were also given to lodgers, and the county franchise was reduced to 12*l.* Scarcely had Parliament re-assembled in 1868, when the earl of Derby retired through ill health, and was succeeded in the premiership by Mr. Disraeli. Amidst the excitement of a new and fierce conflict on the proposal for the disestablishment of the Irish Church, the issue of which was handed over to the future parliament, the measures of reform were completed (at least for the present) by the passing of Reform Bills for Scotland and Ireland and an Act for the better trial of controverted elections. The last Parliament elected under the Reform Act of 1832 was brought to an end by its dissolution on November 11, 1868.

§ 31. On casting a retrospective glance at the period comprised in this book, our attention is chiefly arrested by the progress of the country in material power. The principal steps taken for the advance or security of our political rights may be summed up in a few words: they are—the passing of the Bill of Rights and Act of Settlement, and the securing of the independence of the judges and the liberty of the press, in the reign of William III.; the abolition of general warrants in that of George III.; the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, and the emancipation of the Roman Catholics under George IV.; and the Reform Bills under William IV. and Victoria. The events under the Stuart dynasty had left little to be done for our constitutional freedom, but everything to be achieved for our national greatness. The union with Scotland, and subsequently that with Ireland, combined the three kingdoms into an imperial whole. The position of England as a European power, damaged by the weak or



profligate reigns of the Stuarts, was restored by the wars of William and Anne, and by the military genius of Marlborough. This revived reputation was not ill sustained in the reign of George II. : but it was the struggle for self-preservation forced upon us by the wars with the French republic and empire which displayed all the energy and resources of the nation and made Great Britain the leading power in Europe. During the same period, from our maritime supremacy, our colonial empire received a vast extension. An ill-considered policy cost us indeed the loss of our finest possessions in North America ; but this was soon more than replaced by the subjugation of India, and the establishment of a new empire in the East. Even in America, the Canadas, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, &c., and several of our sugar-colonies, were either retained or newly acquired. In Europe the acquisition of Gibraltar, Malta, and the Ionian Islands secured us the command of the Mediterranean ; in Africa the Cape of Good Hope affords valuable assistance to our Indian commerce. Further southwards, at our very antipodes, Australia and its dependencies will form eventually a new British continent ; and at no very distant period a very large portion of the habitable world will be peopled by a race of Anglo-Saxon origin. Compared with these results the conquests of the Romans, when viewed as to their abiding consequences, will shrink into insignificance. Their settlements, like ours in India, were for the most part mere military occupations—provinces, not colonies ; and did not much serve to spread the Italian race.

§ 32. During the period under review, the trade, wealth, and population of Great Britain have been in a continual progress of rapid increase. They received a considerable impulse during the long and peaceful administration of sir Robert Walpole ; but the beginning of the reign of George III. is the epoch of the great increase of our trade and manufactures. The potteries began to flourish under Wedgewood ; the cotton manufactures were developed in Lancashire and Yorkshire. In 1775 James Watt procured an act vesting in him "the sole use and property of certain steam-engines, commonly called *fire-engines*, of his invention." About the same time Arkwright began to spin by rollers ; James Hargreaves, a poor weaver, invented the spinning-jenny ; Samuel Crompton introduced the mule in 1779. In consequence of these inventions the cotton-manufactures of Manchester and the North increased a hundredfold. In order to convey them, and to facilitate internal traffic, a network of canals was constructed, and the highways were improved : whilst ultimately both these means of conveyance have been in some degree superseded by the invention of railways. The origin of English canals may be dated from the act of 1755. The duke of Bridgewater obtained his first act in 1759. The length of the canals in England now exceeds 2200 miles. Even till towards the end of last century



the roads in many parts of England were execrable. The best coaches on a long journey cleared no more than 4 or 5 miles an hour. After the peace the roads were very much improved by the use of broken stones and granite introduced by M'Adam, and the pace was in many instances accelerated to 10 miles an hour. But this rate, through the introduction of railways, was soon to appear a snail's pace. The first act for a public railway was passed in 1801. It was not intended for passengers. Even the Liverpool and Manchester line was principally constructed with a view to the conveyance of goods; and it was not anticipated that passengers would venture to avail themselves of it to any great extent. But when it was opened in September, 1830, it was found that its greatest success would be derived from the number of persons conveyed by it. An inestimable advantage derived from railways is the facility and cheapness of postal communication. Under the old system, and in the days of mail-coaches, a single letter conveyed 400 miles paid 1s. People wrote no more than they could help, and stratagems of all sorts were used to evade the post; so that between 1815 and 1835 it was found that the post-office revenue had actually decreased, although, in the ratio of the progress of trade and population, it ought to have increased half a million. To improve this state of things, Mr. Rowland Hill's scheme of postal reform, by which the postage of all single letters, to whatever distance carried, was reduced to 1d., was adopted by the ministry, and came into full operation in January, 1840. Many now living remember the introduction of steam-vessels as well as of railroads. The former did not come into general use till after the peace; and went on gradually increasing from 8 English-owned steam-vessels in 1815, to 1142 in 1849. The other wonderful inventions that have been brought into public use during the last half-century—such as gas-lighting, steam-printing, photography, the electric telegraph, &c., and which can be here only indicated—will render it to the future historian one of the most memorable eras of the world.

The progress in our home manufactures and trade was accompanied with a corresponding increase in foreign commerce. The warehousing system, introduced by Mr. Pitt in 1803, by which the duties on goods, instead of being paid immediately on their landing, were collected on their delivery to the purchaser, proved of great service in extending trade by husbanding the capital of our merchants. But above all, the free-trade measures of sir Robert Peel have been attended with the greatest benefit, and promise to augment our commerce to an unlimited amount.

The surprising increase in industry and wealth during the last century has naturally been attended with a corresponding increase of population. Before the establishment in 1801 of a regular census



to be taken every 10 years, there were no means of estimating very accurately the number of the people: but from the best calculation that can be made, it seems probable that the population of England and Wales at the time of the revolution of 1688 did not much exceed 5½ millions. The whole increase during the first four reigns of the Stuart dynasty was not perhaps more than half a million. During the 18th century, and especially in the latter half of that period, the population went on steadily increasing, and the first census of 1801 shows a population in England and Wales of 9,872,980. Since that time the increase has been still more rapid, the last census in 1851 showing a population of 17,927,609. A corresponding increase has also taken place in Scotland and Ireland. It is chiefly among the portion of the people employed in manufactures and trade that this increase has occurred; for while the persons engaged in these occupations have increased at the rate of upwards of 30 per cent., those employed in agriculture have increased only 2½ per cent.

The vast augmentation of the national debt during this period is a remarkable feature in the history of the country. At the accession of the house of Hanover (1714) it did not much exceed 50 millions, and it remained some years at about that amount. Yet in 1736 we find it complained of in the *Craftsman* as the source of all the national distress; and twenty years afterwards it was predicted, in the *Letters* of Samuel Hannay, that if it ever reached 100 millions the nation must become bankrupt. Yet a little afterwards, at the close of George II.'s reign, and chiefly through the wars of that monarch, it had reached upwards of 108 millions without the occurrence of the anticipated consequence. Even Hume, in the 3rd volume of his *History of England*, written in 1778, when the debt was about 150 millions, observed that it "threatened the very existence of the nation." In 1793, when the first war with revolutionary France broke out, the amount of the debt was little short of 228 millions; at the peace of Amiens in 1802 it was nearly 500 millions. From that period till 1815, during the portentous struggle with Napoleon, it was increased, as we have already said, by 224 millions: yet the country seems to carry this burthen with a lighter step than when it was seven times smaller.

§ 33. Turning our view from the material to the moral condition of the nation, we shall also be sensible of a great advance, though not perhaps in the same proportion. With regard to religion, one great feature of the period is the societies that have sprung up with a view to the propagation of Christianity: such as the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge, founded in 1699; the Society for the propagation of the Gospel in foreign parts, established in 1701; the Church Missionary Society, and the British and Foreign Bible Society, both founded in 1801.



includes numerous others. Several of these societies enjoy a revenue upwards of 100,000*l*. The sect of the methodists, founded by Wesley and Whitfield about the middle of last century, is likewise a remarkable growth of the age. The naturally religious disposition of the English has however sometimes a tendency to degenerate into fanaticism; and even in the present enlightened century has occasionally indulged in the most fantastic delusions. Thus in 1814 an old woman named Joanna Southcote, in her 65th year, gave out that she was pregnant with the Shiloh, and found believers even among the educated classes. In 1831 several followers of the celebrated Edward Irving imagined themselves to be endowed with the gift of unknown tongues: and even in the present times we have our Mormons, and other strange sectaries.

§ 34. One great symptom of moral improvement was the mitigation of the severity of our criminal law, introduced about the commencement of the present century by the humane and enlightened sir Samuel Romilly, and afterwards pursued by sir James Macintosh and others. Previous to 1808 the offence of privately stealing 5*s*. from the person was punishable with death, as well as a great many other offences, such as sheepstealing, shoplifting, forgery, &c.; and it was no uncommon thing to see a score of criminals executed together at Newgate on a Monday morning. At length the feeling of juries began to revolt against such exorbitant punishments. They refused to convict, and thus the laws became virtually inoperative. Yet some of the judges, as lord Ellenborough and lord Eldon, continued to support the old system. In 1833 a Royal Commission was first appointed to examine the state of the criminal law. One of the first results of their Report was the bill passed in 1836 for allowing counsel to prisoners indicted for criminal offences; and in 1837 a bill was passed remitting the penalty of death in 21 out of 31 cases in which it was previously inflicted, while in the remaining 10 cases it was considerably restricted. Other ameliorations have subsequently taken place.

The present century has likewise witnessed a great advance in the education of the people, especially of the middle and lower orders. Lord Brougham is the most conspicuous name at the head of this movement, and he has been ably seconded by a host of enlightened men. In 1823 the London Mechanics' Institute was founded, and was soon followed by others in different parts of the country. The establishment of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge in 1826, and the opening of the University of London* in 1828, tended still further to promote sound education,

* The present University of London is a different body, having been founded by the Crown in 1836, with the power to grant degrees in Arts, Law, and Medicine.



especially among the middle classes. The result of all these steps has been a decided improvement in the manners of the people: and drunkenness, debauchery, prize-fighting and other brutal sports, are decidedly less frequent than formerly.

§ 35. Our literature underwent during this period a great revolution. During the earlier part of it the French taste introduced at the Restoration continued to prevail. Style received its last polish from the writers of queen Anne's reign: and in this respect the prose of Bolingbroke, Addison, and Swift, and the versification of Pope, have never been surpassed. This continued to be regarded as the Augustan age of our literature till towards the close of last century. The conventional taste of the latter period is exhibited in the lectures of Blair and the criticisms of Dr. Johnson. Even the great writers of the Elizabethan age were almost ignored, and any poet before Waller was scarcely deemed worth opening. But a taste for our older literature was even then beginning to spring up, and was fostered by the writings and the editorial cares of Warton, Tyrwhitt, and others. At present our more cosmopolitan taste, though still ready to do justice to the polish and sparkle of queen Anne's authors, can at the same time relish more nature and profundity. Cowper introduced a new school of domestic poetry, which, if not so brilliant, was at all events more natural than the preceding one. The French revolution shook the European world of thought to its centre, and opened up fresh veins of literature. Subsequently the study of the German writers has introduced new elements of thought. The greatest names of the present century—we speak not of living writers—are those of Coleridge, Wordsworth, Southey, Scott, Crabbe, Campbell, Byron, and Moore. One of the most marked features of the later period is the increase of periodical literature: our grandfathers were content with the Gentleman's Magazine and one or two other reviews and periodicals: at present they may be counted by the score.

This period may be said to have witnessed the birth of a British school of art. Till about the middle of last century and the time of sir Joshua Reynolds and Hogarth, we can hardly be said to have had an English school of painting; but at the present time, illustrated as it is by the names of Gainsborough, Wilson, Wilkie, Turner, Lawrence, and a long list of eminent artists, we need not shrink from a comparison with any modern school. In sculpture our progress has not been so decided: yet we may point with satisfaction to the names of Chantrey, Bailey, Westmacott, and others.



CSL

CHRONOLOGY OF REMARKABLE EVENTS.

A.D.

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| <p>1820. Accession of George IV.
 „ Trial of queen Caroline.
 1821. Death of queen Caroline.
 1827. Canning prime minister. His death. Lord Goderich prime minister.
 1828. Duke of Wellington prime minister.
 „ Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts.
 1829. Catholic Relief Bill.
 1830. Death of George IV. and accession of William IV.
 „ French Revolution.
 „ Resignation of the Duke of Wellington. Earl Grey prime minister.
 1831. Parliamentary Reform Bill introduced.
 1832. Parliamentary Reform Bill passed.
 1833. Abolition of slavery.
 1834. Lord Melbourne prime minister.
 „ Sir Robert Peel prime minister.
 1835. Lord Melbourne's second administration.
 1837. Death of William IV. and accession of queen Victoria.
 1841. Sir Robert Peel's second administration.
 1846. Repeal of the corn-laws.
 „ Resignation of sir Robert Peel. Lord John Russell prime minister.
 1847. Irish famine.
 1848. French Revolution.
 1850. Death of sir Robert Peel.</p> | <p>1852. Resignation of lord John Russell. Lord Derby prime minister. Resignation of lord Derby. Coalition ministry, with lord Aberdeen prime minister.
 „ Death of the duke of Wellington.
 1854. The Russian War.
 1855. Resignation of lord Aberdeen. Lord Palmerston prime minister.
 1856. Peace with Russia.
 1857. Revolt of the Bengal army.
 1858. Resignation of lord Palmerston. Lord Derby prime minister a second time.
 „ Abolition of the East India Company.
 1859. Resignation of lord Derby. Lord Palmerston's second ministry.
 „ War between France and Austria.
 1860. Establishment of the kingdom of Italy.
 1861. Death of the Prince Consort.
 1864. War between Germany and Denmark.
 1865. Death of lord Palmerston. Lord Russell prime minister a third time.
 1866. Resignation of lord Russell. Lord Derby prime minister a third time.
 „ War between Austria and Prussia. Battle of Sadowa.
 1867. Second Reform Bill.
 1868. Resignation of lord Derby. Mr. Disraeli prime minister.</p> |
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NOTES AND ILLUSTRATIONS.

A. POOR LAWS.

In the statute 12 Rich. II. (1388) we first find mention of the "impotent poor," who are directed to remain and abide in certain places; either those in which they were at the time of the proclamation of the statute, or the places in which they were born. But no provision is made for their maintenance. Indeed, during the Roman catholic times, begging was allowed on the part of the impotent poor, who were chiefly sup-

ported by the abbeys, convents, and other religious establishments. Thus, even so late as 1530, just before the breach with Rome, the statute 22 Hen. VIII. c. 10, which inflicts severe punishment on sturdy vagabonds and valiant beggars "being whole and mighty in body," allows the aged and impotent poor to beg and live off alms, provided they confined themselves to certain districts; and they received a letter authorising them to beg within those limits. The chief object in all the early enact-



ments upon pauperism was to restrain vagrancy. The first act for the relief of the impotent poor was passed in 1535 (27 Hen. VIII. c. 25), by which collections were ordered to be made in the parishes for their support. But by the same statute incorrigible vagrancy is, on a third conviction, made felony, with the penalty of death. The dissolution of the religious houses in that reign had the effect both of increasing the number of vagabonds and beggars and of diminishing their means of support. The increase of pauperism is shown by several severe statutes on the subject passed in the short reign of Edward VI. But at the same time provision was made for the relief of the poor; and the voluntary collections, such as had been first ordered under 27 Hen. VIII. c. 25, were by a long series of statutes almost insensibly converted into compulsory assessments.

At length, by the 43 Eliz. c. 2 (1601), compulsory assessment for the relief of the poor was fully established; and this statute was till recent times the text-book of the English poor-law. The overseers of each parish were directed by this statute to raise by taxation the necessary sums "for providing a sufficient stock of flax, hemp, wool, and other ware or stuff, to set the poor on work, and also competent sums for relief of lame, blind, old, and impotent persons, and for putting out children as apprentices." The justices were empowered to send to prison all persons who would not work, and to assess all persons of sufficient means for the relief of their children and parents. Power was given to the parish officers to build, at the expense of the parish, poorhouses for the reception of the impotent poor only. These are the chief provisions of this celebrated statute. Workhouses were first established in 1722 by 9 Geo. I. c. 7. They were not at first intended so much as a refuge for the poor, or as a test by which real destitution might be discerned, but, as their name implies, with a view to derive profit from the labours of the poor. The workhouses were in fact a kind of manufactories carried on at the risk of the poor-rate; and though they at first diminished the cost of relief, they ultimately increased it, by pauperising the independent labourer. In the reign of George II. the amount expended in relief was under three-fourths of a

million. In 1775 it amounted to 1,720,000*l.* From that period it went on rapidly increasing, and in 1813 it reached its maximum of nearly 8 millions. This large fund was subject to great abuses of administration, which begot habits of improvidence among the poor by encouraging early marriages, &c. Labourers' wages were frequently paid in part from it; and thus a portion of the farmer's labour was done at the expense of the parish. At length in 1832 a commission was appointed to inquire into the practical operation of the poor-laws. In February, 1834, they made their report, and a bill founded upon it, the Poor Law Amendment Act, was soon afterwards introduced by Lord Althorp, and received the royal assent August 14, 1834. By this act all bodies charged with the relief of the poor are placed under the control of a central board of three commissioners, who are to make rules and regulations, binding upon the local boards. One important power given to them is that of uniting several parishes for the purpose of a more economical administration. The system of paying wages out of the poor-rate is abolished; and, except in extreme cases, to be determined by the commissioners, relief is only given to the able-bodied poor within the workhouse. After this period, in the face of a rapidly-increasing population, the sums expended have rapidly diminished. On this subject see Sir G. Nicholls' *Hist. of the English Poor-Law*, 2 vols. 8vo; Porter's *Progress of the Nation*, sect. i. ch. 4; and the article PAUPERISM in the *Penny Cyclopædia*.

B. CORN LAWS.

The earliest enactments on this subject were to forbid the exportation of corn, while its importation was freely admitted; but in later times the policy of the legislature was altogether different. The first statute extant on corn is the 34 Edw. III. c. 20 (1360), which forbids its exportation, except to certain places where it was necessary to the king's interest, and to be named by him. At a later period, in the reigns of Richard II. and Henry VI., we find this policy reversed, and liberty given to export to any places; though subject, in the latter reign, to restriction in case the price of corn reached 6s. 8d the



quarantine. Since no attempt was made to prevent the importation of corn, it may infer that it was produced in England as cheap, or cheaper, than in neighbouring countries. In the reign of Edward IV. we find the first protective law in favour of the agriculturist, importation of corn being forbidden by 3 Edw. IV. c. 2, unless the price of wheat exceeded 6s. 8d. the quarter. But, from some cause or another, agriculture seems to have much declined in England towards the end of the reign of Henry VIII. and in that of Edward VI., which was probably in some degree owing to the great change of property consequent on the dissolution of the abbey and religious houses. Thus the statute 25 Hen. VIII. c. 2 positively forbids the exportation of corn; and the statute 5 and 6 Edw. VI. c. 5, entitled 'An Act for the Maintenance and Increase of Tillage and Corn,' attempted to make the cultivation of corn compulsory, by exacting a fine of 5s., payable by each parish on every acre of land in each deficient in tillage when compared with the quantity that had been tilled at any period after the accession of Henry VIII.

The act of Hen. VIII. forbidding the exportation of corn was repealed in the reign of Mary; but the price at which exportation was allowed was gradually raised, till in 1670 it was enacted that wheat might always be exported as long as it was under 53s. 4d. a quarter. At the same time heavy import duties were imposed; and the design of the legislature seems to have been to keep wheat at an average of about 53s. 4d. Nay, in 1689 the landowners obtained the payment of a bounty of 5s. per quarter on the exportation of wheat when the price did not exceed 48s., and on other grain in proportion. These bounties were not repealed by law till 1815, though they had been for some time virtually inoperative.

Regulations were also made respecting the home trade in corn; and in the reign of Elizabeth it was made an offence, under the name of *engrossing*, and punishable with imprisonment or the pillory, to buy corn in one market in order to sell it in another. The act 15 Chas. II. c. 7 legalised engrossing when the price of wheat did not exceed 48s. Till a very recent period engrossing continued to be regarded by public opinion as a

heinous offence, and even Lord Kenyon violently denounced from the bench a corn-factor accused of it.

By a bill of 1773 importation was allowed at the nominal duty of 6d. whenever the price of wheat should be above 48s. Subsequently, in 1791 and 1804, this price was raised to 54s. and 63s.; and in 1815 the importation of wheat for home consumption was positively forbidden when the price was under 80s., and other corn in proportion. Various modifications were introduced between that time and 1829, when the principle of a graduated duty or sliding scale was introduced; the duty, when the price was 62s., being 24s. 8d., and gradually diminishing as the price advanced, till at 73s. and upwards it fell to 1s. The operation of this principle, however, was found to be inconvenient and unsalutary; and at length, by Peel's bill of 1846, of which an account has been given in the text, the trade in corn was ultimately left entirely free. See the article Corn in the *Penny Cyclopædia*.

C. NAVIGATION LAWS.

The first Navigation Act was introduced by Whitelock in the time of the Commonwealth (1651), and was intended as a blow to Dutch commerce; but the act which till very recently formed the foundation of our commercial system in this respect was the 12 Chas. II. c. 18. By this act it was provided that no goods should be imported into England from Asia, Africa, or America, except in an English-built ship, navigated by an English master, and having at least three-fourths of its crew English. With regard to Europe, goods imported into England from any European state in a foreign ship were subject to a higher rate of duty than if imported in an English one. The first deviation from this act arose from the treaty of Ghent with the United States of America in 1815. The States, soon after the establishment of their independence, had retaliated on England by a navigation law similar to her own; but this restrictive system was mutually found to be so inconvenient and unprofitable, that it was abandoned at the period mentioned, and the ships of the two countries placed reciprocally on the same footing. With this exception, all the provisions of the act were maintained till 1822, when



Mr. Wallace, president of the Board of Trade, introduced five bills effecting various important relaxations. The provisions respecting Asia, Africa, and America were repealed, and also that clause which forbade foreign goods to be brought to England from Europe in a foreign ship, except direct from the place of production, and in ships belonging to the country of production. Certain enumerated goods were also allowed to be brought from any port in Europe in ships belonging to the port of shipment; and Dutch ships, which by the Navigation Act were forbidden to enter English ports with cargo, were placed on the same footing as those of other nations. Other relaxations were made in favour of our West India colonies.

In the following year, the Prussians having notified that unless some relaxation were made in favour of their ships heavy retaliatory duties would be imposed on English ships entering their ports, Mr. Huskisson, now at the head of the Board of Trade, introduced what are called the Reciprocity Acts (4 Geo. IV. c. 77 and 5 Geo. IV. c. 1), by which the king was authorised to permit, by order in council, the importation and exportation of goods in foreign vessels at the same duties as those imported in British vessels were liable to, in the case of those countries that should levy no discriminating duties on goods imported in British vessels; and the vessels themselves of such countries were to pay no higher tonnage duties than were chargeable on British vessels. On the other hand, power was given to impose additional duties on the goods and shipping of those countries which should levy higher duties on British vessels than on their own. Under these acts treaties of reciprocity were concluded with most of the principal nations of the world. But in 1849, in the ministry of Lord John Russell, and on the motion of Mr. Lauchlin, the navigation laws were partially repealed.—See Porter's *Progress of the Nation*, sect. iii. ch. 9.

D. AUTHORITIES FOR THE PERIOD COMPRISED IN BOOK VI.

The principal authorities for the reigns of William III. and Anne are—Bishop Burnet's *History of his Own Times*; Evelyn's *Diary*; Principal Carstairs' *State Letters and Papers*; Macpherson's *Original Papers* (1688-1714); Macpherson's *Hist. of Great Britain from the Restoration to the House of Hanover*; Harris, *Hist. of Life and Reign of William III.*; Coxe, *Correspondence of the Duke of Shrewsbury with King William*; Bolingbroke's *Letters and Correspondence*; Somerville's *Political Transactions from Restoration to end of William III.*; *Mémoires du Duc de Berwick*; Ker of Kersland's *Memoirs of Secret Transactions*; Boyer's *Annals of the Reign of Queen Anne*; Lockhart's *Memoirs and Commentaries on the Affairs of Scotland*; Coxe, *Memoirs and Correspondence of the Duke of Marlborough*; *The Letters and Despatches of John Duke of Marlborough, 1702-1712*, edited by General Sir G. Murray; Swift's *Four last Years of the Reign of Queen Anne*; Somerville's *Hist. of Great Britain during the Reign of Queen Anne*.

It would be quite impossible within the limits of this work to recite all the works that might be used for the Georgian era, and we shall therefore content ourselves with indicating a few of the principal ones: Coxe, *Memoirs of Sir Rob. Walpole*; idem, *Memoirs of the Pelham Administration*; Dr. Wm. King's *Anecdotes of his Own Times* (relating to the pretender Charles Edward); Bubb Doddington's *Diary* (1749-1761); Orford, (H. Walpole), *Mem. of last Ten Years of George II.*; *Mem. of Reign of King George III.*; the *Annual Register* (commencing 1758); Lord Mahon's *Hist. of England, from Peace of Utrecht to Peace of Versailles, 1763*; Adolphus, *Hist. of George III.*; Craik and M'Farlane's *Pictorial History during Reign of George III.*; H. Martineau, *Hist. of England during Thirty Years' Peace*, &c.



TABLE OF THE PRINCIPAL CONTEMPORARY EUROPEAN

The Years show the com-

ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.
William I. . . . 1066	Malcolm III. . . . 1057	Philip I. . . . 1060
William II. . . . 1087	Donald VII. . . . 1093	
Henry I. . . . 1100	Duncan II. . . . 1094	
	Donald VII. restored.	
	Edgar 1098	Louis VI. . . . 1108
	Alexander 1107	
	David 1124	Louis VII. . . . 1137
Stephen 1135		
Henry II. . . . 1154	Malcolm IV. . . . 1153	
	William the Lion . . 1165	Philip II. . . . 1180
Richard I. . . . 1189		
John. . . . 1193	Alexander II. . . . 1214	Louis VIII. . . . 1223
Henry III. . . . 1216		Louis IX. . . . 1226
	Alexander III. . . . 1249	
		Philip III. . . . 1270
Edward I. . . . 1272		
	Margaret 1285	Philip IV. . . . 1285
	John Balliol 1292	
Edward II. . . . 1307	Robert I. (Bruce) . . 1306	Louis X. . . . 1314
		Philip V. . . . 1316
Edward III. . . . 1327	David II. (Bruce) . . 1329	Charles IV. . . . 1322
	Edward Balliol. . . . 1332	Philip VI. . . . 1328
	David II. restored . . 1342	John II. . . . 1350
		Charles V. . . . 1364
	Robert II. (Stuart). . 1371	
Richard II. . . . 1377		Charles VI. . . . 1380
Henry I. . . . 1399	Robert III. . . . 1390	
	James I. . . . 1406	
Henry V. . . . 1413		Charles VII. . . . 1422
Henry VI. . . . 1422	James II. . . . 1437	
Edward IV. . . . 1461	James III. . . . 1460	Louis XI. . . . 1461

SOVEREIGNS FROM THE PERIOD OF THE CONQUEST.

mencement of their Reigns.

GERMANY.	SPAIN.	POPES
Henry IV. . . . 1056	CASTILE.	Alexander II. . . . 1061
	Sancho II. . . . 1065	Gregory VII. . . . 1073
	Alfonso VI. . . . 1072	Victor III. . . . 1086
Henry V. . . . 1106	Alfonso VII. . . . 1109	Urban II. . . . 1088
Lothaire II. . . . 1125	Alfonso VIII. . . . 1226	Pascal II. . . . 1099
Conrad III. . . . 1138	Sancho III. . . . 1157	Gelasius II. . . . 1118
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	Frederick William I. 1713	Republic 1848
	Frederick II. (the Great) 1740	Napoleon III. em- peror 1853
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Victoria 1837	Frederick William IV. 1840	

LIST OF THE ARCHBISHOPS OF CANTERBURY

1533. Thomas Cranmer. Burnt at Oxford Mar 21, 1555.	1633. William Laud. Translated from London. Beheaded Jan. 10, 1645. The See vacant 14 years.
1536. Reginald Pole, Cardinal. Ob. Nov. 17, 1558.	1660. William Juxon. Translated from London. Ob. June 4, 1663.
1559. Matthew Parker. Ob. May 17, 1575.	1663. Gilbert Sheldon. Translated from London. Ob. Nov. 9, 1677.
1576. Edmund Grindal. Translated from York. Ob. July 6, 1583.	1678. William Sancroft. Deprived Feb. 1, 1691. Ob. Nov. 24, 1693.
1583. John Whitgift. Translated from Worcester. Ob. Feb. 29, 1604.	1691. John Tillotson. Ob. Nov. 22, 1694.
1604. Richard Bancroft. Translated from London. Ob. Nov. 2, 1610.	1694. Thomas Tenison. Translated from Lincoln. Ob. Dec. 14, 1715.
1611. George Abbot. Translated from London. Ob. Aug. 4, 1633.	



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		Adrian VI. . . . 1522
		Clement VII. . . . 1523
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		Marcellus II. . . . 1555
		Paul IV. . . . 1555
		Pius IV. . . . 1559
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		Clement IX. . . . 1667
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		Gregory XVI. . . . 1831
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Ferdinand 1835	Jos. Bonaparte. . . . 1814	
Francis Joseph . . . 1848	Isabella II. . . . 1843	

FROM THE TIME OF THE REFORMATION.

1715. William Wake. Translated from Lincoln. Ob. Jan. 24, 1737.	1783. John Moore. Translated from Bangor. Ob. Jan. 18, 1805.
1737. John Potter. Translated from Oxford. Ob. Oct. 10, 1747.	1805. Charles Manners Sutton. Translated from Norwich. Ob. July 21, 1828.
1747. Thomas Herring. Translated from York. Ob. Mar. 13, 1757.	1823. William Howley. Translated from London. Ob. Feb. 11, 1848.
1757. Matthew Hutton. Translated from York. Ob. Mar. 19, 1758.	1848. John Bird Sumner. Translated from Chester. Ob. 1862.
1758. Thomas Seeker. Translated from Oxford. Ob. Aug. 3, 1769.	1862. Charles Thomas Longley. Translated from York. Ob. Oct. 27, 1868.
1768. Frederick Cornwallis. Translated from Lichfield and Coventry. Ob. Mar. 19, 1783.	1868. Archibald Campbell Taft. Translated from London.



GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.

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GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.

GEORGE I. (son of the duke of Brunswick Lüneburg, afterwards elector of Hanover, and Sophia, youngest child of the elector Palatine and Elizabeth, eldest daughter of James I.—see p. 300.) b. May 23, 1690. d. June 11, 1727. m. Sophia Dorothy of Zellö.

GEORGE II.
b. Oct. 23, 1703. d. Oct. 23, 1760. m. Wilhelmina Carolina of Brandenburg-Anspach.

Sophia Dorothy,
m. 1706, Frederick William, afterwards king of Prussia.

Frederick, prince of Wales,
b. Jan. 20, 1707. d. Jan. 29, 1751.
m. Augusta of Saxo Gothia.

William Augustus,
duke of Cumberland,
b. 1721. d. 1765.
(unm.)

Anne,
m. prince of Orange.
d. 1739.

Amelia,
d. 1766.
(unm.)

Elizabeth,
d. 1758.
(unm.)

Mary,
m. Landgrave of Hesse
Cassel, d. 1771
(leaving issue).

Louisa,
m. Frederick V.
king of Denmark, d. 1731
(leaving issue).

GEORGE III.
b. June 4, 1738. d. Jan. 29, 1820.
m. Sophia Charlotte of
Mecklenburg Strelitz.

Edward Augustus,
duke of York,
d. 1767.
(unm.)

William Henry,
duke of Gloucester,
b. 1743. d. 1805.
m. countess Waldegrave.

Henry Frederick,
duke of Cumberland,
b. 1745. d. 1790.
m. lady Luttrell
(no issue).

Augusta,
m. duke of Brun-
swick-Wolfenbützel.

Caroline Matilda,
m. Christian VII. king of Denmark.
Frederick, king of Denmark.

Frederick William,
duke of Gloucester.
b. 1776. d. 1834.
m. princess Mary, daughter of
George III. (no issue).

Sophia Matilda,
b. 1773. d. 1844.

Charles Frederick William,
duke of Brunswick, fell at Quatre
Bras, June 16, 1815.

Charlotte,
m. duke of
Württemberg,
d. 1783.

CAROLINE,
m. George, prince of Wales
(George IV.). d. Aug. 7, 1821

Charles Frederick, duke of Brunswick, b. 1804. Charles Maximilian, duke of Brunswick, after his brother's expulsion, b. 1806.

GEORGE IV.
b. Aug. 12, 1762.
d. June 26, 1830.
m. Caroline of
Brunswick.

Frederick,
duke of York,
b. 1763.
d. 1827.
m. Frederick
of Prussia
(no issue).

WILLIAM IV.
duke of Clarence,
b. Aug. 24, 1765.
d. June 20, 1837.
m. Adelaide of
Saxe-Meiningen
(no surv. issue).

Edward,
duke of
Kent,
b. 1767.
d. 1820.
m. Victoria,
of Saxe
Coburg
Saulfeld.

Ernest,
duke of
Cumberland
and king of
Hanover,
b. 1771.
d. 1851.
m. Frederica
of Mecklenburg
Strelitz.

Augustus
Frederick,
duke of
Sussex,
b. 1773.
d. 1843.

Adolphus
Frederick,
duke of
Cambridge,
b. 1774.
d. 1850.
m. Augusta of
Hesse Cassel.

Charlotte,
b. 1769.
d. 1828.
m. king of
Württemberg
(no issue).

Augusta,
b. 1768.
d. 1840
(unm.).

Elizabeth,
b. 1770.
d. 1840.
m. landgrave
of Hesse
Homburg
(no issue).

Mary,
b. 1776.
d. 1840.
m. her
cousin, the
duke of
Gloucester
(no issue).

Sophia,
b. 1777.
d. 1848
(unm.).

Amelia,
b. 1783.
d. 1810
(unm.).

Princess
Charlotte,
b. Mar. 7, 1796.
d. Nov. 6, 1817.
m. Leopold of
Saxe-Coburg,
now king of
the Belgians
(no surv. issue).

VICTORIA.
b. May 24, 1819.
m. Feb. 10, 1840, ALBERT,
second son of Ernest I.,
duke of Coburg and Gotha, b. 1812,
d. Dec. 14, 1861.

George V.
ex-king of
Hanover,
b. 1819
(has issue).

George,
duke of
Cambridge,
b. 1819.

Augusta,
b. 1822.
m. duke of
Mecklenburg Strelitz,
June 28, 1843
(has issue).

Mary
Adelaide,
b. 1833.
m. prince of Teck,
June 12, 1866
(has issue).

Albert, prince of Wales,
b. Nov. 9, 1841.
m. princess Alexandra
of Denmark,
March 10, 1863
(has issue).

Alfred,
duke of
Edinburgh.
b. Aug. 6, 1844.

Arthur,
b. May 1, 1850.

Leopold,
b. Apr. 7, 1853.

Victoria, princess royal,
b. Nov. 21, 1840.
m. Frederick, prince
of Prussia,
Jan. 25, 1858
(has issue).

Alice,
b. Apr. 25, 1843.
m. Louis,
prince of Hesse,
July 1, 1862
(has issue).

Helena,
b. May 25, 1846.
m. Christian p. of
Augustenburg,
July 5, 1866
(has issue).

Louisa,
b. Mar. 18, 1848.

Beatrice,
b. Apr. 14, 1857.

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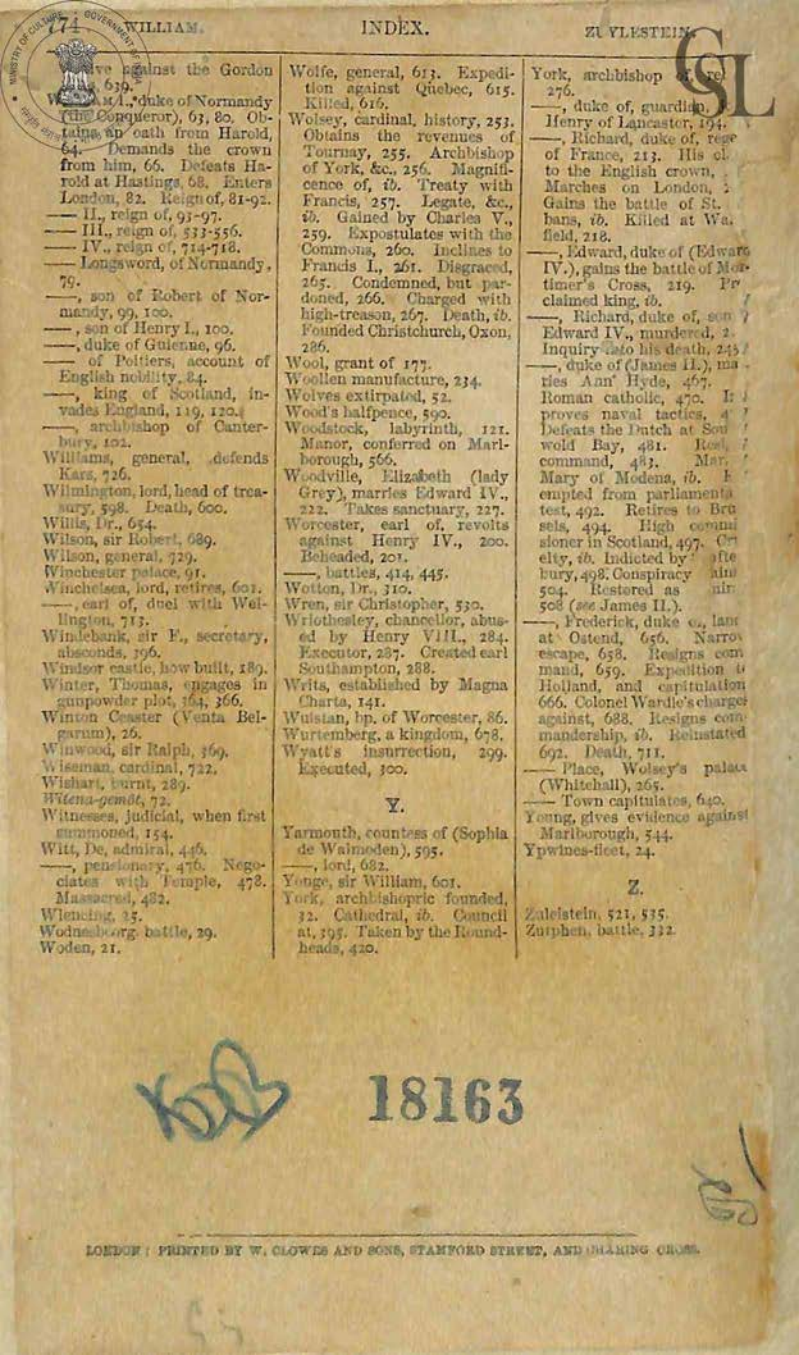
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